



**The Moderating Effect of Social Media
Involvement and Brand Love on the Consumer
Perceived Values and Purchasing Intention of
Fast-Fashion Products**

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Philosophy

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Abstract

The concept of “*customer perceived value*” has been evolving as an essential area within the marketing discipline for decades. Knowing what shapes consumer perception towards a product or service is vital for businesses (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001), especially for fashion products whose trends are ever-changing. Nevertheless, in the technology era, fashion consumers tend to use the spectrum of media platforms to search for information, to compare prices and exchange experiences amongst a common group. According to McKinsey and Company (2014), up to 35% of fashion consumers rely on online recommendations prior to making a purchasing decision.

Given the challenges in this area of business, the aim of this study is to develop the multidimensional scale to measure consumer social media involvement. The measurement scale has been tested in the conceptual models by investigating the moderating effect of social media involvement influencing the relationships of customer perceived value and purchasing intention. The proposed scale is also examined within the customer perceived value dimensions against the key consequences. Moreover, the concept of brand love is incorporated within this study. Sometimes, people purchase brand not product itself and brand love construct is recently new concept and limited studies investigated into this area. Therefore, this study focuses on the moderating effect of social media involvement and brand love towards customer perceived value and purchasing intention for fast-fashion products.

A quantitative research method was undertaken to collect research data. The self-administered questionnaires were completed by Thai consumers at three particular department stores located in central Bangkok. The data analysis was then performed based on the returned, completed questionnaires of 630 respondents. Both exploratory and confirmatory analysis techniques were used to validate the measurement scale of the study. Structural equation modelling was conducted to test the hypotheses of both direct and indirect relationships.

The quantitative results show customer perceived value from multiple dimensions (social, emotional, price and quality) towards fast fashion products. It was found that there is a direct causal relationship between the customer perceived value and

purchasing intention, influenced by the level of social media involvement and brand love. An individual who has a high level of social media involvement and brand love tends to perceive a greater consumption experience which lead to preceding the positive outcomes. Therefore, fashion retailers should consider these dimensions and maintain a favourable relationship to enhance the consumer perception experience. Moreover, utilising the advantages from social media to connect with customers should not be neglected. However, the results showed that not all dimensions were found to have a positive effect on consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products equally; hence, the fashion marketers should deliberately evaluate each dimension of desired customer perceived value prior to applying a particular strategic plan. Moreover, the findings of this study are of the greatest importance to consumer behaviour especially in the area of involvement by extending the further knowledge. Social media involvement measurement scale has been developed from the limitation of existing studies by incorporated multi-facet dimensions (affective, cognitive and behavioural involvement) in the way to capture the complex nature of involvement variables. Furthermore, the model framework demonstrated the motive force behind behavioural intention by investigating the moderating role of social media involvement and brand love within the fast fashion products.

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CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

When consumers start to evaluate a product, instead of asking the price they weigh up its perceived value first. In business, an accepted barometer for a company's success is to maximise consumer value in order to sustain competitive advantages, but it is a complicated task for firms to truly understand what consumers really value in a specific product. Moreover, unfortunately, universal value blocks do not exist; market phenomena always create new ways to deliver superior value to serve their consumers. Every consumer perceives value differently, hence this leads to problems for companies in today's attention economy. Therefore, understanding which value dimension is an important factor in influencing purchasing intention is vital.

Furthermore, there is a dearth of studies analysing the relationship between consumers' perceived value, social media involvement and purchasing intention. In the digital frontier, market composition has been transformed because of numerous instruments incorporated in business. Social media users, especially in Asia Pacific, rate highly, with a 14 % increase in the year 2016 (Chaffey, 2017). With these market changes, maximising advantages by competing through consumer-related processes is important. Sometimes, companies underestimate the benefit of innovative technology such as social media. As the choice of web-based services grows, consumers have wider opportunities to satisfy their needs. Businesses are allowed to interact with their consumers via the virtual world or social media to foster an individual to decide on whatever social media can meet consumers' needs.

It can be seen that social media has the potential to affect consumer's perception and behaviour (Williams and Jothrell, 2000). In particular, there have been few empirical studies to investigate the role of consumer purchasing intention across different consumer segments. Hence this research shows that consumer social media involvement could potentially moderate the relation process. Given that consumer involvement is significant to consumer purchasing intention (Zaihckowsky, 1985), the fashion industry could effectively enhance the relationship between consumer perceived value and purchasing intention by targeting involvement.

Derived from previous knowledge, one more driver underlying consumer decision making towards a product is brand. An emerging brand concept that has been attracting attention from marketers and researchers is brand love, which involves both emotional and cognitive characteristics towards a brand. However, previous studies from Pong et al., (2007) propose that consumers tend to view their love for a brand as a partner of their interfaces which is expected to increase the possibility that an individual has a stronger intention to purchase (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Hence this research focuses on extending a broader understanding of the moderating role of brand love on the relationship between consumer perceived value and consumer purchasing intention for fast fashion products to identify the role of brand love on the consumer decision making process. Even with the growth in literature regarding brand love, existing studies rather concentrate on its conceptualisation (Albert and Merunka, 2013). There is a lack of studies considering the consequence of brand love as it is described as the relation paradigm which pertains to relate to other constructs (Fournier, 1988).

1.2 Theoretical Background : Consumer Perceived Value

To compete with competitors in the market, there are two generic routes to follow: either differentiation or price reduction (Porter, 1980). However, those two generic routes have similar objectives; to deliver superior value and improve profitability for the greater growth of the company's market share. Day (1990) contends that no matter which route is selected, "*the effort will fail unless significant consumer value is created*" (p.63). Despite consumer perceived value being of key importance in marketing theories (Kotler, 1972), further development needs to be implemented (Payne and Holt, 2001). The concept of consumer perceived value is derived from a diverse research field (Graf and Maas, 2008; Payne and Holt, 2001). Certain scholars argue that it has originated from economist theories, whilst others posit that value concept has considerable links with both psychology and social psychology (Hoolbrook, 1994; Dodds and Monroe, 1985).

Originally, value concept has been viewed as a uni-dimensional construct because it is believed that consumers behave rationally when concentrating on economic utility (quality-price) choices amongst the alternatives offered within the market (Dodds and Monroe, 1985). Further progress is extended to the value domain; an affective

experience (emotional, symbolic or hedonic) has been postulated in addition to the cognitive aspect (Sheth et al., 1991; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1992). More recently, conceptual development explicitly focuses on multi-dimensional dimensions concerning both rational and hedonic paradigms (Sweeney and Sourtar, 2001). Corresponding to the most recent approach, the multi-dimensional dimension is to be applied in this study.

Social Media Involvement

One of the most influential environmental changes in the 21st century is the introduction and proliferation of a communication infrastructure. Nowadays, the issues of social media have become top of the agenda for businesses. The emergence of social media facilitates the interaction between businesses and consumers. Social media is now presenting itself as an alternative source to marketing and advertising for organisations to reach larger and wider target audiences (Salam, Rao and Pegels, 2000). With social media, marketers can potentially target and communicate with interested groups of consumers both domestic and globally (Mehta, 1995).

Online social media has transformed the means by which consumers communicate and absorb the information of products and services (Keller, 2009). According to Tapscott and Williams (2006), instead of just passively receiving information by creating, sharing or even socialising, social media enables us to participate with those sites both in synchronous and asynchronous communication. Up to 38 percents of active social media users have positive attitudes towards brand and business; hence, it is beneficial for firms to develop consumer involvement with social media (Universal McCann, 2008). This emergence challenges the firm to effectively implement a social media platform for communicating with their target audience. However, value is not directly derived from online platforms themselves. It can also be generated by the way a social media platform has been approached (Majchrzak et al., 2009). It can be concluded that social media is viewed as the means to shed light, resulting in consumer value perception beyond online activities (Culnan et al., 2010; Murray et al., 2014).

With the fast growth of social media users and social media accessibility, involvement with these platforms is expected to result in disparity among users. To understand consumer involvement with social media plays a significant roles in the way to explain consumer behavior in marketing area and to develop and formulate appropriate strategy for company. Therefore, this study highlights the key issues which draw on the knowledge relating to involvement constructs in numerous disciplines, and adapts this knowledge to measure consumer “social media involvement”. In addition, a multi-dimensional measurement scale has been developed based on existing literature that is able to be applied to generic platforms.

Role of Brand Love in Hedonic products

Consumer-brand relationship is another area that gains more consideration from both marketers and researchers. Martins (1999) proposed that consumer-purchasing motivation is related to several reasons such as need, individual’s desires and brand. Relating to this scenario, an increasing consumer bond towards consumer and brand is deeply internalised within the consumer’s mind and heart. In this sense, an effort to understand the consumer’s emotional bond with a brand is structured in such a way to generate favourable, behavioural outcomes. In past decades, researchers have increased their attention to concentrate more on consumer emotions towards the brand. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) discuss the concept of brand love as “*the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name*” (p.81).

As consumer consumption is suggested as “*experiential consumption*” it includes fantasies, fun and feelings (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982a, 1982b). The emerging concept of brand love commenced when researchers began to be concerned that instead of emphasising the classical theory of rational choice in order to utilise the maximum benefit, consumers construct their decision making using their consumption experience which focuses more on an emotional consumption response (Sarkar, 2014). It cannot be denied that the majority of fashion consumers would rather purchase a brand instead of a product itself because it makes them feel and look good; as a result fashion consumers tend to develop their relationship with a brand and therefore emotionally connect with brands (Gabriella and Spinelli, 2012).

This is supported by Fillo et al., (2010), that hedonist products have a high tendency for being loved by consumers. Both academic and practical findings suggest that consumer's satisfaction is no longer enough as a competitive advantage for firms; hence brand love is one concept which is regarded as the stronger base brand relationship in the present day (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Furthermore, it has been suggested by Sarkar (2014) that the concept of brand love is described as an emerging concept within the consumer behaviour domain yet little exploration has been done in order to understand the construct especially in the Asian market. Therefore, the researcher intends to fill the gap identified by Sakar (2014) by investigating the role of brand love in the Asian market and extending the knowledge of the brand love domain as a moderator on the consumer value and purchasing intention relationship with hedonic products. Therefore, the present studies seek to articulate the proper social media involvement scale based on the existing theoretical research, further validate the scale in the conceptual model and examine the dependent relationship between social media involvement, brand love and purchasing intention based on the consumer perceived value dimension towards fast fashion products.

Fast Fashion Sector

The fashion industry has rapidly changed with the organisation's flexibility and responsiveness. The recent response to the trend is the new business model "*fast fashion*". In general, fast fashion is defined as "*an expression that is widely accepted by a group of people over time and has been characterized by several marketing factors such as low predictability, high impulse purchase, shorter life cycle, and high volatility of market demand*" (Ferne and Sparks, 1998). It is a commercial strategy responding to the latest trend in fashion so that the designs move from the catwalk to store within the fastest time to capture and update the current trends (Moore and Fernie, 2004). It is the way to introduce a trendy piece at an affordable price at a given time and create freedom and excitement in shopping.

The fashion products are designed to reflect current and emerging trends quickly and effectively from the fashion runway, allowing consumers to take advantage of current fashion items. The term "*disposable*" fashion could be used to describe this phenomenon instead of "*sustainability*" (Bruce and Daly, 2006), that is, drive from quality product to affordability and several alternatives (Christopher et al., 2004). As

times have changed, the fashion calendar has changed as well. At the beginning of the 1990s, the concept of “*fast fashion*” was buzzing throughout the fashion industry. Retailers were changing their business models to take part in it. Fashion products started focusing on the product ranges. The changing dynamics of the fashion industry resulted in the fading of mass production, constantly updating items, faster responsiveness to the newness of the fashion trends and providing refreshing products to their consumers in the right place at the right time (Sheridan et al., 2006). However, to achieve this scenario in the real business world is a tough and challenging task.

1.3 Statement of Research Problems and Research Gaps

With global economy competition and demanding consumers cause firms to seek new strategies to maximise their competitive advantages (Woodruff, 1997). In the present day, it becomes more difficult for firms to differentiate their products or services than ever before because available choices of product and service offered in the market has been increasing. Consumers have broader alternatives and greater bargaining power that raise their expectations from the firms. In order to address this problem, the process of searching for advantages is ongoing.

Butz and Goodstein (1996) posit that quality is no longer the source of competitive advantage. Therefore, adding value to products or services is considered an essential strategy (Nilson, 1992). Consumer behaviour changes over time. The modern consumer tends to be more educated and sophisticated in the way he / she thinks about and copes with the market environment (McCracken, 2005; Broyles, et al., 2010; Amaldoss and Jain, 2005; Zhang et al., 2010). Thus, the complexity of the structure of the market place and the evolvement of social media enhances the consumer’s demand to be more attentive and selective (Arnould & Thompson, 2005).

Particularly in fashion retailing, higher margin consumers tend to expect higher value (Sweeney and Sourtar, 2001). Johnson and Gustafsson (2000) posit that only those businesses providing consumption value remain competitive in business.

Furthermore, the competitive intensity within the fast fashion industry is growing, therefore sharing wallet of consumers are forcing companies to differentiate and provide the greatest value to their consumers. Nevertheless, such challenges reinforce

the firm's need to extensively learn about their consumer value orientation. Deciding on how to compete with their rivals raises questions of how to deliver the appropriate value dimensions matched with their target consumer. As suggested by Jensen (2001) "*understanding the salient antecedents and consequences of consumer value can probably be considered the most fundamental prerequisite for sustainable competitive advantage*" (p. 60). Limited research can agree on what consumer value is and the majority is done within diverse fashion contexts not specific on "*fast fashion*" context. Some examples of previous research are, Strydom et al., (2015) conduct their study based on the multidimensional consumer value model for the high fashion retail industry. While Lloyd et al., (2010) investigate their study comparing a revelation into consumer perceived value between luxury and mass fashion brands. In addition, Jung et al., (2016) focus their study on Slow Fashion Businesses: Consumer Value Approach. And the study from Zhou, Z. (2015) conduct their research on consumer luxury perceived value in Chinese non-first tier city

Based on previous research, the evidence shows that the research has been up to date focusing on various aspects of the fashion industry. But no comprehensive study has been undertaken on the literature of consumer perceived value dimension (social, emotional, price and quality) in relation to the subjective judgements of behavioural intention for fast fashion products either internationally or in Thailand. Furthermore, within this digital era the growing relevance of marketing activities via social networking sites such as facebook, instagram or twitter is striking and the research regarding the consumer value concerns about an online context still persists (Ganley and Lampe, 2009). In the advanced digital market, a rapid increase of social network penetration has occurred significantly over decades. Social media plays a key role in influencing many aspects of consumption behaviour which has become an important target for businesses (de Valck, van Bruggen and Wierenga, 2009). According to the report from Statista (2015), the number of worldwide social media users is 2.34 billion or approximately 68.3% and is expected to reach 2.95 billion by 2020. Accordingly, it influences how people communicate as well as changes the way that businesses do so. By nature, the fashion industry is seen as a consumerist industry since the consumer places great emphasis on presentation, aesthetics and perception.

With Forrester Research, over 3 billion users engage with brands via social media platforms including Facebook, Twitter and Instagram to instantaneously update and react to new styles and emerging trends in no time. Networks between consumer such as online communities or even fan group sharing the same interest is able to generate community effect which influence the way that consumer perceived product value. Social media platforms are regarded as the most powerful marketing target-rich environment. Moreover, an evidence from Harvard Business School shows that social media such as Facebook, Instagram or Twitter are so addictive to many people (Brown, 2012). The highest rate of social media user are Generation Y which knowns as “*Digital Natives*” (Cabral, 2010). This group are known as the early frequent exposure, expected to be strong users of social media and refer to group of who aware of being inundated with brand (Wesner and Millr, 2008; McDevitt, 2013).

However, social media holds an excessive power to constantly share, connect and interact between brands and consumers. Nowadays, plenty of information is now as distant as accessing to social media. Different type of activities, social perceptions or even community norms, each generation has been affected by the changes of the worlds leading to different consumer’s motivation and purchasing outcome. Even previous research bears on some of these assumption but plenty of things we do not know how this could affect both users and wider society such as retailers or marketers. What we know right now is the majority of Gen Y users access social media to interact with other, creating contents as well as consume it and use social media as one kind of communications. As it has been suggested that participating in product innovation via communities of special interest on social media platforms by providing and promoting to members within communities can be underlines as the relevance for further research (Zauner Koller and Hatak, 2015). Changing in consumption expenditure, can be best explain by taking generation approach.

Bolton et al., (2010) noted that the external environment and rapid growth of technology have shaped Gen Y influencing their social media uses and purchasing behaviour. Moreover, Belleau et al., (2007) note that Gen Y is three times bigger size of Gen X. To determine the possible factors that’s influences millenials and purchasing intention has become the important focus of consumer research area. Therefore the potential of research question arises by this study and studies to date are

limited about how could social media involvement affect the relationship between consumption value and behavioural outcome. Hence, this study aims to address to what extent social media involvement supports or hinders the value perception of consumers.

Furthermore, in order to making choices between the alternatives, consumers tend to believe that the result has been made based on their rational analysis. In fact, in many cases an emotion plays a vital role and greatly influences decisions (Murray, 2013). Pawle and Cooper (2006) posit that *“If the foundations of consumer behavior are emotional, so it follows that the strongest foundations of the consumer- brand relationship are similarly emotional.”* The attachment theory from Bowlby (1979) suggests that the emotional attachment an individual has towards a brand also predicts the quality of an individual interaction towards that brand. For example, the level of an individual’s emotional attachment with a brand makes it possible to predict their willingness to make the financial sacrifice. Despite the popularity of a concept approach, some criticism regarding the underlying behavioural outcome still remains.

According to Sarkar (2014) brand love has been considered as the motivating force behind hedonic consumption. Yet little quantitative study has been explored to understand the role of brand love especially in the fast fashion industry since fast fashion products are perceived as hedonic products which tend to generate higher emotional responses (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). As the potential of the brand love relevance to the consumer-brand relationship domain, it is important to understand and realise the consequence of brand love associated with behavioural outcome. Shanks (2013) posits that *“Millennials place a greater importance on accountability with the brands that they love”*. Therefore, the question arises, if the consumer has a feeling of love towards a brand, the level of brand love will either impact the relationship between consumption value and purchasing intention for fast fashion products in Thailand or not.

The gap of recent studies in the existing literature is elaborated below:

- The majority of previous studies focusing on involvement that employ a uni-dimensional approach.
- There is a lack of comprehensive multi-dimensional measurement scales for social media involvement that can apply to generic platforms.
- There is an unexplored moderating role of social media involvement and brand love towards consumer perceived value and behavioural intention.
- There is a lack of research addressing the relationship between consumer perceived value and behavioural intention in the context of fast fashion products.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions of this study are presented below in order to further demonstrate how this study attempts to answer the research problems.

1. What is the most influential value dimension affecting purchasing intention of fast fashion products?
2. Does the relationship between consumer perceived value and consumer purchasing intention depend on the level of social media involvement and brand love?

1.5 Research Aims and Objectives

To develop the social media involvement scale and test the conceptual model aimed at examining the moderating effect of social media involvement and brand love in the association between the consumer perceived value and purchasing intention and investigate the most influential value dimension towards fast fashion product.

In order to achieve the research aim, the following objectives are proposed:

1. To develop the comprehensive multidimensional measurement scale for social media involvement from the existing theoretical studies. This involves meta-analysis and statistical validation of the measurement scale.
2. To examine the direct impact of the consumer perceived value dimension

towards consumer purchasing intention.

3. To test the moderating effect of social media involvement and brand love on the association between the consumer perceived value and purchasing intention.

1.6 Anticipated Findings and Expected Contributions

This research intends to provide academic and practical contributions to the knowledge in the field of marketing, especially in the areas of consumer perceived value, consumer involvement and brand domains. There are several implications that could be expected from this research.

First of all, the main contribution of this research is to adapt the comprehensive measurement scale for the social media involvement construct that is able to apply with generic social media platforms. After validating the scale from the actual consumer this finding provides new insights for marketers to be aware of on the capabilities role of social media in the value perception and consumption domain. Moreover, the finding is beneficial for academics to employ this measurement scale as the key construct in further research in different contexts since the social media involvement measurement scale from this research can be applied to generic social media platforms.

Furthermore, by investigating the impact of the consumption value dimension in purchasing intention, this research offers a greater understanding of consumer perceived value in purchasing intention for fast fashion products. In addition, by exploring empirically how social media involvement and brand love moderate the relationship between the consumer perceived value and purchasing intention.

In addition, this research illustrates the importance of branding and involvement theory and extends knowledge in those domains. This study is guidance for practitioners to develop consumption experiences with their consumer, because when the consumer believes that brand enhances their life meaningfulness, it can develop into love whilst maintaining a strong relationship with a brand that leads to behavioural intention. Moreover, with the intention to empirically investigate the positive impact of consumption value dimensions on purchasing intention with the

moderating effect of social media involvement, suggestions derived from this research will help marketers to understand the important role of social media involvement which is more likely to attract the way an individual perceives value dimensions in a given market. Thus marketing and social media strategy can be developed properly. Therefore, the findings from this research are expected to be utilised by marketers and fashion retailers who seek to understand value perception and apply it with their targeted consumer segment.

Several implications could also be expected from this research that will appeal to those in the fast fashion industry who are keen to understand the consumer, especially in Thailand. Firstly, to adapt and develop the measurement scale for the social media involvement construct is essential for the development of a desirable product in the market place, since the number of social media users is expected to increase year by year. The basic implication regards to the results for managerial implication is to think about consumer social media involvement in fast fashion products as it is the simplistic measures of an individual perceived importance which is able to create marketing strategies. This finding could help marketers to cope with the digital era in taking the opportunity to propose new value propositions from online avenues and implementing benefits from online social media activities.

Furthermore, this research is expected to benefit marketing managers in the fast fashion industry in order for them to identify and segment their consumers based on their value orientations and also classify the consumer into a portfolio. As Hallberg (1995) stated, “*not all consumers are created equal*”, some consumer segments can be profitable while some can be unprofitable or the cause of breaking even. This research helps the marketer to deeper understand the critical role of consumer perceived value in such a way to develop the consumer’s focus and market orientation.

Moreover, this can lead to the marketer knowing the importance of market-driven strategies in helping to develop the capabilities of value components. This research aims to examine the sub value dimensions that make a greater contribution to the behavioural outcome that is consumer purchasing intention. Prior to communicating value to their consumer, firms need to be aware of which value dimension is significantly important to be highlighted. The findings from this study also help

fashion retailers and marketers to understand which type of value dimensions attract behavioural intention in the context of the fashion industry as consumers perceive and experience different products and service types in different ways. Hence, the findings eventually help marketers and fashion retailers break down their consumer segments and offer them the expected or desired value. In addition, this could help the marketer to differentiate a group of consumers by identifying them from their value orientation such as emotional value seekers or price value seekers hence it could implement customization strategies. Finally, this research seeks to investigate the moderating role of brand love. Hence the finding can help the fast fashion industry and marketers to understand the emotionality role in marketing strategies.

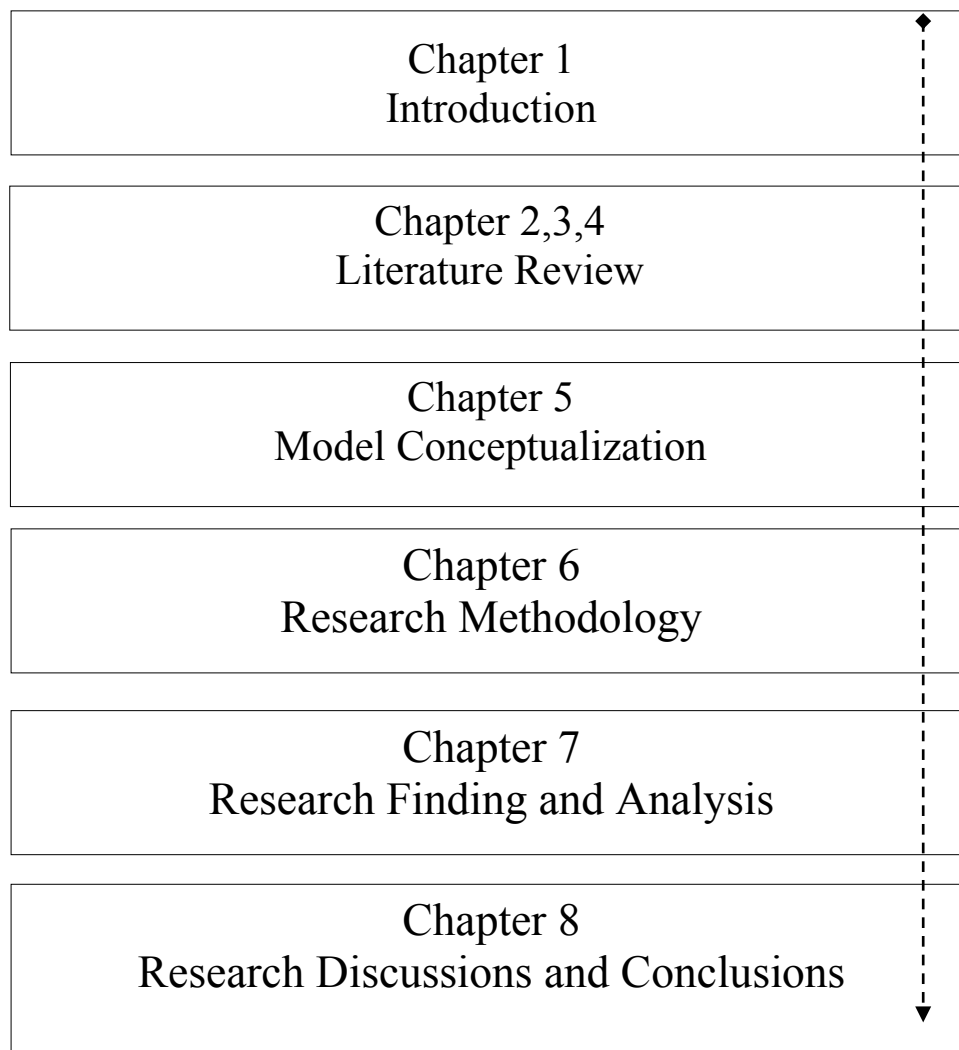
1.7 Research Design and the Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters (Figure 1-1). This represents sequential stages of the overall research process. The *first chapter* introduces the research background related to this research topic. The research problems and questions have been identified. The main research aims and objectives are presented, followed by the summary potential contribution of the study. Lastly, this chapter also provides an overview of the research structure.

The literature review are represented within *Chapter two, three and four* providing extensive views of the consumer perceived value, starting from the definitional, conceptual, theoretical and operational found in this research area. Next, the concept of consumer involvement is discussed, beginning from its origination from psychology and the marketing movement. Inquiries regarding the concept of social media involvement as well as their conceptual model are also defined. In addition, the concept of brand love and fast fashion industry are presented respectively.

Chapter five is designated to present the conceptual model framework. The theoretical justification regarding the relevant conceptual framework has been addressed. The consumer perceived value dimensions (social, emotional, price and quality) are depicted within the conceptual model as predictors of behavioural intention, which has been discussed earlier. Later, the model links social media involvement and brand love as a moderator. Finally, supporting literature associated with twelve hypotheses in the study has been discussed.

Figure 1.1: The Structure of the Thesis



The research methodology is briefly reviewed within *chapter six*. The research proceeds with a full range of important information concerning the methodological approach. Research context, sampling method, questionnaire construct and self-administered survey procedures are discussed.

For *chapter seven*, the research findings from the quantitative study are represented. This chapter also details the statistical reliability and validity of results by means of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses techniques. In addition, the hypotheses testing results are displayed based on the structural equation modelling approach, AMOS 21.

Chapter eight focuses on research discussion based on data findings from the previous chapter. The applicability of consumer perceived value, social media

involvement and brand love in respect to behavioural intention is illustrated, supported by the literature. The main research findings based on the proposed hypotheses are revisited comparing them with exiting evidence. Whereby, attention has also been paid on the contribution. Both managerial and theoretical contributions are demonstrated as a guide to marketers, and academics. Finally, this chapter concludes by outlining the research limitations and future research directions.

Chapter Conclusion Remarks

This chapter intends to provide the entire content with regard to this thesis by providing research aims and objectives together with necessary information. The research implication has been articulated to emphasise the importance of this research related to marketing domains and businesses.

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

THE CONSUMER PERCEIVED VALUE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter demonstrates the literature of consumer perceived value and its dimensions, as it aims to deliberately focus on the conceptualisation of value constructs at the product level. With an increase in global competition in the marketplace, the concept of value plays a significant role for both researchers and marketers to be aware of the importance of the value concept (Christopher, 1996). Since the spread of the consumer perceived value concept, it has been argued that in the twenty-first century the generation of a higher value on the consumer is becoming a competitive advantage (Chan, Yim and Lam, 2010; Woodruff, 1997).

Similarly, Lai, Griffin and Babin (2009) reveal that the heart of the consumer to pursue their exchange is value. Park, Robertson and Wu (2006) agree that the first priority for the consumer to be concerned with when considering whether to return to a service provider or not, is the extent of the value they received. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between behavioural outcome and consumer perceived value as value is the heart to understand consumer future intention (Park et al., 2006; Kuo, Wu and Deng, 2009). The concept has been a major topic within the marketing domain for decades but the consumer perceived value issue remains an interesting area to discuss and analyse with regard to consumer behavioural outcome (Oh, 1999; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Petrick, 2002; Tsai, 2005).

The chapter starts by introducing the consumer value concept along with its importance in the marketing domain. The various definitions of value have been reviewed by several researchers. The next section is devoted to a discussion of the theoretical and empirical foundation of consumer perceived value theories to a deeper understanding of their complexity. In addition, in the next section, the analysis of consumer perceived value concepts that have been used within this study are further detailed. Finally the limitations of consumer perceived value at a product level are explained.

2.2 The Importance of Value from a Marketing Perspective

The power of consumer value has long been recognised in academic studies and in marketing practices as it has become a key element in strategic management (Monroe and Grewal, 1991; Sheth Jagdish , Newman and Gross,1991; Holbrook, 1996; Woodruff, 1997; Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson, 1997; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Wang et al., 2004; Kothari and Lackner, 2006; Setijono and Dahlgaard, 2008). Consumer value is at the core of marketing strategy, implemented as product differentiation (Ravald and Gronroos, 1996; Day, 2002) and brand positioning (Oh, 2003; Pechlaner, Sernal and Matzler, 2002), leading to the establishment of organisations' competitive advantages, profitability and consumer loyalty to overcome its competitors (Porter, 1996; Slater, 1997; Payne and Holt, 2001; Khalifa, 2004; Spiteri and Dion, 2004). From a marketing strategy viewpoint, creating consumer value within consumer marketing means meeting consumers' needs and increasing consumer satisfaction (Porter, 1985).

Accordingly, it is widely used in predicting sustainable competitive advantage (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991), consumer satisfaction orientation (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Tam, 2004), willingness to purchase (Dodds and Monroe, 1985), repeat purchase (Nilson, 1992) and word-of-mouth communication (Oh, 1999). Today's views of consumer value, however, have changed considerably over the last decade, as consumers have become increasingly acknowledged as the evaluators of value and co-creators of value (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). While Graf and Mass (2008) conclude that consumer value from a consumer perspective refers to value generated by a company's product or service as perceived by the consumer. Thus, there could be a potential gap between the firm's value offered to the consumer and the consumer's expectations and perceptions (Overby ,Gardial and Woodruff, 2004). This gap has to be filled to reach consumer desired goals.

Wilkie (1994) also suggests that consumers' cognitive and physical effort of the purchase often occurs prior to actual purchase behaviour; thus, marketers should know how to favourably influence consumers at the pre-purchase stage. Swait and Sweeney (2000) use logic models to analyse the influence of consumer perceived value on consumer purchase intention, specifically in the retailing industry, and have

found that consumers with a different perceived value have different purchasing behaviour. Hence, the more recent studies present the concept of consumer perceived value focusing on consumer behavioural contexts rather than traditional (economic, rational and cognitive) contexts. As a consequence, consumer perceived value is widely emphasised in its role of interaction between consumers' perception of value and the value offered by a company. As a result, the view of perceived value combined with consumer relationship marketing has recently become a popular research topic (e.g. Reinartz and Kumar, 2003; Rust, Lemon and Zeithnaml, 2004). Apparently, many researchers consider perceived value as a key constituent for companies' marketing success (Chen and Quester, 2006 and Pura, 2005). Since understanding value from the perspective of the consumer is vital for firms in order to provide desired value to its consumers that eventually affect its survival in a competitive marketplace, the perceived consumer value from a consumer's perspective is addressed in this study.

2.3 Definitions of Value Construct

The value concept is multi-faceted and complex because the term is extremely abstract and polysemous in nature (Gallarza and Saura, 2006). There is still no consensus and definite results of consumer value presented (Jensen, 1996). In order to eliminate such ambiguity of perceived value definitions and to ensure that the application and implementation of measurement scales are appropriately selected, it is essential to highlight the grounded theories of dimensional constructs of value models in this study. The multitude of perspectives on what value means, elaborated from authors' interested locus of studies; therefore, value has different meanings not only amongst consumers but also researchers (Lai, 1995) and even amongst practitioners (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996). Notwithstanding, here in this study, the terms *consumer value* and *consumer value* are understood as synonymous to eliminate the vagueness. The term "*consumer perceived value*" has been widely defined from various parties' viewpoints (Webster, 2002) through management functions (Webster, 1992) or psychological and economic oriented processes (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

Table 2-1: The Summary Definition of Value Concept

Sources	Definitions of Value
Zeithaml (1988, p.3)	“Perceived value is a consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given”
Monroe (1990, p. 46)	“Buyers’ perceptions of value represent a balance between the quality or benefits they perceive in the product relative to the sacrifice they perceive by paying the price”
Dodds et al. (1991, p.308)	“The cognitive trade off between perceptions of quality and results in perceptions of value”
Sheth et al. (1991)	“Consumer choice is a function of five consumption values: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value”
Holbrook (1994, 1999, p.5)	“Consumer value is an interactive relativistic preference characterizing a consumer’s (subject’s) experience of interacting with some objects (i.e. any good/service, person, thing, event or idea)”
Woodruff (1997, p. 142)	“A consumer’s perceived preference for and evaluation of those attributes of product, its performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the consumer’s goal and purposes in use situations”
Oliver (1996, p. 45)	“Value is a positive function of what is received and a negative function of what is sacrificed”
Lapierre (2000, p. 123)	“Consumer-perceived value can, therefore, be defined as the difference between the benefits and the sacrifices (e.g. the total costs, both monetary and non-monetary) perceived by consumers, in terms of their expectations, i.e. needs and wants”
Haar ,Kemp and Omta (2001, p. 628)	“The consumer value concept assesses the value a product offers to a consumer, taking all its tangible and intangible features into account”
Chen and Dubinsky (2003, p. 326)	“Perceived consumer value is a consumer’s perception of the net benefits gained in exchange for the costs incurred in obtaining the desired benefits”

The most frequently cited definitions of value related to consumer behaviour are in line with the pioneering work of Zeithaml (1988) who refers to value as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices as shown in Table 2.1. This initial view of value is based on the economic theories of consumer sacrifices (e.g. money, time, effort, risk) in return for benefits. Thus, the “*lowest price*” for a product is seen as a fundamental consumer value (Oliver, 2000). However, reducing price is no longer recommended as a long-term marketing strategy. Moreover, it is criticised that “*value for money*”

ignores various important constructs and so is misleading in measuring consumer value perceptions (Holbrook, 1994; Day and Crask, 2000; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Chen and Dubinsky, 2003).

From Table 2.1, the evolution of value is later developed into psychological views, combining consumer's cognitive and affective feedback of a product. These affective benefits, namely emotional and social value of the product, are derived from the work of Sheth et al., 1991. Holbrook (1994) and Haar et al. (2001) further highlight that the importance of the intangible relationship between a product and a consumer's experience is vital to understand the consumer's attitudinal and behavioural intention. As this study focuses on the consumer behavioural purchasing intention, both cognitive and affective perspectives of value have to be included in the construct of value framework. Hence, the definition of value based on Sheth et al. (1991) is used in this study.

2.4 Theories of the Consumer Perceived Value

Given the complexity in value constructs, the purpose of the present study is to provide a justification of choosing the appropriate approach to the concept of perceived value towards fast-fashion products, with particular emphasis on the importance of understanding the multi-dimensional construct of value. According to Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007), the construct of consumer perceived value is categorised into two main approaches; uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional. In the early research, the concept of consumer value is originally illustrated within a uni-dimensional approach. In this view, the two major antecedents of value, quality and price, rely on rational consumption and cost-benefits or a trade-off relationship. On the other hand, other research streams with a broader analysis of perceived value, a so-called "*multi-dimensional*" approach which argues that consumer perceived value aggregates from numerous relationships of consumer's perceptions of various variables including products/service attributes, product/service quality, satisfaction, shopping experience and consumption outcomes at different levels, or even with different types of consumer.

In the uni-dimensional approach to consumer value, value is grounded in the combination of economic theory, equity theory and cognitive psychology theory. The

most universally accepted uni-dimensional approach, including Monroe's price-based approach, Zeithaml's means-end-theory which is entirely based on consumers' subjective perceptions towards the benefits from the focal brand or product. Monroe's price-based approach to value is massively linked to prices, known as transaction/acquisition value in comparison to its quality; what consumers get and what they give (Monroe, 1979, 1990; Dodds and Monroe, 1985; Monroe and Krishnan, 1985; Al-Sabbahy, Ekinci and Riley, 2004).

Following Monroe's price based consumer value, considerable studies show that there is a relationship between the consumer perceived price and perceived quality (Bearden and Shimp, 1982; Kashyap and Bojanic, 2000). Moreover, Gale and Klavans (1985) add that reducing price whilst maintaining or increasing product quality can improve a consumer's positive perception of value. Some consumers may perceive value when they pay a low price, or when they feel that there is a balance between price and quality (Chi and Kilduff, 2011). This approach believes that consumers use price as an extrinsic cue to evaluate when purchasing a product or service. Indeed, consumers may or may not rationally evaluate the value of products or services. They personally perceive the value of products/services from their perceived price and perceived quality rather than actual price and quality as the final stage of making a decision. That is, perceived value is relatively individualistic and personal.

Therefore, Monroe's pure price-based theory cannot explain the individual decision making behaviour at the higher level abstraction of value. Likewise, Zeithaml (1988) proposes the trade-off perspective between what the consumer "gives", such as money, time and effort, and what benefits s/he "gets", including quality, satisfaction and self-interest. However, Zeithaml's means-end theory suggests a higher level of value assessment than Monroe's price-quality value assessment which is required to understand consumers' perceived value by highlighting the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of a product/service which have an effect on the formation of consumers' value perceptions.

The intrinsic attributes of a product's quality refer to its physical compositions. On the other hand, the extrinsic ones refer to attributes that relate to price, brand name,

level of advertising and country of origin. As a result, Zeithaml's means-end theory is widely used to analyse such consumption behaviour (Brunso, Scholderer and Grunert 2004; Mitchell and Harris, 2005) However, Woodruff (1997) contends that the trade-off concept between price and quality is too simplistic and incomplete. Consumer's perception of value is influenced by "*price*" paid not only for product quality but also for brand name and store image (Dodds et al., 1991; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Agarwal and Teas, 2004). The previous studies using the uni-dimensional approach to consumer value mainly delved into economic theories focusing on consumer's rational, functional, cognitive and means-to-an-end purchase, called the utilitarian/instrumental value of a product/service.

To measure consumer's value perception, a single measurement variable or a set of closely related variables is used. Thus, it is recommended that, as the uni-dimensional approach is simple and effective, it is used to define consumer perceived value. However, the uni-dimensional approach is often criticised due to its difficulty in encompassing the contemporary complex relationship of the affective components of a product/service tied with consumers' emotions, feelings, entertainment and excitement meaning that it is not possible to describe the nature of perceived value (Yi and Gong, 2013; Lin, Sher, and Shih 2005).

Today's consumer is concerned with more than just price. Therefore, it is necessary to broaden underlying insights of consumer perceived value, from the extent of monetary aspects to wider non-monetary ones. In certain cases, the relationship between perceived sacrifice and perceived value is stronger than the relationship between perceived quality and perceived value. Since this study aims to investigate consumer's purchasing of fast-fashion products, it is possible that a multi-dimensional approach to consumer perceived value could lead to a wider understanding of the desired value that consumers need when purchasing fast-fashion products. The multi-dimensional approach to consumer perceived value has become widely accepted in recent decades. The most cited conceptual models of a multi-dimensional approach include Woodruff's consumer value hierarchy, utilitarian and hedonic value, Holbrook's typology of value and the consumption-value theory.

Bolton and Drew (1991) argue that the extrinsic components of a product/service such as performance, expectations and desires influencing perceived value can vary across

situations. Due to the limitations of the inconsistencies of Zeithaml's model value of intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of a product/service across individuals and situational contexts, the multi-stage or dynamic model of value is proposed. At certain stages, the shopping experience has positive effects on the value perception of a retail store more than that of products itself (Hartline and Jones, 1996; Gould-Williams, 1999).

Similarly, Baker, Parasuraman and Grewal (2002) add that merchandise value combined with staff's interpersonal service quality significantly affects consumers' shopping experience and cost perceptions. Also, the employee performance has a strong effect on consumers' perception of service quality, value and brand loyalty (Lapierre, 1999).

Additionally, price and product information provision has an impact on consumers' purchase intention (Chang and Wildt, 1994). Perception of risk of the quality-value relationship affecting consumers' decision making can be taken into account (Wood and Scheer, 1996). Sweeney et al., (1999) indicate that perceived risk is a significant mediator of the quality-value relationship. On the other hand, Woodruff (1997) argues that consumption goal, preference of product/service attributes and the desired values of consumers can be changed over time due to the consequential process of product/service learning, perception and evaluation. Thus, the consumer value hierarchy is proposed by Woodruff (1997) to provide a broader perspective towards value that the consumer experiences rather than narrowing it down to only products or service attributes. Parasuraman (1997) also adopts Woodruff's value hierarchy model as a measurement framework to assess consumer value based on four different types of consumers, including first-time consumers, short-term consumers, long-term consumers and defectors, in order to confirm that value occurs from an individual's preference, evaluations and beliefs, and that this changes over time.

In addition, Van der Haar et al. (2001) have developed the "*intended value map*" in contrast to the consumer value hierarchy from the perspective of a company, in order to understand how consumers select a product to accomplish their 'higher-order goals' in order to design the value strategies. Even though Woodruff's model seems to provide the framework to understand a higher level of value expected by consumers, it is unlikely to either clarify or categorise the type of value which

facilitates the practitioners to implement the research implications afterwards. Therefore, it does not fit in the focused area of this study. In contradiction to the concept of pure utilitarian value, also known as functional or instrumental value, hedonic value is suggested to eliminate the limitations of the early studies. Many researchers point out the role of utilitarian and hedonic shopping motives (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Chiu, Hsieh, Li and Lee, 2005). Babin and Attaway (2000) propose that the value scale should measure consumers' evaluations of the shopping experience with two dimensions of utilitarian and hedonic value. Later, Babin and Babin (2001) examined the influence of specific retail elements on shopping value.

Similarly, Solomon (2014) indicates that shopping malls gain consumer loyalty by offering entertainment centres that can appeal to their consumers' social motives as well. Particularly in the online shopping-related context, Lee and Overby (2004) identify that two forms of value have a positive effect on consumer satisfaction, namely: 1) utilitarian value (including price saving, service excellence, time saving and selection dimensions) and 2) experiential value (including entertainment, visual, escape and interaction dimensions). Hence, the perspective of hedonic value (i.e. excitement, joy) should be included in the construct of value to explain consumer purchase intention, especially when the shopping experience has an influence on consumer decision-making. However, for fashion products, according to Solomon (2014), the importance of social value is also significant amongst collectivist consumers where social motives arouse their purchasing intention. Therefore, both emotional and social value should be further focused on, in line with Holbrook's typology of value.

Holbrook (1994, 1996, 1999) argues that the earlier construct of value, that is consumer perceived value, is an "*interactive, relativistic preference experience*". Thus, Holbrook (1999) proposes the typology of consumer value to describe the consumption process, providing wider views of consumer behavioural context grounded in a microeconomic approach along with the consumer's utilitarian and hedonic experience. The model believes that value is comparative, personal and situational, meaning that it is different across contexts because it occurs between the consumer as a subject and a product/service as an object and is embodied in

consumer's preference judgement.

The contribution of Holbrook's typology (1994, 1999) seems to cover most holistic perspectives namely economic, social and hedonic forms of consumer perceived value. However, the typology's concept of active and reactive value is ambiguous and confusing when all relationships amongst components are examined collectively (Richins, 1999). This implies to its complexity of model adoption in practice as seen in previous studies that the set of perceived value is partially selected and reduced (Bourdeau, Chebat and Counturier, 2002 and Gallarza and Gil, 2006). On the other hand, Sheth et al. (1991a, 1991b) propose the theory of "consumption-value" which suggests that forms of value are independent and each makes differential contributions in different choice situations, at either a to buy or not to buy level, and to compare at product level or at brand level.

Sheth's five forms of value include functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value and conditional value. The work of Sheth's consumption value model provides broader views of value classification (Long and Schiffman, 2000; Khalifa, 2004; Lapierre, 2000; Smith and Colgate, 2007). Despite the widely-used contributions of the consumption-value model, the forms of value are likely to be adapted in different contexts. For example, Sweeney et al. (1996) adapt Sheth's consumption value model; however, they note that the model has limitations because the epistemic and conditional value are not suited to research methodology in particular studies. Similarly, Williams and Soutar (2000) employ Sheth et al.'s consumption-value model in a travelling service-related context in their qualitative study, yet they confirm that only four forms of value namely functional, emotional, social and epistemic are significant for their selected samples. The contribution of Sheth et al.'s consumption-value model leads to further scale development.

The most cited scale, called **PERVAL** is developed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) to enhance the intrinsic value of product attributes in order to completely and accurately identify the important value perceived by the consumer at any pre or post purchase stage, particularly in the retailing context. However, conditional value is omitted because it is not a dimension, but a "*specific case of other types of value*" derived from the moderating effect of a situation on the perceptions of functional and social

values. Epistemic value is also excluded because the novelty or surprise is likely to be seen for only hedonic products rather than a wide range of products.

The PERVAL scale with 19 items is used as a measurement scale to assess consumers' perceptions of the value of durable products in a retailing context in particular. Their exploratory research reveals that four dimensions of value, including emotional, social, quality/performance and price/value for money, have a significant effect on consumer attitude and purchasing behaviour. Additionally, it is found that emotional value contributes to enjoyment of the product; consequently, it also arouses the communication of the product to others which is considered as social value. More importantly, emotional value affecting a consumer's willingness to purchase durable goods can also be viewed as functionally-oriented value, and the retail service quality plays a significant role in the creation of consumer perceived value. Even though Sweeney and Soutar (2001) adapt the PERVAL scale based on Sheth et al.'s consumption-value model, they contend that dimensions of value may not be independent because hedonic and utilitarian components of consumer's attitude may be involved. More interestingly, in the PERVAL scale of consumer value, the dimension of quality/performance and price/value for money are independent to one another; thus, they are separately measured. These notions lead to the major justification of adopting the PERVAL scale in this study.

2.5 Analysis of the Consumer Perceived Value Concepts

Obviously, there is a lack of consensus amongst scholars regarding the conceptualisation and measurement of 'consumer perceived value' due to its nebulous nature which has widely been described as complex (Lapierre, 2000), multifaceted (Babin et al., 1994), dynamic (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000; Woodruff and Gardial, 1996) and subjective (Zeithaml, 1988). Compared with uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional approaches, the constructs of perceived value are viewed differently due to the researchers' theories being grounded in either economic or behavioural psychology (with either a simple cognitive or rich but complex cognitive/affective approach.)

The critique of the uni-dimensional approach is that it is simply "*one-off*" phenomenon ignoring dynamic consumer behaviour aspects especially in the twenty-

first century. Ahn, Ryu and Han (2004) reveal the limitation in their study of the value of the retailing internet to the consumer due to the selected uni-dimensional value conceptualisation. Moreover, the uni-dimensional value concept lacks reasoning in debating the process of value and patronage intention (Chen and Dubinsky, 2003; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski, 2006). Furthermore, based on the uni-dimensional price-quality based relationships, it is questionable how well consumers use a cognitive information process to assess the product attributes in order to form consumer perceived value (Petrick and Backman, 2002). Therefore, the multi-dimensional approach is more appropriate because of the extent to which perceived value is situational and contexts-dependent. Also, the contribution of Sweeney and Soutar's PERVAL scale is justified in being used in this study because of several reasons as described below:

- 1) Sweeney and Soutar's PERVAL scale has been widely employed in numerous conceptual and empirical studies. For instance, Wang, Lo, Chi and Yang (2004) use the PERVAL scale in their study; however, they apply non-monetary sacrifice (e.g. time and physical effort) rather than "*price value*". More importantly, their findings show that consumer's perceived value with the four dimensions of functional, social, emotional and perceived sacrifices have a positive influence on consumer satisfaction. Likewise, Pura (2005) adapts the PERVAL scale with six dimensions of value – monetary, convenience, social, emotional, conditional and epistemic to analyse the direct effects of consumer perceived value on consumers' attitude and behaviour components of loyalty in location-based mobile services business.
- 2) The PERVAL scale is employed to analyse the effect of consumer perceived value on consumer satisfaction, particularly in internet retailing (e.g. Yang and Peterson, 2004; Cheng, Wang, Lin and Vivek, 2009). Petrick (2004) adopts the PERVAL scale to assess consumer perceived value affecting consumer satisfaction, purchase intention and word-of-mouth publicity. Tam (2004) incorporates the PERVAL scale to measure post-purchase behaviour in the restaurant industry in Hong Kong. Dahlen et al. (2009) enhances the PERVAL scale at brand level. In particular relation to the fashion industry, Cheng et al.

(2009) investigate the effect of perceived value on consumer intention to use the internet as a retailing platform.

- 3) According to the work of Zeithaml (1988), functional value is split up into quality and price value because some consumers perceive value as low price, whilst others perceive value when there is a balance or fairness between quality and price. Thus, the PERVAL scale proposes that the set of consumption values including the four dimensions of price, quality, social and emotional value are independent from one another.

Empirically, the PERVAL scale has been widely adopted in various studies as mentioned earlier (Wang et al., 2004; Pura, 2005; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Petrick, 2004; Tam, 2004; Cheng et al., 2009). In this study, a consumer perceived value of fast-fashion products in Thailand is to be investigated. Therefore, the PERVAL scale proposed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) is appropriate to be adopted in this study because the scale has been widely employed to assess the consumer perceived value in a retailing context, especially through several stages of the purchase decision-making process, either with consumer pre or post purchasing experience.

As suggested by Koufteros, Babbar and Kaighobadi, (2009), the dimensions of consumer perceived value adopted from the PERVAL scale are conceptualised into four first-order latent constructs to determine the second-order observed constructs of consumer perceived value of fast-fashion products. Due to the definitive justification of the PERVAL scale to be used in this study, the four dimensions including 1) social value- social or symbolic benefits, 2) emotional value- experiential or emotional value, 3) price/value for money- monetary sacrifice to acquire the product and 4) quality/performance value- attributed-related or utilitarian benefits, are to be discussed to measure the value of fast-fashion products perceived by Thai consumers.

2.5.1 Social Value

The social perspective from the scheme devised by Sheth et al. (1991) posits that social value refers to the association within a community as the main driver for making choices, as the product ability allows an individual to enhance their self-concept (Sweeney and Sourtar, 2001). The constructionist perspective suggests that the central function of symbolic consumption-products is considered as a vehicle employed by both actor and observer in such a way to determine an actor's social identity and his place within the social nexus. According to Tsai (2005), the primary theory behind social value consumption is social identification that can be traced back to the impression theory of management by Goffmann (1967) proposed the concept of social identity which imply the psychological connection between individual and others in group. Since the motivation to the social-identity is impacted by references group in such a way to establish themselves to self-defining. However, social value perception is instrumental aspect related to an impression management that considered as outer directed consumption preferences. According to this sense, consumer is motivated to generate his/her choice influenced by social identification to represent his/her social act and acquiring symbolic value to gain approval and enhance social acceptance.

There are many ways in which an individual manages the impression they make on others such as avoiding blame, self-presentation or gaining an acceptance where one goal is to enhance the way others view themselves (Holbrook, 1996). Moreover, it has postulated that favourable social image relating to product consumption is an internal driver for purchasing behaviour (Goffman, 1967). Furthermore, the notion from Holbrook's consumer-value typology considers social value as part of the self-construction process whereby this ongoing process places the locus of status at an individual level. The active consumption of an individual means toward others oriented to achieve favourable respect from others. Therefore an outcome of the social construction process is the status to assign the meaning stimulating an individual's desired level of acquisition or display of their value object to increase social status within a community (Water, 1994). Indeed, social value consumption is considered as a motivation construct. An individual tends to relive their arousal which is chronically plagued by status anxiety (Solomon, 2014). The notion in which product consumption

relies on extrinsic instead of intrinsic factors is central to marketing strategies as the ability of possession associated with social goal accomplishment.

If the context of consumer behaviour is widened from a psychological level by encompassing social and cultural perspectives, it is therefore clear that the social theory in the present day, instead of individualisation, the prime force of consumption is more of a social role (Auty and Elliott, 2001). The consumption has been conceptualised as culturally dependent by the poststructuralist culture theory which explains that rather than cognitive traits, consumers now depend on contextualised characteristics (Holt, 1997). Moreover, the purpose of consumption is “*to foster and affirming sense of social belonging*” (Thompson and Haytko, 1997). An anthropologist point of view also emphasises pro-social functions whereby the purchasing behaviour is always related to social relationships (Miller, 1998).

According to anthropologists’ views, there is a mutual relationship between materialistic objects and consumers living in a social community with shared norms of consumption (McCracken, 2005). Several cases show how the purchase of certain brands can enhance one’s social importance and self-importance. For instance, when an individual purchases a luxury car (e.g. Porsche), other people’s perception towards his/her social status might change dramatically. It can be highlighted that the use of fashion in the present day is not only differentiated from others but to socialising as well. Supported by Belk (1988), gaining status or social prestige is one of the reasons behind what is recognised as the motivating source for product acquisition. The motive level of a consuming product relies on how an individual wants to be accepted by others (Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). According to Chi and Kilduff (2011), social value is focused on a consumer’s social acceptability and social impression gained from a product. The function of social value can be divided into two main views. Firstly, consumers view value that has been shared by their community as a social value. Tsirogianni and Gaskell (2011) refer to value held by society as “*socially collective beliefs and systems of beliefs that operate as guiding principles in life*”. For the second view of social value, in contrast to society value, it is seen as an object.

In the fashion context, consumers often rely on material possessions to communicate social status (Belk, 1988). Apart from any functional benefits, fashion products communicate social status. Fashion goods are seen as an effective social label because of their symbolic meanings (Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp and Ramachander, 2000 and Steenkamp, Batra and Alden, 2003). Thus, the practical importance of social value is obvious. It demonstrates that economic force is not formed only for business direction. Consumers also acquire a product to pose their symbolic consumption and express themselves, rather than for its functional utility (Tifferet and Herstein, 2010). Likewise, the notion is supported by the symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1981), positing that individuals use material possessions and other indicators as socially recognised symbols to communicate this identity to others, at a time, they use brands as a means to protect their self-identity.

2.5.2 Emotional Value

Emotional value is the utility derived from feelings, or affective states that a product generates (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). With regard to some classical definitions towards consumer value, it is proposed that “*the emotional bond established between a consumer and a producer after the consumer has used a salient product or service produced by that supplier and found the product to provide an added value*” (Butz and Goodstein, 1996). Emotional experience plays a key role in creating consumers’ satisfaction. Moreover, recent conceptualisation related to consumption experience suggests that the response of emotional experience on the purchasing intention process is robust. The original work of Dichter (1947) explained that consumer choice is driven by non-cognitive and unconscious motives. For example, advertising and atmospherics can arouse emotional responses that may be generalised to marketed products (Kotler, 1974 and Park and Young, 1986).

Excitement, combined with pleasure and arousal (Russell and Pratt, 1980) triggers tendencies, unplanned purchases and hedonic shopping value (Dawson, Bloach and Richway, 1990; Babin and Darden, 1995), thus, hedonic shopping value reflects consumer’s overall evaluation of the experience itself (Babin et al., 1994). Humans are by nature pleasure seekers and typically desire a feeling of pleasure towards a consumption experience (Carbone and Haeckel, 1994). This notion can be traced back

to the concept of emotional value from Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) suggesting that in many situations consumers seek “*fun, amusement, fantasy, arousal, sensory stimulation and enjoyment*”.

According to Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), a product can be considered by a consumer as a means of attaining their specific desire and emotional experience to satisfy themselves. It is described as an individual’s immediate state of mind forming from their thoughts and some kinds of emotional judgement (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer 1999). This kind of value perception prevails over the consumer’s rational process when they are confronted with it in order to make a decision, especially when there are no obvious differences between product choices (Battman, Luce and Payne, 1998; Doyle and Stern, 2006). This notion is supported by Levitt (1983) expressing that “*the new competition does not occur between what companies produce in their factories, but between what they add to these products in the form of packages, service, advertisements, financing, ways of delivery, stock policies and everything else that consumers may value.*”

At a product level, consumers do not hold only functional values, but emotional ones as well (Chernatony, Haris and Riley, 2000). Emotional value is an important part of the consumption experience and a motivator for particular action (Barlow and Maul, 2000). Pleasure and positive effect are important human experiences, not only because they represent intrinsically preferred states, but also because they can facilitate and support other human functions (Isen, 2003). Moreover, emotional experience plays a major role in creating consumer’s shopping satisfaction. Excitement combined with pleasure and arousal increases tendency, unplanned purchases and hedonic shopping value (Dawson et al., 1990; Babin and Darden, 1995). Thus, a hedonic shopping value reflects the consumer’s evaluation of the experience itself (Babin et al., 1994). Indeed, affective experience acts as a chief component in consumer value perception as clarified by Rosenberg (1988) who mentioned that “*emotions are acute, intense, and typically brief psycho-physiological changes that result from a response to a meaningful situation in one’s environment.*” (p. 250).

The relationship between emotional value and product is determined by the symbolic characteristic of the product. It is associated with emotional valence and emotional arousal that a product can elicit from the consumer in order to build an affective bond leading to ultimate behaviours (Albert Merunka, and Florence, 2009). Furthermore, Gentile, Spiller and Noci (2007, p. 397) mention that “*the consumer experience originates from a set of interactions between a consumer and a product, a company, or part of its organization, which provoke a reaction.*”

The approach of adding emotional value to a product is substantially recommended in marketing as it aims to increase the worthiness of what the company offers to the consumer. It is viewed as a complimentary additional benefit and a tool for companies to separate themselves from competitors in order to gain positive outcomes and repeat business (Roberts, 2004). The most effective way to boost experiential perspective is not limited to only utilitarian or social issue values, but involving with affective states for the product evaluating process (Holbrook, 1999; Babin et al., 1994; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Jensen and Klastrup, 2008)

2.5.3 Price value

The third dimension introduced by the consumption value theory is price /value for money. Price value is the utility derived from the product due to the reduction of its perceived short term and long term costs (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Posited by Zeithaml (1988), the theoretical trade-off rationales underlying an expected positive price-quality linkage can be based on expected market forces - high-quality products often cost more to produce than low-quality. Following the price-quality concept, considerable theoretical and empirical evidence reveals that consumers typically use that price as an extrinsic cue to judge product quality (Shimp and Bearden, 1982 and Dodds and Monroe, 1985). However, according to Sweeney and Soutar (2001), price value and quality value are independent from one another; therefore, they are separately measured.

Nevertheless, economic utility maximisation theory based on Stigler’s work (1950) emphasises the intervening role of market prices on ultimate evaluations of perceived utility. Due to the reason that monetary resources are often limited, individuals’ perceptions about the value of an alternative are constrained by product prices. In this

notion, Sheth et al. (1991) view price as a salient attribute contributing to functional value (p. 34). In the market transactions, people are required to assign value to a product as an exchange. Shafir, Diamond and Tversky (1997) posit that rather than the real value of money the nominal values are considered more. This focus on minimal value is explained in economics literature as the transaction has been profound as the consequences of aggregation in an economic (Fehr and Tyran, 2001).

Consumers endure their purchasing behaviour based on monetary and non-monetary cost. Monetary refers to what an individual has to pay while non-monetary are specifically regarded as time or sacrifice cost. The more reasonable the price, the more satisfied consumers tend to evaluate their behavioural outcomes (Clemes, Gan, Kao and Chung, 2008). This view receives empirical support from Monroe (2003); when an individual perceives that the benefit offered from a product is worth the sacrifice, they are more likely to perceive fair price perception.

2.5.4 Quality value

Perceived quality refers to the utility derived from the perceived quality and expected performance of the product (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Like Aaker (1991) and Zeithaml (1988) contend that perceived quality is the consumer's judgement of the overall excellence or superiority of a product or service, instead of the actual quality of the product or service. The perceived quality value is associated with the consumer's past experience in defining what is "*superior quality or performance*" which is possibly different to the actual facts (Zeithaml, 1988). The concept of quality is a multifaceted concept related to several dimensions and it is not possible for consumers to evaluate them. Therefore, the surrogate or indirect indicator is used to make a judgement.

According to the cue-utilisation theory, products consist of an array of cues that serve as surrogate indicators of quality (Cox, 1967; Olson, 1972). Many scholars assert that perceived quality has a positive effect on perceived consumer value. They also differentiate cues into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic indicators in their conceptual consumer perceived quality value constructs (Zeithmal, 1988; Dodds et al., 1991; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Ralston, 2003). From the perspective of consumers, overall product quality is likely to be judged based on available

information cues either intrinsic, such as a product's performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability or serviceability, or extrinsic such as brand name, brand image, company reputation, manufacturer's image, retail store image and the country of origin (Yee and San, 2011), or from their own experience (Mitra and Golder, 2006).

Specifically in the context of the fashion industry, Chao (1993) indicates that price, country of design and country of assembly were statistically significant predictors of respondents' quality perceptions. When consumers have high confidence in a country's ability to produce high-quality products, they perceive that the products produced in the country are generally high-quality products; consequently, consumers are more likely to use price as an indicator of quality. Wall, Liefeld and Heslop (1991) also investigated the impact of country-of-origin, price and brand cues on perceived product quality, perceived risk associated with purchasing the product, perceived value and the likelihood of purchasing. All three cues were found to have a significant effect on consumer perceived product quality. Likewise the empirical study of Tse and Gorn (1993) revealed that country of origin, brand name and consumer consumption experience have a strong impact on consumer perceived product quality.

On the other hand, consumers are more likely to rely on primarily intrinsic cues which is a highly predictive value as they represent the actual garment characteristics rather than extrinsic cues such as brand names (Cox, 1962). In this context, the intrinsic cues of fashion product quality are time, orientation, fabric, layout/shape and newness. However, according to the mean-ends chain theory, the quality evaluation process is based on cognitive mechanisms (Vida and Reardon, 2008). The cognitive structure of consumer process that product quality is held in memory in the several abstraction levels whilst pay-off value or perceived quality product towards product are in complex level (Cohen, 1979). Thus, consumer evaluation of value perception is based on the consumer's evoke set as a whole.

2.6 Summary and limitations of the consumer perceived value literature

As the aim of this chapter is to provide a review of the consumer perceived value literature at the product level in order to investigate the major streams of knowledge both in theoretical and empirical research. By doing so, this literature chapter details more nuanced understanding including with the evolution of the consumer perceived value within the marketing domain. The chapter started by address an important of value concept involving with its importance, meaning, discussing based on the existing evidences. Nevertheless, prior studies of value are reviewed from uni-dimensional to holistic concepts.

A well-established framework to conceptualize the consumer perceived value is one developed by Sweeney and Soutar (2011) that is called “*PERVAL*”. Four value dimensions are termed social, emotional, quality/performance and price value. As the study evolved from emphasizing cognitive aspects includes with affective aspects, supports by MacKay (1999, p 182), who noted the product or service is viewed as “*amalgam of rational and emotional factors*” and that “*emotions play a part in every purchase decision (but) . . . very few purchases are entirely emotional.*” Therefore, multiple value dimensions can explain consumer choice better that only employ single dimension ‘*value for money*’ item.

2.6.1 Gaps for future research in consumer value literature

As discussed earlier, the concept of consumer value has gathered attention within marketing and consumer behavioural domains as it is described as the source of competitive advantage (Gallarza et al., 2011). However, a considerable amount of research has been explored and has expanded the concept of value in the business context, but fewer empirical studies have been conducted concerning the value concept on behavioural outcomes in the fast fashion industry especially in Thailand. This might be because the fast fashion industry has only recently become popular for Thai people. So far, the majority of previous studies on value research have tended to assume that value perception can affect every consumer equally.

Very little research has examined the *consumer heterogeneity in relation to value* and its explanatory power relating to consumer purchasing intention (Ruiz, Castro & Armario, 2007; Floh, Zauner, Koller & Rusch, 2014). It has been argued that some internal factors cause consumers to value the same product differently. Therefore social media involvement and brand love are incorporated into this study to serve as a moderator in the value-intention link which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE – LITERATURE REVIEW

SOCIAL MEDIA INVOLVEMENT

3.1 Introduction

The most stunning phenomenon of the past few years has been the speed at which social media has matured. The number of social media users is increasing rapidly year-by-year across the world and resulting in changes in the market place landscape (Cookey and Buckley, 2008). As they establish their position as mainstream marketing channels, social media platforms are criticized as important strategies in this digital era. The key factor for a business's success is individual involvement with social media. Different clusters of consumers yield different responses. The importance of involvement is to understand the consumer's underlying decision-making process.

Mitchell (1979) argued that involvement can be described as an individual motivation to process more information which can lead to consumer purchasing intention. Hence it is important to gain understanding towards consumer involvement with social media. The aim of this chapter is to provide a brief discussion regarding the importance of consumer involvement by its origin, definition and conceptualization from existing studies. Theoretical background of the involvement concept is documented. Moreover, it is followed by recent developments and imitations on social media involvement in empirical studies.

3.2 The concept of Involvement

The review of involvement literature commenced by tracing the original knowledge from social psychology, followed by introducing consumer behaviours domain. Researchers emphasise that the role of the involvement construct is described as the heart of the personal object relationship (Zaichkowsky, 1985; O'Cass, 2004). It has been considered as the major concern in both marketing and psychology over the past decades. It has received important attention in literature (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Funk, King and Pritchard, 2015). Rather than just a determinant, involvement has paradigmatic implications to address the way of thinking about consumer

behaviours as the researchers treat and make use of involvement to explain consumer behaviour. This theory proposes that an individual tends to actively search for more information and uses it to make better choices. Nevertheless, Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) posit that the majority of consumers are not extensive searchers for additional information or comparative evaluation of alternative offerings, even when purchasing major items.

Generally, consumers tend to make mundane decisions with the exception, on occasion, of a few important decisions. With regard to this, the leading theorists fill the gap by categorising consumers into two folds, namely high and low involvement consumers (Engel and Blackwell, 1982). As the considerable agreement from the existing studies noted, high involvement refers to the greater personal relevance or importance which results in a higher personal connection than low involvement (Engel and Blackwell, 1982; Krugman, 1965; Petty and Cacioppo, 1979). The demands of how the consumer processes information and makes choices differently occurred. Historically, a number of complex theories on consumer behaviour have been developed in order to understand and explain the consumer phenomenon (Bettman, 1979; Howard and Sheth, 1969).

The rising of the involvement concept is a major issue for the researcher who is interested in the decision-making process. An individual difference variable has been found to influence the consumer decision-making process. The existing theory proposes that the underlying behaviour of humans is to actively search and make the appropriate decision through the use of information. It can be stated that consumers tend to evaluate their senses to make the best reasoned choice as consumers are thinkers, problem-solvers, smart and rational (Narayana and Markin, 1975). Existing literature suggests that the concept of “*involvement*” could be applied with different applications, as an individual can be involved with purchasing decisions (Clarke and Belk, 1978), advertisements (Krugman, 1965) or products (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Hupfer and Gardner, 1971). Involvement with different objects yields different responses. For instance, an individual who is involved with a product is assumed to have a higher perception of product importance including greater commitment towards the brand (Howard and Sheth, 1969). It has been hypothesised that involvement with a purchase leads to searching and spending more time on the right

decision (Clarke and Belk, 1978). Hence, different areas propose their own idiosyncratic results when an individual is involved.

3.2.1 Engagement, driver of involvement

“Engagement” and “Involvement” are terms often associated with and relevant to the marketing domain (Wang, 2006). Involvement can be described as the motivation to process information which is perceived as relevant and important (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984). While Burnkarant and Sawyer (1983) note that the primary antecedent for individuals to process an involvement is to perceive a need for information. Hence engagement initiated from information or contextual relevance might act as a precondition to involvement and further impact an individual’s attitude and decision making (Ephron, 2006). Generally, engagement can be defined as the measurement tool towards contextual relevance whereby a brand/product’s message is framed and presented based on the surrounding context, whilst the advertising domain sees engagement as the “*turning on of a prospect to a brand idea enhanced by the surrounding context*” (ARF, 2006).

Based on the study of Greenwald and Leavitt (1984), the psychological theories of attention and processing have been applied to establish the framework of involvement. Relating to their hierarchical level, they separate the involvement level into four stages, namely preattention, focal attention, comprehension and elaboration. Amongst those four levels of involvement, the first two stages are particularly important in order to demonstrate the antecedent of involvement which is engagement. During the information process, engagement plays an important role on the effectiveness of information processing which allows the consumer to correspond to information effected in the process. At the preattention level of involvement, the consumer has little capacity to process incoming information and it is received immediately analysis (Wang, 2006). The preattentive analysis appears as the function to monitor background for further occurrence. Greenwald and Leavitt (1984) note that “*affectively significant information in the unattended channel of the selective listening task will be detected and can cause a shift of focal attention to the source of the message that contains this significant content*” (p.587).

Within this early process of involvement, the processing analysis including sensory buffering and other features analysis will be employed by the consumer. Burnkrant and Sawyer (1983) note that the primary antecedent of involvement towards the information process is to perceive relevant information which is initiated by the contextual relevance including salient cues, as the information tends to include the most relevant details which can shape a consumer's goal (Feldman and Lynch, 1988). Therefore engagement can be considered as the driver of involvement since the engagement process is the precondition to a higher level of involvement which influences the consequences of information resulting in the formation of attitude. In later procedure is the task of repetition unattended channel of selective information. Within this stage consumers use "*modest capacity to focus on one message source, and to decipher the message's sensory content into categorical codes*" (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984, p. 584). In other words, perceptual and semantic processing are used by consumers in producing an object's presentation. Moreover, changing in affective involvement probably has a chance to occur at this stage if repeated information provides effective value. Consequently, an engagement which is initiated by surrounding and contextual relevance is able to increase information believability (Wang, 2006). Therefore it can be concluded that the two perspectives, engagement and involvement, are totally different constructs, as the evidence shows that engagement is the antecedent and driver of consumer involvement. Within this study the concept of involvement has been applied to investigate consumption behaviour.

3.2.2 Definition of Involvement in Consumer Behaviour Research

Within the consumer behaviour literature, the definitions of involvement have been concluded as overlapping onto other concepts such as centrality, commitment, importance or cognitive effort (Laaksonen, 1994; Coulter, Price and Feick, 2003). The concept of involvement seems to be a vague concept since there is "*no clear statement or agreement on what this concept (involvement) represents*" (Lasvicka and Gardner, 1979, p. 48). However, involvement has been used as an umbrella term for similar but different concepts. The definition of involvement varies based on the specific discipline (Cohen, 1983).

Table 3.1- Definition of involvement

Author (s)	Definitions of Involvement
Day (1970)	The general level of <i>interest</i> in the attitude towards the object, or the centrality of the object to the person's ego-structure
Rothschild (1979a)	A motivational state of <i>arousal</i> and <i>interest</i> that is evoked by external factors such as the situation, the product or the communications and internal factors such as ego, central values and beliefs
Mitchell (1979)	Involvement is an internal state variable that indicates the amount of <i>arousal</i> , <i>interest</i> , or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation
Zaichkowsky (1985)	A person's <i>perceived relevance</i> of an object based on inherent needs, values and interests
Bloch and Richins (1983) and Richins and Bloch (1986)	Consumers' enduring concern for a product class, which arises from ongoing interest and its association with consumers' self- identity-related needs and values
Traylor and Joseph (1984)	A response that reflects an individual's <i>sense of self or identity</i>
Celsi and Olsen (1988)	A person's subjective experience or feelings of <i>personal relevance</i>
Higie and Feick (1989)	Individual difference variable representing an <i>arousal</i> potential of a product that causes <i>personal relevance</i>
Mittal and Lee (1989) and O'Cass (2001)	A goal-directed <i>arousal</i> capacity which is influenced by a set of motives (e.g., utilitarian, self-expressive and hedonic motives)

However, different nuances in the understanding of the involvement concept seem to have a common ground in its term. According to Table3-1, it appears as a general agreement that the majority of researchers view involvement as personal relevance, as the common thread seems to define involvement as the “*motivational state that has been activated*” by several issues, tasks or even stimuli (Mittal, 1989). In this sense, involvement is manipulated by making issues or objects relevant, as an individual tends to be personally affected and therefore motivated to respond (Zaichkowsky, 1985).

3.3 Classification form of involvement in consumer research

As an abstract regarding the nature of involvement, Houston and Rothschild (1978) suggested that there are three forms of involvement, situational, enduring and response.

3.3.1 Situation Involvement

The author posits that *situation involvement* is the specific situation that elicits the consumer to become involved with a stimulus object in a temporary concern manner. Rothschild (1984, p.217) mentions that situation involvement is “*a state of interest, motivation or arousal*”, while Mitchell (1979, p194) refers to “*...an individual’s level, internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive*”. To distinguish between situational involvement and enduring involvement, Kapferer and Laurent (1985a) concentrate on the “*transitory*” nature of situation involvement as they argue that situation involvement is entailed with enduring involvement. This is a similar view to Richins and Bloch (1986), who distinguish between these two concepts by their temporary duration. Beatty and Smith (1987) point out that the definition of situational involvement refers to what extent the particular situation engenders involvement which implies that individual characteristics are not involved with this involvement level. This is in contrast with Antil (1984) who believes that product has no effect on involvement level but personal importance attributed by an individual with the product’s characteristics leads to situational involvement.

For example, the consumer might feel a little involved with fashion clothing when there is a particular situation arising that is really important to them such as their birthday party or going out to an event. Consequently, an unusual amount of time, thought and money would be spent on the product with regard to the situation. However, involvement level can be reduced if the situation passes.

3.3.2 Enduring Involvement

In contrast with situation involvement, *enduring involvement* is persistent over time even within different situations. This type of involvement arises when an individual holds a strong belief towards their favourite service or product. Houston and Rothchild (1978) conceptualised enduring involvement as a psychological connection between a subject and an object. They noted that an individual's unique characteristic (EI) is a form of involvement level that represents an individual's degree of interest or relevance towards the product on a day-to-day basis.

Bloch (1986) suggests that an individual's level of enduring involvement is motivated by the degree to which the product relates to the self and/or the pleasure received from the product, as the majority of people do not spend much time thinking about purchasing basic products such as detergents, shampoo or soap. But a consumer might have a high level of EI for some products with an ongoing basis, for instance, a lumber jack possesses high EI with related products such as tools and chainsaws. Nevertheless, an individual's need, value or sense of identity influences the motivational state. The concept of enduring involvement tends to be similar to the form of ego involvement, as the product area is relevant to the individual.

3.3.3 Response Involvement

Finally, *response involvement* is a combination of situation and enduring involvement (Richins, Bolch and McQuarrie, 1992; Celsi and Olsen, 1988). According to Houston and Rothschild (1978), response involvement is "*the complexity or extensiveness of cognitive and behavioural process characterizing the overall consumer decision process*" (p. 185). The type of involvement explains the level of product acquisition and decision making process (Leavitt, Greenwald and Obermiller 1981). However, it has been argued that rather than involvement information acquisition and decision

process is seen as a possible outcome of involvement (Cohen, 1983; Antil, 1984; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985b). In conclusion from the above discussion, the term involvement is not described as the same construct as information acquisition as it might be misleading to define involvement as the behavioural process check this sentence (Mitchell, 1979; Antil, 1984). To conceptualise involvement as a behavioural process is controversial and so enduring and situational involvement are seen to be more favourable among researchers.

3.4 Dimensionality and measurement of involvement in consumer behaviour research

The majority of studies treat the involvement construct as multi-dimensional since the predominating view in the consumer behaviour domain is “*no single construct can individually [and] satisfactorily describe, explain or predict involvement*” (Rothschild, 1979, p.78). The question remains whether the involvement construct should consist of one or of several dimensions. However, as an extent from the literature, the conceptualisation of involvement constructs has ranged from single dimension (; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Arora, 1982; Olsen, 2007) to multi-dimensions (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985; Mittal, 1989; Celsi and Olsen, 1988; Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon, 2004).

3.4.1 Involvement is a Uni-Dimensional Construct

With the uni-dimensional involvement construct, one set of items is employed to measure the overall concept. Table 3.2 shows studies that conceptualised involvement constructs as uni-dimensional. Indeed, several researchers have addressed the issue of single dimension as they argue that a uni-dimensional construct is inadequate to measure an involvement concept and also suggest that the importance or relevance of an object might not capture the richness of the involvement construct (e.g. Rothschild, 1979; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2006).

Table 3-2 Uni-Dimensional Approach to Involvement

Interest	Importance	Perceived Relevance	Others
Vaughn (1980)	Arora (1982)	Zaichkowsky (1985)	Traylor and Joseph (1984; self-identity)
Slama and Tashchian (1985)	Schneider and Rodgers (1996)	Ratchford (1987)	Bloch (1986; enthusiasm)
Michaelidou and Dibb (2006)	Lastovicka and Garder (1979)	Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder and Iacobucci (2001)	Venkatraman (1988; lifestyle or self-expression)
Olsen (2007)	Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2009)	Chung and Zhao (2003)	Zinkhan and Fornell (1989; care about object)
		O’Cass (2004)	
		Gam, Cao, Farr and Kang (2010)	

As Laurent and Kapferer (1985) point out the involvement construct is latent therefore it is not able to be measured directly and they suggest that researchers should “*stop thinking in terms of single indicator[s] of the involvement level and instead use an involvement profile to specify more fully the nature of the relationship between a consumer and a product category*” (p.41).

3.4.2 Involvement is the Multi-Dimensional Construct

The main purpose in employing a multi-dimensional approach is to investigate involvement’s constituent parts and capture a more in-depth and better understanding than just a simple, single dimensional construct. Kapferer and Laurent (1985) note that a single indicator is too dangerous and creates a certain amount of risk. To say that this is “*real involvement*”, the researcher should go further and accept an involvement profile instead of employing a single dimension. The relationship of individual and involvement level is better explained by a parsimonious number of facets, as there is no single facet that can fully predict behavioural consequences (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985). Table 3.3 shows the empirical studies that employed multi-dimensional constructs.

Table 3-3 – Multidimensional approach to Involvement

Year	Empirical studies	Involvement types	Dimensions number	Dimensions
1978	Lastovicka and Gardner (1978)	Product Involvement	2	Familiarity (knowledge); Commitment; Normative importance (importance)
1988	Celsi and Olsen (1988)	Felt Involvement	2	Situational sources of personal relevance and Intrinsic characteristics
1989	Mittal (1989)	Purchase Decision Involvement	4	Care to choose; Perceived brand difference, Importance of right choice, Concerned with the outcome
1996	Van Trijp, Hoyer and Inman (1996)	Product Involvement	3	Importance of product, Interest, Importance of right choice
2000	Grayson and Shulman (2000)	Involvement with possession	4	Temporal indexicality; Corporal indexicality; Psychic energy; Social visibility
2000	O'Cass (2000)	Enduring involvement with fashion clothing	4	Perceived relevance of product; purchase decision; consumption and advertising
2007	Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammit and Jodice (2007)	Enduring leisure Involvement	5	Attraction; Centrality; Social bonding; Identity expression; Identity affirmation
2010	Mollen and Wilson (2010)	Product Involvement	2	Hedonic and Utility

3.5 Application of Social media Involvement

According to previous literature reviews, it is demonstrated that the concept of involvement has a significant impact on a wide range of studies to explain consumer behaviour since Day (1970) extended his view in a marketing context that involvement is “ *the general level of interest in the object or the centrality of the object to the person’s ego structure*”, which hypothesised that involvement is the subject-object relationship when people get involved with an object because of its centrality or importance. The subject of consumer involvement has been used to study stimulus objects such as products, advertisements and purchase situations. Media has been recognised as an area of interest in the marketing domain for many years (Rubin and Perse, 1987; Krugman, 1971; Perse, 1990; Greenwood, 2008; Greenwood and Long, 2009).

Recently, as technology has continued to progress rapidly, human-system interaction has become a topic of interest amongst scholars. Social media is a revolutionary phenomenon that has changed the world more deeply than we realise. It can broadly be defined as internet-based applications that facilitate information creation and exchange via communities and networks. The emphasis of social media’s activities is user-generated content and data generated through online social interactions (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Li and Bernoff, 2008). Moreover, social media merges the capabilities of personal and mass media in such a way as to reach larger audiences. It refers to a kind of new media technology that enables two-way, instantaneous communication within groups. Social media empowers both individuals and organisations to communicate and circulate content at a global level cheaply and instantly (Arnaboldi and Coget, 2016).

Moreover, due to the tremendous popularity of social media among consumers, researchers have begun to turn their interest and extend the applicability into involvement with websites and online social media (Ha and Hu, 2013; Akhter, 2014; Bergmark, Bergmark and Findahl, 2001). In last few years, the potential of social media has been recognized by business organization often connecting focus on marketing strategy. As such, social media is the web-based application that concentrates on an active involvement and consumer’s participation.

Further, social media is fast moving as the information that has been created by users is widely spread in a short time. Social media provides platform for consumer intentionally or unintentionally to create and exchange different types of information (Calder, Malthouse and Schaedel, 2009). Currently, consumer is not just merely passively accept products or services but rather participate with organization operation process and act as a significant role to strengthen innovation and value creation (Etgar, 2008; Nambisan and Baron, 2009; Hoyer, Chandy, Dorotic, Krafft and Singh 2010).

The concept of involvement is regarded as being of interest to the communication research and information system area since Swanson (1974) posits “*that management should be involved with MIS development in a particular wisdom . . . Unfortunately, what is meant by involvement is rarely clear, and nothing has been done in my knowledge to provide a rigorous foundation for its measurement*” (pp.178-179). After they reviewed and compared the “*involvement*” construct, Barki and Hartwick (1989) proposed that the concept of involvement that has been used within information systems literature came from several conceptualisations such as psychology, consumer behaviour, marketing and organisation behaviour. They recommended that as it is “*consistent with work in other disciplines, the term “user involvement” should be used to refer to the subjective psychological state of the individual and defined as the importance and personal relevance that users attach either to a particular system or to information systems in general, depending on the user’s focus*” (pp.59-60).

As the important role of involvement construct is to regulate the amount and nature of information that an individual acquires when they are involved. Within communication research, there are three points of view relating to the concept of social media involvement. The first view is derived from the marketing research which sees involvement as the pre-communication condition which concentrates on what an individual takes with him into the communication circumstance (Sherif, Sherif and Nebergall, 1965). Consumer involvement reflects the level of information that has been perceived and whether it influences an individual’s reaction to those messages (Sherif et al., 1965), as when people perceive information that is important

and relevant, they are motivated to pay more attention to process it intensely (Petty and Cacioppo, 1984).

Secondly, Krugman (1966, p.583) points out that involvement refers to “*direct personal experience*” during an audience process of message acceptance. It is elaborated that there are “*two entirely different ways of experiencing and being influenced by mass media. One way is characterized by lack of personal involvement. . . . The second is characterized by a high degree of personal involvement. By this we do not mean attention, interest, or excitement but the number of conscious "bridging experiences," connections, or personal references per minute that the viewer makes between his own life and the stimulus*” (Krugman, 1965, p.355)

Furthermore in media research, to understand user involvement, audience role needs to be understood first as the concept of involvement in media research which plays a vital role in explaining the “*role of active interactants in communication*” (Rubin, 1998, p. 257). Rather than laying emphasis on the message, the concept of media involvement plays locus of their involvement on an individual. In addition, an interaction of audiences and internal factor stimuli such as messages or media are concentrated. It is coincidence coincides with Andrew, Durvasula and Akhter’s view (1990), that it is not the product but an individual which is the foci of control. In summary it can be seen from the explanation above that the conceptualisation relating to involvement constructs is based on several disciplines in marketing, media and communication literature. Therefore, in this study the conceptualisation and measurement of social media involvement is related to previous literature from several disciplines.

3.6 Construct Definition of Social Media Involvement

Theoretically, there is no precise definition of the concept of “*involvement*”. But there is a general consensus that involvement refers to an individual level, internal- state variable that refers to the matter and individual relevance to the object or event (Greenwald and Leavit, 1984; Krugman, 1967; Mitchell, 1979). However, Rothschild (1984) defined involvement as “*an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest*”. In IS research, user involvement refers to an individual’s level of

participation in the system, which is processed by potential users. With conformance to researchers in the information system, marketing, social psychology or even in communication research, this study views perceived personal relevance and participation level as essential characteristics of the social media involvement construct (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; Rubin and Perse, 1970).

The conceptualisation of social media involvement implies that an individual level of involvement with social media is determined by the degree to which an individual participates and perceives social media to be of personal relevance and interest to them. The study suggests that social media is personally relevant to an individual to the extent by which he/she perceives that social media is self-related or in the way that access to social media allows them to achieve their personal goals, values and objectives, to the extent that when features of social media are associated with an individual, he/she will experience and develop strong feelings on their affective involvement while cognitive involvement deals with an individual part of information processing. Therefore, in this study, Social Media Involvement refers to the *“perceived relevance of social media platforms regarding their level of cognitive, affective and behavioural participation.”* The adaptation of the definition of Social Media Involvement is intended to explore the level of consumers’ involvement towards social media to extend the knowledge of consumer behaviour processes in a marketing context.

3.7 The Benefit of Being Involved with Social Media

Social psychology and communication literature have explained the role of individual media consumption by assuming that individuals are active agents who are rational decision makers who gratify their needs with media. According to McQuail (1983), within the uses and gratifications research, there are four main typologies of common reasons that an individual accesses media:

- Information – to find out about relevant events, society and the world; advice seeking on practical matters or opinions on decision choices; satisfying curiosity and general interest; learning; self-education; gaining a sense of security through knowledge.
- Personal Identity – finding reinforcement for personal values; finding models

of behaviour [sic]; identifying with valued others (in the media); gaining insight into one's self.

- Integration and Social Interaction – gaining insight into the circumstances of others: social empathy; identifying with others and gaining a sense of belonging; finding a basis for conversation and social interaction; having a substitute for real-life companionship; helping to carry out social roles; enabling one to connect with family, friends and society.
- Entertainment – escaping or being diverted from problems; relaxing; getting intrinsic cultural or aesthetic enjoyment; filling time; emotional release; sexual arousal.”

However, there is a different function that an individual is possible to derive from using social media.

3.7.1 Purposive Benefit: Informational

In the digital era, individuals increasingly use social media as a useful information source to seek out information or to self-educate (Whiting and Williams, 2013). Existing evidence demonstrates that consumers rely on social media in such a way to process information and make behavioural responses (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Martins and Patricio, 2013). According to Pew's research (2011) “*people use online social tools to gather information, share stories, and discuss concerns*”. Along with traditional media, newer ones provide a potentially more powerful platform for information-seekers (Spence, Westerman, Skalski, Seeger, Sellnow and Ulmer, 2006). Therefore, gathering pre-purchase product information such as looking at product reviews and recommendations is the main objective for information searches. Hence this can make consumers feel empowered in their decision-making. Moreover, this could help consumers to make well-informed decisions and access knowledge and experiences regarding their product (Whiting and Williams, 2013). In addition, the user-generated content such as word-of-mouth by consumers or friends is considered to be more trustworthy and dependable for consumers (Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; Harris and Dennis, 2011).

3.7.2 Social Benefit

Social media enables people to connect and sustain online community and offers an individual an active means to communicate with both brand and other people who share the same interest (Girona and Korgaonkar, 2014; Whiting and Williams, 2013). As such, social media has totally changed the way people live. Nevertheless, consumers benefit from social connection with others by sharing a common passion about a product, brand or experience via App services like Facebook or Instagram (Tsimonis and Dimitriadis, 2014). It facilitates the consumer's social interactions. However, social interaction is identified as one of the most popular reasons to connect with social media (Lenhart et al., 2010).

The most important factors demonstrated as drivers for social interaction are seeking emotional support, enhancing a sense of belonging, connecting with others and substituting life. As such, social interaction is when people contribute themselves to a social media platform in order to talk and interact with others about a particular topic. Moreover, social media is composed of millions of users who interact with each other via online platforms. An individual accesses social media as they wish to achieve a favourable action from another member who shares the same interest (Kelman, 1958, 1961). As human beings need to feel connected with each other, social media can be used for an individual to gain social acceptance and develop social relationships through participating in community platforms (Akrimi and Khemakhem, 2014).

Social media can be used to identify themselves with others in order to gain a sense of belonging (McQuail, 1983). The concept of social identity is established when an individual prefers to make sense of him/herself within a group as a member of a community or "*belonging*" to it (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). This refers to a psychological state that is totally distinct from the separate individual. However, social identity will be created once an individual identifies themselves with the context around them and implies self as member of a group by including both components which have similarities with a group member and dissimilarities with a non group member (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003).

3.7.3 Emotional Benefit (Entertainment)

Social media is addressed as a source of entertainment and enjoyment (De Vries, Gensler and Leeflang, 2012). Korgaonkar and Wolin (1999) explain in their study that people access social media for escapism such as pleasure, fun and enjoyment. People are more likely to perceive enjoyment from a product, brand or a company's page that provides a source of fascination and is appealing to them (Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012). Supported by Kaye (2007), the driver of consumer involvement with social media is the online blog. There are four main activities associated with entertainment which are inspiration and mood management motives; relaxation or escapism; passing the time; enjoyment and having fun (Curran and Lennon, 2011; Heinonen, 2011)

3.7.4 Functional Benefit

People strive to take the maximum utility. Within an online setting, individuals are motivated to perform by receiving some rewards as an exchange. One more motivation to connect with social media is remuneration. This involves an individual's participation with a company's website or fan page where an individual searches for special promotions and offers which are instantly shared through social media (Gironda and Korgaonkar, 2014). Moreover, with regard to social media, trust is an important issue. Consumers tend to perform their searching online prior to making any choices (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). Social media is assumed to be a trustworthy source for seeking relevant information and recommendation rather than a website created by a company. Acquiring online information is considered to be reliable and credible since the consumer believes that a person who was happy with a product is more likely to unbiased (Sumangla, 2015).

Trust is considered an antecedent for individuals to involve themselves with social media and an important factor in relation to behavioural response (Hollebeek, 2011; Sashi, 2012). Another source of non-monetary cost which may be derived from using social media is convenience benefit by allowing an individual to achieve their task easily and speedily (Pura, 2005). Yale and Venkatesh (1986) identified six dimensions of convenience value including time utilisation, accessibility, portability,

appropriateness, handiness and avoidance of unpleasantness. Alternatively the study from Berry et al. (2002) proposed 5 stages of activities relating to the use of social media, that is, decision convenience, access convenience, transaction convenience, benefit convenience and post benefit convenience.

3.8 Social Media Involvement Dimensions

Relating to social media involvement, an individual participates in communication and processes information cognitively, whilst emotional reactions to those messages are described affectively. According to Petty and Cacioppo (1979), the involvement construct has been explained as a characteristic relating to issues, events or even objects that are associated with a greater willingness to attend and process information stimuli. A uni-dimensional definition is insufficient to capture the complexity of the involvement construct. A broader definition by Rothschild (1984), states that "*Involvement is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties. Its consequences are types of searching, information processing and decision making.*"

An individual's involvement has been revealed as thoughts and feelings during exposure. Explaining this view, when people are involved with social media, they pay attention to content and information; they then process, elaborate and respond to those messages emotionally (Perse, 1990). Moreover, time and effort are spent in order to target consumer involvement (Hemetsberger, 2003). Therefore, during social media exposure, three types of involvement are presented: cognitive, affective and behavioural components.

3.8.1 Cognitive Involvement

Thinking, processing and elaborating messages involve cognitive participation (Rubin and Perse, 1987). With regards to several scholars, cognitive involvement refers to active participation in processing information. In terms of the level of cognitive response, it shows that involved consumers devote a huge effort in searching information and acquiring strategies. Specifically, when consumers are involved with social media, they are more likely to process information during exposure at a "*deep level*", as an individual tends to start engaging with deeper processing and actively

evaluating important information (Buchholz and Smith, 1991). MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) reviewed that once a consumer is cognitively involved, constructive processing, which is explained as the deeper form of consumer process, is represented. From this process, the consumer goes beyond their relevant content by connecting to messages in a meaningful way relating to their life with coincides with a study by Kurgman (1965) who proposed that a personal connection or bridging experience is produced once the consumer processes the information in a meaningful way.

3.8.2 Affective Involvement

Individual reactions to personal relevance messages are common. Cohen et al., (2008) posit that generally affective involvement refers to an emotional feeling elicited by attitude object where those features feelings are real and perceived. It can encompass both negative and positive feelings (Fredicks, Bluemenfeld and Paris, 2004). Links to communication research have proposed that "*involvement and intensity of subjectively felt emotions go hand in hand*" (Cappella, 1983, p. 117). When people are affectively involved, they will have passionate or positive experiences towards subjects or issues. Relate to Interpersonal researchers review that relationship formation and dissolution are influenced by emotional components (Bowers, Metts and Duncanson, 1985).

3.8.3 Behavioural Involvement

With the multi-dimensions of involvement, behavioural involvement has been claimed as the target of consumers' involvement. The behavioural component acts as an indicator to understand the consumer behaviour level. Stone (1984) proposed that behavioural involvement refers to the time and intensity of effort which an individual expends to pursue an activity. When individuals are involved with issues or objects, they are not just merely feeling and thinking about it but they are actively doing something with it. In this sense, consumers are involved with affective, cognitive and behavioural involvement (Hemetsberger, 2001)

3.9 The Process of Involvement

Involvement is indicated as participation reflected to mass communication and interpersonal research. According to Greenwald and Leavitt (1984), there is a consensus between high and low levels of involvement as high involvement refers to personal relevance or importance. Krugman (1965) suggested that the communication effect is not limited with only high level of involvement as the effect can be expected for either high or low levels of involvement. However, two different levels of involvement groups should yield different results. Houston and Rothschild (1977) proposed that increasing the level of involvement results in increasing the complexity of the consumer making decision process. The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion of Petty and Cacioppo (1981) explains that an individual tends to confront information that is not personally useful or relevant.

Table 3.4 Characteristic of High vs Low Involvement with Social Media

High Involvement	Low Involvement
Central route	Peripheral route
Greater amount of cognition/ higher level of messages elaboration/ thoughtful consideration	Making just a simple inference and consider information only with credibility/argument source
Devote time and effort as an extensive information searching	Have less attention to non-product feature
Loyalty	Inertia (inactivity)
Deep level for processing	Limited attention to process
Goal is purchase	Might not interest in purchase
Searching for in-depth knowledge, hold thoughtful attitude in order to extending problem solving	Limited attention towards product, impulse buying

Source: Adapted from Petty and Cacioppo (1984)

Moreover, an individual who has a higher intention and participation with a website, processes relevant information in a deeper way, seeks, pays more attention and processes incoming information attentively, generates more thoughts and uses it as their core criteria towards the decision making process (Balabanis and Reynolds, 2001). When faced with messages about important topics, people are motivated to pay attention to informational message elements and process them more intensely (Petty and Cacioppo, 1984). This is supported by social psychology which states that under high involvement conditions, individuals tend to put their cognitive effort into evaluating related issues and processing information (Petty et al., 1983). Hence when humans are involved, they focus and react on those messages emotionally (Capella, 1983; Miyazaki, 1981; Bailyn, 1959).

Furthermore, Mitchell (1979) highlights that individual with high involvement process a higher level of arousal, which is a similar view to Burnkrant and Sawyer (1983) who state that a high level of involvement drives a consumer's state as they design as "*need for information.*" Therefore, a consumer with a high level of involvement is more likely to retain and retrieve more information and to derive their decision from those messages (Cacioppo and Petty, 1984). In terms of a learning hierarchy, Ray et al. (1973) suggest that individuals with a high involvement level directly and cognitively process change their attitude and then adapt their behaviour.

Under low involvement conditions, as a passive user, Andrews, Bonta and Hoge (1990) reveal that an internal state of arousal will induce an individual to connect with media with a different level of frequency and purpose. Moreover, when involvement is low, consumers might lack motivation and their ability to process towards a particular interest. In relation to fashion products another individual might not be interested in purchasing a fashion product or even interested in obtaining any information regarding the fashion product or brand. But somehow, when an individual explores a social media page, he or she might be attracted by an advertisement, picture, promotion or review from another consumer. They might devote their full attention to those feeds and probably activate their schema to those fashion posts in

order to process the information. As a result, they might acquire some new information regarding the fashion product. The rising of social media to become a large part of technology has enabled individuals to perceive experiences which they have never encountered before. When businesses support consumers to create an ultimate experience which meets their need, a higher level of involvement occurs (Gangi and Wasko, 2016). An individual's participation with social media is associated with an involvement in social participation and interaction rather than just a personal interaction (Bagozzi and Lee, 2002).

3.10 Limitations of Social Media Involvement Studies

In previous, the concept of involvement has been widely employed in the context media (Rubin and Perse, 1970). However, media involvement is different to social media involvement by their characteristics. Media (traditional media) is a one-way communication in which companies broadcast their message to audiences through TV, radio or print; while social media is a two-way communication that allows the user to participate, access and connect with real time. Social media platforms are suggested to be more homogeneous than traditional media such as television or radio, which results in social media being more effective per viewer exposed to it. Furthermore, it is easier for firms and marketers to obtain more accurate numbers of exposure per viewer that is more effective to match a consumer to their specific group need rather than the entire group. Moreover, recent evidence indicates that nowadays a higher number of younger people are increasingly involved with social media (Stefanone, Lackaff and Rosen, 2011). Hence it is crucial for this study to extend the investigation into the social media involvement issue and develop a measurement scale that is more effective, multi-dimensional and able to be applied to general platforms.

Within communication research, four studies by Ha and Hu (2013), Lim, Aali, Heinrichs and Lim, (2013), Lueng and Bai, 2013 and Amaro and Duarte (2015) specifically developed the scale to measure consumer involvement with social media. The study from Ha and Hu (2013) suggested that the social media involvement continuum is based on the motivation and time use dimensions. As explained in their study, time spent on social network sites and the frequency of update level is an indicator of involvement level. The median of SNS involvement is described as the

cut-off point to categorise the high and low group of users because of highly skewed results on the involvement score. It is unsurprising that the concepts of involvement in the majority of previous studies apply intensity index usage as a significant indicator because the study assumes that the more people spend online the more people get involved with the site.

Table 3-5: Involvement Dimension with Respect to Social Media Involvement Framework

Author(s)	Measurement Scale	Indicator		
		Behavioural	Affective	Cognitive
Ha and Hu (2013)	Social Media Involvement	×		
Lim et al., (2013)	Social Media Involvement		×	
Amaro and Duarte (2015)	Traveler's Social Media Involvement	×	×	
Leung and Bai (2013)	Traveler's Social Media Involvement		×	×

Although in the past, the researcher measured the consumer relationship with media based on time dominating which is quite direct effect and useful information to understand audience with traditional media (television, radio or broadcast media) as the program is delivered with discrete time (Jung et al., 2001). But with the emergence of advance technology and indirect effects models, the implicit of this logic has been lost. Time-based measures are able to tell us only amount connection time. However, there is no such a theoretical rational to support that the more time and individual access to social media, the more an individual will be affected by social media.

Even both time and frequency of activity are used to cluster the group of social media users, it is still referred to as uni-dimensional as only behavioural usage involvement

was employed. As the study from Lim et al. (2013) adopted the uni-dimensional construct of Zaichkowsky (1985) which is context-free by asking the respondent the question ‘*for me, using the social media sites is important, necessary, and practical*’ measured by the five-likert scale with an emphasis on personal relevance to an individual. As a supporter of a multidimensional approach, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) justify their approach by presenting significant empirical data showing that involvement is not limited to a single dimension and believed that involvement should be assessed like a multiple dimension concept because one dimension analysis seems insufficient for its integrity. The recommendation from Perse and Lambe (2016) suggests that the greater cognitive-affective-behavioural dimension should be involved to an instrumental orientation “*which marks the distinction between acquisition of knowledge about an action and performance of the action*”.

On the other hand, Amaro and Duarte (2015) described social media involvement (for travellers) as ‘*a person’s level of interest, emotional attachment or arousal with social media*’, as adapted from Rothchild’s study (1984). In their study, they viewed involvement as a multi-dimensional approach that contains a set of important constructs including both mental state and behavioural usage. Four dimensions are employed: social media consumption; creation of social media content; perceived playfulness and level of interest. However, the aim of their study is to investigate traveller social media involvement as they assume that the level of traveller involvement with social media can be either passive or active, resulting in the way they receive and process the information. But in their measurement scale, cognitive involvement dimension is lacking from this study as Perse (1990) suggests that cognitive involvement is shown to participate in consumer information processing.

Furthermore, the studies from Leung and Bai (2013) explore the concept of traveller social media involvement by employed affective and cognitive involvement. When an individual claims to involve with activity, they are actively participating on it rather just merely thinking on it (Hemetsberger, 2003). Therefore, involvement should be conceived in terms of behavioural form as well (Kim et al., 1997) this is coincidence with Engel and Blackwell (1982) proposal that time and energy spent are described as indicator to examine the involvement. Therefore, within this research conceptual framework, it is supposed that three core variables cognitive, affective and

behavioural will be able to predict an individual level of involvement accurately.

As the literature recommended that when an individual involve with social media, cognitive involvement are enhanced since they pay attention, focus and process an information (Bailyn, 1959) and they react emotionally as affective involvement promoted (Capella, 1983). Support by Rubin and Perse (1987) that “*Involvement, then, is cognitive, affective, and behavioral participation during, and because of, media exposure.*”

CHAPTER FOUR: LITERATURE REVIEW

BRAND LOVE

4.1 Introduction

For decades, researchers have studied the brand attitude and developed several brand concepts. Recently, more interest has been paid to consumers' emotion for brands to explain the irrational buying from the experiential view of consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982a, 1982b). Brand love becomes an emerging concept in the domain of this experiential consumption (Roy, Eshghi, and Sarkar, 2013). The initial investigations of brand love construct were conducted by Shimp and Madden (1988) who advocate the structural analogy between interpersonal love and love for possessing objects. Based on this notion, Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) conceptualise brand love as emotional and passionate feelings for a trade name, and propose a unidimensional scale of brand love.

However, love is generally presented as a complex feeling (Sternberg, 1986) that probably favours the multidimensional construct (Albert et al., 2008).

Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005) develop a multidimensional construct of emotional brand attachment including 12 sub-dimensions of affection, connection and passion; nevertheless, they contend that their scale provides more with the love construct than attachment construct which is similar to brand love construct.

Likewise, Albert et al., (2009) also develop a brand love scale that includes seven sub-dimensions of affection and passion and confirm that love towards a brand is highly close to interpersonal love.

However, in previous studies, the researcher emphasise on their conceptualisation and neglecting to investigate the consequence of brand love. Few studies explore their critical role of brand love on brand loyalty (Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi, 2012) active participation in a brand community (Bergkvist and Bech- Larsen, 2010). Because of the limited studies of brand love concept, this present study aims to add the understanding of brand love, their consequence relate to other construct and the extent to which brand love is beyond interpersonal love in the experiential consumption context of a fast fashion product.

4.2 What is love?

To determine what *love* is, psychologists have worked to empirically and theoretically narrow down the concept. The majority of the empirical work has concentrated on the phenomenology of love by trying to operate human feelings which make up love's experience. However, there is some consensus which believes that love is more than only a thing (Fehrand Russel, 1991; Sternberg, 1986). Love is such a deep phenomenon which has been of central interest in several domains. In order to explain the concept of love, sometimes researchers end up with either a single definition or typology. Ahuvia (1993) claims that a single definition of the concept of love does not exist. In psychology, there are many emotionally-loaded terms used to describe what love represents, including attachment, intimacy, passion or commitment depending on which type of love is being investigated such as interpersonal love, romantic love, passionate love or altruistic love (Batra et al., 2012). However in the science domain, love is considered to be a multidimensional or hypothetical construct which contains many implications and interpretations (Carter, 1998). This is emphasised further by Sternberg (1997) who suggests three major components of love including intimacy, passion and decision/commitment.

In addition, Fournier (1998) defines that within interpersonal domains there are four underlying conditions for relationship. First of all, relationships are purposive. Love adds structure and meaning to human life. Another three sources of meaning, including psychological, socio-cultural and relational, are described in order to shape the significance of an individual's relationship. Secondly, relationships are considered as multiplex phenomenon which takes different forms and provides a different range of benefits to each person. Thirdly, relationship is a dynamic process as it changes over time depending on the situation and environment. Lastly, reciprocal interaction is between partners who are in relationships. This is supported by Kernberg (1995), who states that in romantic relationship, both persons must have an ability to fall in love in order to grow out the relationship. Thereby, both persons must be ready and willing to idealise and enter into an emotional relationship with each other. Once all these conditions are fulfilled, love is able to evolve with altruistic action whereby giving is more important than taking. Thus, both individuals have an ability to give love to their partner; therefore love exists in the relationship. Through a common knowledge

love can be defined as a strong, passionate affection for a person (Crews, 1998). However, although the universally accepted meaning of love is dearth, any person knows automatically when they are in love with another (Whang et al., 2004). Having an emotional bond and sensory stimulation that one desires are involved within the concept of love (105). Love seems to be a complex phenomenon which implicates emotional, psychological, behavioural and neurobiological portions. Bi-directional interaction between two or more partners is an outcome of love which is viewed as a dynamic process. It represents the different results of components at the beginning, such as falling in love is the attraction's process followed by the process of attachment which can last forever in some cases .

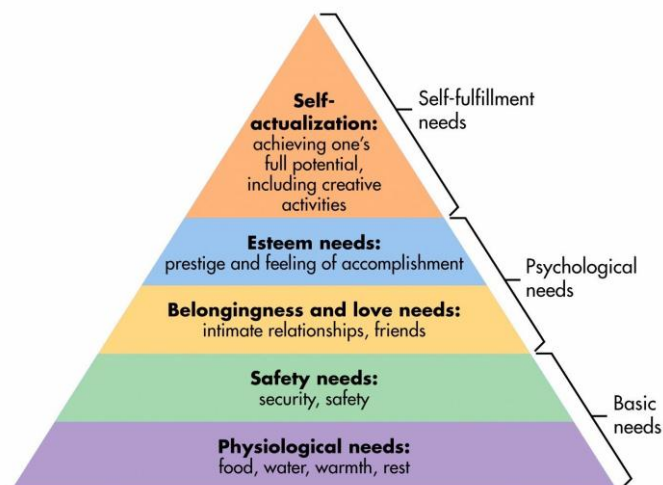
However, with different theories relating to love, one might still doubt why love is important anyway. The central assumption towards the dynamic of love is as follows: whether they accept it or not, humans strive to have a deepening soul connection with another human being. To love someone is such a basic need in our biological perspective. Uchino (2006) posit that love creates healthy and strong social ties. It reduces weak ties and creates life satisfaction, as love is not only an emotional but rather a deeply biological process which is dynamic and unidimensional. Because powerful emotions are often involved in a loving relationship, this seems to override the conscious decision-making process (Robert, 2004). This coincides with Kenrick (2006), who notes that when a decision is made in the domain of love, it will be influenced by biases which are developed from human history, as this approach assumes that the complex system of bias guides a human's decision making process in daily life. There are several differences in decision biases but one thing those biases have in common is the predisposition which makes an individual pay more attention to particular features.

4.3 Evolution of love

The concept of love has been studied for decades throughout history. The issue of "What is love" or "Why do we need love" has remained a question and has been asked in desperate ways since the beginning of time. To answer those questions, different angles of the concept of love have been investigated. Prominent to the question of love is Plato's symposium since his major idea has been served as the earliest

approach to understand the theory of love, which has probably shaped theory and research (Reis and Aron, 2008). In their study, they explain how lovers are able to sacrifice their lives for their love. With regard to psychology, the concept of love seems extremely abstract. However, the concept was important and concerted enough to be investigated and consequently evolved (Chapman, 2011). Several different theories have been proposed to explain love. The first clinical approach relating to love is from Sigmund Freud (1938). He suggested that love is viewed as sublimated sexuality and in his study human nature is attributed to unconscious desires; the centre of his theory of love is the need for an “*ego ideal*”.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is another important psychological theory which is crucial to and associated with the concept of love. The pyramid shape from Maslow starts from the bottom, which is the most fundamental, including basic needs (physiological needs and safety needs), psychological needs (love and belonging needs and self-esteem), while the top of pyramid is self-fulfillment (self-actualization, and self-transcendence).



Source : Maslow’s Hierachy of Needs (Maslow, 1970)

The needs of belonging and love are the middle level of the hierarchy. Maslow (1970) states that the majority of humans remain at this level. The next level will be pursued successfully once the basic needs are developed properly. Once the basic needs are developed properly, individuals look for a sense of belonging and the need to love such as friends, family support and identification for growing into the next level. This motivational plateau is concerned with the interpersonal and the health of the group or intimate relationship. Maslow (1970) suggests that there are two kinds of love which are D-love and B-love. He explains that D-love or deficiency love arises out of an individual's need for security and belonging. In other words, humans try to compensate with love for what is missing or inadequate in themselves, whilst B-love is concerned with how individuals fulfil themselves as human beings.

4.3.1 Attachment Theory (Relating to brand love)

Another important approach applied to explaining the concept of love has its roots in Bowlby's attachment theory (1980). It starts from the domain of the parent-infant relationship, continuing to the adult stage and then transfers to the final stage of romantic relationships. Bowlby postulates that infants are born with a repertoire of behaviour, as this is designed by evolution to ensure protection from both physical and psychological threats. The attachment system is served as a protection by keeping humans close to people who care about them. Keeping one safe is the goal of the attachment system; therefore the primary strategy is seeking proximity to others. Bowlby (1973) and Reis and Patrick (1996) reveal that the beginning of a child's attachment to their parent, followed by the adult stage with romantic love, relationship and friendship are considered to be the desire for humans to make strong attachments with others which serve as basic human needs. Therefore the primary conclusion from the attachment theory is defined as an *emotional-laden target specific bond* between an object and an individual. The early pattern between a child and their primary caregiver results in the development of attachment in different styles (Collins and Read, 1994).

Furthermore, the study of Bowlby's attachment style examines the characteristics of an individual to predict the future relationship behaviours, but somehow the different

perspectives have also been examined which are grounded in the attachment issue. Within the marketing domain, the theoretical concept also touches on the attachment construct (Fournier, 1998). Baumeister and Leary (1995) posit that “*it seems fair to conclude that human beings are fundamentally and pervasively motivated by a need to belong, that is, by a strong desire to form and maintain enduring interpersonal attachments.*” (p.44). In an effort to study the comprehensive theory of close relationship, Bowlby’s attachment theory (1980) is accepted by psychologists as an excellent framework. Generally, the attachment theory postulates the propensity of human beings in order to make strong bonds to others (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991). Several researchers suggest that the attachment theory could go beyond the psychological view between person-person relationships (Belk, 1988). Consumer emotional attachment is suggested as the important, critical construct which describes the strength of the bond between consumer and brand. Thomson and Johnson (2006) suggests that the attachment theory is appropriate to investigate ties of affection between consumer and brand because the nature of the theory is to study human tendency in order to form and dissolve affection as the essential concept in attachment theory is love and passion.

Undoubtedly, the attachment theory bears a similarity to the construct of love, for example, the most prototypical features such as caring, trust or friendship are also present in strong attachment (Baldwin and Fehr, 1995). Furthermore, love is viewed as an emotion which is characterised by an attachment bond. Individual attachment in person to person predicts their commitment within the relationship (Rusbult, 1983). As the commitment refers to the degree in which the individuals view their relationship as a long-term perspective, therefore they have a willingness to stay and confront even difficult things (Van Lange, Rusbult, Rusbult, Drigotas and Arriga, 1997). Hence commitment from the attachment theory has been viewed as a measure of marketing effectiveness, as in the same way the marketing domain describes the commitment as the extent to which the consumer remains attached to and stays with their brand (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999). Finally it can be assumed that the strength of consumer emotional attachment to an object (brand) relates to the investment in and preserving of the relationship (Van Lange et al., 1997).

Over the years, the evidence has demonstrated that consumers are able to form

emotional attachments to a variety of things such as brand (Schouten and McAlexander, 1995), gifts (Mick and DeMoss, 1990), sports teams (Babad, 1987) or collectibles (Slater, 2000). Even in consumer relationships, the theoretical concept has also touched on the attachment construct (Fournier, 1998). Although the concept of attachment between a person and an object differs in several ways and may not be as strong compared to a person- person relationship, the underlying conceptual properties are assumed to yield similar consequences (So et al., 2013).

However, to prove whether an attachment theory can be applied to the study of brand love the researcher has examined this assumption. Hazan and Shaver (1994) were the first to investigate and provide theoretical evidence to support the view that love can be considered an attachment process, which coincides with the results from the study of Mikulincer and Godman (2006), who adopted Bowlby's theory to conceptualise romantic love and postulated it as an attachment system. It should be clear that even though the study implies romantic love as an attachment process, it does not mean that the early phase of the relationship is equal to being attached. However, romantic love is a biological process in to facilitate the attachment level when love is involved (Hazan and Shaver, 1987). In summary, attachment refers to a strong relationship that is first experienced by parental love and is later developed to involve other target objects such as products or brands (Thomson and Johnson, 2006). All in all, it can be concluded that consumers tend to develop strong emotional attachments towards favourite objects and human brands (Park et al., 2006).

4.4 The Importance of Brand

Numerous definitions of brand have been proposed. Kotler (1991) defines brand as a *“name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competitors”* (p. 442). Brown (1992) refers to a brand name as *“nothing more or less than the sum of all the mental connections that people have around it.”* As a source of differentiation, brands provide lasting memory shortcuts to their consumers (Keller, 2003). Brands also generate consumer interest, patronage and loyalty (Keller, Apéria and Georgson, 2008). Accordingly, the power of a brand has long been recognised by companies because it is an important long-term strategy

(Keller et al., 2008; Ambler and Styles, 1997). Firms also need brands to maintain good relationships with their consumers (Zboja and Voorhees, 2006).

Brands play a vital role in consumers' decision-making processes (Fischer, Völckner and Sattler, 2010). Brand love is one of the brand concepts emerged from an irrational view of consumption where consumers construct multiple aspects using consumption experiences (Sarkar, 2014). In contrast, Jackson (2005) asserts that consumers are utility-seekers making a deliberate decision by evaluating the benefits of the choices that can maximise the advantages to them at the lowest costs. Palmer (2010) highlights that consumer's cognitive or rational processing is deeply embedded especially in contemporary Western societies. Kohli (1997) argues the notion of rational consumption that consumers buy brand not product; for example, they buy Levi's not jeans themselves or Louis Vuitton not a handbag itself because those brands sell feelings, and emotions play a powerful role in consumers' behaviour.

Accordingly, recent researchers have paid more attention to consumers' emotions attached to brands in order to explain irrational buying evolving from consumers' playful, sensory and emotional consumption responses. Thus, from a consumer's perspective, brand is more than an identifier because brands can represent consumer values, ideas and even personality, meaning to their sensitivity and emotions towards the product (Mwambusi, 2015; Kotler and Armstrong, 2004).

In addition, brand is an experience provider where its names, logos, slogans and events give the consumers sensory, affective, creative relations and lifestyles associated with the brand. Schmitt (2000) supports the idea that modern consumers do not only buy a product but also an experience. The experiential consumption is viewed as a flow of fantasies, feelings and fun based on the hedonic consumption theory of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982a, 1982b). The different degrees that consumers feel emotionally bonded to a brand exhibit the different levels of their intense affection towards the brand, which is described as satisfaction, loyalty or love. When a consumer is strongly attached to a brand with love, he/she does not change it easily. Therefore, from a company's perspective, brand is viewed as the direct consequence from a set of marketing strategies by segmenting consumers and differentiated products from competitors in order to survive in the market for the long

run (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Fischer, Völckner and Sattler 2010).

4.5 The Feeling of Love towards an Object (Brand)

Branden (1980) posits that *“The origin of our desire to love lies in our profound need to value, to find things in the world which we can care about, can feel excited and inspired by. It is our values that tie us to the world and that motivate us to go on living. Every action is taken for the purpose of gaining or protecting something we believe will benefit our life or enhance our experience”* (p.67). With regard to the definition above it can be concluded that love is not limited to love between human beings.

According to Ahuvia (2005), the concept of love is a common consumption relevant to our emotions. It is applied as often to objects and activities as to humans. When consumers say they are in love with a brand or product, the question arises, what does it mean when consumers say they are in love with a product or brand Are they finding themselves having a romantic relationship with a product Consumers tend to ascribe the existence of the relationship between themselves and a product/brand, for example some consumers name their car while some insist on BMW cars. However, psychologists argue that *“falling in love is something that happens to us, not something we make happen”* (Walsh 1991, p.186), which explains that marketers are not able to induce their consumers to fall romantically in love with a product/brand. In the same way, Sternberg (1986) proposes a theory to explain why consumers fall in love with an object and how those close relationships are formed.

The brand love paradigm has emerged, originating from human love and the attachment theory which evolved and into an enduring consumer-brand relationship. This is grounded in the attachment theory which refers to the deep-seated psychological bonds formed between one individual and their significant others, and is seen as a universal phenomenon. Relating to the theory of interpersonal love, human beings are born with an innate psychological system that motivates them to seek proximity or attachment figures (Marvin and Britner, 2008). The mechanism of

thoughts, emotions and behaviour about self and others rising from an experience with attachment figures is called the “*internal working model of social relationship*”(Bowlby, 1988). The deeper an attachment is, the more it leads to passionate love and commitment to a relationship.

However, even though the concept of love is reserved for interpersonal and social relationships between human beings, Shimp and Madden (1988) argue that “*consumers form relations with consumption objects (products, brands, stores, etc.), which range from feelings of antipathy, to slight fondness, all the way up to what would, in person-person relations, amount to love.*” Batra et al. (2012) note that brand love is always described as a less important relationship compared to interpersonal love. Love is as complex as humans themselves. People are always wrong to claim that the concept of human love and brand love are interchangeable. In the case of human relationships, it is a parasocial interaction.

Compared to interpersonal love, Ahuvia (1993) suggests that object love is unidirectional. In the context of a human-object relationship the word “*love*” should be understood metaphorically since the relationship is not equal but bidirectional. The difference between interpersonal love and brand love is also pointed out.

Interpersonal love is considered to be altruistic but this is not the same for brand love since “*consumers are more concerned with what the brand can do for them, rather than what they can do for the brand*” (Batra et al., 2012, p. 5). In nature, love involves the relationship between two partners and not two individuals (Rubin, 1970).

Consumers might have strong feelings of attachment and care towards those consumption objects but the objects cannot initiate a relationship with the consumer and is unable to reciprocate love in an active manner (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006).

With coincidence from the study of Fournier (1998) proposes that it is complex to study brand as an object because it is intangible in nature as a brand cannot feel, act or think unless it has been interacted with through the marketing activities by marketing managers. Pichler and Hemetsberger (2007) point out that an object must fulfil a consumer ‘s “*personification qualification*” in such a way to be perceived as an active partner and to be loved.

Lately, Reiman and Aron (2009) suggested that an existing idea of relationships is probably associated with the consumer’s close relationship with brand since a similar

type of relationship between objects and consumers are formed (Belk, 1988). Often the objects refer to the brand which the consumer relates to and has a deep emotional involvement with (Ahuvia, 2005). Similar to a loved other, Fournier (1998) proposes that brands can do the same in order to create a “*warm feeling*” amongst consumers, bond consumers in a close relationship or even generate the favourable experience of being cared for. It can be concluded that given the resemblance between a loved brand and a loved other, it seems feasible to apply those theories to the consumer-brand relationship.

Secondly, existing evidence has been found that the emotional intensity of human love far exceeds brand love since sometimes rather staying true to the brand that they love, consumers tend to flit fickle-like between an alternative competitor’s brands based on their availability. This is an important view from a psychological perspective as it explains that the consumer cognitive control level tends to decline with emotional intensity; in other words, love takes a less rational character. Moreover, interpersonal love is mostly driven by emotion whereas brand love is more rationally driven (Fetscherin and Heinrich, 2014). Recent studies found that the concept of brand love is rather more rational, transactional and dependent on receiving benefits while altruistic seems to best explain human love. Therefore this means that the unconditional nature of a consumer’s attachment to a brand should not be neglected. Although there is a difference between the emotions perceived in an object and directed towards a human, with regard to brand love the researcher shows that consumers have positive feelings towards a brand which exceed just a simple level of affection (Langer et al., 2015). Therefore, marketing researchers examined the different relationships that exist between an individual and a brand (Fournier, 1998) and argue that consumers can emotionally attach to brands (Lacoeuilhe, 2000; Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005). This emotional attachment has stimulated the rise of the feeling of love.

The attachment theory is driven by self-expansion which yields several potential outcomes. Firstly, the positive feeling of an individual offers the rewards of emotional regulation. This is followed by incorporating other into self which allows individuals to increase their perspectives, resources and self’s identities in order to include their partner’s resources with their own. Moreover, individuals see their partner as part of them resulting in the individual treating their partner preferentially (Aron et al., 2005).

In addition, the process of information relating to their partner seems to be biased since it is attached to an individual.

4.6 The Concept of Brand Love

Tracing back to the roots of brand love research, Rubin (1973 p. 265) defines the concept of love as “*an attitude held by a person toward a particular other person, involving predispositions to think, feel, and behave in certain ways toward that other person.*” Sternberg (1986) conceptualises three components of interpersonal love: intimacy, passion and decision/commitment. Shimp and Madden (1988) describe consumer–object relationships based on the interpersonal love components in Sternberg’s triangular Theory of Love (1986, 1997). If consumers view a brand as a person, they may love a brand in the way they love a person (Ranjbarian, Mahmoudi, and Ghasemi, 2013). However, different studies regarding love in psychology have proposed a different style of love.

Fournier (1988) is the first scholar to propose that consumers represent an intimate relationship with brand in a similar way to personal relationships. The consumer-brand love relationship is more intense rather than just simply liking. Love is a typical consumer-related emotion and often has a strong connection to the individual’s self-concept and identity (Richins, 1997). Supported by a consider amount of evidence (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Albert et al, 2008), consumers tend to establish an emotional response towards brand by eliciting an emotion similar to love. Roberts (2004) and Ortiz and Harrison (2011) also agree that when an individual has a pleasurable attachment towards a particular brand, it is concrete enough to describe it as “*love*”. However, they can use other terms to describe their loved brand, for example, “*I just don’t buy other brands’ and ‘this is a truly delightful brand’*”.

Compared to brand-consumer relationships in marketing domains, brand love is the most recent concept (Ahuvia, 2005; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi, 2012; Reimann, Castano, Zaickowsky, and Bechara, 2012). According to Kang (2015) brand love is a response, a feeling experienced by only a few very satisfied consumers. While consumer satisfaction is usually a transaction specific

outcome, brand love is an effect of a consumer's long-term relationship with the brand. Loving a specific brand cannot be replaced by other brands easily (Fournier, 1998). Today, firms have recognised that consumers' feelings of love towards a brand is a vital factor to establish a good long-term relationship with a consumer and gain sustainable advantage over their competitors (Roberts, 2004). As a consequence, this leads to greater attention towards brand love as a source of firms' competitive advantages. However, brand love is discussed with various constructs based on different conceptualisations amongst researchers.

4.4 Brand Love Conceptualisation

Among consumer–brand relationships, brand love is one of the deepest and most intense relationship types (Albert et al., 2008). Many studies have discovered that two individuals' interpersonal love is in the similar pattern to the consumer love for consumption objects (Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005; Keh, Pang and Peng, 2007; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Albert et al., 2008; Bengtsson, 2003).

Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) define brand love as “*the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name*” (p. 81). Emotion and passion towards a brand are combined to define brand love. According to Carroll and Ahuvia (2006), brand love is described as having five aspects; passion about the brand, the connection/attachment to the brand, the positive evaluation of the brand, positive emotion in response to the brand and the declaration of love for the brand. Within their study, they assert that satisfaction level forms a basis for the creation of brand love. Even though brand love and satisfaction resemble each other in several ways, there is a slight difference between them. Satisfaction can be realised by means of a one-time interaction of a consumer with the brand; on the other hand, the feeling of love can be realised after a few interactions. Satisfaction establishes and strengthens the bond between the brand and the consumer. Once this bond gets more emotionally strengthened, brand love is created. Brand love is about an affective system.

Albert *et al.* (2008a) define brand love within social psychology concept based on Thomson et al.'s (2005) emotional attachment construct and present that that brand trust seems to help develop consumers' love feelings toward the brand. When a

consumer believes that he or she can rely on the brand, it facilitates the development of a love feeling. Albert *et al.* (2008b) detail the seven first order dimensions of the brand scale which consist of idealisation, intimacy, pleasure, duration, dream, memories and uniqueness and two second order dimensions of passion and affection to understand how brand trust, brand loyalty, and positive word of mouth have been associated with brand love. Moreover, they posit that the product categories have an effect on different levels of consumers' love feelings.

Albert *et al.* (2012) extend the brand love scale to examine the several relationships with brand trust, brand commitment, brand identification, word of mouth, and willingness to pay a premium price. Also, Albert and Merunka (2013), continue developing brand love scale and conclude that love is not exactly blind in a consumption context; however, trust remains an important determinant of brand love. They also assert that brand love have a strong influence on positive word of mouth and the consumer's willingness to pay a price premium both; therefore, brand love is critical for brand communications. Whereas both Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) and Albert *et al.* (2008a, 2008b, 2012) determine that the construct of love towards a brand and interpersonal love are alike, Batra *et al.* (2012) argue that the human's interpersonal love is much more abstract. Although Albert *et al.*'s (2008b) brand love scale is not the most updated version, the work provide the practical scale for detecting consumers who feel love toward their brand to apply the insights in developing brand communications, and loyalty programs. As this present study aims to present the empirical evidence of the relationship of brand love and purchasing intention in fast fashion context in Thailand, the initial work of Albert (2008b) should be conducted as pilot study. Thus, Albert *et al.*'s (2009) brand love scale is employ in this study.

4.4.1 Brand Love and Brand Attachment: Two Separate Entities

Brand love is similar to the brand commitment or identification that implies a positive attitude toward the brand and a willingness to maintain a valued relationship with brand (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Fullerton (2005) also identifies that brand love and brand affective commitment has an emotional component; therefore, the two concepts are similar in nature. However, Batra *et al.* (2012) mention that brand love is stronger than brand commitment: "*the consumers will be using the loved brand for a*

long time” and “*feels a sense of long-term commitment towards the loved brand*” (p. 8). Moreover, Albert and Merunka (2013) argue that brand love is an antecedent of brand commitment.

Furthermore, cognitive commitment may result from the comparison of existing alternatives in the market, which rarely occurs with brand love. The certain components of brand love which imply a special connection between the consumer and the brand, and process of love cannot result from a cognitive comparison of different brands. Their study also reveals that brand trust helps facilitate brand love. When a consumer believes that he/she can rely on the brand, it develops a love feeling. However, trust remains an important determinant of brand love. Overall, brand love is a relatively new concept in theory and practice. The evidence of consumers’ building the love towards brands which may subject to the category-and brand- specific context is inadequately presented. Hence, the huge gaps in brand love literature need to be investigated and discovered

4.8 Outcome of Brand Love

The previous studies reveal the several relations between brand love and consumer behavioural outcomes, for example, positive word of mouth, increased willingness to pay, brand trust, brand loyalty (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Albert et al., 2009), and repurchase intention (Rossiter, 2012). However, the relationship between behavioural consequences of brand love and consumers’ purchasing intention is limited.

Moreover, brand love as a moderator has not yet been examined in the context of fashion product which can be categorised as a utilitarian and/or hedonic product type. In general, the existing research into brand love has widely focused on brand loyalty, disregarding the further extent of consumer purchasing behaviour. Strikingly, one of the most widely-accepted benefits of brand love is consumers generating positive word of mouth. Yasin and Shamim (2013) recommend that when consumers love a brand, they tend to recommend the loved brand to others. Indeed, satisfied and loyal consumers are not the long-term loyal consumers of a brand; they can often change brands (Unal and Aydin, 2013). As a result, it is necessary to establish an emotional bond beyond satisfaction to provide “*zero separation*” and undivided brand loyalty

(Arnold et al., 2005). Therefore, brand love, which is an emotional dimension of brand loyalty, can retain consumers for a long time (Kumar and Shah, 2004).

Nevertheless, Roy, Eshghi and Sarkar (2013) point out that the concept of brand love predominantly distinguishes itself through the notion of emotion/passion even without commitment when it is weighted against brand loyalty. Even though consumer commitment is fundamental for loyalty to be sustained, brand love may or may not lead to loyalty (Oliver, 1999). Beyond the functional attributes of a product, added economic, social and psychological value is included in the process as non-functional benefits delivered to the consumers by the brand (Newman, 1957). The difference between brand and product is that a product is factory made which is tangible whilst brand is considered as intangible. Brand is a product added with a set of functional, emotional and rational associations and benefits occupied in the consumer's mind over time. Therefore, brand consists of a set of intangible features enhancing attractiveness beyond the functional value of a product or service (Park and Srinivasan, 1994).

According to Batra et al. (2012), consumers' love for a brand is associated with the perception of great functional qualities, such as exceptional performance, trustworthiness and good looking design. Brand is more likely to be loved when it strongly holds personal, social, and cultural values and existential meanings. The loved brands typically provide both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to the buyers. Furthermore, brand has a function in expressing the existing self-identities and enacting desired identities (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). The self-expressive brand is defined as *"the consumers' perception of the degree to which the specific brand enhances one's social self and/or reflects one's inner self"* (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006, p. 82). Thus, brand can reflect consumer perceived social benefit of the products/service as it can express personal self-inner values as well as group-belonging identities as intrinsic rewards. In addition, the loved brand is intimately tied with emotional values. Batra et al. (2012) explain that brand love gives consumer emotional attachment like an old friend that is bonded with positive emotional connection. Likewise, Albert et al. (2009) describe *"passion"* for the brand love as *"pleasure, which indicates the pleasure given by the brand to the consumer; and*

idealization, which reflects the magical nature of the relationship between the consumer and the brand”

Moreover, Sloat, Verhoef, and Franses (2005) supports that the hedonic product categories are purchased based on stronger emotional motives than utilitarian motives. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) add that the consumers increase levels of emotional value from their purchasing experience, and form strong commitments with brands. Thus, the brand for the hedonic product is more relevant than the utilitarian product. As a consequence, brand love is likely to act as moderator influencing on stronger purchasing intention of fashion products when consumer have perceived value of the product. Hence, this study attempts to examine the domain of brand love as a moderator of consumer purchasing intention.

4.9 Limitations of Previous Brand love Research

There are various arguments concerning the concept of brand love. Firstly, some studies regard brand love as a purely emotional and irrational relationship concept. In contrast, another group of studies regard brand love as not a purely irrational concept; it is rather a mixture of rationality and irrationality. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) consider brand love as passionate and emotional feelings combined towards a trade name. Thomson *et al.* (2005) also conceptualised emotional brand attachment construct with three dimensions -passion, affection, and connection which is very close to brand love. Similarly, Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) consider it is a deeply felt affection for a brand. Accordingly, these researchers view brand love as a uni-dimensional construct of emotional domains.

On the other hand, Batra *et al.* (2012) propose the multi-dimensional construct of brand love including seven components that require cognitive thinking and rational evaluation. The argument is that the concept of a consumer loving a brand is whether structurally analogous to humans' interpersonal love. Brand love is uni-directional and less dynamic compared to interpersonal love which is regarded as bio-directional; an active interaction between two partners (Whang *et al.*, 2004). According to Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou (2013) and Pawle and Cooper (2006), a fashion brand can provide emotional benefits to consumers because brand has symbolic meanings (Escalas and Bettman, 2005) in conveying the users/wearers' self-identity (Campbell,

1986; Hebdige, 1987). Likewise, O’Cass and Siahtiri (2013) mention that consumers desire to possess certain brands to achieve social status and self-fulfilment. Since consumers’ lifestyles are influenced by fashion brands (McCall and Moore, 2011), it is possible that consumer have commitment to the fashion products of the loved brand of, especially those consumers who are more fashion conscious, will be eager to keep themselves updated with the recent trends (Casidy, 2012).

Another limitation of the previous studies is the chosen research methodology. The results of respondents’ love towards a brand and the expression of love are culturally grounded. Albert et al. (2008) mention that the concept of love toward a brand in France does not fit with theories that define this feeling as a person's psychological state in the Unites States, resulting in the respondents’ answers. Therefore, the qualitative methodology during interview may help understanding the prototype of love (Ahuvia, 2005). However, the explicit use of the word “love” may introduce an important bias. Furthermore, the feelings of consumers vary based on the level of economy due to wage factors, especially in developing countries, a qualitative exploration of the brand love concept should be employed in their future studies to provide insights into overall feelings of brand love. Eckhardt and Dholakia (2013) also contend that studies of brand-consumer relationships are limited in the Asian emerging market context.

The third limitation of the previous research is in terms of managerial standpoint. The previous studies use the unclear concept of a brand with several objects ‘from pets to homes and places’ (Albert et al., 2009). Keller (2007) suggests that in the future study, a love scale applied to brands should be proposed with a clear concept of a brand. Indeed, brand love of different product categories has an effect on consumer purchasing behaviour at different levels. In the study of Rossiter (2012), the result reveals that over half of German young consumers bought different product types without acquiring the state of brand love: 17% for laundry detergent, 18% for coffee and 26% for computers, but peaking at 45% in the fashion clothing category. On the other hand, from a brand perspective, the findings show that one-fourth of the users/buyers love the brand of Persil laundry detergent (14%), Tchibo coffee (24%), Sony computer (24%), and HandM fashion clothing (27%). This shows that

consumers' love for a specific brand has an apparent effect on brand purchase/usage behaviour.

Even when either uni or sub-dimensional construct of brand love is proposed, the supported empirical evidence in the fast fashion product type attached with brand love as a moderator of consumer purchasing intention is limited. Moreover, the antecedents and outcomes of brand love in different countries remain unclear. According to the gap of existing literature regarding the role of brand love in the relationship between consumer perceived value and purchasing intention, this research aims to examine brand love as a moderator on Thai consumer purchasing intention by using quantitative methodology.

4.10 Chapter Conclusion Remarks

Compared to other branding concepts, there is little research on the concept of brand love, particularly its possible behavioural outcomes on purchasing intention.

Consumers who love a brand will become invested in the brand, similar to how they would be with their loved ones (McEwen, 2004). Therefore, the relationship between brand love and consumer purchasing intention should be deeply investigated.

According to Batra et al. (2012), even though interpersonal love theories help explain the concept of brand love, deeper research into brand love in a specific product category is crucial for better understanding, and its consequences need to be analysed. This notion highlights the importance of the brand love concept in understanding the buying behaviour of target consumers so that firms can offer them their desired products.

Among existing literature of brand love concepts, Albert et al.'s (2008b) brand love scale provide a remarkable measurement. In their study, the consequences of brand love predict the managerial implications of three positive behaviours, namely trust, positive word of mouth, and loyalty which can be utilise in building brand communications, loyalty program, and so on. Moreover, their study presents from exploratory studies to the dimensionality of the brand love scale by testing the relation among the dimensions which ensures its reliability and validity. Thus, Albert et al.'s (2009) brand love scale is used in this present study. However, the behavioural account of consumers' brand love of fashion product category is absent in previous

studies. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the literature by conducting relevant research on brand love as having a moderating effect on the relationship between consumer perceived value and purchasing intention of fast fashion products. To summarise, this study will fill a notable gap in the literature concerning brand love of fast-fashion products in the context of an emerging economy.

CHAPTER FIVE: MODEL CONCEPTUALISATION

5.1 Introduction

After having reviewed the literature from the existing studies, this chapter aims to offer an insight into conceptual frameworks and research hypotheses. The structure of this chapter begins with the underlying relationships of constructs in order to develop a conceptual model. The key construct for the model in this study consists of consumer perceived value dimensions: social value, emotional value, price value and quality value, as well as social media involvement, brand love and purchasing intention. The chapter is divided into two main sections.

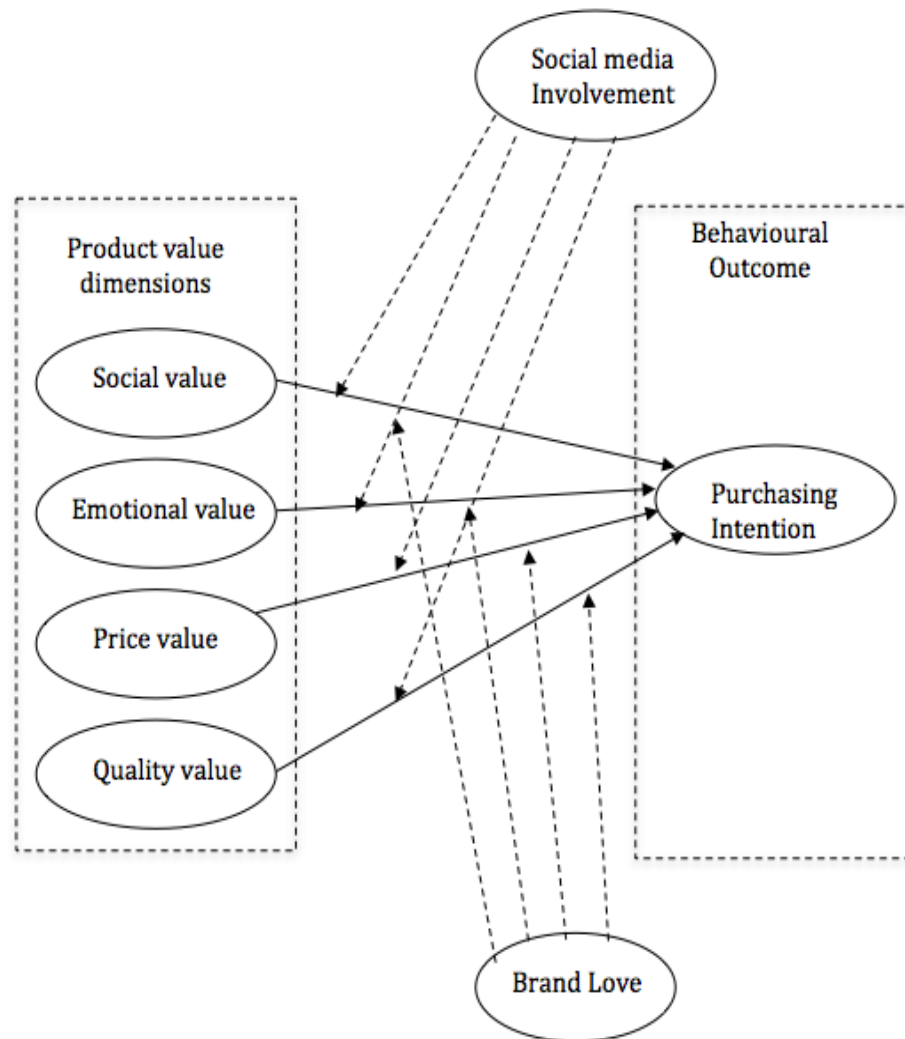
The first section is concerned with how the model is conceptualised based on the direct relationships between the consumer perceived value and its relevant dimensions towards behavioural outcome and purchasing intention. The next section covers the extent to the moderator of the relationships between consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention, social media involvement and brand love. Both linkages between direct and indirect relationships of constructs are outlined along with relevant discussion from the literature. Therefore, research hypotheses are demonstrated after discussion of the section from the conceptual framework.

5.2 The Consumer Perceived Value and its Dimensions

Consumer value is “*the fundamental basis for all marketing activities*” (Holbrook, 1994, p. 22). Thaler (1985) considers that overall perceived value is an important antecedent to influence consumer purchase intention because it is the composition of transaction utility and acquisition utility. Chang and Wildt (1994) also report that consumer perceived value has been found to be a major contributor to purchase intention. Prior empirical research has identified perceived quality as a major determinant of consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty in such settings as mobile services (Pura, 2005), tourism and hospitality services (Gallarza and Saura, 2006), online service providers (Yang and Peterson, 2004) and retailing services (Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol, 2002). In this view, the probability of purchase intention increases when consumers acquire more benefits than their monetary payments and nonmonetary sacrifices (e.g. time consumption, energy consumption

and stress experienced by consumers) for a product or service (Bolton and Lemon, 1999; Dickson and Sawyer, 1990).

Figure 5-1: The Conceptual Model and Supporting Theories



Originally, consumer value was rooted in equity theory by considering the ratio of the consumer's outcome/input to that of the product/service provider's outcome/input (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988). That is, consumers evaluate what they give and what they receive in their subjective perception when they purchase a product/service. Consumers' perceptions towards product quality and value is generally influenced by 'price' which is later defined as 'sacrifice' paid for a product, brand name and store image (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991; Teas and Agarwal, 2000). Within this

utility-based concept, considerable theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that price is often used by consumers as an extrinsic product-quality cue (Bearden and Shimp, 1982; Dodds and Monroe, 1985; Erickson and Johansson, 1985; Monroe and Krishnan, 1985; Monroe and Chapman, 1987; Zeithaml, 1988; Lichtenstein, Block and Black, 1988; Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993).

5.3 Consequence of Consumer Value: Purchasing Intention

The consequence dimension that will be examined within the research model is consumer purchasing intention. In terms of marketing, purchasing intention refers to the possibility of a consumer's willingness to purchase products (Dodds et al., 1991). Ajzen (1991) reveals that intentions can be described as "*indicators of how hard a person is willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior*" (p.181). Some marketers believe that purchasing intention is the extent to which an individual has expressed their conscious plans involving the decision to perform some action in the future (Davis and Warshaw, 1992; Malle and Knobe, 1997).

With regard to the issue of pre-purchase from a marketer's perspective, what firms are curious to know most is how their consumers form their purchasing decisions; which cues consumers are using to judge that one product is superior to another product. Gregg and Walzack (2008) support the view that firms want to know which operational and marketing tool will effectively influence consumers to purchase a product from both utilitarian and hedonic perspectives, as the complexity of consumer decision making processes goes beyond just the demographic. Companies have to explore these reasons in order to really understand why the consumer makes a specific purchasing intention. Knowing consumers' intentions on their purchasing process allows the company to create marketing strategies to gain consumer attention which can be translated into more relevant details and better product presentation to the consumer.

Social value is based on an individual's symbolic benefit that is derived from the product's ability to increase the consumer's social self-concept. Generally, consumers seem to make use of products to connect with their referential group, classify self-identity and self-image and finally expect to gain social acceptance (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). Muñiz and Schau (2005, p. 737) note that "*there has never been a society in which material objects did not possess meaning beyond the utilitarian and necessary*". Often, people do not buy a product rather preferring a better version of themselves by using the product. In this way, gaining acceptance from the reference group is demonstrated as an extrinsic attribute of social value.

In addition, the phenomenon of fashion consumption has long been known to be influenced by social value. Fashion goods are seen as an effective social label because of their symbolic meanings (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Thus, apart from any functional benefits, fashion products communicate social status. Also, McKintyre and Miller (1992) identify that fashion is a prime antecedent of consumers' preferences of such products that convey social utility featuring benefits to satisfy interpersonal needs such as conformity.

People naturally tend to form groups and adopt the symbols of the esteemed groups to provide an identity relative to others; in particular, those with a strong desire to be stylish may have a higher likelihood to be influenced by peers (Miller, McIntyre and Mantrala, 1993). As Tsai (2005) elaborated that "*the exploration of consumer purchase behaviour is assumed to be mainly through the view of socio-cultural symbolism that focuses on symbolic meanings of products, in relation to self, social and cultural contexts in which individual consumers exist.*" (p. 278). Furthermore, the previous studies from Goldsmith, Frieden and Henderson (1997) note that when an individual interacts with a product that can enhance his/her value, the perceived social value from the product is likely to have an effect on purchasing intention, which leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H1: The consumer perceived social value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.

Emotional Value and Purchasing Intention

The main mechanism in evaluating product choice over functional utility is driven by feelings and emotional motives (Pham, 1998). Sometimes, a fundamental question is why consumers make different choices between the same types of products. In commercial edge, firm powers are no longer run by the product's efficacy, but by creating strong consumers' bond through their shared mind and heart which represent how consumers feel about a product's excitement or enjoyment which is warranted as the inclusion of emotional benefits (Barrena and Sanchez, 2009).

In present days, some consumers perceive shopping as merely a purchasing task whilst some perceive it as an affective involvement and emotional payoff (Babin et al., 1994). The majority of research agrees that emotional benefits offered from the product play a significant role in consumer evaluation (Thompson et al., 2005). The impact of hedonic motivation has dominated attention from researchers because it is found that affective aspects significantly influence exploration-oriented consumers (Mikalef, Giannakos and Pateli, 2012). Therefore, this notion leads to the following hypothesis:

H2: The consumer perceived emotional value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.

Originally, consumer value was rooted in equity theory by considering the ratio of the consumer's outcome/input to that of the product/service provider's outcome/input (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988). The concept of equity theory refers to the social comparison theory when the ratio between investments made by individuals is evaluated. The ratio of exchange is profit that individuals gain from their investment. However, equity theory reveals that the condition of equitable exchange exists when an individual obtains an equal ratio of profit (Martins and Monroe, 1994). When input and outcome are related, as a result, satisfaction is perceived.

Price has long been considered as the most important variable in order to explain consumer behaviour (Keaveney, 1995). The concept of price value is related to functional benefit that is associated with economic utility and product possessions (Chen, Chang and Chang, 2005) as the nature of perceived price value is the

competitive-oriented pricing approach. This approach occurs when the consumers concentrate on whether their preferred product is being charged over alternatives offered in the market (Ryu and Han, 2010). Indeed, it is argued that consumers form their price perception based on their own values and beliefs (Munnukka, 2008). Consumers do not evaluate price value from the product itself, but the actual price of the product is the question of how much sacrifice the product is worth in order to purchase it (Du Plessis and Rousseau, 2007).

Since the product has been judged based on the benefit gained, a bulk of studies support the direct impact of perceived price value and behavioural intention (Gill, Byslma and Ouschan, 2007). As consumer purchasing intention is motivated by perceived price as their main consideration, (Felzensztein, Hibbard and Vong, 2004) this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H3: The consumer perceived price value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.

Perceived quality is described as an explanatory power in behavioural research which is often the measure of product value (Omar, 1994). Perceived product quality is a global assessment characterised by a high abstraction level and refers to a specific consumption setting (Zeithaml, 1988). According to Kirmani and Rao (2000), the perceived quality refers to an evaluation of the advantages of a product in which consumers employ internal and external cues. Functional quality value is considered as the utility gained from a product's capacity in terms of utilitarian, functional and physical performance (Larsen and Watson, 2001).

On the other hand, instead of the actual quality of a product or service, perceived quality is viewed as the consumer's judgement of the overall excellence or superiority of a product or service (Aaker, 1991; Zeithaml, 1988a). This raises the importance of perceived product quality which is generally defined as the most important role for purchasing intention (Woodside and Taylor, 1978; Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007;). Practically, the consumer perception of product quality is employed as a strategic tool to increase competitive advantage over competitors as firms strive to enhance their utility level and offer value to the consumer. Quality perception is also clearly defined as a significant predictor of a positive determinant of shopping behaviour such as

purchasing intention (Zeithaml, 1988). It is suggested that once product quality is considered as the overall assessment, it can be regarded as the source of satisfaction that leads to behavioural intention (Llusar, Zornoza and Tena, 2001). As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H4: The consumer perceived quality value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.

5.4 The Moderating Effect of Social Media Involvement

In this study, the interacting role of social media involvement and brand love were investigated, which is it expected to possibly moderate consumers' interest in building their purchasing intention for fast fashion products. Firstly, the concept of 'involvement' is an approach to understand the reason why an individual forms his/her particular relevance or attachment towards a subject, product or situation (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985a; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Richins and Bloch, 1986). Involvement reflects how an individual perceives the importance of information and the way they react to those messages (Sherif et al., 1965). In communication-related research, involvement plays a key role in regulating information acquired by an individual. Regarding involvement signals, social media users make psychological connections between social media content and themselves (Levy and Windahl, 1985).

Nowadays, once consumers recognise their need to pre-purchase, they tend to hunt for information which is described as one of the key components in any decision-making process (Bettman 1979; Payne, Bettman and Johnson, 1991). An individual is motivated to acquire relating information and engage how that information is relevant to their purchasing decision (Schlosser, 2003). The study of East (1997) posits that there is a positive relationship between involvement and the purchasing process including formal search and evaluation.

According to the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), it is proposed that intention is an action to perform in a particular way that can be affected by both an individual's intrinsic and extrinsic environment. In addition, previous research suggests that the nature of information sources is able to influence consumer purchasing behaviour (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995). For these reasons, it is

possible to assume that involvement can perform as a moderator in a fast fashion context. Specifically, involvement with social media may consequently increase the chance of cognitive activity and affective response so that commitment will mainly influence the relationship between the consumer perceived value domain and purchasing intention. For this reason, in the fashion industry, firms take advantage of social media by simply opening their door to contact their consumers using online contents, fashion updates or product reviews which create value (Zhang, Jansen and Chowdhury, 2011).

From a social perspective, Sheth et al. (1991) posit that, “*even products generally thought to be functional or utilitarian are frequently selected on the basis of their social value.*” The previous study supported that social value is directly related to purchasing intention as consumer purchase behaviour focuses on the symbolic value of a product to their self-identity from using it (Tsai, 2005). Because of the need to impress others, one of the most difficult tasks for the fast fashion industry in order to develop their product’s image, is to discriminate and discern between competitive choices in the market (Song, 2003). From a marketing perspective, an individual’s preference and decision can be affected by the reference group (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997). When the reference group or individuals assign the same meaning to a product, social value arises. Hence it can be concluded that the socialisation process is the original source for symbolic value (Tan and Ming, 2003). Social media, word of mouth or interaction between group members through different social media platforms such as facebook, instagram or twitter are quite effective channels to persuade and influence a consumer’s decision. Before the growing popularity of social media, consumers tended to consider just certain pieces of items. Since times changed, combined with the birth of social media, consumers have fuelled their social influence and discovery by “*social proofing*”. Social media encourages the consumer’s mentality to share items with the public before confirming their choice as they make decisions to be part of the crowd.

In addition, some advertisements or content provided by firms with links to product attributes are described as one of the guiding actions which reflects the index of lifestyles for society (Hetsroni, 2000). Social media appears to be one source as a mirror to reflect consumption values. For instance, advertising by different brands

tries to persuade consumers to believe that wearing their clothing allows the consumer to appear as a society member, where it is important to be accepted and to demonstrate their unique style (Pollay, 1987). Therefore, involvement with social media allows the consumer to enhance their collaborative value creation. In addition Chu (2011) supports that “*Facebook groups provide channels that consumers deem useful when seeking self-status in a product category, as does passing on viral content about brands to their social contacts*” (p. 40). Highly involved consumers would probably participate in a group and share common interests in order to perceive the social benefit. Moreover, supported by Williams and Cothrell (2000), social media has an effect on consumer’s perception and behaviour as it can lead to different people who have the same interest sharing their opinion with each other, which in turn leads to favourable purchasing intention. As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H5: Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention as the relationship will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.

Humans are heavily influenced by emotions. With regard to affective aspects, the important things to consider about increasing emotional value are the mediums of product browsing and online platforms (Mikalef et al., 2012). Van der Heijden (2004) proposes that perceived enjoyment from using social media is ‘*the extent to which the activity of using the computer is perceived to be enjoyable in its own right, apart from any performance consequences that may be anticipated*’ (p. 695-696). In the case of social media, it is implemented in order to communicate between firms and consumers to enhance the connection via participation and influence them through online content.

Effective social media activities such as new product release information, promotion, useful link bargain-hunting and seeking adventure or relaxation from product brand pages can generate emotional value (Tuten and Solomon, 2012; Macy and Thomson, 2011). Hence it can be explained that when individuals are involved with social media, they interact with media and the stimuli of website interactivity features can affect the consumers’ affective involvement with the social media in a purchasing

scenario. However, with or without purchasing a consumer can enjoy some emotional value relating to a product that can lead to future purchases (MacInnis and Price, 1987). Through the process of sensing, choosing or evaluating, a virtual environment can infer to the consumer's experience which influences the consumer's perception of value (Wilkie, 1994; Donovan, Rossiter and Nesdale, 1994; Kerin, Jain and Howard, 1992).

Therefore with a higher level of social media involvement, consumers are actively processing product information on social media, associated with platforms, made up of feeling states, and are engaged in information gathering which is likely to lead to favourable cognitive responses, including purchase intention. In addition, the level of consumer enjoyment derived from social media is considered as the effective factor that most impacts consumer purchasing intention (Curran and Lennon, 2011). As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H6: Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention as the relationship will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.

As a characteristic of social media, the convenience of 24/7 availability and the multitude of online platforms allows the consumer to reduce their time and effort accessing a product, find more unusual items and service information so as to make price comparisons which in turn will lead to the benefit of lower costs (Cachon Terwiesch and Xu, 2008; Vijayasathy and Jones, 2000). Sometimes an information search can result in energy and time costs. Consumers tend to be unpleasant when these efforts are considered to be excessive. Garbarino and Edell (1997) point out that consumers opt to choose alternative options that require less cognitive effort to process and evaluate. In this sense, social media creates consumer benefits through enhancing operational performance and lower operational cost such as reducing searching costs and time (Boyer, Olson, Calantone and Jackson 2002).

Increasingly since the fashion industry requests updated trends, as the “*cyclical nature of fashion*” and consumer’s “*knowledge about fashion apparel products quickly becomes outdated*” (Frings, 2005), conveying consumer information and sharing

fashion advice is achieved successfully through online platforms or product websites which is considered to be another source of utilitarian value. Wider product diversity and increased information available online helps the consumer to reduce their time spent and increase the efficiency of their shopping process. Quick access to useful information with low cost is considered to be the most important benefit for the fashion shopper (Korgaonkar and Wolin, 1999).

Regarding the economics of information theory by Stigler (1961), useful information has its own economic benefit since it helps consumers to make their choice to receive a higher than expected payoff which is better than yielding the results from an absence of information check this sentence (Moody and Walsh, 1999). In addition, Zeithaml (1988) suggests that anything can infer to a product in order to minimise time, search, effort and sacrifice cost hence the perception of value will increase. Value for price perception influences how an individual evaluates their experiences related to products or services. As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H7: Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention as the relationship will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.

The more difficult it is for consumers to assess quality, the more they tend to generate quality value through a variety of signals involving extrinsic values rather than the intrinsic physical product (Rao and Monroe, 1989). The increase of technology empowers consumer behaviour in the information and purchasing process (Burmann and Arnhold, 2008). The information era offers the consumer an opportunity to make use of social media to interact with other online users and gain access to desired product information (Christodoulides, Michaelidou and Siamagka, 2013). Though this mechanism, it is supported an increasing of user-generated content (UGC) which serves as a new form of word-of-mouth which is rapidly growing as a tool for consumers to maintain relationships with reference groups in order to gain a wealth of useful information (Gangadharbatla, 2008). The majority of consumers rely on eWOM, which affects a consumer's perception of quality (Ishida, Slevitch and Siamionava, 2016).

Shen Li and DeMoss (2012) also support that word-of-mouth recommendation on social media plays a key role in influencing consumer perceived quality value of products by reducing the amount of information made use of by consumers to infer product quality that is likely to impact the transaction process. As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H8: Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media

5.5 The Moderating Effect of Brand Love

Today, firms have recognised that consumers' feelings of love towards a brand are a vital factor in establishing a good long-term relationship with a consumer (Roberts, 2006) and gaining sustainable advantage over their competitors (Ambler and Styles, 1997). Apart from the functional value of a product or service (Park and Srinivasan, 1994), brand is a product with an added set of functional, emotional and rational associations and benefits occupied in the consumer's mind that enhances greater attractiveness towards the product or service. Brand love is one of the deepest and most intense relationship types among consumer-brand relationships (Albert, Matthews-Lefevbre, Merunka, and Valette-Florence, 2007). Therefore, it is important to investigate brand love to obtain insights into consumer-brand relationships.

With the development of technology, we are now living in a digital age. The growing importance of social media and online virtual communities have rapidly gained popularity especially consumer across the world (Nielsen, 2012). Advances in information and communication enable both consumer and retailer to interact in order to gain the mutual satisfaction. In addition, value perceived by consumer who have aware to access the benefits associated with an offer proposition as consumer are capable to searching, evaluating, and deciding for product and services. (Grönroos, 2000). It became an effective collaboration spaces for both consumer and business as they are encouraged to share, interact and collaborate with each others. Therefore it is important to investigate consumer's personal relevance and importance attached to

particular social media systems which allow the understanding of consumer's distinct behaviour.

With the diversification of consumer needs, they tend to consider not only utilitarian but also symbolic benefits while choosing a product from alternative choices (Park et al., 1986). When individuals are motivated to express themselves from the brand they have consumed, symbolic benefit plays an important role for the consumer (Sirgy, 1982). According to Mazodier and Merunka (2012), consumers always choose the product and brand which matches their own self-concept and their symbolic values. When in front of others, people act in such a way as to be accepted by others (Goffman, 1959), which Deighton (1992) defines as "*Consumers may use products as props, for example, when they buy particular brands to mark social status or self-concept*".

When consumers have a love relation towards a brand, they are concerned about their identities. Social value is one of the crucial factors for fashion products as the consumer desires a shared value to fulfil their needs. Using fast fashion products, this can sometimes be transformed into values. Based on consumption behaviour, consumers desire to possess certain brands to achieve social status and self-fulfilment (O'Cass and Siahtiri, 2013), since consumers' lifestyles are influenced by fashion brands (McColl and Moore, 2011). Usually, people choose the brand not the particular design in order to enhance themselves within society (Leslie and Malcolm, 1992). People love the brand which they believe will provide them intrinsic rewards and give them power to make them feel the way they wish and to create their desired public image (Batra et al., 2012). Thus, the relationship between consumer perceived social value and behavioural intention is assumed to be stronger when brand love moderates the relationship. As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H9: Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived social value and the purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.

Brand stands for consumer sensitivity and emotions towards the product (Mwambusi, 2015; Keller and Armstrong, 2004). It is acknowledged to provide an individual emotional benefit (Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013). Kotler (2009) also notes that brand is an experiential consumption provider where its names, logos, slogans and events give the consumers sensory, affective, creative relations and lifestyles attached with the brand. From a consumer perspective, brand represents consumer values, ideas and even personality. When a consumer is attached to a brand with love, he/she becomes invested in the brand (McEwen, 2004). Particularly in the fashion context, brands are known to provide emotional benefits to consumers (Pawle and Cooper, 2006; Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013) and to possess symbolic meanings compared to other product categories (Escalas and Bettman, 2005) due to their ability to convey the identity of the wearers (Campbell, 1986; Hebdige, 1987).

Furthermore, Kohli (1997) posits that consumers buy brand, not product; for example, they buy Levi's not just jeans or Louis Vuitton not just a handbag because those brands sell feelings, and emotions play a powerful role in consumers' irrational buying behaviour. Albert et al., (2008) support that brand love is derived from sensory experiences and pleasures that a consumer has with a brand. When an individual loves a brand, they feel psychologically comfortable when using it which is able to strengthen their feelings such as pleasure, fun and relaxation (Batra et al., 2012). A deep and enduring emotion towards a brand leads to an individual loving the brand (Albert and Merunka, 2013). As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H10: Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.

According to Fournier (1988), the consumer acquires an intense feeling towards their brand that they believe it is unique and satisfies them. Consumers, who love a brand, become invested in the brand, similar to the way they would be with their loved ones (McEwen, 2004). Consumers are willing to pay a higher price for a product/service

because they are affected by their emotional attachment to the particular brand (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003; Vazquez, del Rio and Iglesias, 2002; Yoo, Donthu and Lee, 2000). Thus, when the consumers love the brand, they consequently perceive the price value offered from the product, leading to a higher intention to purchase the fashion product.

H11: Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.

In the modern era, consumers choose brand not just a product or company; a strong association with a quality dimension is also important. When talking about a loved brand, the attractiveness, such as performance and good looking designs are key drivers for an individual to desire which brand to love, as the quality of brand is key in order to differentiate between one brand and another and meaningful to be loved by consumer. To love a brand is to praise it for being the best available from the choice offered. Consistent with the finding from Batra *et al.* (2012), the consumer loves the brand that impresses them in the way they perceive the congruence between brand performance and their specification performance with their functional features such as high in quality, comfortable, function wells and so on which is described as being “best” and “great”.

According to Park *et al.* (2013) once the brand serves the consumer with their need effectively through the reliable and superior functional performance, it leads an individual to hold a strong relationship with the brand they love. In the decision making process, consumers generally choose the brand they love as consumers tend to believe that the brand that they love provides them with a high level of quality. As a result, this leads to the hypothesis as stated below:

H12: Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.

5.6 Chapter Conclusion Remarks

In this chapter, the theoretical building blocks are used to develop the conceptual model and hypothetical relationships between the variables within the model. The components within the model are proposed based on the well-established frameworks in a way to assure the theoretical models' robustness. First of all the framework of the consumer perceived value (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) is incorporated within this model as the focal construct. Four exhaustive dimensions are proposed from the theory: social value, emotional value, price value and quality value.

Moreover, social media involvement is incorporated within the model as Chen and Tsai (2008) depict that the level of consumer involvement with respect to the object of interest plays a major role in evaluating consumer behaviour. Furthermore, the determinant of involvement is suggested to work as a moderator in attitude-behavioural relationship studies. In addition brand love is also incorporated in the conceptual model as few studies examine the role of brand love. Ahuvia (2012) recommended that more study is needed to investigate how brand love interacts with other constructs.

Table 5-1: A Summary of Research Hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis
<i>H1</i>	<i>The consumer perceived social value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.</i>
<i>H2</i>	<i>The consumer perceived emotional value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.</i>
<i>H3</i>	<i>The consumer perceived price value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.</i>
<i>H4</i>	<i>The consumer perceived quality value is positively related to consumer purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.</i>
<i>H5</i>	<i>Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention as the</i>

	<i>relationship between the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.</i>
<i>H6</i>	<i>Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.</i>
<i>H7</i>	<i>Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.</i>
<i>H8</i>	<i>Social media involvement positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved with social media.</i>
<i>H9</i>	<i>Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.</i>
<i>H10</i>	<i>Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.</i>
<i>H11</i>	<i>Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer</i>

	<i>perceived price value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.</i>
<i>H12</i>	<i>Brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention as the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention will be stronger for those who have a high level of brand love than those who have a low level of brand love.</i>

Finally, value dimensions are linked to the behavioural outcome that is represented in the model by purchasing intention regarding the focal theory for the instant consumption values theory. The summary of hypotheses is represented in Table 6-1. Twelve hypotheses were developed based on consumer perceived value, social media involvement and brand love theories (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Ellison et al., 2007; Ha and Hu, 2013; Batra et al., 2012). The present study presents a new perspective as there is no study attempting to investigate the moderator moderating role of social media involvement and brand love on the relationship between the consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention for fast fashion products in Thailand. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the positive (direct) relationship between the consumer perceived value dimensions and indirect relationship of social media involvement and brand love on purchasing intention for fast fashion products in Thailand.

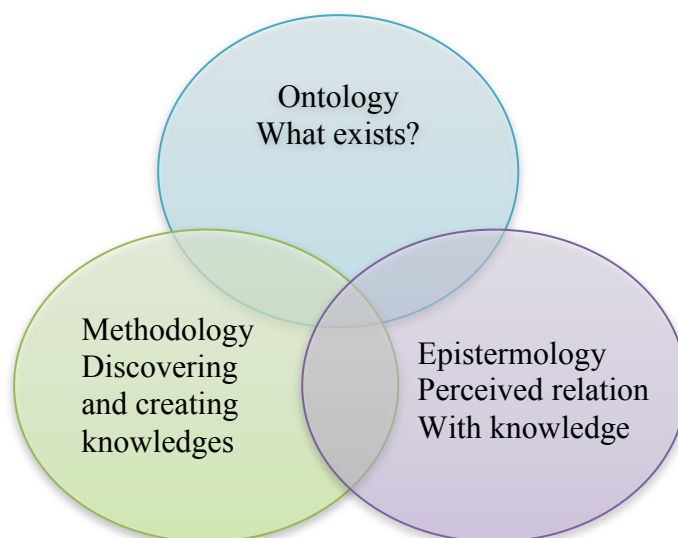
CHAPTER SIX – METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology begins with different views of research philosophy and paradigm choices, to determine the appropriate research approach which is relevant to the subject of this study. Secondly, the research strategy choices will be discussed to explain the reasons behind the chosen quantitative method in data collection. Thirdly, data collection methods, research tools and techniques will be clarified, followed by data analysis. Finally, the limitations of this research and ethical issues will be addressed.

6.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy has been described by Kuhn (1962) as the underlying assumptions and intellectual structure upon which research and development in a field of inquiry is based. Similarly, the research philosophy can be explained by the term “*paradigm*” which can be defined as “*a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research*” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p.22). According to Lather (1986), research paradigm is the core, later referred to as the model, that researchers apply to their studies, reflecting the basic set of beliefs and how those influence their research. Thus, research paradigm is counted as a systemic investigation (Burns, 1997) to break down the complexity of the outside world. Consequently, the data is collected, analysed and interpreted in order to understand and describe the phenomena (Mertens, 2005). The researcher’s motivation, intent and expectations are key to the choice of research paradigm. In order to make it more understandable, research paradigm is explained within the research onion under the three major dimensions namely: Ontology, Epistemology and Methodology (Blanche and Durrheim, 1999) as shown in Figure 6.1

Figure 6-1: Research Paradigm

Ontology is the study of being (Crotty, 1998). The ontological researchers would immerse themselves into a phenomenon to perceive and reflect by interpreting what constitutes reality as knowledge. Epistemology is the study of the nature and forms of knowledge (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007). The epistemological researcher would investigate several ways of how knowledge can be created, acquired, communicated and interacted with (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Then the set of procedures for research activities would be implemented along with the given principles and rules as methodology (Crotty, 1998.). Thus, methodology is the strategy underlying the choice and use of particular methods.

Within this study, objectivism ontology and positivism of epistemological position were adapted since the study aims to embrace realism. The study seeks to discover the moderating impact of social media involvement, brand love and causal direct relationship towards purchasing intention for fast fashion products through the medium of observable measurable facts. At the beginning of conducting research, the research philosophy is to be clearly set prior to starting the strategic research. The research philosophy applied in the study reflects how the researchers view their world, how they view the nature of reality, how they generate a standard of justifying and what approach they use to analyse the findings (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe, 1991). Apparently, choosing research philosophy is a critical issue in research because it determines how knowledge is being initiated. There are numerous reasons

why the research philosophy is important. First of all, research philosophy is able to help the researchers to understand the overall direction of the research and to specify the method, strategy and paradigm that will be used.

Secondly, philosophical issues assist the researchers in identifying the proper methods and methodologies for the research and enable the researchers to avoid irrelevant research activities. Moreover, it helps the researchers to gather the type of information that reflects the objectives of the research. The research philosophy choices are categorised into two dominant epistemological paradigms: positivism and interpretivism called phenomenology (Lincoln, 1995; Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Weber, 2004). However, these two paradigms have their own strengths and weaknesses; therefore, they are chosen to envisage the inquiries of the research depending on the research context.

Overall, the interpretivism ideology is discounted for this research since the objectives of the study are to test hypotheses. Hence, the positivist research philosophy is justified in being used in this study. Considering the aim of the research is to develop a social media involvement measurement scale, which is applied to measure the consumer involvement in various contexts and examine both direct and indirect relationships between consumer perceived value, brand love and social media involvement towards purchasing intention for fast fashion products, consequently the researcher follows the positivism approach in order to identify the causal relationship between constructs in the conceptual model. Positivism enables the researcher to explain and predict consumer behaviour (Gill and Johnson, 2010).

6.2.1 Positivism

Positivists believe that the social world exists externally; therefore, its properties should be measured through objective measures, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). The positivism approach reflects the principles of the natural scientist. It is typically about understanding human behaviour and attitudes, and working with observable social realities (Remenyi and William, 1998:32). The approach of positivist research emphasises systematic and quantifiable data since testing with assumed hypotheses

and proposing rules or laws as truth are required (Bernard, 2011). Likewise, Carson et al., (2001) stated that positivist researchers tend to use rational and logical approaches to their research. It is grounded on the theoretical belief that object reality can be understood by the researchers when they use the appropriate method in the proper manner. Moreover, positivism research paradigm is associated with scientific methodology that deals with numerical data and logical deduction (Wass and Wells, 1994). Thus, the central techniques of positivist research are statistical and mathematical through which to structure the research (Carson et al., 2001).

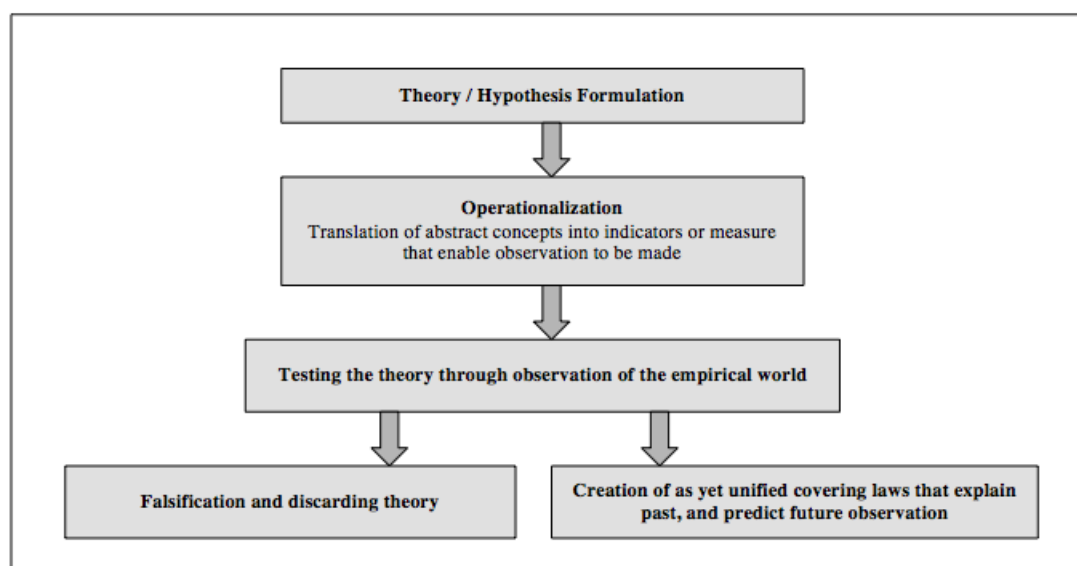
As a consequence, the success of natural science in perceiving true knowledge is based on careful observation, experience of senses and obtained data, created by applying scientific methods (Rohmann, 1999). In positivist- orientated research, it is obviously noticed that hypotheses from existing studies are proposed to explain the social and psychological phenomena. Then, an experiment is designed to test the hypotheses. Eventually, the data are interpreted through an objective approach to determine whether the theory will be rejected or accepted (Gill and Johnson, 2010). The views regarding the positivism approach have been re-examined over time as the positivists believe that reality exists and is not a creation of the human mind; as a result, all complex knowledge is usually observed and derived by humans (Comte, 1853).

The main purpose of the positivist approach is not only to focus on explaining the current phenomena, but also to predict or investigate any change which probably happens (Fay, 1975; Lincoln and Guba, 2000; White and Mason, 1999). The viewpoint of positivism philosophy concentrates on facts; in contrast, interpretivism concentrates on meaningful phenomena and human interest. Moreover, in positivism studies, the researchers are independent from the study. Wilson (2010, p.10) stated that *“if you assume a positivist approach to your study, then it is your belief that you are independent of your research and your research can be purely objective”*. Here, *“independent”* means that minimal interaction is maintained with the research respondents when the researchers carry out the research.

As the positivists assert that social reality and objective truth are derived from human consciousness, the researchers are permitted to be independent (Lincoln and Guba,

2000). Essentially, in the positivist philosophy, researchers are viewed as outsiders who are only gathering the data and reporting knowledge objectively. For this reason, the researchers are not allowed to interrupt any process of the research since it would distort the holistic view of the reality of the research.

Figure 6-2 : The Process of Deduction



Source: Adapted from Gill and Johnson (2002)

According to Gill and Johnson (2002), the deduction method in the positivist approach is the technique frequently applied. “A *deductive approach is concerned with developing a hypothesis (or hypotheses) based on existing theories, and then designing a research strategy to test the hypothesis*” (Wilson, 2010, p.7). Therefore, when the researcher conducts a deductive approach, proposing hypothesis technique allows the researcher to establish both conceptual and theoretical constructs through data and empirical observation.

However, Gulati (2009) defined the deductive approach as “*reasoning from the particular to the general*” because a causal relationship or link seems to be implied by a particular theory or case example in many cases. The deductive approach attempts to explore the existing theory and test whether the hypothesis leads to rejection or confirmation in a set of given circumstances (Beiske, 2007). Once the hypothesis is tested, whether confirmed or rejected, the results lead to further development. Positivists believe that when the data derived from testing the set of hypotheses is not

consistent with the theory and predicted result, it implies that there is an undiscovered or underlying point in the theory. The process of deduction is elaborated as shown in Figure 6.2.

6.2.2 Interpretivism

Recently, interpretivism has become increasingly prevalent. The interpretative research philosophy has an effect on broadening the understanding of the social phenomenon by interpreting things rather than considering solely the statistical results (Kohlbacher, 2006). Unlike positivism, interpretivism emphasizes exploratory research in order to understand and gain a deeper understanding of behaviour rather than seeking and predicting the causal link between variables (Neuman, 2000).

Interpretivism is developed as a response to positivism (Mack, 2010). Underlying social, cultural, economic and other related background of an individual are meaningfully interpreted so as to build the rich local understandings of consumers' behaviour under the specific circumstances. The focus of interpretivism is to judge and evaluate the related theories and not to generate a new theory. However, the interpretivism paradigm believes that humans are central to the research process rather than isolated from it as with positivism (McGregor and Murnane, 2010). Within this paradigm, the natural setting of peoples' daily lives should be used, rather than an experimental setting. Therefore, it is challenging for researchers to access the social phenomena within natural settings to acquire underlying and meaningful data through researchers' interpretation.

The interpretative approach results in a descriptive explanation of how and why the particular phenomena occur. Deetz (1996) supported the theory that the interpretative researchers attempt to comprehend social phenomena through an individual and tend to approach reality from the people who own the experience. Recently, interpretivism has been referred to as "constructivism" as its approach concentrates on how an individual constructs meaning. According to Mertens (2005, p.12), interpretivism believes that "*reality is socially constructed*". Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2005) explained that in the interpretative approach, the researchers tend to observe the meaning that the human is giving to it by interpreting it from the human's perspective

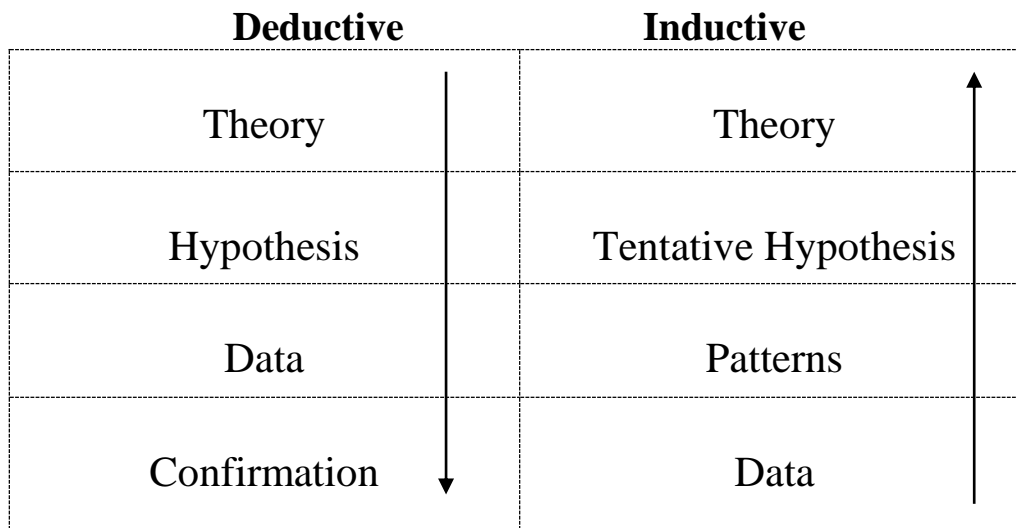
which leads to the exploration of social phenomena and can be understood by considering it entirely.

Thus, interpretative studies provide an understanding of a causal mechanism in order to explore how multiple phenomena are linked consistently (Lin, 1988) which is left unexplained when a positivism paradigm is chosen. Specifically in the behaviour-related studies, interpretative researchers tend to employ the exploratory method to identify the knowledge from the existing context thoroughly (Jankowicz, 2005).

Throughout the interpretative research methods, meaning-orientated methodology is applied and focused on how to acquire an understanding of humans' behavioural complexity (Kaplan and Maxwell, 1994). However, within this interpretative approach, human interest is the motivation for research; as a result, researchers should be given less control when making observations and acquiring an understanding of humans' views (Blumberg et al., 2005).

In contrast to positivist research concentrating on a deduction approach, the inductive approach is employed in interpretative methods. Neuman (2000) stated that an inductive approach starts with an abstract; a specific observation, the relationship between theories and research based on interested case, and that empirical evidence is formulated afterwards. As a consequence, the interpretative method using "*inductive reasoning is often referred to as a "bottom-up" approach to knowing, in which the researchers conduct observations to build an abstraction or to describe an overall picture of the phenomenon that is being studied*" (Lodico et al., 2010, p.10).

Lancaster (2007) noted that inductive research is in contrast to a deductive approach. In other words, falling into the interpretivism paradigm, the direction of inductive research is alterable, and then the theories eventually evolve as a result of the research (Mack, 2010). However, there are several limitations of interpretative research. Firstly, the interpretivism approach uses the qualitative method in its research to gain an individual idea based on experience; therefore, it is more difficult to analyse and interpret data compared to the positivist approach (Amaratunga et al., 2002).

Figure 6-3: The Summary of Deductive and Inductive Approach

Source: Adapted from Trochim (2006)

Secondly, it is argued that bias may occur in the researcher's judgement and evaluation. The interpretivist researchers cannot separate themselves from the study as the approach is more subjective. Walsham (1993) noted that there are no definitely "correct" or "incorrect" theories in the interpretative tradition. The summary of the two different research philosophies is presented in Figure 6.3.

6.3 Research context: Thailand

Thailand, with a population of 68 million inhabitants, is one of the outstanding growth performers within the group of economies of Southeast Asia (World Bank, 2016). According to The World Bank 2016 report, Thailand has been counted as one of the most developed stories which sustains growth and reduces poverty rate particularly in the 1980s. In terms of social and economic (you need another word in here – status?), Thailand is the second largest country that has made impressive progress by moving to an upper income status country. According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) World Investment Report 2016, Thailand was considered as an important FDI destination since it has regional dynamism. Levels of per capita GDP are equivalent to 46% of the world average.

6.3.1 Economy of Thailand

As in this era, consumer spending is influenced by the economic environment (Dibb et al., 2006). The level of consumer spending on optional purchase products such as fashion, luxuries and automobiles are greatly dependent on a number of economic factors. Lancaster and Massingham (1998) posit that it is essential for industry to understand various economic factors including gross domestic product (GDP), labour costs, interest rates, government policy, taxes and management that are able to shape marketing plans. Firms should consider all these factors. Thailand is one of the most heavily export-dependent countries which seize more than two thirds (approximately 65 percent) of gross domestic product (GDP). Thai agriculture is the main engine of economic growth which is determined by the highly competitive sectors which hold the largest number of commodities products, such as rice, fishery products, sugar, rubber, tapioca, sugar and grain (Suphannachart and Warr, 2010).

Moreover, the most important economic activity of Thailand is travel and tourism. It has been recognised as one of the most productive sectors that contributed a total of \$72 billion towards the economy in the year 2014 according to the report from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC). Well-developed transport links, infrastructure, communication, inexpensive cost and reputation from travellers as a premier travel destination enhance Thailand's travel sector as the forefront of the global industry. Along with geographical location in the heart of Asia, this allows Thailand to thrive as an economic and foremost shopping hub for tourists (Srimalee , 2014). This is complemented by various cultural and religious attractions that can be found throughout Thailand.

6.3.2 Thailand Communication and Infrastructure

A key component for the nation's economy is communication technology. Due to a concentrated push from the government and private sector, Thailand has improved the use of ICT enabling prosperity and growth. Development in communication and technology increased the number of media users and led to a huge change for consumers in Thailand. The media penetration results in emerging business models as an opportunity for both consumers and businesses, as technology allows consumers to access information relating to products and services to a greater extent. Nowadays,

out of a total population of 68 million people in Thailand, 38 million are Internet active users (Kemp, 2017). Nearly one third are active on social media. 65 percent of Thai Social media users usually consider online information before their purchasing decision (Leesa-Nguansak,2018).

6.3.3 Fast Fashion Sector in Thailand

Latest designs and cost consciousness boosts up demand for the fast fashion industry. Thailand, with 68 million people, is an emerging market which the fashion industry values at around 2,800 billion baht as the Southeast Asia's biggest market (Kate and Thieberger, 2011). The overall growth rate of fashion retailer businesses in Thailand has steadily increased year by year because the positive GDP growth grew by 3.2 % in year 2016 which is marginally higher than the year 2015 (about 2.9%) (Worldbank, 2016). Multination fast fashion brands such as Zara, Topshop, H&M, Uniqlo or Forever XXI are penetrating aggressively into Thailand due to it being a country of fashion eager residents (TheNation, 2013; InsideRetail.Asia, 2013). For instance, Forever XXI, a Californian fast fashion brand, expanded their 16 stores in Thailand as the executive CEO Do Won Chang was confident that the XXI brand was right for Thai consumers and it has been able to build its strong base in Thailand (Inside Retail.Asia, 2013).

Furthermore, with the rapid human development progress, the number of Thai people is about two-thirds of the new global middle class that are highly educated and internationally connected that dominated the real growth (Worldbank, 2017). Hence the middle class is becoming the consumer class. In addition, the increasing of purchasing power among Thai young consumers who are fashion eager, has led to strong growth in businesses. Along with this, the Thai shopper has a higher tendency to purchase imported fashion products (Sae-Jiu, 2007). This is consistent with previous research which claimed that foreign fashion brands have been trusted as being higher in product value (Suvachart, 2002). Moreover, Thai fashion shoppers are quite fashion conscious in embracing new trends, price conscious and they prefer suitability of products rather than long term utility (Pecotich, Clifford and Shultz, 2016). The fast fashion brand has benefited from their updated trend and affordable price. An advance in social media fuelled the consumer's desire for new trends on

demand. This provides strong potential for the expansion of fast fashion businesses in this country.

According to Kbankresearch (2013), with the high potential growth, the majority of world leading fast-fashion retailers started to open their flagship store in areas of Asia, including Thailand. The three major fast fashion retailers in Thailand are Zara, HandM and Topshop. The first retail store in Thailand opened in Bangkok in 2005, followed by Topshop and H&M which entered the Thailand fast fashion market in 2008 and 2012 respectively (Crofton and Dopico, 2012). With an innovative business model adopted by fast fashion brands, this allows them to create an excitement and heightened competition along with their competitors. The fashion product demand in Thailand has been increasing steadily from the year 2014, (2,970 billion baht) and demand growth seems to be increasing (PWC, 2015).

6.3.4 Social Media and Fast Fashion

Nowadays, it cannot be denied that the disruption of social media has impacted industries in material ways especially in the fashion industry. Social media is described as one of the most powerful marketing machines which is interwoven into our daily lives. It is an alternative platform which acts as a communication tool to support relationships, activities and arousal which enriches and enhances consumers' experiences. It allows companies to disseminate a great deal of product and brand information. This increased information availability has changed individuals from mere consumers into researchers since the consumer is able to access information supporting them and affecting the buying process at the same time (Huang and Benyoucef, 2013).

Consumers are increasingly influenced by what they see on social media especially millennials as they tend to use platforms to spot trends (Burton and Espiner, 2017). The fast fashion industry is also jumping into these trends by learning to fuse the world of social media and consumers. By nature, fast fashion is known as a “*consumerist industry*”, constructed on the notion of aesthetics, outward perception and presentation; hence the industry takes benefit from these habits. Before the advancement of social media, people spent their time on just one piece type of fashion

product but since times have changed, social media is the key to encourage the consumer's mentality. It is regarded as the source of inspiration and entertainment.

With regard to Sehgal and Miglani (2015)), social media has demonstrated the highest rate of consumer involvement with a brand. This is supported by the earliest research by Rickman and Cosenza (2007), who claimed that fast fashion consumers tend to pick their ideas based on social media which impacts their decision making process. Moreover, Mohr (2013) also noted that fast fashion retailers viewed social media as an opportunity to connect with their target audience and improve their relationship with their consumer; for example, ZARA, a leading fashion brand from Spain currently reaches more than 6 million followers on instagram. It can be concluded that social media has been regarded as a huge contributor to the progress of the fast fashion industry due to the consumer's desire.

6.4 Research Methods

To address this issue, the study mainly employed the quantitative method. Since the study focused on human facts and causes of social phenomena, the aim is to classify the features and constructs of numerical and statistical data into a clearly defined research question and to explain what was observed based on objective answers within the large population. The most common classification of research methods is qualitative and quantitative. The distinguishing features are how phenomena are represented, and how data is collected and analysed. Another major difference between qualitative and quantitative research methods is the personal and impersonal role of the researcher conducting the research (Stake, 1995).

To begin with, qualitative research is a type of exploratory research. The method is concerned with the explanation of social phenomena. Its aim is to assist in the understanding of social or cultural context. According to Domegan and Fleming (2007), *“qualitative research aims to explore and to discover issues about a problem on hand because very little is known about the problem. There is usually uncertainty about dimensions and characteristics of such a problem. The “soft” data is used in the study to get “rich” data.* (p. 24).

The aim of the qualitative research method is descriptive - to answer the questions “*what*”, “*how*” and “*why*” rather than predictive to answer “*how many*” and “*how much*” as in quantitative research. However, the qualitative research method is concerned with gaining insights into people’s minds in order to find out what drives their opinions and decision making, and uses data collection techniques that generate words rather than numeric data such as interviews and observations (Myers, 2009). Broadly speaking, qualitative research does not only deal with how people think, but aims to understand their underlying reasons and motivations. Thus, the data within the qualitative research method is derived from direct observation of behaviours, from interviews, written opinions or from public documents (Sprinthall, Schmutte, and Surois, 1991, p. 101). As a result, qualitative analysis results in rich, detailed, valid process data that allows the researcher to gain an in-depth description that is particularly beneficial in explaining how and why things happened.

On the other hand, quantitative research is described by the term “*positivism*” (Duffy, 1985). Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 154) defined quantitative research as “*entailing the collection of numerical data and exhibiting the view of relationship between theory and research as deductive, a predilection for natural science approach, and as having an objectivist conception of social reality*”. The quantitative approach primarily relies on the systemic observation of phenomena dealing with numerical data and the use of statistical analysis (Bums and Grove, 1987). Therefore, the quantitative method tests the theory deductively from existing knowledge by developing a hypothesis and proposing the outcome in order to understand the facts. The aim of using a quantitative approach is to determine the relationship between one thing and another within the population.

Stainback and Stainback (1988) listed three basic purposes of quantitative research: to describe, to compare and to attribute causality (p. 317). The central techniques of the quantitative approach are surveys and interviews in order to collect mass data.

Trochim (2006) concluded that the conclusion from quantitative analysis is drawn from logic, evidence and argument. However, it cannot be concluded that either of these two research methods are better than the other. Overall, the research objectives, questions and context are the key to determine which method is suitable for the

research. In certain studies, a mixed method is employed in a single study as the researcher gains a different advantage from each type of research method, depending on how the research is designed (Bryman and Burgess, 1999).

6.5 Research Technique

As the quantitative research method is used in this study, it is appropriate to conduct self-administered surveys. The word “*survey*” is used most often to describe a method of gathering information from a sample of individuals (Scheuren, 2004). It is designed to provide a snapshot of things at a specific time (Denscombe, 2008). Surveys are able to be used in any field of study. This is supported by Angus and Katona, *"it is this capacity for wide application and broad coverage which gives the survey technique its great usefulness..."* (1953, p. 16)

To collect information through surveys, the ubiquitous approach is asking people questions regarding the research issues, which is collected from a small sample not the whole population (Fowler, 2013). Collecting data is in standardised form and can be administered through a range of methods including mail, telephone and personal (face-to-face interview). The advantages and disadvantages of each method are explained as follows. Personal surveys or face-to-face interviews are a two-way interaction as the researcher approaches the respondents personally and asks a series of questions. This is the most flexible approach as both structured, or partly-structured questions, can be applied and frequently achieve a higher response rate. Stimulus material, such as visual aids or other sorts of objects, can be used during questioning (Malhotra, 1996).

Moreover, face-to-face interviews provide a more in-depth and comprehensive understanding as the interviewers can assist the respondents by explaining language difficulties or complex questions (Oppenheim, 2000). However, the disadvantage of this method is that it is costly and time-consuming. After all the merits and drawbacks of mail, telephone and face-to-face interviews were evaluated, it was concluded that the most appropriate technique for this study was face-to-face interview. The questionnaire of this study is 5 pages long and each section contains long questions, which could confuse the respondents. Moreover, some respondents are less likely to

answer the long questionnaire, pay less attention and leave it blank. Therefore, employing face-to-face interview enabled the researcher to help the respondents by reading the entire questionnaire to the respondent.

6.5.1 Justification for Personal Survey

The personal survey is chosen in the study due to its justification in terms of 1) the survey instrument as a research tool, 2) construction of the survey and 3) the sampling procedure as described below.

6.5.2 Survey instrumentation (Questionnaire)

In marketing research, utilising the questionnaire is consistent with the survey strategy focusing on the respondents' opinions in the form of statistic data. The questionnaire is a widely-used tool in data collection methods which falls into two categories: open-ended and close-ended questions. Both open-ended and close-ended questions have their own characteristics. With open-ended questions, the respondents answer the questions by using their own words. This is useful for the interviewer to understand the respondent's feelings and obtain much information regarding the questions and the research topic. In contrast, close-ended questions provide a set of possible answers, involving scales or categorical question responses. An example of a categorical question is a question concerning gender (male or female) or education (high school, undergraduate or post-graduate). With this in mind, close-ended questioning is therefore employed within this questionnaire.

6.5.3 Construction of the questionnaire

In order to make an effective questionnaire, it is important to begin with a covering letter to explain the purposes of the study. It is recommended by Dillman (2011) that the covering letter, as well as the instructions, should be on the first page of the questionnaire in order to achieve a higher response rate. This should be followed by a brief introduction to explain the study. The questionnaire has been designed to measure the relationship between dependent and independent variables. To achieve the best response rate, the questions start from general, and then become more specific. As Kahn and Cannel (1957) suggest, this can help to build a rapport and increase confidence answering the questions.

In this study, the questionnaire is separated into seven different parts, each of them addressing a related topic area. The first part of the questionnaire begins relatively simply with background information such as gender or age. Then, the second part is concerned with fast fashion purchasing behaviour. The third part relates to consumer perceived value. The fourth part is the effect of brand. The fifth part covers social media usage. The sixth part is regarding social media involvement and the last one is behavioural outcome. Within the context of questions, close-ended questions are employed including ranking, category and quantity questions. This technique limits the respondents' answers to the answers offered. A transition statement and bold title are constantly used to inform the respondents when a different topic is presented. In addition, specific instructions are given to provide clear explanations. Moreover, the layout is attractive, easy to read and to discuss in order to ensure that the data is completely and accurately obtained from the respondents. Similar questions are also grouped in a logical sequence.

According to Burchell and Marsh (1992), the most frequent reason found in respondents' refusal to participate in a survey is the length of the questionnaire. Edwards et al. (2002) supported the view that the response rate is reduced because of a long questionnaire; however, a very short questionnaire is not appropriate either. Hence, the length of the questionnaire in this study is 5 pages long. Additionally, the small font size makes the questionnaire look shorter to encourage the respondents to complete the questionnaire.

6.5.4 Face and content validity

When the questionnaire meets the face validity, it refers that there is subjective agreement from the professionals that the survey questions appear to make sense in which the scale is able to capture the concept (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Within this study, the face validity had been sought expert opinions from two marketing academics from University in Thailand who are specialist and familiar in marketing and consumer behaviour and five PhD students. The comments provided from the reviewers related to the questionnaire layout that was too messy and was not organised part by part. Therefore it has been developed with regard to these comments. Moreover, some comments provided feedback regarding the wording of items. For example, the consumer perceived social value items "*It make me enjoyable*

using this fast fashion items” was adjusted to “I enjoy using this fast fashion item”. Purchasing intention item - “I have high intention to purchase this fast fashion items” was adjusted to “I am extremely likely to purchase this fast fashion item”. In addition, it was suggested from reviewers to remind the respondents before every part by saying, for example, “Now, please think about social media that you access on a daily basis. And please answer the questions based on this social medium.”

6.6 Construct Measurements

The final construct of measurement has been reported. The consumer perceived value namely: social value, emotional value, price value and quality value is partially adopted from Sweeney and Sourtar (2001). Four dimensions of consumer perceived value are included with 19 items. The measurement items of the dimensions for consumer perceived value are demonstrated in Table 6-1 which has been edited to become relevant to the context of the study

Table 6-1: Measurement scale of Consumer Value construct

Construct	Source
Social Value	
I feel acceptable to others when wearing this fast fashion item I would get some interest from others when I wear this fast fashion item This fast fashion item would improve the way I am perceived by others in my society I am so proud when wearing this fast fashion item	Sweeney and Sourtar (2001)
Emotional Value	
I enjoy using this fast fashion item This fast fashion item would make me want to wear it This fast fashion item would make me happy when wearing it This fast fashion item would give me pleasure	Sweeney and Sourtar (2001)
Price Value	
This fast fashion item offers value for money This fast fashion item is reasonably priced This fast fashion item is a good product for the price This fast fashion item would be economical	Sweeney and Sourtar (2001)

Quality Value	
This fast fashion item has a consistent quality This fast fashion item has an acceptable standard of quality This fast fashion item is well made	Sweeney and Sourtar (2001)

Table 6-2: Measurement scale of Brand Love construct

Construct (Brand Love)	Source
Uniqueness	
This fast fashion brand is unique This fast fashion brand is special	Albert et al., (2009)
Pleasure	
I take pleasure in buying this fast fashion brand Discovering new products from this fast fashion brand is a pure pleasure I take real pleasure in using this fast fashion brand I am always happy using this fast fashion brand	Albert et al., (2009)
Intimacy	
I have a warm and comfortable relationship with this fast fashion brand I feel emotionally close to this fast fashion brand I value this fast fashion brand greatly in my life	Albert et al., (2009)
Idealization	
There is something almost “magical” about my relationship with this fast fashion brand There is nothing more important to me than my relationship with this fast fashion brand I idealise this fast fashion brand	Albert et al., (2009)
Duration	
(I feel that) this fast fashion brand has accompanied me for many years I have been using this fast fashion brand for a long time I have not changed this fast fashion brand for a long time	Albert et al., (2009)

Memories	
This fast fashion brand reminds me of someone important to me This fast fashion brand reminds me of memories, a moment of my past (childhood, adolescence, a meeting, . . .) I associate this fast fashion brand with important events in my life	Albert et al., (2009)
Dream	
This fast fashion brand corresponds to an ideal for me I have dreamed about that fast fashion brand for a long time This fast fashion brand is a childhood dream	Albert et al., (2009)

According to Table 6-2 with regard to Brand love, the measurement items have been adapted from Albert et al., (2009) including with 7 dimensions, 22 items. First dimension is Uniqueness includes 2 items. Four items shows in pleasure while with intimacy dimension involves with three items. For duration and memories contains 3 items and 4 items in dream dimension. The measure of purchasing intention from Table 7-4 consisted of four items that were adapted from the study of Esch (2006). Finally, the construct of purchasing intention is measured with four items which has been adjusted from Esch et al., (2006)

Table 6-3 : Measurement scale of purchasing intention construct

Construct	Source
Purchasing Intention	
I intend to purchase this fast fashion item I am very willing to purchase this fast fashion item I am likely to purchase this fast fashion item I am extremely likely to purchase this fast fashion item	Esch, Langer, Schmitt and Geus, (2006)

6.6.1 Social Media Involvement Construct Measurement

The concept of involvement has been proclaimed for more than two decades as a significant ingredient for the success of system developments (Barki and Hartwick, 1989). Despite considerable effort being given to social media involvement, understanding of the construct remains questionable and somewhat shallow. Even the involvement is the general construct that is more than just important for research studies for decades but there is no specific measure for social media involvement which represent as multidimensional scale including with three main facets; affective, cognitive and behavioural involvement.

According from the study of Levy and Windahl (1985) “*Involvement is the degree to which an audience member perceives a connection between him or herself and mass media content; and the degree to which the individual interacts psychologically with a medium or its message*” (p.112). While Rubin and Perse (1987) explained that the concept of media involvement is “*cognitive, affective, and behavioral participation during and because of exposure*” (p. 247). therefore the point made from this study was to develop a scale that was based on empirical, well-established studies in order to provide a comprehensive multidimensional measurement scale across generic social media platforms and samples of users.

Scale Development

With regard to the findings of social media involvement studies, two implications have been suggested relating to social media involvement constructs and construct definition. First of all, the concept of involvement should be treated as a multi-dimensional construct, as treating such a construct as uni-dimensional means it is possible to make mistakes with interpreting involvement constructs and its behavioural consequences (Park, 1996). This is in line with Rothschild (1979), who states that “*no single construct can individually [and] satisfactorily describe, explain or predict involvement*” (p.78). An existing social media involvement measurement scale shows that a uni-dimensional construct is not adequate to understand the involvement construct (Ha and Hu, 2013).

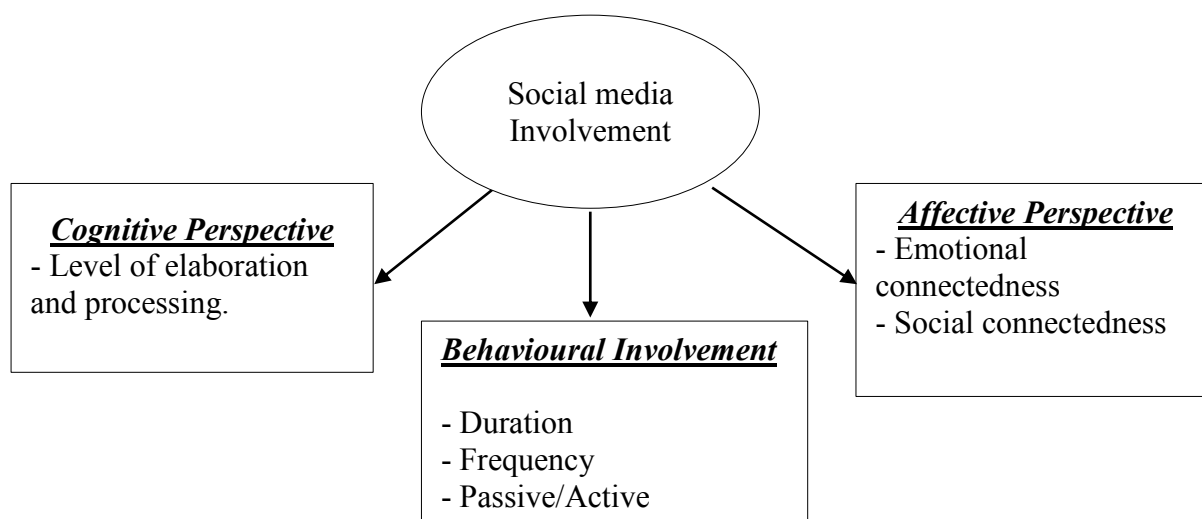
However, during past decades the construct of involvement has been treated as uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional depending on the context (Bloch, 1983; Laurent

and Kapferer, 1985; Traylor and Joseph, 1984; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Behavioural participation alone cannot judge an individual's involvement with an object or issue; either processing cognitively or responding emotionally. The number of dimensions in involvement studies has been ranked from one to six (Traylor and Joseph, 1984; Bloch, 1983). Moreover, even in multi-dimensional paradigms, the facet and nature of involvement constructs are also varied and non-consensus. Indeed, the different dimensions associated with involvement constructs have been reported in several previous studies (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Bah, 2008). It is important to provide a deeper understanding of involvement dimensionality, as it is crucial information on how consumer behaviour involved with.

This research developed the scale based on previous involvement literature (Sun, Rubin and Haridakis, 2008; Rubin and Perse, 1987). An existing literature review on social media involvement (Ha and Hu, 2013; Lim et al., 2013; Amaro and Duarter, 2015) indicated the construct in different ways. Hence this study aims to adapt existing empirical studies to define the measurement scale for social media involvement. Involvement has been viewed as an individual's enduring association with virtual communities (Amaro and Duarter, 2015). While the study from Ha and Hu (2013) proposed that involvement is difference by individual as it is appropriated to present scaling. As used within this study, social media involvement is viewed as a construct to reflect an individual level of cognitive, affective and behavioural involvement.

With different consumers, the level of involvement varies ranking from a minimal to high level of involvement. Moreover, the variable is extracted from previous empirical studies. The present study employs an empirical approach to explore the involvement issue. The conceptual framework conducted in this study show in Figure 6-4. A conceptual model of social media involvement is developed and proposed to describe the relationship between variable that could be used to measure an individual involvement level. The conceptual model would like to access an individual in both psychologically invested through Social media and assessment of usage then it comprises with *three* core measures; ***Cognitive Perspective, Affective Perspective and Behavioral Involvement.***

Figure 6-4. Conceptual Model for Social media involvement



Behavioural Involvement

Then the bulk of research relating to social media presents their involvement scale by basic usage profile. Stone (1984) defined behavioural involvement as the time and/or intensity of effort expended in pursuing a particular activity. Intensity of time spent and activity is an important indicator (Ellison et al., 2007, Fang and Ha, 2011).

However, to assess social media usage profile within this framework, is not just frequency or duration on Social media but the instrument designs to examine an individual social media behavior to reflect their level of involvement with social media. This core variable reflects both active and passive engagement. As the limitation from past studies, only one or two variable is not enough to measure level of involvement therefore, series of variables to access usage profile is compulsory to approach involvement level. Five main variables are included.

Duration is an item to measure length of usage on social media. *Frequency* is the extent to tap an individual level of motivation strength using the social media. Passive and active level is adapted from Vitak et al (2011) which is an item to tap into a kind of reciprocity and level of sharing especially into social media platforms. For Example of question is “*I am actively interacting with my friends on my social media*” and “*I am often sharing or accessing online information*”

Cognitive Perspective

Thinking, processing and elaborating messages (are cognitively participants) involve cognitive participation (Rubin and Perse, 1987). With regards to several scholars, cognitive involvement refers to active participation in processing information. In terms of the level of cognitive response, it shows that involved consumers devote a huge effort in searching information and acquiring strategies. Specifically, when consumers are involved with social media, they are more likely to process information during exposure at a “*deep level*”, as an individual tends to start engaging with deeper processing and actively evaluating important information (Buchholz and Smith, 1991). MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) reviewed that once a consumer is cognitively involved, constructive processing, which is explained as the deeper form of consumer process, is represented. From this process, the consumer goes beyond their relevant content by connecting to these messages in a meaningful way relating to their life. This coincides with a study by Kurgman (1965) who proposed that a personal connection or bridging experience is produced once the consumer processes the information in a meaningful way.

Affective Perspective

The concept of Affective Perspective is meant to an individual expand emotional energy or feeling towards activity. It is the variable to deal with an individual behaves based on their emotion and is used to describe individual feelings evoked by an object (McGuire, 1974). Human beings have the fundamental need to belong and feel connected (Rettie, 2003). The term connected in the online social networking sites infrastructure theory, reflects a multilevel regarding to the relationship between individual and technology (Ball-Roketch et al., 2001). It is characterized by a feeling of staying in touch with ongoing social relationships. It is focus on individual connect to technology and how's connection embedded and affected.

According to Smith and Mackie (2007) the concept of connectedness has been recognized by Social Psychology as the need of human beings where the motion represents an underlying basic motivational principle of social behavior. Deriving

from informational technology literature, connectedness can be interpreted as physical connection between an audience and the virtual world (Dholakia and Bagozzi 2001). It refers to an individual feeling of belong to the social group which can be describes as the creation of bonding relationships. The study applies the concept of “*connectedness*” rather than just simply measure by time-base in order to understand an individual principal structure on how they involve with social media. Russell and Puto (1999) define that connectedness is a rich indicator in such a way to explain the intensity of the relationship between an individual and technology. It has been reflected the contextual way of the relationship between an individual and advances technology (Ball-Rokeach et al., 2011).

However, connectedness has vary in meanings but mostly described as “*emotional*” elements in social studies (Maulana and Eckhardt, 2007). Regarding to the above literature, within this study, social connectedness is an extent to which an individual’s degree of emotional proximity and social relationship to experience the sense of belonging to the social media platforms. While emotional connectedness is the extent to which an individual emotionally connect with social media platforms. Kraut et al., (2002) found that heavy Internet use increased social connectedness, it seems likely that this dimension, the degree of connectedness, is both cause and effect of most emotions. Connectedness is characterized by a feeling of staying in touch with ongoing social relationships (Romero et al., 2007).

Therefore, it composes with two items; Emotional connectedness and Social connectedness. Once the index of usage is an important measurement but it seems not sufficiently explain the extent to which an individual involve with social media involvement then additional measurement is included. First variable is adapted from *Facebook Intensity Scale* (Ellison et al., 2007); ***Emotional Connectedness*** is the extent to which an individual emotionally connected to the site. For example “*I would be sorry if Facebook shut down.*” Second, ***Social Connectedness*** is an extent to which an individual’s degree of closeness experience to the social world. Accordingly, social connectedness is considered a potential key concept not only in the analysis of communication but the development of communication technologies and applications, such as social media (Rettie, 2003). It can be described as the feeling of belonging to a social group.

Table 6-4 Measurement scale of social media involvement construct

Construct	Source
Emotional Connectedness	
I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto my preferred social media for a while I feel I am part of the social media community I would be sorry if my preferred social media shut down	Ellison, Steinfeld and Lamp, (2007)
Social Connectedness	
I feel close to people on my preferred social media I am able to relate to peers on my preferred social media I am able to connect with other people on my preferred social media I find myself actively involved with my preferred social media	Lee, Draper and Lee, (2011)
Cognitive Involvement	
I try to relate the online information in the story to my own experience While I am using my preferred social media, I think about how the online information relates to other things I know I find myself making connections between online information from my preferred social media and what I have read and heard about elsewhere While I am using my preferred social media, I concentrate on it	Perse and Rubin, 1988 Eveland and Dunwoody, 2002
Passive / Active (Behavioural Involvement)	
I am actively interacting with my friends on my social media I am often sharing or accessing online information I am often making comments or giving opinions on my social media	Vitak et al., (2011)

While Smith and Mackie (2000) claimed that Social connectedness has been identified as one of the fundamental underlying motivating principles behind social behavior. Individuals can assess their social relationships based on the extent to which they feel socially connected. The scale is adapted from Social Connectedness

Scale-Revised (Lee et al., 2001). The example of question is "*I feel close to people on my preferred social media*" or "*I find myself actively involved with my preferred social media*". Both emotional and social connectedness scale has been incorporated with the measurement scale. Furthermore, according to Table 6-4 demonstrated that the measure of Social media involvement measurement scale consists of 18 items and 3 main dimensions. The first dimension is Affective involvement that is separated into 2 sub dimensions, namely emotional connectedness (Ellison et al., 2007) and social connectedness (Lee et al., 2001). Cognitive involvement includes 4 items adjusted from Perse and Rubin, 1988 and Eveland and Dunwoody, 2002, while the Behavioural usage measurement scale is adjusted from Vitak et al., (2011) for the passive and active level towards media including frequency and duration of social media usage.

Social Media Involvement Scale Conceptualization

With the conceptualisation stage, the social media involvement scale was developed as multidimensional constructs including with cognitive involvement, affective involvement and behavioural involvement based on the Involvement literature (Figure 6-4). The major purpose in purifying the measurement scale is to propose an instrument with an internally consistent and the highly related items in the way to represent the scale that come from the domain of single construct (Bloch, 1981). In the next stage as suggested by Churchill (1979), this study investigates coefficient alpha and plotting the item-to-total scale correlations for each dimension on the way to reduce the scale.

First of all, the principal component analysis was employed to explore the factor. Table 6-4 demonstrates the factor loadings results that all the variables have a communality value in an acceptable range between 0.694-0.749. In running EFA on the final 15 items, four components with the eigenvalues exceed 1 explain 32.102, 46.607, 60.696 and 71.196 of the variance respectively. With the accumulative level, the four factors is able to explain 71.196 % of variance. This finding specifically highlights the significance of having four factor scale on the way to explain the consumer involvement with more analytic manner.

Table 6-5: Communality Test (Social Media Involvement)

Constructs	Initial	Extraction
SC1	1.000	.723
SC2	1.000	.732
SC3	1.000	.703
SC4	1.000	.701
CI1	1.000	.694
CI2	1.000	.706
CI3	1.000	.726
CI4	1.000	.694
PAI1	1.000	.738
PAI2	1.000	.749
PAI3	1.000	.728
EMC1	1.000	.744
EMC2	1.000	.713
EMC3	1.000	.718

Table 6-6: Total Variance Explained after Running Principal Component Analysis

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	4.494	32.102	32.102	4.494	32.102	32.102	2.858
2	2.031	14.505	46.607	2.031	14.505	46.607	2.816
3	1.973	14.090	60.696	1.973	14.090	60.696	2.217
4	1.571	11.219	71.196	1.571	11.219	71.196	2.178
5	.502	3.587	75.503				

After this process, 15 remained in the scale. To check for overlap of items across dimensions, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was undertaken (four sub dimensional under three main dimensional). Therefore, the clear factor patterns were represented. 15 items are remained. In addition, the dimensional of social media involvement construct has been validated by this study. The concept of involvement is multi-faced based on the empirical studies there are four dimensions that constitute the involvement with social media by consumer. Moreover, this study suggests that the relationship between the consumer perceived value and purchasing intention tend to be stronger among fast fashion consumer when they are involve with social media. From the result, this can be suggested to help fast fashion marketer to manage different strategies based on the different level of consumer involvement with social media.

Table 6-7: Orthogonal (Varimax Raotated) Factor-Loading-Matrix with Cronbach Alpha Pattern Marix

		Component			
		1	2	3	4
Cronbach's Alpha		0.830	0.841	0.824	0.786
Social Connectedness	I feel close to people on my preferred social media	0.833			
	I am able to relate to peers on my preferred social media	0.847			
	I am able to connect with other people on my preferred social media	0.815			
	I find myself actively involved with my preferred social media	0.816			
Emotional Connectedness	I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto my preferred social media for a while				0.842
	I feel I am part of the social media community				0.835
	I would be sorry if my preferred social media shut down				0.827
Behavioural Involvement (Passive/Active)	When I'm having a bad day, I post about it on my preferred social media			0.834	
	When I receive good news, I post about it on my preferred social media			0.849	
	When I see my friend or acquaintance sharing good or bad news, or requesting information, I try to respond			0.829	
Cognitive Involvement	I tired to relate the online information in the story to my own experience		0.819		
	While I am using my preferred social media, think about how the online information relates to other things I know		0.830		
	I found myself making connections between online information from my preferred social media and what I have read and heard about elsewhere		0.836		
	While I am using my prefred social media, I concentrate on it		0.808		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

In summary, the results indicate that the social media involvement construct is scalable for measuring the product class. This measurement scale is a prototype which allows other researchers to construct with different social media applications and research contexts. Furthermore, the scale demonstrated that it is applicable for fast fashion products; however it should not limit its usefulness to refine this social media construct with other product classes. Therefore, the scale could appear to have an application with different research situations such as mediator or predictor of other studies. Whilst preliminary support is provided on this measurement scale there is also some caution. As student respondents have tested this scale, it would be better to further establish the measurement scale validity by using other groups representing the population. Finally, the involvement scale has been proposed in such a way to assess an individual's different level of involvement with social media as a moderator between the relationship between consumer perceived value and purchasing intention as a first attempt. It seems to provide adequate support for both reliability and validity to apply this scale for future research within different contexts.

6.7 Translation of the Research Instrument

The aim of the present study was for it to be conducted in Thailand, but the research instrument was written in English, therefore the language could lead to problems for respondents since Thailand is not an English-speaking country. Moreover, some phrases that have been used in the questionnaire are likely to sometimes be confusing. Hence, the instrument has been translated into a Thai version. However, the language translation process still has its problems (Brislin, 1970).

- Sometimes the technical English words can be easily understood in English but might have no meaning in another language.
- The translator might not have adequate knowledge relating to the research field.

Brislin (1970) suggested that to avoid and minimise these problems, there are several keys for translation methods including one way translations, back translation, bilingual techniques, the committee approach and pre-testing. Due to the time constraints of this research, one-way translation and back translation methods have

been employed. At the first stage, the research instrument has been translated from English into Thai by the professional translation service. Second, the back translation approach has been applied by giving two Thai version questionnaires for two independent translators to translate back from Thai to English. As Brislin (1970) recommended for the back translation method, at least two translators are required. This method can help the researcher to check the research content and meaning of the research instrument. In addition, the research instrument has been handed to a Thai translator once again in order to double check the wording. The final stage is to hand in the Thai research instrument to translate back into the English version to ensure that it is correct.

6.8 Pre-Testing the Instrument (Pilot Test)

At the beginning of the data collection stage, the majority of research commences with a pilot testing study which could help the researcher to explore any weaknesses in the data collection instrument (Blumberg et al., 2005). Regarding to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, (1996, p.22) stated that *“you may think that you know well enough what you are doing, but the value of pilot research cannot be overestimated. Things never work quite the way you envisage, even if you have done them many times before, and they have a nasty habit of turning out very differently than you expected.”*

A pilot study is a miniature version of the study, conducted before committing to a full-blown study (Polit, Beck and Hungler, 2001). It is used as a pre-test or a try out research instrument. The pilot study aims to explore any potential problems which may occur during the research process. Frequently, the researchers find out that although their ideal environment is valid for the research, in reality, it fails when conducting the research study. Hence, the pilot study is necessary for any studies (Welman and Kruger, 1999). There are several benefits in conducting a pilot study. One of the advantages is that the pilot study might give advance warning as to where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated. In the words of De Vaus (1993, p.54), *“do not take the risk, pilot test first.”*

Moreover, the pilot study is able to highlight ambiguous or unclear items. Therefore, the unclear construct is eliminated from the beginning. The research instrument could fail because unforeseen challenges may occur during the procedure. There may be impractical or ambiguous question wording, or proposed methods may be inappropriate; thus, the pilot study can help to confirm whether the researcher is prepared for the full-scale implementation. The pilot study allows the researcher to gauge the reaction from respondents (Borg and Gall, 1979). Time and cost can be estimated during this try out study that could help reduce some costs incurred by inaccurate instruments (Isaac and Michael, 1995).

In addition, selecting pilot respondents demographically similar to the target population could help to confirm whether or not the instrument tool fits the population. Even though it cannot be guaranteed that the pilot study increases the success of the actual study, it greatly enhances the likelihood. At least, it ensures that the research instrument is designed properly and the collected data is consistent with the research purpose. Fink and Kosekoff (1985) suggested that the failure of the research instrument is a good indicator to the researcher that revision is needed. If it is necessary, the questionnaire should be changed, and the instrument should be modified and adapted according to the weakness (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1996). With regard to a pilot test, there are some arguments as to how large the sample size should be. Neuman (2000) simply identified “*small respondents*” whilst Baker (1994) recommended that the sample size for a pilot study is approximately 10-20 per cent of the actual study sample size. Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2002) advised, “*for surveys, a small part of the sample, say, 20 people, should be contacted and interviewed*”. Similarly, Isaac and Michael (1995) supported that 10-30 respondents would be recommended.

In this study the pilot test was designed in accordance with the recommendations above. The pilot test was released in March 2016 at the luxurious shopping malls. The survey was initially distributed to 20 samples, which were Thai consumers, aged 20-35 years old, living in Bangkok - the capital city of Thailand. It was found that 20 female respondents responded to the survey. However, there were 5 surveys not completed. Therefore, the advice of 15 respondents was taken into consideration to

evaluate the first draft of the survey. The majority of respondents noted the issues occurred during filling out the surveys as follows:

- The language used in the questionnaire was English; therefore, it would be difficult for Thai consumers to understand.
- The 5-page questionnaire was relatively long causing a lack of motivation to complete the survey.
- The specific context with technical terms cause language ambiguity, for example the following statements:

“I enjoy using this fast fashion item,”

“This fast fashion item would make me want to wear it,”

“This fast fashion item would make me happy when wearing it,” and

“This fast fashion item would give me pleasure.”

De Vaus (1993) advised researchers to “*check if there are any ambiguities or if the respondents have any difficulty in responding*” (p. 54). Along with the advice of the first group of samples, the second-drafted questionnaire was improved to be more comprehensive but shorter. Even though the questionnaire was still written in the Thai language, the researcher employed the technique of providing on-site instructions for the questionnaire in person for the second-drafted survey distribution.

In April 2016, the surveys were distributed to another 15 samples. To ensure that the respondents understood the questions precisely and no bias of the researcher would be involved, the researcher acted as the instructor and translator when the respondents had questions in terms of language difficulties or technical terms while collecting data. Again, the second draft of the survey was evaluated by the respondents’ opinions toward the survey. It was not found to have any negative comments, meaning that the researcher could employ the second-drafted survey as the final one, known as the full-scale study.

6.9 Sampling Procedure

According to McGivern (2009), sampling validity is described as a rigorous sampling process as the research problem can be defined by the collected data. According to sampling, reliability is the functioning over time. It refers to a precise sampling process which allows the study to be repeated several times and yield a

consistent outcome. Furthermore rather than external validity within the preliminary research objectives, internal validity is significantly more important since at this stage the major concern is not generalisability. Therefore a non-probability method was employed within this stage.

To obtain the unit of population as representative of the target population without studying the entire collection is known as the sampling method (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 1998). Generally, there is an agreement that sampling is described as the fundamental research design. Shapiro (2008) noted that “*a sample is a subset of elements drawn from a larger population. When all elements from the larger population are "sampled" for measurement, a census is being conducted, not a sample survey*”. The main principal for sampling is to yield an accurate and reliable implication towards a broader population.

There are two major techniques in sampling methods: probability and non-probability (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Employing a probability-sampling method is the process by which a random sample is drawn from a known probability. Bryman and Bell (2015) explained that minimising an error is one aim of conducting the probability technique. The larger the sample size results in the smaller chance of error (Marshall, 1996). Even though the probability method provides valid results, it is considered more time-consuming and costly than the non-probability technique. On the other hand, the non-probability sampling-method is the extent to which the sample is not able to assign within the units objectively. It is appropriate for research where the goal is to learn about a large population. Frequently, the non-probability sampling-method is employed because it can be implemented more quickly and less expensively. Moreover, choosing between a quantitative or qualitative method depends on the nature of research and research questions rather than the researcher's preference. The quantitative method intends to obtain the breadth of understanding whilst for the most part, the qualitative method intends to achieve depth of understanding (Patton, 2002). Quantitative researchers are likely to acquire a larger sample group to permit statistical inferences to be made (Patton, 2005). Otherwise, the chosen research method lies to the utmost important points of the research's validity and efficiency since the chosen sampling method has to be consistent with the research's objectives.

Due to the time constraints in this study aiming obtain group of sample in the non-probability sampling-method is chosen.

Table 6-8: The choices of non-probability sampling techniques

Group	Technique	Likelihood of sample being representative	Types of research in which it is useful	Relative costs	Control over sample contents
Quota	Quota	Reasonable to high	Alternative to probability sampling needed	Moderate high to reasonable	Specifies quota selection criteria
Purposive	Extreme case Heterogeneous Homogeneous Critical case Typical case Theoretical	Low, dependent on researcher's choices	Unusual or special Key themes In-depth interview Importance Illustrative Inform emerging theory	Reasonable	Specifies selection criteria
Volunteer	Self-selection Snowball	Low Low	Exploratory research Where cases difficult to identify	Low Low	Low Quite low
Haphazard	Convenience	Very low	Ease of access	Low	Low

Source: Adapted from Patton (2002); Saunders et al., (2003)

Saunders et al. (2009) classified numerous sampling techniques into four categories: quota, purposive, volunteer and convenience. The different characteristics of each method are presented in the Table 6-5. Undoubtedly, the sample is chosen based on the researcher's convenience, readiness and availability that meet the research's criteria. Amongst the four choices of sampling techniques, the convenience sampling method is selected in this study thanks to its justifications in terms of 1) easy accessibility to the samples and 2) low cost. In business studies, the convenience sampling method is described as the predominant sampling method and widely used to gain initial primary data regarding specific issues, especially during the exploration stage of the research. The method is also effective when conducting pilot data collection in order to identify and address shortcomings concerned with questionnaire design (Saunders et al., 2012).

The convenience sampling method is also known as availability sampling, haphazard sampling or the accidental sampling method as the samples happen to be situated nearby where the researcher conducts the data collection process. It allows the research to reach the sample as fast as it can in a relatively inexpensive way (Lang, 1996). This technique requires a subjective judgement; thus, it always suffers from bias that is impossible to control (Black, 1999). Both biases and probabilities are not quantified. Bryman and Bell (2015) posited that "*in the field of business and management, convenience samples are very common and indeed are more prominent than are samples based on probability sampling*". Although the convenience technique offers no guarantee of bias, this technique is appropriate due to time-limitation, nature of the study and it is quicker compared to other methods.

6.10 Research Design

The term "*research design*" has been described by Churchill (1999) as "*the framework or plan for a study, used as a guide in collecting and analysing data*" (p.99). The design the research is the holistic view to spell out the researcher in order to gather the information for researcher to answer research questions and hypotheses. However, within one study, the researcher is able to employ more than one sort of research design that suits the research's questions and objectives; as stated "the design of the investigation should stem from the problem" (Churchill, 1999, p. 99).

Research design has been categorised into 3 groups; exploratory, descriptive and causal (Churchill, 1999; Aaker et al., 1991). An exploratory design is a valuable way of answering, “what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light” (Robson 2002, p.59). The exploratory research design provides the researcher with a better understanding of phenomena and is useful in clarifying the problem or the relationship among variables. There are three main principal techniques to conduct exploratory research:

- Conducting the focus group interview
- Interviewing an “expert” in the subject
- Searching for literature

The descriptive research aims to “*portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations*” (Robson 2002, p.59). The descriptive research design offers the true picture of a marketing environment (Aaker et al., 1991). However, the descriptive method does not provide accurate information, rather it describes the situation. Saunder et al., (2009) suggested that the researcher has to understand the social phenomena under the investigation in order to collect the data to meet the descriptive research objectives. The causal design mainly concentrates on understanding the causal relationship between two or more variables (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2006). According to Saunders et al., (2009), the goal of the causal research is to determine the problems and explain and prove the cause and effect of the relationship between variables. It is very important to have a strict plan on this research including objectives and questions, as without a clear understanding of the plan and what the research is trying to prove, research bias might occur. The exiting literatures claimed that the most powerful technique to study the relationship amongst variables in causal research is the experiment method (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2006).

6.10. 1 Research Time Horizon

Time horizon, known as planning horizon, refers to an estimated time when the study will be completed. It is regarded as the most important decision to be made prior to planning the project, which is divided into two designs: cross-sectional and longitudinal, chosen independently from the research strategy. Saunders et al., (2009)

pointed that both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies are considered to be observational studies, meaning that researchers record data without manipulating the study environment. The cross-sectional design is likely to be more effective as the survey strategy (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Lowe, 2008; Robson, 2002). The subject of this study was the consumer and the study intended to examine how the consumer perceived value dimension influences the purchasing intention, including the moderating effect of social media involvement and brand love.

Moreover, the study was limited by the given time frame and the study does not aim to study changes and development over time (Sekaran, 2003), therefore the cross-sectional time horizon was applied. Instead of measuring actual purchasing behaviour, purchasing intention is applied to predict an outcome. As mentioned above with the limitation of time constraints, a longitudinal study might be required to measure actual purchasing behaviour since sometimes behaviour changes in the short term. Therefore, purchasing intention is used as a proxy of actual behaviour. It cannot be denied that actual behaviour is the most important rather than the theory of planned behaviour. Check this sentence (Ajzen, 1991) notes that planned purchased and actual behaviour are correlated because when a person intends to do something, it relates to their actual behaviour.

However, in order to best capture the consumer purchasing intention, this study was conducted in the shopping department stores during the time when respondents were making the choices. The respondents were not asked to recall shopping experiences in the past; rather they were asked to just report on recent remembered shopping experiences at their preferred fast fashion store and to respond to the questionnaires based on their recent visit. Undertaking the study this way enabled respondents to report their recent experiences. Most researchers widely agree that the attitude and intention can be moderated by the presence of numerous intervening variables (Fazio and Zanna, 1979; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Bagozzi, 1981) The cross-sectional design intends to investigate the samples in both quantitative and qualitative methods at a single point of time like a snapshot (Bryman and Bell, 2015). In other words, data is gathered without regard to differences in time. On the other hand, the longitudinal study is further used to study when there are some changes or developments with a

specific phenomenon over a period of time (Sekaran, 2003). In other words, the data is collected from the same panel on more than one occasion.

6.11 Defining the Population

The population refers to the totality of subjects, objects or members who are being selected in accordance with the research's objective (Polit et al., 2001). To identify the population accurately at the beginning of the research is significant because obtaining all the information about the population is derived from sampling (Aaker et al., 1991). According to the National Statistical Office, Thailand (2013), the total Thai population is 67.1 million. However, the target population was identified from Thai consumers who tend to have potential buying power. Thus, the selected target population in this research is Thai consumers over the age of 19-36 (between the ranges of Gen Y consumers).

According to Amornvivat (2014), despite this age group being young consumers, they tend to be potential consumers. The average monthly income standing for this age group is approximately 30,000 THB (640 GBP) compared with Gen x which has an average monthly income around 35,000 THB (745 GBP). But with financial freedom, the young consumers are allowed to spend without much constraint. Therefore, young consumers should not be ignored as the target consumer. In addition, there are several reasons for choosing Thai as the population. Firstly, the researcher is Thai, enabling access to the data collection. Secondly, Thailand has been recently ranked as an ASEAN's major trade, tourism and shopping centre in which the fast fashion sector is expanding. Kresearch (2013) reported that there is a growing potential power for Thai consumers in the fashion industry. It is anticipated that the contributions of this study would not only achieve the objectives, but also be practical and worthwhile for fashion-related industries.

6.11.1 Target Population

In this study, the primary objective was to survey how Thai consumers view fast fashion products. Once the research is drawn, choosing the target population is suggested as the first step towards the sampling process (Sekaran, 2003). In this study, the research context is focused on the fast fashion stores in Thailand. The aim

of the study is to investigate the purchasing intention of Thai consumers towards fast fashion products. Gen Y consumers (aged between 19- 35) are selected as an ideal subject to comment on how consumers evaluate consumption value on fast fashion products since this consumer group are considered to be representative of the main market with significant spending power for fast fashion products (Paul, 2001). Gen Y, as a consumer group, tend to be “*notoriously fickle*” as they demand the latest trends and are also fashion conscious (Morton, 2001). Shopping for fashion products for this age group is referred to as a prevailing activity, therefore it is often considered when investigating this context (Park *et al.* 2006; O’Cass and Choy, 2008). In addition, Gen-Y are digital natives who spend most of their time accessing social media, which profoundly affects their lives and how they will behave in the future (Wesner and Miller, 2008). Therefore, Gen-Y appear to be a good representative regarding this study; in order to obtain accurate results, the target population is limited to Thai consumers.

6.11.2 Sample Size

A critical aspect of any study is determining the appropriate sample size to answer the research questions. Gay and Diehl (1992) recommended “*large enough*” to acquire rich data. The inappropriate, inadequate or excessive sample size continues to have an effect on the quality and accuracy of the research. Thus, calculating the exact sample size is necessary to produce the optimal results to ensure that testing hypothesis has a high probability of detecting a meaningful difference in the parameters. Roscoe (1975) suggested that the sample size for research depends on the research approaches. Fornell and Larcker, 1981 found that the larger the sample size results in fewer errors in the study. Martin and Bateson (1986) also indicated that since statistical power is enhanced through the amount of data, then the larger the sample size the better. Likewise, Stevens (2012) suggested that in order to calculate a sample size to achieve a precise statistical analysis, the sample size should be over 300.

In contrast, Stutely (2003) argued that as a useful rule of thumb, the minimum number for statistical analysing should be 30. Hence, the data analysis technique is one of the priorities to consider when determining how large a sample size should be. The complexity of the model and several factors (e.g., normality of the data, missing patterns) should be taken into consideration in determining sample size (Malhotra,

2004). In the most recent simulations studies, rather small sample sizes are recommended as adequate (Sideridis et al., 2014). However, Hair et al. (2011) argued that a sample size of less than 100 is considered to be a small group for data analysis. Sivo, Saunders, Chang and Jiang (2006) recommended that 200 are the critical number under the SEM technique which is sufficient for power analysis. Based on the suggestions from existing studies, it is regarded that the acceptable sample size for power data analysis by using the SEM technique is 200.

Kline (2011) recommended that the minimum acceptable sample size is at least 200/ 5 or 10 cases per parameter for the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). According to the SEM is proposed as the most demanding data analysis technique within this study, the sample size ratio for this study is 10:1. In this study, the sample size was supposed to be 510 due to the possible 51 parameters generated in the SEM. However, the researcher distributed 30 per cent more questionnaires than the designated sample size in case of possible incomplete data which led to a total of 663.

6.12 Fieldworks

The fieldworks commence after the process of the survey instrument and pilot test for the questionnaire have been finalised. Over 4 weeks during September-October 2016, the primary data were collected. The final draft of questionnaires in the Thai language were distributed to the selected 650 samples who visited the stores in the three luxury shopping malls in the commercial district of downtown Bangkok, Thailand; Siam Paragon, Central World and Emquartier. However, the reason that only three shopping malls in Bangkok were selected for the survey was because fast fashion stores such as ZARA, Topshop or H&M are only located in the capital city in Thailand, Bangkok. The convenience sampling was treated with caution regarding the reliability of the data. The researcher carefully selected broad cross-sectional respondents in the expectation that the selected samples should reasonably represent the target population. To strengthen the diversity of the method, the questionnaires were distributed on several days and at different locations. The study distributed questionnaires to multiple fast fashion stores and separated time slots into three time slots; morning from 10-12 am; afternoon from 13.00-16.00 pm and evening from 18.00-20.00 pm. In addition, a daily sampling size quota was set so that this would

cover a period of a full month since mid-month shoppers might differ from month-end shoppers. By the end of the fieldworks, a total of 650 questionnaires were received but only 630 could be used with complete information. This provides the total response rate of 96%. The manipulation of missing data and further statistical analysis is elaborated within the next chapter.

6.13 Research Ethics

All research activities in this study firmly abided to the ethics of the research obtained from the relevant Research Ethics Committee. The voluntary respondents had been informed about the objectives of the study with a respectful manner as well as with regard to personal, social and cultural values. Also, the confidentiality of their name and opinions was ensured.

6.14 Chapter Conclusion Remarks

Building on the literature review, the methodological choice and research methods were demonstrated. The research method incorporated for data collection phase. This chapter first addressed the research philosophy, ontology and epistemological issue. This research was influenced by positivism. This was followed by the deductive method which was employed by this study, which aimed to investigate the causal relationship between constructs of theoretical framework. The pilot test had been conducted before the full-blown study to eliminate possible problems later on. The data was generated from face-to-face self administered surveys, since the questionnaire of the study contained 5 pages which is quite long and the respondents would possibly not pay attention and leave it blank. Therefore, by reading all the questions for the respondents, the face-to-face self survey could be of benefit to the researcher. The cross-sectional design was chosen due to limited time and budget, since the study investigates the consumer perceived value at a specific point of time. The sample size of the study was calculated by a ratio of 10:1 parameters from Kline et al., (2011). The sample was decided to be 630 respondents. Finally, ethical consideration was firmly abided to the ethics of the research obtained from the relevant Research Ethics Committee from Brunel University.

CHAPTER SEVEN: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is to transform survey data and present the research findings. The scale purification was discussed in the previous chapter as some items were deducted and the remaining items were used in the main survey questionnaire. This chapter commences with the evaluation stage by data screening and describes the demographic data. It also monitors the missing data and outlier which could lead to problems later. The first task for statistical examination is to ensure that the survey data meets the required multivariate assumption: the assumption of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to test whether the measurement of construct is consistent with the theory. The running factor analysis is to assess the validity and reliability of the scale. Subsequently, the structural equation model (SEM) is used in the study to test the hypothesis and extract the information from the study. In addition, with regard to this study, the survey was conducted in Bangkok, Thailand. The main survey purpose is to collect data in order to assess the measurement construct validity and to test the study hypotheses and measurement model. The main survey data analysis and techniques are presented in more detail in the following sections.

7.2 Sample Demographic

The descriptive statistic is used to describe the basic data of the study. This statistic enables the researcher to quantitatively explain two aspects of the data: the central tendency and the dispersion (Saunders et al., 2009). When a study involves humans, it is important to report the demographic information such as gender, income or educational level (Pallant, 2013). According to Table 7.1, the frequencies and percentage of basic demographic variables are presented, including gender, age, income and educational level. It demonstrates that the sample is dominated by females (84%) whilst males only represent 16%. The majority of respondents have a Bachelor degree (72.5%), a Master degree (24.3) or an undergraduate degree (3.2%). With regard to the financial situation, the monthly income of respondents is divided into five categories.

Table 7-1: Descriptive Statistic of the Demographic Variables

	%	n
Gender		
Male	16	101
Female	84	529
Total	100	630
Age		
19-23	16.5	104
24-28	33.8	213
29-33	40.3	254
Above 33	9.3	59
Total	100	630
Education level		
High School	3.2	20
Bachelor Degree	72.5	457
Master	24.3	153
Total	100	630
Monthly income		
< 10,000 THB	1	6
10,001 - 25,000 THB	44	277
25,001- 40,000 THB	40.8	257
40,001 – 55,000 THB	12.5	79
> 55,000 THB	1.7	11
Total	100	630

* 47 THB = 1 GBP

The percentage of the higher respondents (44%) fall into a monthly income of 10,001 - 25,000 THB, followed by 25,001-40,000 monthly income (40.8%), 40,001-55,000, > 55,000 at 12.5 and 1.7% respectively. While only 1% of respondents have a monthly income of < 10,000 THB. In terms of age, 40% of respondents were within the range 29-33 years, 33.8% of them were aged between 24-28 followed by 19-23 and above 33 with 16.5% and 9.3% respectively.

Table 7-2 : Descriptive Statistic of Fashion Consumption Behaviour

Most Preferred Fast Fashion Brand	%	n
Zara	32.1	202
H&M	29.4	185
Topshop	16	101
Forever21	9.5	60
Mango	8.1	51
Something boudoir	4.9	31
Total	100	630
Frequency of purchasing		
Once every few months	5.9	37
At least once a month	58.4	368
Once a week	31.4	198
More than once a week	4.3	27
Total	100	630
Amount of spending per transaction		
Less than 1,000 THB per time	2	1
1,000-3,000 THB per time	64.1	404
3,000-5,000 THB per time	34.9	220
More than 5,000 THB per time	0.8	5
Total	100	630

In terms of fast fashion consumption behaviour, the most preferred fast fashion brand is ZARA with 32.1 %, followed by H&M with 29.4 %, Topshop with 16 %, Forever 21 with 9.5%, Mango with 8.1 % and Something boudoir with 4.9%. Most of the respondents, (58.3%), purchase fast fashion items at least once a month. These are followed by respondents who spend money on fast fashion products once a week (31.4%), once in a few months (5.9%) and more than once a week (4.3 %). However, more than half of respondents (64.1%) spend 1,000-3,000 THB per transaction when purchasing fast fashion products, while 34.9 % spend 3,000-5,000 THB per

transaction. Less than 1% spend below 1,000 THB and more than 5,000 THB per transaction.

7.3 Outlier Analysis

Outlier analysis is the way to examine the variables in the study that had an inconsistent score with the remainder data within the study (Hair et al., 2011). In this case, an outlier appears when an extreme low or high value appears either on variables or a unique combination of them across several variables and may result in a non-normality data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, it is not certain whether outliers are problematic or beneficial but they can cause bias in the inflation of standard deviation and means. Field (2013) posits that the researcher should be aware of outliers since they may bias the study result. Therefore outlier analysis should be evaluated in the study (Hair et al., 2014). There are several reasons which could lead to outliers occurring: wrong coding, procedural error, extraordinary events and so on (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, three methods to detect outliers are identified.

- Univariate detection
- Multivariate detection (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007)

7.3.1 Univariate Detection of Outliers

The univariate examines each variable in the study that fall into a higher or lower range of the distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). To detect outliers, the score must be converted into z score as a standardized format which have a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 so that it is easier for comparison (Hair et al., 2014).

7.3.2 Multivariate Detection of Outliers

As most cases in multivariate analysis include more than two variables in the model then bivariate detecting becomes inadequate to assess the outliers (Hair et al., 2014). Mahalanobis D^2 is addressed as a multivariate assessment across the variables. The test of D^2 is the method used to measure the distance in standard deviation units from their mean center and set of scores on one case. The conservative levels of D^2/df should be (0.005 or 0.001) therefore resulting from AMOS shows minimal evidences regards to multivariate outlier.

7.4 Testing the Assumption of Multivariate Analysis

Since the earlier steps of missing data and outlier process was approached to let the data clean and assure that it is ready and suitable for multivariate analysis. The required statistical assumptions rise up because of two main characters of multivariate analysis. Firstly, the complex relationships between large numbers of variables mean that the potential bias and distortion might be greatly effect if the assumption is violated. Secondly, the complexity of the analyses and results may mask the indicators of assumption violations apparent in the simpler univariate analyses. In almost all instances, the multivariate procedures will estimate the multivariate model and produce results even when the assumptions are severely violated. Thus, the researcher must be aware of any assumption violations and the implications they may have for the estimation process or the interpretation of the results. However, there are four fundamental sets of basic assumptions that are required when approaching the multivariate analysis.

7.4.1 Testing the Assumption of Normality

The most fundamental statistical assumption in the multivariate analysis is normality (Field, 2013). This assumption refers to the shape of data distribution that can be examined by graphical tests and statistical tests. The normality test is unnecessary for data analysis but it is useful if the survey data is normally distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Hair et al., (2014) recommends that both graphical plots and statistical tests should be used to assess the degree of departure from normality. Because the empirical statistic measures of kurtosis and skewness reflect the deviation from normality, the normal probability plots are able to portray the visual understanding. Hair et al. (2014) noted that under the graphical analysis of normality, a histogram is the simplest diagnostic test of normality. It is useful for the researcher to understand the basics. First of all the histogram and P-P plot (Probability-Probability plot) were employed to check the shape of distribution and a graph is used to plot the cumulative probability of variable against the cumulative probability of a particular distribution (Field, 2013). In addition, the shape of distribution that departs from normality by statistical testing can be manifested by *kurtosis* and *skewness*.

Table 7-3: Univariate Statistical Test of Normality

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Z skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis	Z kurtosis
Social Value	630	3.84	0.80	.010	-0.97	-0.96	-.080	-1.94	-2.74
Emotional Value	630	3.83	0.86	.078	-0.97	-.892	-.287	-1.94	-1.65
Price Value	630	3.80	0.80	.056	-0.97	-.914	-.090	-1.94	-2.84
Quality Value	630	3.80	0.84	.025	-0.97	-.945	-.253	-1.94	-2.19
Purchasing Intention	630	4.17	1.07	-.181	-0.97	-1.151	-.164	-1.94	-2.10

According to Table 7-3 the value of skewness and kurtosis are not at an acceptable level. The skewness value is lower or greater than zero, which denotes departure from normality. While the kurtosis acceptable value is ± 2 (George and Mallery, 2010), two constructs are not in an acceptable range; emotional value and purchasing intention. In addition for the normality test, the absolute z score can be assessed from the following formula.

$$Z = \frac{\text{Skew value}}{SE_{\text{skewness}}}, Z = \frac{\text{Excess kurtosis}}{SE_{\text{excess kurtosis}}}$$

The critical absolute values above about 3.29 are significant at $p < .001$ (Field, 2013). The result indicates that the values depart from normality at the variable level which are highlighted in the Table. It is not surprising that the absolute kurtosis is below the threshold of 3.29 because the sample is large (>200) (Field, 2013). Based on the test, it appears that all variables are negatively skewed. However, Field (2013) suggest that the significant value which depart from normality does not confirm that it is adequate to bias statistical procedures which has been applied.

7.4.2 Kolmogorov Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test

Nevertheless, there is another special way for testing normality of distribution; the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test, which is the comparison between sample and normal distribution sets of scores within the same mean and standard deviation (Field, 2013). The result indicates that the data is significant which is non-normally distributed. Yet, a limitation of this approach is sample size, as it is easy to get significant results when the sample size is large (n=630) which results in deviation from normality. However, the significance test could not confirm that the deviation from normality is adequate to bias any statistical test applied in the study (Field, 2013).

Table 7-4: Kolmogorov Smirnov Test and Shapiro-Wilk test of Normality

	Kolmogorov Smirnov test			Shapiro-Wilk test		
	Statistic	df.	Sig.	Statistic	df.	Sig.
Social Value	.103	630	.000	.967	630	.000
Emotional Value	.080	630	.000	.976	630	.000
Price Value	.091	630	.000	.973	630	.000
Quality Value	.102	630	.000	.982	630	.000
Purchasing Intention	.124	630	.000	.919	630	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correlation

7.4.3 Testing the Assumption of Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity refers to the level of equal variance between dependence and independence variables within the study (Hair et al., 2014). This test is desirable since the dependent variable that explains the dependent relationship should be spread out across the independent variables range. However, if the dispersion of dependent variables is not equal to the independent variables this is called *heteroscedastic*. It can be used to assess both graphical and statistical tests (Hair et al., 2014). The most common test to assess homoscedasticity is Levene's test (Levene, 1960.) Therefore, it is applied within this study.

Table 7-5: Levene's test

Test of Homogeneity of Variance				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Social Value	1.054	1	628	0.305
Emotional Value	0.023	1	628	0.880
Price Value	2.022	1	628	0.898
Quality Value	0.006	1	628	0.938
Purchasing Intention	1.010	1	628	0.315

In Levene's test, the null hypothesis tests whether the variances in different groups are equal or not. This assumption will be met when Levene's test is non-significant ($p > .05$), the variances are equal and the assumption is tenable. In Table 7-5 the result indicates that majority values in the significance column are greater than .05 ($p > .05$). Therefore it indicates that the null hypothesis is accepted and the variance is equal across the variables (Pallant, 2013).

7.4.4 Testing the Assumption of Multicollinearity

The multicollinearity refers to the phenomenon that one variable is able to explain another variable in the analysis, or two or more independent variables in the analysis are highly correlated (Pallant, 2013). Multicollinearity can be measured by tolerance and variance inflation factor VIF (Hair et al., 2014). (The direct measure of multicollinearity, tolerance "*the amount of variability of the selected independent variables not explained by the other independent variables*") This sentence doesn't make sense (Hair et al., 2014 p.197). The value of tolerance that refers to the small amount of shared variance between variables should be high. The second measure is Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), which is simply approached by calculating the inverse value of tolerance, $VIF = 1/\text{tolerance}$. (Hair et al., (2014) recommend the minimum value for an accepted level of multicollinearity for which the cut off for the tolerance value should be above 0.1 (Menard, 1995) and close to 1 (Hair et al., 2010) and VIF value are below 10. Therefore, there is no multicollinearity issue in this study as the tolerance values were above 0.93 and VIF was less than 2.

Table 7-6: Testing the Assumption of Multicollinearity

Model	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Collinearity Statistics	
			Tolerance	VIF
1	Social Value	• Emotional Value	0.913	1.096
		• Price Value	0.893	1.119
		• Quality Value	0.928	1.077
2	Emotional Value	• Price Value	0.914	1.094
		• Quality Value	0.914	1.095
		• Social Value	0.919	1.089
3	Price Value	• Quality Value	0.927	1.079
		• Social Value	0.931	1.074
		• Emotional Value	0.946	1.057
4	Quality Value	• Social Value	0.936	1.069
		• Emotional Value	0.915	1.093
		• Price Value	0.897	1.115

7.4.5 Testing the Assumption of Linearity

This assumption is based on the correlational measures of association including multiple regression, logistic regression, factor analysis and structural equation modelling (Hair et al., 2014). The most common way to assess this assumption is to examine scatterplots in order to identify any non-linear relationship within the model. The linear relationship is depicted when the relationship between two variables is shown in the linear line (Pallant, 2013). Therefore, the result shows that all the variables are in a linear pattern. In addition, Hair et al., (2014) suggest an alternative approach to examine the minor residuals, as the unexplained non-linear will show up in the residual, which can be examined by running simple regressions. The results show that there is no relationship between variables in which $p > 0.05$ which identified the linear relationship.

7.5 Reliability Assessment

“One way to try to ensure that measurement error is kept to a minimum is to determine properties of the measure that give us confidence that it is doing its job properly.” (Field, 2013 p.11). Reliability assessment is the measure in which the construct reflects what you are measuring. Because, no single item is perfect with regard to the measure of concept therefore the study must rely on the diagnostic measurement to assess the internal consistency (Hair et al., 2014). Cronbach’s Alpha is the crucial process to determine the quality of instrument and internal consistency (Churchill, 1999). It is the measure of reliability coefficient for the entire scale (Cronbach, 1951), which is the most widely employed in numerous studies. The acceptable value of Cronbach’s Alpha is .70 and decreases to .60 in exploratory research. However, there are some drawbacks of this diagnostic measure as increasing the number of items will increase the value of reliability, therefore the restrictive requirement should be in place (Hair et al., 2014). According to the study, Cronbach’s Alpha for all variables from Table 7-7 are larger than 0.8 which shows the great reliability for an instrument except the quality value 0.78 and brand love 0.55 which is indicated as an acceptable scale as a general rule of thumb (Shoukri and Edge, 1996).

7.6 Factor Analysis

Table 7-7: Cronbach’s Alpha of the Variables of the Study

The Scale	Cronbach’s Alpha
Social Value	0.830
Emotional Value	0.841
Price Value	0.824
Quality Value	0.786
Purchasing Intention	0.923
Social Media Involvement	0.866
Brand Love	0.546

Factor analysis is the statistical process of which *the primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis* (Hair et al., 2014 p. 92). The aim of the process is to examine the correlation among variables and minimize the large number of measurements into the main representative factors. The basic assumption of factor analysis is that the combination of underlying constructs comprises the set of selected variables. The presence of correlated variables refers to the extent that those variables share the similar variance under the same dimension. However, it is not possible to guarantee that correlated variables are relevant, even when the standard requirements are met (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, the responsibility for the researcher is to ensure that those underlying variables are conceptually valid. There are several advantages in performing factor analysis.

First, it is beneficial if the researcher wants to determine whether the existing variables are good enough to presentable under the theoretical issue. In addition, it can be used to identify whether the variables are under the dataset. Moreover, it is good for scale development (DeVellis, 2003). There are many approaches to performing factor analysis; exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). By the nature of multivariate techniques, the variable can be ten, hundred or thousands when the researchers use multiple variables to measure the single construct. Therefore it could lead to a correlation among variables. When the variables become correlated, factor analysis operates on the notion that the variables in the study can be reduced in the fewer items with minimal loss of information known as reducing dimensionality (Bartholomew, Knott, and Moustaki, 2011).

Before running factor analysis, the sample size has to be computed to assure that factor analysis is suitable as the reliability of factor analysis depends on sample size (Field, 2013). With regard to Hair et al., (2014, p. 100), as a general rule, the minimum is to have at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analysed, and the more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio. While Comrey and Lee (2013) suggest that 100 cases is poor, 300 is a good size while the optimum number is 1000 cases. Factor analysis generally requires the large sample sizes hence the small sample sizes have to be treated with caution (Winter et al., 2009). Many researchers make recommendations regarding the sample size. The minimum size for consistent factor recovery should be 200 (Guilford, 1974). A

sample size of 500 is supported by Comrey (1973) as an optimum number. However, Cattell (1978) advised that 200-250 could be an acceptable number. Considering the sample size of this study, 630 respondents are enough to perform factor analysis.

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

Further on the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is another indicator explaining the strong relationship between variables. It is conducted to confirm the relationship between variables. However, Hinton et al., (2004) claimed that it is not a good idea to proceed with the factor analysis if there is no relationship among variables. The KMO test was conducted to determine the suitability of employing the factor analysis technique (Hinton et al., 2004). Correlation and partial correlation are used to estimate KMO in order to assure that the variables in a given sample are enough to correlate. The general rule of thumb for KMO is that 0.6 is acceptable but the closer the value of KMO to 1 the better (Field, 2003). The result illustrated in Table 8-8 shows that the KMO test for this study is 0.85, which is well above the recommended acceptable value of 0.6, while the Bartlett's Test shows the significant result at < 0.005 . Therefore it can be confirmed that the data in this study is suitable for and worth employing the factor analysis technique

Table 7-8: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.851
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx Chi Square.	5493.414
	Df	171
	Sig.	.000

7.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The nature of “*exploratory*” in this sense, allows the researcher to examine the underlying factor within the data. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is described as one of the most utilized statistical methods and is employed in social sciences and psychological research. (Costello and Osbourne, 2005). It is a statistical approach attempting to explore and determine the correlation among datasets represented in one or more common domains (Child, 2006). As the EFA design is to identify the latent constructs, it should be included in the domain of measures. The study from Thurstone (1947) noted that EFA relies on the common factor model which explains each variable in the battery of measures. Generally, EFA prepares the appropriate variables for further statistical techniques such as CFA and Structural Equation Modeling (Hair et al., 2014). With regard to this research, the first step is to conduct EFA. In doing so, the selection of extraction method must be made chosen. The purpose of this study the principal component extraction and orthogonal (varimax) rotation are employed. Before performing the extraction, the amount of variance for each variable must be calculated which is called “*communality*”. Field (2013) explains that communality is an estimation of variance on each variable that accounted for all common extracted factors.

Table 7-9: Communalities Test

Constructs	Initial	Extraction
SCV1	1.000	.669
SCV2	1.000	.659
SCV3	1.000	.673
SCV4	1.000	.658
EMV1	1.000	.652
EMV2	1.000	.700
EMV3	1.000	.670
EMV4	1.000	.705
PV1	1.000	.628
PV2	1.000	.671
PV3	1.000	.686
PV4	1.000	.643
QV1	1.000	.685
QV2	1.000	.717
QV3	1.000	.706
PI1	1.000	.805
PI2	1.000	.812
PI3	1.000	.833
PI4	1.000	.804

The higher communality is always preferable because if the communality is low it means that the variable is struggling with loading significantly with other variables. Hair et al., (2014) advise that communality should reach higher than 0.5. After performing the factor loadings, the results demonstrate that all the variables have a communality value in an acceptable range between 0.628-0.833, as shown in Table 7-9.

7.8.1 Extraction Method

There are two similar techniques to employ factor extraction, which are principal component analysis and common factor analysis (Russell, 2002). The difference between common factor analysis and principal component analysis is; common factor analysis concentrates on seeking the common variance of which the primary concern is to identify latent dimension on dataset, while principal component analysis seeks the total variance with the goal of reducing dimension in dataset. However, in both cases, the linear combinations on the original variables that account for the maximum variance are constructed. In order to select the most appropriate technique to represent the structure of variables, the method must match the study's objective and prior knowledge about the variance of variables (Hair et al., 2014). As the purpose of this study is data reduction therefore principal component analysis was employed because the principal component analysis method is variable reduction technique which is the simplest and most robust way of doing such dimensionality reduction (Dunteman, 1989 p.351). For instance, we start with 23 variables but at the end the smaller number still reflects a large proportion of information within the original dataset.

7.8.2 Eigenvalue

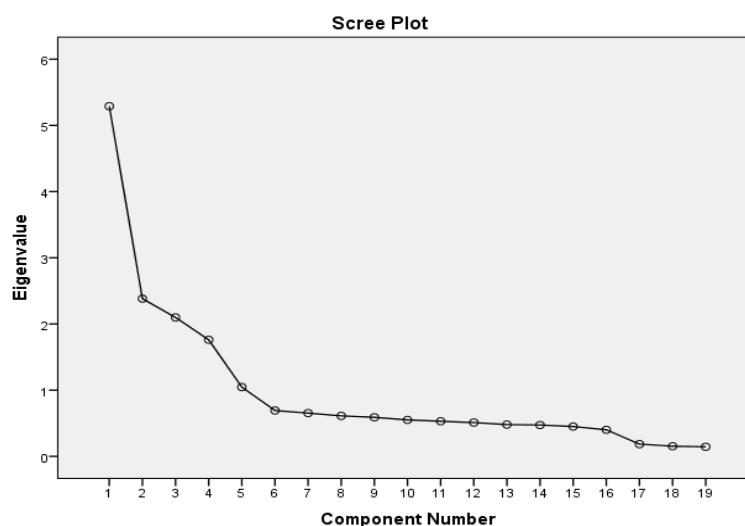
The eigenvalue is the amount of variance value which is explained by the factor. According to the rule from Kaiser (1960) he suggests that a factor with eigenvalue greater than 1 should be retained. This is supported by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) who suggest that the value of eigenvalue more than 1 is significant but a factor with eigenvalue less than 1 must be disregarded. While Jolliffe (1986) argued that Kaiser's criterion is too strict as too much information is discarded and recommends that the factor with eigenvalue above 0.7 should be retained. In this study, according to Table 7-10, there are 5 factors in which eigenvalue is more than 1.

Table 7-10: Total Variance Explained after Running Principal Component Analysis

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.167	27.192	27.192	5.167	27.192	27.192	3.236
2	2.354	12.387	39.580	2.354	12.387	39.580	2.727
3	2.221	11.688	51.268	2.221	11.688	51.268	2.668
4	1.931	10.165	61.433	1.931	10.165	61.433	2.636
5	1.703	8.964	70.397	1.703	8.964	70.397	2.109
6	.586	3.085	73.481				

7.8.3 Scree Plot

On the scree plot, eigenvalue are shown on the y-axis while the factors are shown on the x-axis. It is used to explain the eigenvalue against the factors for extraction where the shape of curve evaluates the inflexion point. Scree plot displays the associated eigenvalue with a component versus the number of components to explain the variability within the data.

Figure 7-1: Scree Plot

The factor analysis was conducted on 5 different factors. It shows that 5 extracted factors explain most of the variability as shown on the point above the straight line along the slope (Gorsuch, 1983). The retaining factor explains the small proportion of variability that indicates unimportant factors. Consequently, 5 factors can be extracted for this study which demonstrates in Figure 7-1.

7.9 Factor Rotation

Once the factor had been extracted, factor rotation was employed in order to discriminate between factors. Bryant and Yarnold (1995, p. 132) define factor rotation as “*a procedure in which the eigenvectors (factors) are rotated in an attempt to achieve simple structure.*” As unrotated results from the initial extraction, the factor rotation aims to help the researchers capture the clearer factors and simplify the result.

Generally in practice, the purpose of factor rotation is to simplify the row and column of factor matrix that allow it to be easily interpreted. Rotation methods fall into two categories - orthogonal or oblique (Ho, 2006; Field, 2013). Orthogonal method produces factors that are uncorrelated and independent whereas oblique technique allows the factor to be correlated (Gorsuch, 1983). However, the researcher often prefers an orthogonal approach because uncorrelated factors are easier to interpret and are generally a default setting in statistical computing programs (Osborne, 2015). After performing factor analysis with orthogonal rotation, the result from Table 7-11 shows that the communality of each item is greater than the threshold 0.5

Table 7-11: Orthogonal (Varimax) Rotated-Factor-Loading Matrix with Cronbach's Alpha Pattern Matrix^a

		Component				
		1	2	3	4	5
Cronbach's Alpha		0.830	0.841	0.824	0.786	0.923
Social Value	I feel acceptable to others when using this fast fashion item		0.807			
	I would gain someone's interest when I use/wear this fast fashion item		0.789			
	This fast fashion item would improve the way I am perceived by others in my society		0.807			
	I am so proud when wearing/using this fast fashion item		0.799			
Emotional Value	I enjoy using this fast fashion item				0.782	
	This fast fashion item would make me want to wear/use it				0.817	
	This fast fashion item would make me happy when wearing/using it				0.799	
	This fast fashion item would give me pleasure				0.831	
Price Value	This fast fashion item offers value for money			0.762		
	This fast fashion item is reasonably priced			0.804		
	This fast fashion item is a good product for the price			0.809		
	This fast fashion item would be economical			0.781		
Quality Value	This fast fashion item has a consistent quality					0.808
	This fast fashion item has an acceptable standard of quality					0.822
	This fast fashion item is well made					0.821
Purchasing Intention	I intend to purchase this fast fashion item	0.872				
	I am very willing to purchase this fast fashion item	0.881				
	I am likely to purchase this fast fashion item	0.896				
	I am extremely likely to purchase this fast fashion item	0.876				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis Rotation: Varimax

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations

7.10 Structural Equations Modelling SEM

Byren (2013), describes the concept of Structural Equation Modelling or SEM as “*statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon*” (p.3). The main goal of SEM is to use multivariate statistical methodology to explain the structural relationship that combines both factor analysis and multiple regressions (Hasman, 2015). Moreover, the possible variances within the specified model will be explained (Kline, 1998). The structural model provides the holistic clearer conceptualization under the study (Byrne, 2010). The SEM model takes a confirmatory approach over exploratory factor analysis. SEM model contains latent variables and observed variables. An observed variable can be called an “*indicator variable*” or “*manifest variable*” while a latent variable is an unobserved variable. As the latent variable is not able to measure directly, it is necessary to define latent variable as observed variable in order to represent it on an SEM model. Byrne (2013) defines several unique characteristics of SEM over another multivariate approach:

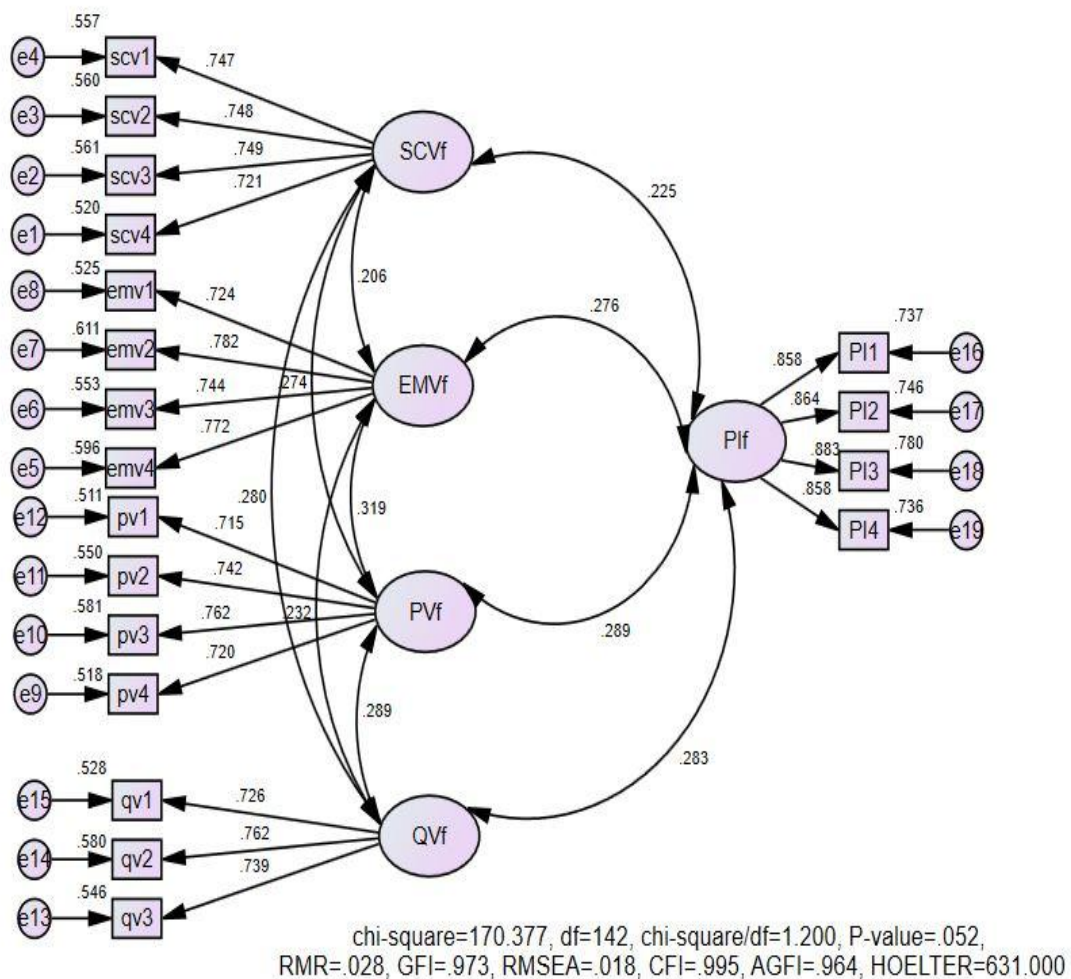
- SEM approach included both observed and unobserved variables (latent variables) while other techniques incorporate only measured variables.
- Both direct and indirect effects towards the variables are possible to estimate under the SEM model.
- SEM explicitly estimates error variance while other traditional methods do not even assess or direct the measurement error with the design study.
Confirmatory factor analysis is employed to specify the relationship between variables and reduce error from measures
- SEM allows for multiple unobserved variables (Musil et al., 1998)

Suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), SEM is two-step approaches involving the validity of constructs assess model fit and structural model that assess the relationship between constructs. Within this study, the validity test was assessed first, followed by the structural model.

7.11 The Measurement Model

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) emerged after exploratory factor analysis was completed. CFA is a technique to confirm the measurement theory that is extracted from EFA (Hair et al., 2014). It can be concluded that CFA is a tool used to confirm or reject the preconceived theory.

Figure 7-2: The Measurement Model of this Study



7.11.1 Overall Measurement Model Estimation

In the way to estimate the measurement model, two steps approach in SEM are assessed (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988); Unidimensionality and items per construct and model modification.

Unidimensionality

Unidimensionality measures refer to the extent to which the scale measures one underlying factor or construct (Field, 2013). This measure becomes important when the study involves more than two constructs and it is such a vital process to testing and developing the theory (Hair et al., 2014; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). In this situation, it is assumed that each variable is related to only a single construct in data. When the unidimensionality condition exists then the cross loading is hypothesized to be zero. In order to conduct CFA, a five-dimension model was hypothesized; social value, emotional value, price value, quality value and purchasing intention. After running the CFA, the results illustrated in Table 7-12 show that each item was loading only on the corresponding domain towards good fit models. Therefore, no negative error variance shown in the study including all parameters were statistically significant ($t > 1.96$ $p < 0.05$)

Items per Construct and Model Identification

The concept of model identification deals with *whether enough information exists to identify a solution to a set of structural equations* (Hair et al., 2014 p. 608). It has been suggested that three or four items per construct are recommended (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). As shown in Table 7-12, there are three or four items per construct. Therefore, the result ascertains that the model provides adequate information to identify a set of structural equations in order to estimate parameter at a later stage.

7.11.2 Measurement Model and Validity Assessment

After the model was correctly identified, the empirical measure relationship between variables and constructs was assessed. In this stage, it reflects how well the study data fits with the theory. The validity of the measurement model was examined through model fit and the reliability and validity of construct.

Table 7-12: The Overall Measurement Model (CFA)

ITEMS	Standardised Factor loading	SMC	AVE	Construct Reliability
Social Value				
SCV1	0.747	0.557	0.55	0.83
SCV2	0.748	0.560		
SCV3	0.747	0.561		
SCV4	0.721	0.520		
Emotional Value				
EMV1	0.724	0.525	0.55	0.83
EMV2	0.782	0.611		
EMV3	0.744	0.553		
EMV4	0.772	0.596		
Price Value				
PV1	0.715	0.511	0.54	0.78
PV2	0.742	0.550		
PV3	0.762	0.581		
PV4	0.720	0.518		
Quality Value				
QV1	0.726	0.528	0.54	0.82
QV2	0.762	0.580		
QV3	0.739	0.546		
Purchasing Intention				
PI1	0.858	0.737	0.77	0.93
PI2	0.864	0.746		
PI3	0.883	0.780		
PI4	0.858	0.736		

SMC: Squared Multiple Correlation (a variable's individual reliability)

Model Fit Assessment

Apart from estimating the measurement model, the issue of how well the model accounted for the underlying data, “*model fit*” should be assessed (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). It is established to identify whether the model is acceptable. In order to test how well of measurement model, overall model fit has been assessed. Multiple fit index should be examined in order to better understand the model fit. Dwivedi (2009) suggests that “*there is no single magic index that provides gold standard for all models; thus researcher should report multiple model fit indices in order to adequately how well the model fits the observed data*” . The goodness-of-fit indices summarize the discrepancy between the observed values and the values expected under a statistical model.

Table 7-13 Model Fit Assessment and Measures of Fit Indices

Types of index	Name	Value	Acceptable level
Basis of goodness-of-fit	Chi-Square(χ^2)	170.377 p < 0.000	p > 0.05
	Degree of freedom (df)	142	> 0
Incremental fit indices	Normed fit index (NFI)	0.97	≥ 0.95
	Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.99	≥ 0.95
	Comparative Fit index (CFI)	0.99	≥ 0.95
Absolute fit indices	Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	1.17	< 5
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.01	< 0.10
	Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR)	0.03	< 0.08

According to this study several diagnostic goodness-of-fit measures have been employed. There are numerous goodness-of fit measures such as chi-square statistics, normed chi-square, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). The study begins by looking at the overall model **Chi Square (χ^2)**.

It is the traditional method to evaluate overall model fit in structural equation modeling (Hair et al., 2014). The chi-square statistic χ^2 is the basis of goodness-of-fit. An insignificant value at 0.05 threshold indicates good model fit (Barrett, 2007). However, several researchers debate the shortcoming of chi-square statistic χ^2 since it is largely impacted by sample size. Kenny (2008) posits that when the sample size is larger than 400, the chi-square always provides statistical significance in structural equation modeling. Moreover, the problem of model rejection for non-normality distribution, and small sample size leads to a lack of power of reliability in the chi-square χ^2 statistic (Kenny and McCoach, 2003).

Furthermore, adding more indicators to make a better measurement model, can lead to difficulties in using chi-square. Some even argue that adding more indicators in order to present the reliability should result in better model fit. But in fact, in the mathematical statistic, it reduces the fit of the model (Hair et al., 2014). To overcome the unreliable chi-square statistic χ^2 , addition fit indices have been examined (Bentler and Chou, 1987). According to the Table 7-13, the results demonstrate very good model fit. Even the chi-square value was significant (χ^2 170.377 df = 142, $p < 0.000$) which indicates poor fit. Since, as mentioned before, chi-square (χ^2) is sensitive to large samples then there is some chance that it is significant.

However, a collection of addition fit indices has been tested to propose that the model is adequate to represent the relationship between the constructs. There are severe limitations of the chi-square test. Since the chi-square statistical test is sensitive to the large sample, this might lead to a rejection of the model (Bentler and Bonnet, 1980). Moreover, with small sample sizes, the chi square statistic might not able to discriminate between a poor or good fitting model (Kenny and McCoach, 2003). Therefore, the normed measure (NC) ($NC = \chi^2/df$) is another alternative index to minimize the sensitivity of sample. Even though there is no general agreement on the acceptable value of normed measure ration, the range from as high as 5.0 to as low as 2.0 is recommended by several authors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, the absolute fit indices, normed chi-square (χ^2/df) is 1.17 which is lower than 5 (March and Hocevar, 1985).

Normed chi-square is frequently employed as adjuncts to the chi-square index in order to evaluate well-fitting model (Wheaton et al., 1977). The ratio of chi-square statistic χ^2 to the degree of freedom (df) is assessed to measure normed chi-square. A ratio of 3:1 is considered to be satisfactory (Marsh and Hovecar, 1985).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is one of the most informative criteria for a covariance structure model (Byrne, 2005). These indices define “*how well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available* (Browne and Cudeck, 1993 p.137-138). This GOF measure attempts to overcome the problem of tendency of chi-square statistic χ^2 that rejects the model in large samples and large numbers of observed variables. Then it corrects both model complexity and large sample size from chi-square statistic χ^2 . However, RMSEA is sensitive to estimated parameters, in other words the lesser parameters in the model would be chosen. The optimum value for RMSEA is debatable. According to Hair et al., (2014), the value of RMSEA is between 0.03 – 0.08 with 95% confidence. In this study the value of Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is 0.01, which is recommended by Browne and Cudeck (1993), that the model can be employed when the RMSEA value is lower than 0.10.

Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) or Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) is similar to Normed Fit Index (NFI) since NNFI is inversely related to the sample size (Marsh et al., 1996). NNFI was proposed as an alternative of NFI because Bentler and Bonet (1980) found NFI is weaker when sample sizes are too small (Bentler, 1993). (The Normed Fit index (NFI) This incremental fit indices are the ratio of Chi Square (χ^2) of model, null model and dfs of the model. Since NNFI is non-normed, the value can fall between 0 or higher than 1, according to this research the value of NNFI is 0.99 indicating that the model fit is when the value is approaching 1. However, a higher value is recommended as the well-fitting best fitting model compared to a lower value (Hair et al., 2014).

The comparative fit index (CFI) is one of the best incremental fit indices (Gofin, 1993). It is the revised form of NFI which takes into account sample size. As it is insensitive to model complexity, it is accepted as the most widely employed (Hair et

al., 2014). Moreover, this increment fit index is independent from the sample size (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Since CFI is normed, then the recommended range between 0-1 as higher is desirable. A value above 0.90 is indicated as good fit (Kline, 2011; Kenny, 2014). Therefore, the CFI for this model is 0.99.

Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) is an absolute measure of fit that implies the discrepancy between the sample covariance matrix and the model covariance matrix (Hooper et al., 2008). SRMR refers to the measure of badness of fit. The well fitting model indicates that the value obtained is less than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014). The value of SRMR for this study is 0.03; therefore this value represents a well-fitting model.

Validity and reliability assessment

Several authors insist that it is compulsory to validate the construct in order to develop theory testing (Peter, 1981). The primary concern for both CFA and structural equation model (SEM) is to assess the validity of construct in order to propose the measurement theory (Hair et al., 2014). Validity is the extent to which the sets of measure items truly reflect the concept that the researcher is attempting to measure (Howell et al., 2005). While Joppe (2000) defines the term “*validity tool*” as to “*determine whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are*”. Construct validity is divided into four components; convergent validity, reliability, discriminant validity and criterion validity (Peter, 1981; Hair et al., 2014).

Convergent Validity

Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity are explained as a subset of construct validity. It is the type of validity test that is closely related to a multitrait-multimethod approach. Convergent describes the theoretical correlation between two measures of constructs which in fact are related, while discriminant validity is the extent to which the measures of construct have no relationship and are conceptually different (Stangor, 2014). To achieve the convergent validity, high correlation between constructs is described as evidence of this validity. Convergent validity is based on the high proportion in common variance in which each factor illustrates high loading

(Hair et al., 2014). According to this study, factor loading and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were employed to approach convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Reaching the convergent validity, the factor loading ranges from 0.5 with ideally a maximum of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2014). The results from Table 7-12 show that the factor loading value of each item falls into an acceptable value ranged from 0.71-0.86 (Hair et al., 2010). The composite reliability indices for all dimensions were calculated. Hair et al., (2014) suggest that the desirable minimum index is 0.7; in this study, all composite reliability was found to be a satisfactory level higher than 0.7.

Table 7-14: The Construct Correlations and Fit Indices.

	PI	SCV	EMV	PV	QV	CR	AVE
PI	0.74					0.83	0.55
SCV	.26	0.74				0.83	0.55
EMV	.28	.21	0.73			0.78	0.54
PV	.29	.27	.32	0.73		0.82	0.54
QV	.28	.28	.23	.28	0.87	0.93	0.77

Notes: Square roots of AVEs are presented on the diagonal. Constructs correlation are below the diagonal.

Moreover, the average variance extracted (AVE) was performed in order to measure the average variation extracted among the constructs (Hair et al., 2014). A good rule of thumb for average variance extracted (AVE) is that the value should be higher than 0.50 or .70 (Hair et al., 2014). Table 7-12 displays AVE value which is higher than 0.5 (Social value = 0.55, Emotional value = 0.55, Price Value, 0.54 Quality value = 0.54 and Purchasing intention = 0.77). When the data present high construct reliability, it is indicated that the internal consistency exists. Table 7-14 demonstrates that the estimate reliability ranges were found to be satisfactory (Social value = 0.83, Emotional value = 0.83, Price value = 0.78, Quality value = 0.82 and Purchasing intention = 0.93), which is suggested as good reliability (Hair et al., 2014).

Discriminant validity

Discriminant Validity can be assessed by comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) and squared correlation of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE refers to “*a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained (variance extracted) among the items of a construct*” (Hair et al., 2013, p. 661). If the square roots of average variance extracted is higher than constructs correlation or greater than 0.5, therefore the discriminant validity is guaranteed (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). From Table 7-13 it can be seen that in every row the value of AVE is larger than the squared correlation which indicates good discriminant validity.

7.12 The Structural Model

The structural model illustrates the structural relationships of the constructs represented by the set of equations, which are usually depicted by visual diagrams (Hair et al., 2014). The structural parameter estimate is empirically represented by the relationship between any two constructs. The difference between measurement models is, the structural model typically represents the structural theory by identifying the relationship and nature between constructs. Moreover, the structural model should meet the necessary conditions to depict the model. The comparison between CFA fit model and structural model fit was assessed. Hair et al., (2014) suggest that the comparison of standardized factor loading and construct reliabilities for structural model should be assessed to ensure that it has not been changed substantially from CFA models. The results illustrated that the comparison between two models are unchanged which support the model's validity. Moreover, the construct reliability is identical which indicates that there was no change from CFA and structural models. This result reveals the construct's reliability

Table 7-15 Model Fit Assessment and Measures of Fit Indices for Structural Model

Types of index	Name	Value	Acceptable level
Basis of goodness-of-fit	Chi-Square(χ^2)	170.377 $p < 0.000$	$p > 0.05$
	Degree of freedom (df)	142	> 0
Incremental fit indices	Normed fit index (NFI)	0.97	≥ 0.95
	Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.99	≥ 0.95
	Comparative Fit index (CFI)	0.99	≥ 0.95
Absolute fit indices	Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	1.17	< 5
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.01	< 0.10
	Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR)	0.03	< 0.08

7.13 Hypothesis testing

At this stage, the examination of the statistical significance of relationships and individual parameters was approached. The main purpose for this part is to forecast the direct causal relationship between constructs within the model. It was found that all the independent variables that are Social Value ($H1: \beta = 0.10, p < 0.001$) , Emotional Value($H2: \beta = 0.16, p < 0.001$), Price Value($H3: \beta = 0.16, p < 0.001$) and Quality Value ($H4: \beta = 0.17, p < 0.001$) have a statistical significance on Purchasing Intention for fast fashion products at the 0.001 significance level.

Table 7-16: Path Coefficient and *t*-Values

Direct Path	Hypothesis	Unstandardized	Standardized	<i>t</i> -Values	<i>p</i>
SCV → PI	H1	0.137	0.10	2.121	***
EMV → PI	H2	0.211	0.165	3.540	***
PV → PI	H3	0.233	0.159	3.253	***
QV → PI	H4	0.229	0.171	3.49	***

***Regression is significant at 0.001 level ($p < 0.001$)

7.14 Test of Moderation

In the correlation analysis study, Baron and Kenny define that the moderator "*accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion*" (1986 p. 1176). The moderator can be described as the third variable that affects the direction or the strength of independent variable and another outcome variable (Sharma et al., 1981). It is the classification of respondents based on the characteristics (Hair et al., 2010). As suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), an appropriate procedure to measuring the moderator effect of variables depends on the level of variable, whether it is continuous or categorical. Generally, when all variables are on a continuous scale, the usual procedure to test the moderation is interaction term, while another method is multi-group when the variable is a categorical variable (Ro, 2012).

With regard to this study, the test of moderation was examined on the effect of **social media involvement** and **brand love** in order to assess whether it is possible to impose the relationship between variables in the study. The multi-group SEM analysis was employed to investigate the moderating effect of variables in the proposed model. The multi-group was created by median split to separate distinguish between low and high (Sauer and Dick, 1993). Later, the process compared the constrained model and unconstrained model. The evidence of moderation is when the unconstrained model illustrates the better fit of the data. The value of difference in chi-square must be higher than 3.84 with 1 degree of freedom to indicate the

moderation effect. Therefore, two models were compared by the magnitude differences chi-square value to determine if the interaction term effect was present.

7.14.1 Level of Social Media Involvement

According to Table 7-17 shows that social media involvement has an amplifying the moderating effect on the relationship between the consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention. When the chi-square value differ more than 3.84 with $\Delta d.f. = 1$ is significant at the significant level 0.05.

Table 7-17 : Structural Parameter Estimates and Moderated Effects for the Model

	Social Media Involvement		Brand Love	
	Low (<i>t-value</i>) N=311	High (<i>t-value</i>) N=319	Low (<i>t-value</i>) N=304	High (<i>t-value</i>) N=326
<i>SCV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.003* (0.048)	0.371* (5.163)	0.008* (0.13)	0.326* (5.148)
$\Delta\chi^2$	0.747		23.56*	
<i>EMV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.012* (0.18)	0.359* (5.099)	0.019* (0.29)	0.358* (5.06)
$\Delta\chi^2$	10.01*		10.715*	
<i>PV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.146* (2.157)	0.406* (5.631)	0.161* (2.398)	0.409* (5.656)
$\Delta\chi^2$	8.48*		9.694*	
<i>QV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.075* (1.085)	0.322* (4.396)	0.091* (1.334)	0.335* (4.494)
$\Delta\chi^2$	0.774		2.324	

Notes:

* = significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

numbers in parentheses = *t-value*

Specifically, social media involvement has a moderating effect on the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention ($\Delta\chi^2=10.01^*$), suggesting that the consumer perceived emotional value on increasing purchasing intention is contingent upon the level of social media involvement, as social media involvement has stronger relationship in increasing purchasing intention with high social media involvement ($\beta= 0.359^*$) than low social media involvement ($\beta = 0.012^*$).

Furthermore, social media involvement also significantly impact the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention ($\Delta\chi^2 = 8.48^*$). The finding shows that highly involve with social media group ($\beta = 0.406^*$) increasing the impact on purchasing intention more than low involvement with media group ($\beta = 0.146^*$). Overall, the finding suggest that the positive influence of the consumer perceived emotional and price value with purchasing intention are strengthen with the consumer who are highly involved with social media in fast fashion industry therefore H6 and H7 are supported.

7.14.2 Level of Brand love

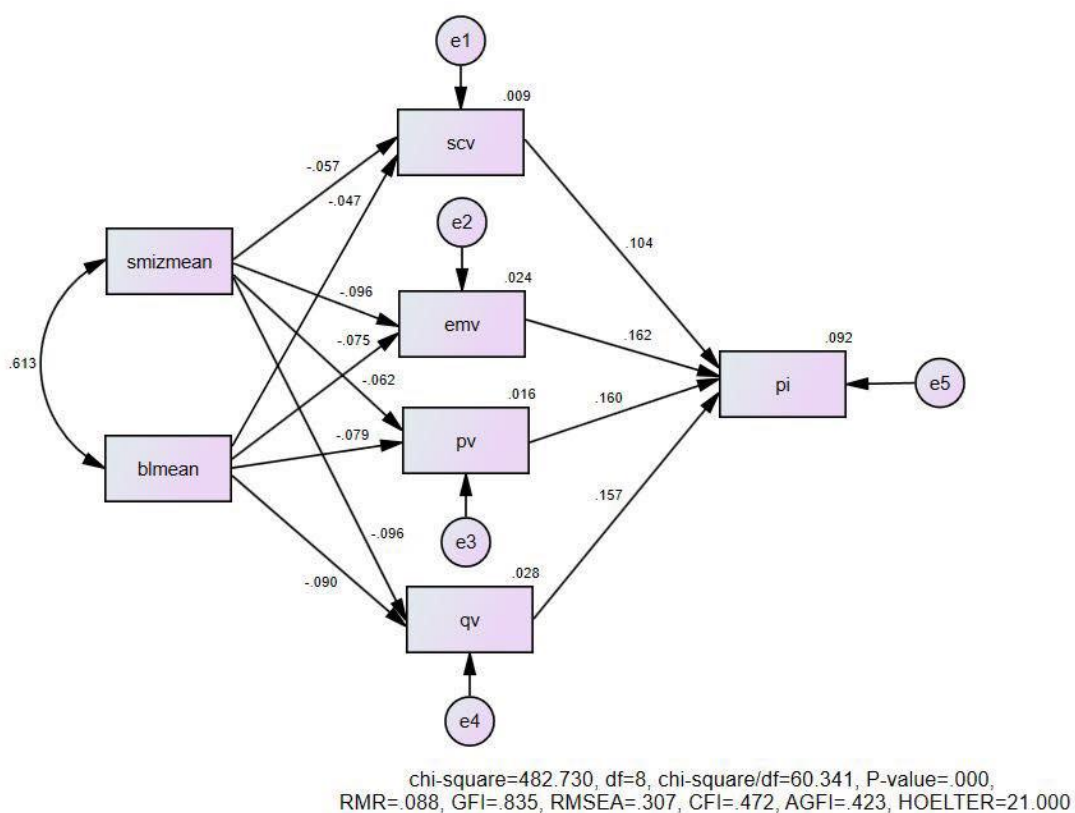
The finding suggests that there is a moderating impact of brand love on the relationship between the consumer perceived value and purchasing intention since the chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$) difference value is more 3.84 with $\Delta d.f. = 1$ is significant at the 0.05 level. According to Table 7-17 demonstrates that the level of brand love significantly moderates the effect of the consumer perceived social value on purchasing intention ($\Delta\chi^2 =23.56^*$). The finding shows that for the consumer who have higher level of brand love ($\beta = 0.008^*$) strengthen the consumer perceived social value and purchasing intention for those who have low level of brand love ($\beta = 0.326^*$). Furthermore, the level of brand love has a positive impact on the relationship between the consumer perceived emotional value and purchasing intention ($\Delta\chi^2 =10.715^*$), the finding suggest the stronger relationship with consumer who has higher level of brand love ($\beta = 0.019^*$) than lower level of brand love ($\beta = 0.358^*$).

Finally, the level of brand love also moderate the relationship between the consumer perceived price value and purchasing intention ($\Delta\chi^2 = 9.694^*$), as the relation is stronger with the consumer who has higher level of brand love ($\beta = 0.161$) than lower level of brand love group ($\beta = 0.409$).

7.16 Rival Model

An emerging consensus in using structural equation modelling is that rather than testing the proposed model, the rival model should be investigated (Bollen and Long, 1992). Therefore, in response to the suggestion, the rival model is presented in figure 7.3. Only direct paths are tried to posit from each antecedent to the outcomes within the rival model. Therefore, the moderating factor is omitted and the rival model assumes that social media involvement and brand love are antecedents while consumption value dimensions (social, emotional, price and quality value) operate as a mediator.

Figure 7.3 : Rival Model



As a result, not only the overall model fit indices of the developed model appear satisfactory but also the number of hypotheses supported whereby the rival model demonstrated the lower number of accepted hypotheses (4 compared to 9); therefore the conclusion can be drawn that the conceptual model proposed proved more substantial than the rival model. As it suggests, consumer perceived value dimensions require social media involvement and brand love as moderating factors to influence purchasing intention.

Table 7-18 : Model Fit Indices Between Developed model and Rival Model

Model	χ^2	df	P	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
Developed Model	170.337	142	.000	.99	.97	.01
Rival Model	482.730	8	.000	.47	.83	.30

χ^2 = chi-square statistics DF = degree of freedom p = probability value CFI = comparative fit index RNI = relative non-centrality index RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

7.17 Chapter Conclusion Remarks

This chapter has detailed the relevant statistical techniques to adequately analyze the collected data. To achieve the chapter's aim, different statistical data were employed. It primarily consisted of four stages; (1) Preliminary Data Analysis and Checking for Multivariate data and assumption (2) Factor Analysis (3) Structural Equation Modelling (4) Test of Moderation. First of all, the preliminary data was carried out in order to prepare the data for the next stage. The basic assumption was assessed through normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and reliability assessment to infer accurate results for the next stage. Moreover, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's measuring sampling of adequacy was tested to prove the sufficient size before running exploratory factor analysis.

An exploratory factor analysis was applied to minimise the data into factor. Starting with the extraction method, component factor analysis was employed, followed by factor rotation to achieve clearer factor, varimax of the orthogonal technique.

For the structural equation modeling, both the measurement model and structural model were performed. The overall model fit was in an acceptable range. For the hypothesis testing in direct relationship, the finding demonstrated statistical significance for all proposed relationships between consumer perceived value and

purchasing intention towards fast fashion products. It appeared that consumer perceived price value is the largest direct effect followed by quality value, social value and emotional value respectively.

Lastly, for the moderating effect, the multi-group analysis techniques were employed. The evidence of moderation is when the unconstrained model illustrates the better fit of the data. The value of difference in chi-square must be higher than 3.84 with 1 degree of freedom to indicate the moderation effect. Therefore, two models were compared by the magnitude differences chi-square value to determine if the interaction term effect is present. The moderation test for social media involvement was supported in the most proposed relationship except price value. While in the moderation of brand love yield the same result that there is no moderating effect only between consumer perceived price value, brand love and purchasing intention towards fast fashion products.

CHAPTER EIGHT: RESEARCH DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Introduction

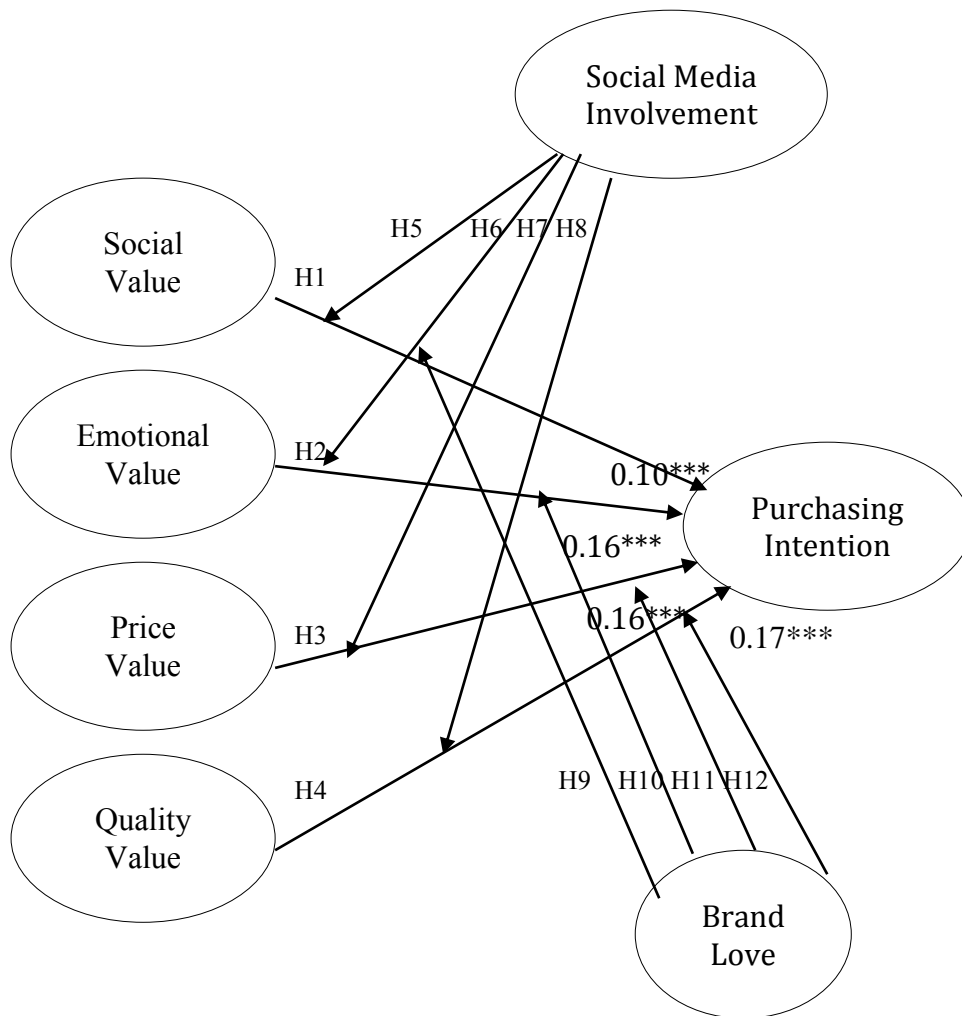
In this chapter, further highlights of the proposed research hypotheses obtained from the previous literature review compared to the research findings are presented in detail. Generally, the findings supported the research hypotheses, as 10 hypotheses out of 12 hypotheses were supported. The details discussion within this chapter is to confine the research objectives.

The structure of this chapter commences with the proposed measurement scale for social media involvement gained the statistical support that is proved by its psychometric properties. The result of the scale will be discussed here. Moreover, the results of the direct relationship between the consumer perceived value dimension, testing the moderating effect of social media involvement and brand love associated with behavioural behaviour, pertinent with the previous literature. Then, the findings of each hypothesis that is either supported or rejected are provided with an explanation. Moreover, the research limitation and future research will be discussed.

8.2 Path analysis results

From testing the proposed hypotheses in Chapter three, ten hypotheses were accepted whilst the remaining two were rejected. 12 altogether this adds up to 12. The standardised path estimates that four out of twelve hypotheses were statistically significant. Figure 8.1 demonstrates the accepted hypotheses corresponding with the standardised parameter.

Figure 8.1: The conceptual model and standardised estimates results



Loading shown in standardised estimates *** $p < 0.001$

Table 8-1: Estimation Results of the Research Conceptual Model (Direct)

Path	Hypothesis	Sign	Estimates	p-value	Result
SCV → PI	H1	+	.10	***	Accepted
EMV → PI	H2	+	.16	***	Accepted
PV → PI	H3	+	.16	***	Accepted
QV → PI	H4	+	.17	***	Accepted

Loading shown in standardised estimates. *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$ SCV: Social value; EMV: Emotional value; PV: Price value; QV: Quality value; PI: Purchasing intention

8.2.1 The Consequence of the Consumer Perceived Value Dimensions

The direct relationship

The impact of consumption value including social value, emotional value, price value and quality value were reported with a very similar manner comparing to the existing literature. The results of this study support the existing evidences that consumption values has positive impact on purchasing intention. Even in general, the linkage between consumption value and behavioural outcomes has received support from the data but unexpected relationship emerged. Since the term "*fast fashion*" used to describe the disposal items that easily to throw away and high level of psychological investment are not required (Gabrielli, Baghi & Codeluppi, 2013). Fast fashion industry design to target their consumer who are looking for trendiness and affordable pieces (Barnes and Lea-Greenwood, 2006). Therefore, consumer tends to prefer quantity over quality. Multiple can be added without emptying their wallet.

Surprisingly, the finding demonstrates that perceived quality value is the most important factor which is expected from fast fashion retailers. This means that consumer seem to emphasize on quality value on the decision process if they have to distinguish between their preferred items and alternative choices. This result is consistent with several previous empirical studies indicating that consumer perceived quality is a paramount driver of behavioural intentions in acquiring products (Jacoby and Olson, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988). Product attributes relating to consumer's mindset such as good quality and well made are found to motivate purchasing intention. Supported by Doyle (2001), consumers are likely to improve their perception of products based on quality judgement. Particularly with fashion products, the consumer assigns more relevance to the perceived quality dimension. Hence, the quality value added to the fashion product is likely to increase consumer perception, and eventually their purchasing intention.

Meanwhile, perceived price value is found to be an indicator leading to behavioural intention as consistent with previous studies which claimed that price value is considered as a powerful, extrinsic cue that relates to consumer trade-off analysis (Veale and Quester, 2009). The explanation of this is that price value exists as an

influential extrinsic cue in relation to consumer evaluation of product alternatives and their purchase decisions. Indeed, it is important that the amount of money to invest is considered as a key motivator in the decision-making process. Referring to the principal assumptions of utility maximisation theory from Stigler's work (1950) their theory assumes that individuals are basically rational thinkers. They tend to evaluate, compare and choose the best offering alternatives with the least possible cost. With affordable prices, fast fashion products allow consumers to spend less to acquire fashion products; therefore, consumers can have economic value as some consumers may perceive value from low price products (Zeithaml, 1988). Furthermore, the finding from Swinker and Hines (2016) supports the view that consumers tend to perceive price value from fashion products when the sense of fashion makes the consumer feel good while using them.

Traditionally, functional value is assumed to be the main consideration for consumer choices (Sheth et al., 1991a). The product attribute is an alternative's functional value dominating in consumer assessment through their perception that leads to positive behavioural outcomes. Moreover, emotional value should be received as the more pleasurable the consumer can experience the more they would be likely to purchase fast fashion products. The notion of emotional value can influence consumer intention. The requirement for the newness of fast fashion items are responded with the quick consumer-driven trends therefore it is the main factor to arouse consumer's emotion (Varley, 2014). This result is in accordance with the study of Huang (2003) which states that consumers' emotions can determine a shopping experience which in turn can convert to purchasing outcomes. Additionally, Dichter (1947) suggests that consumer choices are always preceded by non-cognitive and unconscious motives. They typically desire intrinsic pleasure from the consumption experience that products generate (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Carbone and Haeckel, 1994).

In the fashion industry, the holistic appeal of apparel products is able to create a consumer emotional response as consumers tend to favour an emotional value by gaining pleasurable experiences and using products in order to stay fashionable and trendy. The newness of fashion is paid attention to by consumers who want to express themselves (Sproles and Burns, 1994). Hence, perceived emotional value has been

claimed as the chief component in the consumption value theory. Furthermore, another important consumption driver are symbolic value that reflect on how others perceived them (Brewer and Gardner, 1996). The finding confirms that fast fashion consumer demands to feeling themselves unique and impress. Thanks to the fast fashion characteristic, fast fashion consumers purchase fashionable items as their special purpose. Feeling accepted by other, approval from group member or creating their social image or status by feeling themselves different from others. As the finding is consistent with prior theoretical conceptualisation dictating that social value is the motivation to behavioural intention (Kim et al., 2011), the social consumption lies in the need to enhance status through using the product with high social significance (Miller, 2009). High visible products such as fashion pieces are often driven by social value to possess the symbolic, personality, lifestyle or status in excess of in addition to their solely product attributes (Veblen, 1899). Likewise, the notion is supported by the symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1981), positing that individuals use material possessions and other indicators as socially recognised symbols to communicate this identity to others at a time, they use brands as a means to protect their self-identity. Thus, the finding from the study proves that when social value added to a product, there is a possibility of consumer purchasing intention.

8.2.2 The Consequence of the Moderation Effect of Social Media Involvement

When tackling the behavioural and attitudinal theories, the concept of “*involvement*” is frequently addressed (Bennett et al., 2005). In this sense, involvement intends to cover a consumer’s subjective sense of importance, care, relevance or significance attached to their attitude and motivational state of mind regarding an object or activity of behavioural resources in order to accomplish the relevant goals (Olsen, 2007). The involvement constructs are considered the crucial factor when discussing consumers’ purchasing processes. It has been hypothesised that the level of involvement influences the level of decision making process which can lead to greater perception, commitment or importance towards objects (Zaichkowsky, 1985).

According to Table 8-3, the moderating impact of high level social media involvement and two dimensions of consumption values are found. These findings are theoretically and managerically insightful because they determine how social media

involvement contributes to the distinct relationships of consumption value-intention behaviour. In this case, the relationship between emotional value and price value on purchasing intention are strengthened when the consumer scores higher on social media involvement(see Table 8-3).

Table 8-2 : Structural Parameter Estimates and Moderated Effects for the Model

	Social Media Involvement		Brand Love	
	Low (<i>t-value</i>) N=311	High (<i>t-value</i>) N=319	Low (<i>t-value</i>) N=304	High (<i>t-value</i>) N=326
<i>SCV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.003 (0.048)	0.371* (5.163)	0.008 (0.13)	0.326* (5.148)
$\Delta\chi^2$	0.747		23.56*	
<i>EMV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.012 (0.18)	0.359* (5.099)	0.019 (0.29)	0.358* (5.06)
$\Delta\chi^2$	10.01*		10.715*	
<i>PV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.146* (2.157)	0.406* (5.631)	0.161* (2.398)	0.409* (5.656)
$\Delta\chi^2$	8.48*		9.694*	
<i>QV</i> → <i>PI</i>	0.075 (1.085)	0.322* (4.396)	0.091 (1.334)	0.335* (4.494)
$\Delta\chi^2$	0.774		2.324	

It can be explained that when consumers are highly involved with social media they tend to interact with external stimuli such as advertisements, information feeds, banners and so on, which in turn enhances the connection via participation and influences them to be involved in online contents (Boyd, 2004). Through interacting with others online that refer to an affective and psychological consequences such as consumers can learn fashion information, enjoy an atmosphere that induces feelings of fun, beauty, happiness and excitement (Boyd, 2004; Rowley, 2009). Acquiring product information enables the feelings of enjoyment, resulting in arousal towards the products and behavioural purchase intention (Zhang, Jansen and Chowdhury,

2011; Ruggiero, 2000). When social media users have such high involvement with social media, they tend to actively use social media choice to generate their mood in preparation for future decisions. Thus, the study confirms that the high level of social media involvement enhances the effect of emotional value on purchasing intention for fast fashion products.

Additionally, the study confirmed that high level of social media involvement has positive moderating effect on the relationship between price value and purchasing intention. It can be supported with the knowledge from previous literature, which highlights the unique characteristics of social media added benefit is offered to consumers by enhancing operational performance and lowering operational cost such as reducing information acquisition and time costs (Boyer et al., 2002; Degeratu et al., 2000) in accessing product and service information (Cachon et al., 2008). Specifically, social media involvement allows consumer to minimize negative fairness perception for instances consumer tends to seek related-information such as value expected at a given price through involvement with social media

Rather nominal product price but social media allow consumer to perceive product prices which refer to non-monetary aspect of price (Zeithaml, 1988). Sometimes, consumers are variety-seeking oriented. Just one click away from social media help consumer to fulfill their need from broad product offering. Moreover, social media is the easiest way for consumer comparing the best alternative available therefore it is useful for them to get the product with the highest value (Soscia et al., 2011). That is, product information helps increase consumer's knowledge whilst decreasing perceived risk, which in turn, positively influences purchasing intention (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Moorthy et al., 1997). Thus this can be concluded that highly involved with social media strengthen price value perception and purchasing intention behaviour.

Brand Love: Moderating effect

In the findings, brand love has been proved to positively moderate the relationship between social, emotional, price values and purchasing intention. These can be suggested that things are being equal, the higher consumer love for specific brand, the higher deep desire for a brand. Therefore, this support the hypotheses H9-H11

developed in this study, when consumer loved for brand. With the variety ties of prominences in intense competitive markets, “*loved brand*” are perceived by consumer, it is superficial. Brand love can be described as emotional devotion towards brand. It is a long term relationship between brand and consumer involving with positive evaluation, passion and declaration of love for specific brand (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Consumer with this affinity tends to express their desirable behaviour.

In the postmodern era, one of the main purposes of consuming brand products in the present day is for the social linking value which significantly adds to the social identity (Fueller et al., 2012); rather than a product or service itself, linking value to a product or service is more important for the consumer. Miller (1998) posits that love for a brand is able to facilitate social relationship as consumption objectifies socialability. Consumers are often devoted to a loved brand which allows them to feel commonalities and express themselves, which is an important aspect of identity (Hwang and Kandampully, 2012). One of the benefits which consumers expect from a loved brand is to express themselves to others and communicate with certain value. In other words, with social value, consumers do not purchase brands only for what they do but rather what they mean to self and others (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). Hence a consumer purchases a product from the brand that they love, the high level of love for the brand leads the consumer to believe that the brand is an important part of him / herself contributing to social membership of group and so on. Therefore this study confirm that high level of brand love influence social value perception on purchasing intention as consumer believes that their loved brand can express them within the group they belong to and provide them with social-self therefore leads to purchasing intention behaviour (Filho, Monteiro and Souki, 2010).

On the other hand, the study confirms that high level of brand love strengthen the relationship between emotional value and purchaisng intention. With loved brand, consumer attach to brand based on strong positive feeling (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). When loves brand, the consumer’s percetion how well loved brand arouse their feeling of happiness. They believed that brand stands for something which is important to them and make them feel good. Brand love is commonly found in highly-hedonic product categories as they tends to generally be loved more (Sarkar,

2013). Consumer buying decision making is not purely based on an economic calculus- a quality product at the right price. Naturally, emotional ties and personal connection always lead consumer to commit with loved brand. In fact, a specific brand is selected based on the degree to which its benefits make consumers happy in a way that consumers feel experientially gratified in themselves as people (Khan, Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2005). In particular, the result also shows that when consumer develop strong emotional bond to brand, it explains the quality relationship between consumer. Therefore this can support the hypothesis within this study that the higher the level of brand love, the stronger the relationship between emotional value on purchasing intention.

Given numerous choices, consumers believe that choice is made easier if the product is from the brand they love (Rodrigues and Reis, 2013). Moreover, the more consumers are involved with the brand the more easily they become loyal to the brand and are willing to making the financial sacrifices. The notion of brand love from Batra et al., (2012) are the explanation for the supporting hypothesis for the moderating role of brand love on price value and purchasing intention. As consumer's perception towards loved brand are praised as being the best available in every way including best value for money. The virtue of loved brand is always being considered as exceptional value for money. All mention above are consistent with this study, for Thai consumers that intend to purchase a product from their loved brand, it is able to affect their choice. Therefore, the high level of brand love influencing consumer perceived consumption values (emotional, social and price value) contributes to a higher level of purchasing intention of fashion products.

Discussion of the unsupported hypotheses

H5: The moderating effect of social media involvement on social value and purchasing intention.

The study assumed that the consumer with a higher level of social media involvement enhances the influence of social value on purchasing intention. However, the statistical result failed to support the hypothesis. There are plausible reasons to explain the unexpected result. In the present days, social media contents can be regarded as an index of typical lifestyles of a society. Advertising by brand tend to

adopt itself to socio-cultural environment and has its intended effect and accepted by society's member. However, sometimes, among advertisements or product information from a brand or product company that tries to express consumers in order to induce perception and linking product and consequence to symbolic value, this might be difficult for the consumer to distinguish between personal expression or symbol of status. Those contents might not be able to manipulate social value instead of reflecting things that already exist (Ko et al., 2009). Social value is more aligned with what others consider best therefore consumers tend to purchase products with symbolic value to improve their social-identity and being impressed by others in society and social media is one of information sources which could enhance value perception while personal expression tends to be predominated by individual taste rather than other's opinion. This is supported by Sirgy (1982), who notes that a consumer's actual self is static which results in some under-circumstances consumer behaviour.

With respect to product category, fast fashion products are hedonic items which are low profile products (fast-moving goods) that could last for few weeks as shown in the study where the average time is about few weeks. This would make the evaluation of fast fashion products relating to social media involvement and social value outdated, and not necessarily leading to thinking of purchasing fast fashion items in order to gain approval or being impressed by others. Therefore, it might be expected that luxury goods which consumers utilize in an effort to display social status hence it would be more beneficial from the concept of moderating role of involvement and social value. Therefore, this could be the reason that sometimes the level of social media involvement did not moderate the relationship between social value and purchasing intention.

H8: The moderating effect of social media involvement on quality value and purchasing intention.

Moreover, social media involvement did not strengthen the consumer's quality value and lead to purchasing intention for fast fashion products. An existing literature explained that when consumers are involved with social media, they interact and participate with online activities on the social media platform; for instance when a consumer reads reviews and comments on social media, these are able to influence the consumer's perceived quality value of a product which is likely to impact the

transaction process (Leonard, 2012). However, the unexpected result was in contradiction to the literature as this can be explained that even the majority of consumers rely on electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) that always leads to discussion relating to products or services which is regarded as one of the most influential marketing channels for consumers and also affects consumer perception of quality (Chris, Anindya and Battía, 2008). The powerful weapon which creates value can also destroy through social media; overloaded information is perceived as arising cost and risk taking, hence it might get difficult for consumers to distinguish trusted sources and information that are really interesting.

The previous research showed that sometimes consumers tend to be sceptical about information such as user-generated content or eWOM related to product performance or quality (Ford, Smith and Swasy, 1988). They might be afraid of fake online reviews. It can be said that consumers might question whether online reviews are commercially oriented intentions and controlled by companies, or even some reviewers might have received an incentive to recommend a product positively. Obermiller and Spangenberg (2000) claim that consumers might be concerned about the bombardment of information and advertisement, leading to a lack of belief. Therefore involvement with social media can be meaningless to them in such a way as to enhance perceived quality value.

H12: The moderating effect of brand love on quality value and purchasing intention.

In a comparable manner, the proposed relationship of quality value and purchasing intention with the moderating effect of brand love has also failed to receive statistical support. The reason to explain this unexpected result is although sometimes the psychology of love postulates that “*love is blind*”, in a consumption context trust is a vital determinant of brand love which is involved with rational components; hence under the perspective of brand love consumers make their decision not merely emotionally but rationally (Crosby and Zak, 2015). The functional properties of a product are considered even when purchasing a loved brand (Unal and Aydn, 2013). Overall, the excellence of fast fashion products is quite low compared with luxury or other products and the performance of fast fashion items has a short life span.

Therefore, the interpretation of this case could be reasoned by product category. Loved brand is not introduce bias for quality value. The result demonstrates that the level of brand love does not enhance quality perception of fast fashion products leading to behavioural intention. Generally, brand love could not act as the cue for consumers to believe that a product from a loved brand could provide an excellent result. Consumers tend to judge product quality value based on available information cues.

8.3 Research contributions

8.3.1 Theoretical contributions

Firstly, the framework posed within this study was developed principally by incorporating the constructs from consumer perceived value, involvement theory and brand love literature as an attempt has been made towards a deeper understanding of the literature. In order to broaden an understanding, the research proposed the hybrid conceptual framework which incorporates both product and brand level.

This research not only expands the field of attitude-behaviour relationship in the collectivist context but responds to the call from Ganley and Lampe (2009) and de Valck, van Bruggen and Wierenga (2009) to be concerned about the growing relevance of social media activities which is able to become a central factor in influencing various aspects of consumer behaviours.

Secondly, the structure of the research highlights the influence of social media involvement as a moderator of this study. Although significant studies have provided empirical evidence of the validity of the involvement theory in several contexts (Hollebeek et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2010), but an existing evidences, no prior study has been investigated the moderating role of social media involvement especially in the particular context of fashion products in collectivist countries. In addition few studies have explored the concept of social media involvement in other contexts, for instance, travellers' social media involvement, media involvement or soap opera involvement (e.g. Ellison et al., 2007; Eveland, 2002; Rubin and Perse, 1987).

Moreover, this research proposed useful multidimensional social media involvement scales which are possible to apply with generic social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram or Twitter etc. which can be considered as a new source of complementary research. Compared to existing measurement scales, it is either a unidimensional scale or limited to single platforms (Ha and Hu, 2013; Ellison et al., 2007). Therefore this present study utilised these relevant conceptual frameworks to draw the discussion of the research and validate the social media involvement measurement scale. Instead of using a uni-dimensional scale for measuring social media involvement usage, future research can build on the social media involvement scale proposed by this study.

Thirdly, this study advances existing knowledge by adding alternative key insights on the consumption value dimension of fashion products with respect to purchasing intention. Although there are numerous studies conceptualising the direct impact of the consumer perceived value dimension, this has not yet been explored in the context of fast fashion products. This study demonstrates that all the consumer perceived value dimensions have a positive effect on consumer purchasing intention. Therefore, this could help the researcher to form a deeper understanding of the association between value dimension at a product level and purchasing intention.

Interestingly, this study demonstrates that within the fast fashion context, consumption value can better influence purchasing outcome through the moderating role of social media involvement. To be more explicit, a higher level of social media involvement leads to greater perceived consumption value (except social value) on purchasing intention.

However, instead of investigating the direct impact of the brand love construct on purchasing intention, this research is empirically examining the moderating role of brand on the relationship between the consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention for fast fashion products. The concept of brand is recently emerging in the area of experiential consumption (Sakhar, 2014). Few studies have explored the impact of brand love on behavioural outcomes and no prior study has investigated the moderating role of brand love on the relationship between the consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention for fast fashion

products. Therefore this study is the first study to investigate an indirect role of the attitude-behavioural relationship. The study demonstrates that brand love positively moderates the relationship between the consumer perceived value dimension and purchasing intention. This study advances the existing knowledge relating to brand love as it appears that brand love can be represented as one mechanism to drive consumer behavioural intention. In others words, this helps the researchers to understand the reasons why and how building an intense emotional relationship with the consumer matters within the phenomenon of a saturated market and fierce economy.

8.3.2 Managerial Implications

The core managerial implications of the study provide an insight for marketing managers and fashion retailers to equip them with differentiated and competitive advantages over their competitors. In the context of the fast fashion industry, sustaining competitive advantage is the main task in order to maximise profit and business growth. Understanding consumer value proposition can help a firm to measure its ability to both serve and attract their target consumer leading to organisation goals. However, the challenge for firms is how to actively offer desired value corresponding with consumer expectation in a fast fashion context. The hierarchal perspective of value conception can help marketers and retailers to design, identify and utilise consumer value propositions.

Fashionability, well-made quality, reasonable price, symbolic value and emotional experiences are discussed as the point of attractiveness for fast fashion consumers in Thailand. Within the consumption system, both product and services provided by retailers are strongly dependent in order to structure consumer's experience (Mittal, Kumar and Tsiros, 1999). This suggests that the fast fashion industry should heighten levels of value both rational and irrational since consumers are concerned with both of them. Anderson et al. (2006) point out that firms should focus on one or two different points that best deliver value to the target audience and differentiate themselves from their competitors. According to the rapid change in internet technology, social media forces firms to shift their business model to enhance value. Moreover, with such a fierce competitions and saturated markets, it is the era of consumer driven. It would be useful to make consumer engage with brand, develop to love brand since it lead to

loyalty, commitment and favourable purchasing outcomes. The readiness to respond is required for all marketers to be successful (Aaker and McLoughlin, 2010). Therefore, this study provides practical guidelines to manage the association between business and circumstance with multiple facet issues of value towards the consumer.

First, the practical implication related to elaborating the direct influence of consumer perceived value dimension towards purchasing intention; that is, the finding illustrates that amongst value dimensions, perceived quality value was the most influential motive of behavioural intention in the fast fashion industry. This means that both marketers and fashion retailers who plan to enhance the consumer purchasing intention should emphasise superior performance on quality value perception as a priority. According to Zeithaml (1988), consumers evaluate product quality depending on the relative excellence or superiority of those products amongst alternatives offered. In most cases, it is difficult to evaluate the quality of intrinsic attributes; hence, the evaluation of extrinsic cues is likely to take place. In the fashion industry, perceived quality is viewed as “*conformance to requirements*” or zero defects (Crosby, 1972, p. 17).

Moreover, the quality for fast fashion businesses can be considered in terms of efficiency of supply chain management by providing the product at the right time with the right price. That is, the perceived quality assurance is to design products that immediately meet market demand with the shortest possible lead times (Barnes and Lea- Greenwood, 2006; Tokatli, 2009). Also, the applicability is considered based on service quality such as retail environment and staff selection (Newman and Patel, 2004; Byun and Sternquist, 2008). Within this view, the consumer value dimension works in line with quality perception as a vehicle to drive behavioural intention for fast fashion products. Furthermore, perceived price was found to impact purchasing intention as well. In order to achieve this task, both marketers and fashion retailers have to ensure that their consumers feel worthy when obtaining products, since consumers do not judge the product based on the relative prices, but on what benefits they gain from it (Monroe, 2012).

Perceived non-monetary price should also be considered as consumer perception, time costs, search costs or physical costs play a vital role in increasing their perception experiences (Zeithaml, 1988). Furthermore, the result reveals that perceived quality

value is effective predictor of consumer behavioural intention to purchase. This finding highlights the significance of quality value as a contributor to behavioural outcomes and product success. When discussing consumer perceived value, marketers and retailers are recommended to pay attention to the quality experience embedded in their products.

On the other hand, social value and emotional value are important dimensions as well. Marketers and fashion retailers should apply this insight based on the distinct nature of the value dimension as a means of consumer behavioural intention to purchase. Knowing what consumers value and how to offer it to them can help firms to implement segmentation of products with appropriate strategies. If the target audience is highly involved in social media, marketers should emphasise promoting social media activities to enhance value perception that leads to behavioural outcomes. In other words, a deeper understanding of the value perception dimension can help both marketers and fashion retailers to conduct value-based marketing strategies and allocate them effectively.

Moreover, in the information-oriented era firms can enhance consumer value perception that could lead to strong purchasing intention by implementing social media activities such as information resources, partners or experts to access product information (Christodoulides, Michaelidou and Siamagka, 2013). Social media ideally influences consumer perception towards products or services and delivers reinforcement. Since consumers access a company's message through newsfeed features available on their personal social Facebook, Instagram or other social media platforms or are socially influenced through Google search, this is an opportunity to shape and create their perception towards a product and brand at the same time.

The growth of online communities has supported an increasing of generated social media communication which is a vehicle for consumer insights (Gangadharbatla, 2008). The results from this study clearly point out that the level of social media involvement can partially or fully account for value perception. Therefore, an increase of social media involvement enhances the consumer value perception which eventually leads to consumer purchasing intention. In practice, this allows firms to better connect with their target audience and create a consumption experience by complying with businesses' information and activities via online platforms. The

concept of social media involvement is to help reducing the level of ambiguity rather just an exact of science. The company can develop their strategies underlying on how their consumer preserve the different level of social media involvement and ensure to maximize the benefit of social media. As the main key is allow the company to identify the consumers who have an ability to interest, process and care about the activities and contents online (Armano, 2009).

The final managerial implication is dedicated to brand love. As perceived value from a product leads to behavioural intention, firms cannot overestimate the durability of an individual that is dedicated to a brand. The results from this study show that brand love has a moderating impact on behavioural outcomes. Hence, the key managerial is that firms need to turn consumer '*like*' into consumer '*love*' and maintain the relationship over time as it is likely to influence desirable behavioural outcomes.

8.4 Research limitations

As with other research in marketing and consumer behaviour, some limitations are contained within this research. This research provides an extensive knowledge of value dimension constructs and its consequences in the fast fashion industry. However, it is relatively challenging for the researcher to approach all elements of value dimensions that cause the phenomenon. Therefore, it is possible that other related value constructs can prove behavioural outcomes more effectively such as aesthetic value (Sheth et al., 1991).

Moreover, this study might be affected by common method bias. This could have happened because the data was collected from the same sources - fashion shoppers. The same questionnaire was used to measure an independent variable (the consumer perceived value) and dependent variables (purchasing intention, social media involvement and brand love). This source of concern particularly occurs when self-reports are employed (Spector, 2006). Therefore, to prevent this bias, this study ascertained by performing Harmon's one-factor (1967). The result is less than 50 (27.19) revealed that common method bias within this data was limited.

With regard to this study, cross sectional design represented the association between variables in the model framework. This study captures information at a specific point

in time. Although the general relationship between variables in the study is likely to remain, the linkage between the consumer perceived value and other related constructs can be re-evaluated over time. There are some possible causes which could alter these changes, for example, consumer culture or consumer development in terms of their education, age or even income. Therefore, readers need to interpret the research findings with cautions. Nevertheless, this cross sectional study is unable to define causes and effects of the phenomenon since it continuously changes as the timing of the snapshot cannot be guaranteed to be representative. It cannot fully prove the causality between variables. To understand the development of consumer perceived value, social media involvement and related constructs over time, future studies are recommended to employ the longitudinal design in collecting data.

The stage of distributing questionnaires might cause some limitations as well. Even though the researcher attempted to access a variety of respondent groups of fashion shoppers (based on age groups and sex), most of the respondents were female (84%), and had a bachelor degree (72.5%). According to this limitation, the ability to generalise should be influenced by the whole Thai population. As this research was conducted with single setting that allow the researcher to better control with limit to the generalizability of findings of the quantitative research (Conant, et al., 1990). Hence to assure that the specific treatment will yield the same result with the difference setting. Therefore, the study should be investigated in different circumstance to establish the flexibility treatments and generate the accurate result (Runkel and McGrath, 1972)

Another limitation in this study is the location for data collection, since this research was carried out at only a single location, Bangkok (at three shopping department stores), where the proportion of household income is higher than other provinces in Thailand. Therefore, it would be beneficial to conduct the research in other locations to assure the findings obtained from this study. Different locations, such as other provinces or even the same provinces but different areas, might yield different results. Finally, with regard to the measurement of variables in the study, this research applied the scale that has already been validated by previous literature (Yang and Peterson, 2004; Gallarza and Saura, 2006) Somehow, in the consumer perceived value scale, items referring to some perceived aesthetic value such as style, which should be

included, were ignored. Indeed, the element seems to affect purchase intention, especially for fashion products.

However, within this study, the limitation is that the majority of respondents are female; therefore it can be suggested that the result might have been different since there is a difference between genders within consumer-brand relationships such as creating and sustaining intimate relationships. As we know that nowadays there are plenty of ways for allowing brands to interact with their consumers such as advertising, social media and direct product usage; therefore this variety of methods can be considered as the important determinant to evaluate consumer-brand relationships. However, the question arises whether the difference in gender is an important factor in understanding their relationship with brand; for example Beck (1988) posits that women tend to maintain better relational communication than men. Existing literature suggests that both men and women value friendships but somehow women tend to maintain intimate relationships and when problems are not resolved or even when the outcome is unsatisfactory, women tend to still stay in the relationship longer than men do (Thompson and Worker, 1989).

8.5 Direction for Future Research

Several venues for further research related to consumer perceived value, social media involvement, brand love and consumer behaviour in the marketing domain are identified. In this regard, this study concentrates on the consumer perceived value theory (Sweeney and Sourtar, 2001). The concept of value perception is proposed with many types of conditions and contexts. In this study, however, only four dimensions based on Sweeney and Sourtar, (2001) have been used. Thus, the future research related to fast fashion products should include other types of consumption value as other domains of constructs might appear to be critical factors affecting behavioural intention. However, both EFA and CFA techniques should still be employed to assess the model fit and significance of each dimension. Even though the result of this research demonstrates that price is the most influential predictors of behavioural intention, emotional quality and social value dimensions require a deeper understanding with diverse capabilities (Khalifa, 2004). Therefore, future study should not be neglected.

Since this study focuses on consumer perceived value at the product-related level, future study should examine the applicability of the model in other settings such as store value, service value or even in a brand value setting. It is important to investigate wider perspectives at product-level of consumer value perception because such factors associated with a product might enhance value perception towards the product.

For social media involvement, future research should validate it in other domains. Even though this study offers an insight into social media involvement in relation to consumer perceived value and behavioural outcomes, there is a need for empirical studies to examine this phenomenon further. Validating the comprehensive social media involvement measurement scale by applying it to other contexts is also recommended. This can be completed by extending the research to investigate the role of social media involvement in other contexts and other types of products or services as well as with other marketing concepts. Moreover, considering that purchase intention does not really reflect actual behaviour, future research is recommended to measure actual behaviour, beyond purchasing intention.

In the methodology area, the measurement scale purified within this research should be extensively validated for future research. Even the scale that applied within this study has been developed from existing studies, calling for more development of this scale (Sweeney and Sourtar, 2001). From this approach, future research should provide the evidence for the generalisation of the concept.

The current research was undertaken in the context of the fast fashion industry in Thailand. To validate the model of this research, future work should investigate different products and different contexts. Cross-cultural studies to identify the discrimination drivers of different segments should be further studied. Furthermore, it might be insightful to substantiate the model regarding different cultures since the consumption pattern might be changed. This can lead to enabling an investigation of consumer differences and cultural variations.

Moreover, the diverse population or different psychographic characteristics should be further monitored, which is able to impact the cognitive and affective judgement towards the consumption process. The findings from this study showed that the

majority of respondents were aged under 29-33 and female. With a different age group and gender, the value perception might be different. Thus, future research should gather data from different age groups and equal number of gender. Another avenue for future research is to improve the proposed conceptual model from this study by combining additional factors to enhance the research's explanatory power.

Furthermore, within this research the causal links cannot be fully explained since the limitation of this study is time which makes it possible to conduct only a cross-sectional study which mean collected all the data at one point of time. Gallarza et al. (2011) point out that therefore, when resources are available the potential for future research is to conduct a longitudinal study because it allows the researcher to understand and observe the dynamic of the causal link over a period of time including short-term and long term periods (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Moreover, the nuance understood between consumption value related to behavioural outcome should be made therefore the longitudinal can be investigated to understand how the gap of value perception relates to prior and post purchases (Graf and Maas, 2008). With regard to consequences, the consumption value is a dynamic and time-dependent concept. Woodall (2003, p. 4) states: *“not only does each of us value the same things differently, we individually value different things, and at different times in different ways”*. The different stages of consumption value perception by consumers require particular attention.

8.6 Chapter Conclusion Remarks

According to this chapter, the details of discussion results are presented. The result of the hypotheses testing that confirms 10 hypotheses out of twelve as two hypotheses were rejected. With regards to hypotheses results, the statistical finding has been reinforced the previous literature from consumer value studies that the consumer perceived value dimension are able to predict the consumer purchasing intention (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). As the consumer perceived price value is described as the most favourable perception that has been found to positively affect buying intention.

Whereby the examination of moderating role of consumer involvement with social media shown that the higher level of social media involved, the stronger the relationship with the consumer perceived value dimensions and purchasing intention

for fast fashion product. The result showed that two out of the four hypotheses proposed in the conceptual model was supported. The hypothesis that has been rejected by this study were hypothesis H5 and H8 postulated that the relationship between the consumer perceived social value, emotional and consumer purchasing intention will be stronger for those who are highly involved with social media than those who are less involved.

Furthermore, the role of brand love has been investigated as moderator in this study as well. The result from chi square difference shows that the three out of the four hypotheses were significant. Only hypothesis H12 was rejected, the consumer with high level of brand love does not moderate the relationship between the consumer perceived quality value and purchasing intention. Within this chapter, academic contribution and managerial implication were discussed. For example, fast fashion industry keep to establish strategies with regard to consumption value as the consumer purchasing intention are affected by their value perception. Moreover, the consumer social media involvement was found to have impact on the relationships – leading to enhance value perception and consumer intention to purchase. Hence the several suggestions offered for marketer that the level of consumer involves with social media can partially or fully account for value perception. Therefore, this allows firms to better connect with their target audience and create a consumption experience by complying with businesses' information and activities via online platforms. Beside an implication of brand love, the result from this research extends the existing studies of brand love and their consequence. In addition, the study tends to be beneficial for fashion industry to create strong emotion between their brand and consumer in order to greater favourable outcomes.

The limitations of this research were discussed. Methodologically, future researches are advised to conduct longitudinal. As the majority of population more than 80 % were female, it is better to apply with the difference population equally to ensure the generalizability of the study. For example diverse population should be monitored, as most of respondent in this study were aged between 29-33. In response for future research, this limitation should be taken into account by the researcher.

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APPENDIX ONE : THE MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



My name is Jaruporn Tangpattanakit and I am a PhD student at Brunel University London, United Kingdom. I am conducting this study as an integral part of the research for my Doctoral degree under the supervision of Dr. Dorothy Yen. This research examines the issue of consumer perceived value and the moderating effect of social media involvement towards purchasing intention for fast fashion products in Thailand.

This research aims to identify the relationship between consumer perceived value, consumer satisfaction, the moderating effect of brand love, brand experience and social media involvement towards consumer purchasing intention in Thailand. The questionnaire should only take 10-15 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary. If you feel uncomfortable answering any of the questions, you may skip any question you do not wish to answer. All opinions supplied by participants will be kept confidential. Your name will not appear anywhere on the survey as I will not collect your name or any other identifying information on the survey. If you decide that you no longer want to be involved in this study you are free to withdraw at any time without any adverse consequences.

However, if you decide to be involved in this survey questionnaire you will not gain anything directly by taking part, but you may be a part of helping the researcher to learn about consumer behaviour in Thailand and so help to develop the marketing issue in Thailand. Finally, if you have any questions about this questionnaire, please feel free to contact me directly at tangpattanakitj@gmail.com with regard to any queries you may have. Your contribution to this study is greatly appreciated and will add to the success of this study.

Regards,
Jaruporn Tangpattanakit

The Moderating Effect of Social Media Involvement and

Please answer the following question based on the fast fashion items that you were recently looking before I stopped you. What was that item?

Brand Love on the Consumer Perceived Value and Purchasing Intention for Fast Fashion Products

Please tell us about yourself

Gender	Age	Education level	Income level
<input type="radio"/> Male	<input type="radio"/> < 18	<input type="radio"/> High School	<input type="radio"/> < 10,000 THB
<input type="radio"/> Female	<input type="radio"/> 19-28	<input type="radio"/> Bachelor Degree	<input type="radio"/> 10,000-25,000 THB
	<input type="radio"/> 29-38	<input type="radio"/> Master Degree	<input type="radio"/> 25,000-40,000 THB
	<input type="radio"/> 39-48	<input type="radio"/> PhD.	<input type="radio"/> 40,000-55,000 THB
	<input type="radio"/> 49-58		<input type="radio"/> > 55,000 THB
	<input type="radio"/> >58		

Part 1: Fast Fashion purchasing behavior
(Please tick the circle that corresponds with your level of agreement)

1. What is your preferred fast fashion brand (Please check all that apply)?
 - Zara
 - Mango
 - Forever 21
 - H&M
 - Something Boudoirs
 - Topshop
 - Others _____ (Please specify)

2. How often do you purchase fast fashion items?
 - Once every few months
 - At least once a month
 - Once a week
 - More than once a week

3. Last time you purchased fast fashion items, how much did you spend?
 - Less than 1,000 THB
 - 1,000-3,000 THB
 - 3,000-5,000 THB
 - More than 5,000 THB

Part 2: Consumer Perceived Value (Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement)								
2.1 Social Value I feel acceptable to others when wearing this fast fashion item I would get some interest from others when I wear this fast fashion item This fast fashion item would improve the way I am perceived by others in my society I am so proud when wearing this fast fashion item	Strongly Disagree	←————→					Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2.2 Emotional Value I enjoy using this fast fashion item This fast fashion item would make me want to wear it This fast fashion item would make me happy when wearing it This fast fashion item would give me pleasure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2.3 Price Value This fast fashion item offers value for money This fast fashion item is reasonably priced This fast fashion item is a good product for the price This fast fashion item would be economical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2.4 Quality Value This fast fashion item has a consistent quality This fast fashion item has an acceptable standard of quality This fast fashion item is well made	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

For the next section, please answer the question based on the fast fashion brand that you love								
Part 3: The effect of Brand Love (Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement)								
3.1 Brand Love This fast fashion brand is unique This fast fashion brand is special I take pleasure in buying this fast fashion brand Discovering new products from this fast fashion brand is a pure pleasure I take real pleasure in using this fast fashion brand I am always happy using this fast fashion brand	Strongly Disagree	←————→					Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I have a warm and comfortable relationship with this fast fashion brand I feel emotionally close to this fast fashion brand I value this fast fashion brand greatly in my life	Strongly Disagree	←————→					Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

There is something almost “magical” about my relationship with this fast fashion brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is nothing more important to me than my relationship with this fast fashion brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I idealise this fast fashion brand							
(I feel that) this fast fashion brand has accompanied me for many years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have been using this fast fashion brand for a long time							
I have not changed this fast fashion brand for a long time							
This fast fashion brand reminds me of someone important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This fast fashion brand reminds me of memories, a moment of my past (childhood, adolescence, a meeting, . . .)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I associate this fast fashion brand with important events in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This fast fashion brand corresponds to an ideal for me							
I have dreamed about that fast fashion brand for a long time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This fast fashion brand is a childhood dream							
I dream (or have dreamt) of possessing this brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4: Social Media Usage Involvement

(Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement)

1. Which social media platform did you access last?

- Facebook
- Instagram
- Twitter
- Tumblr
- Other _____ (Please specify)

2. On average, approximately how long do you actively spend per day on this social media platform?

- 5-15 minutes
- 15-30 minutes
- 30-45 minutes
- 45-60 minutes
- > 60 minutes

3. On average, approximately how often do you access your preferred social media platforms per week?

- Once a week
- 2-3 times per week
- 3-5 times per week
- Everyday

4. How do you access this social medium platform? (Please check all that apply)

Mobile phone

Home

Workplace

Coffee shop

Other _____ (Please specify)

5. How long have you been on this social media?

Less than 6 months

1 year

1-3 years

3-5 years

More than 5 years

Please answer the question base on the social media that you access as daily basis	
Part 5: Social Media Involvement (Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement)	
5.1 Emotional Connectedness	Strongly Disagree ←————→ Strongly Agree
I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto my preferred social media for a while	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I feel I am part of the social media community	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would be sorry if my preferred social media shut down	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.2 Social Connectedness	
I feel close to people on my preferred social media	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am able to relate to peers on my preferred social media	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am able to connect with other people on my preferred social media	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I find myself actively involved with my preferred social media	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5.3 Cognitive Involvement	Strongly Disagree ←————→ Strongly Agree
I tired to relate the online information in the story to my own experience	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
While I am using my preferred social media, think about how the online information relates to other things I know	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I found myself making connections between online information from my preferred social media and what I have read and heard about elsewhere	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
While I am using my preferred social media, I concentrate on it	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.4 Behavioural Involvement (Passive /Active User)							
When I'm having a bad day, I post about it on my preferred social media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I receive good news, I post about it on my preferred social media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I see my friend or acquaintance sharing good or bad news, or requesting information, I try to respond	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Behavioral Outcome (Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement)							
6.2 Purchasing intention							
	Strongly Disagree	←————→				Strongly Agree	
I intend to purchase this fast fashion item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am very willing to purchase this fast fashion item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to purchase any fast fashion item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am extremely likely to purchase this fast fashion item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your patience in completing this questionnaire.