2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter aims at providing an overview of the body of research performed on the variables such as consumer self-confidence, market information, brand awareness, brand image, brand loyalty, perceived quality with brand preference dimensions. It is proposed to discuss different empirical research on brand preference variables. Finally the research gap is identified.

Throughout the past two decades, the development of new products has been a popular marketing strategy for many firms. According to the trade publication (New Product News), consumer-product companies launch nearly 20,000 new products each year (compared to only 2,689 in 1980); (Belch and Belch, 2001). Because of an increase in marketplace competition, this newfound brand proliferation threatens the survival of other recent brands. Brand differentiation is now becoming an important tactic for combating competition in this hostile marketplace. A viable solution for establishing the distinctiveness of a brand is through brand personality. Attaching personalities to brands contributes to a differentiating brand identity, which can make brands more desirable to the consumer.

While positioning the brand, it is important to treat it like a human being with specific characteristics. There are a host of brands out there and if you position the brand in a general manner, it will become a commodity that will get lost in the crowd. The only distinguishing factor you then have is price, which leaves the task of brand identification at the mercy of market forces. A very dangerous proposition, because it effectively gives you very little control. On the other hand, if your brand has a distinctive personality, it will come alive for the consumer and endear itself to him. It will help your consumers in identifying with your brand’s personality traits.
Audrey Azoulay & Kapferer (2003) advertisers and marketing practitioners were the first ones to coin the term ‘brand personality’, well before the academics studied and accepted the concept. Motivation research made popular the use of projective techniques to capture these facets.

Seguela (1982), creative vice president of the RSCG advertising agency, introduced the ‘star strategy’ as the new mode of brand management for mature markets. In mature markets, non-product-based features of the brand start to have a greater effect on consumers’ buying decisions. Seguela recommended that all brands be described along three facets: the physical one (what does the product do and how well does it perform?), the character (brand personality facet) and the style (executional elements for advertising and communication).

Olins (1978), in his work on ‘Corporate Personality’ refers to the fact that design is not here to describe a product, but to endow either its brand or corporation with values and non-material distinguishing attributes. In practice, these publications expressed a growing dissatisfaction with an enduring tenet of marketing practice equating the product and the brand; that is, defining the brand by a product’s performance.

Swee Hoon Ang and Elison Ai Ching Lim (2006) investigated whether metaphors in advertising have a synergistic or compensatory effect on brand personality perceptions of utilitarian and symbolic products. The effects of metaphoric headlines versus pictures were also compared. In general, brands using metaphors in ads were perceived to be more sophisticated and exciting, but less sincere and competent than those using literal headlines or pictures. Ad attitudes, brand attitudes, and purchase intention were also enhanced with metaphoric advertising.
2.1. Consumer Self-Confidence

Building upon a number of studies about the availability of product information, merchandising practices, and store design, Titus and Everett (1995) proposed the consumer retail search process model. It postulates that the search for product information may be guided by epistemic and hedonic systems. The epistemic system, representing the shopper’s system of logic, gives rise to a need for the design of in store information displays and merchandising practices, the sine qua non of the epistemic system. The emotionally laden hedonic system is the sensate orientation that accompanies the shopping experience. The retail search model suggests that the individual and the combined effects of these two systems may lead to an efficient, pleasurable, and satisfying shopping experience. Mall and store research supports the aforementioned hedonic and epistemic postulates of the model. In a mall study, a sensate environmental factor was causally related to the excitement associated with the shopping trip and a desire to continue shopping (Wakefield and Baker, 1998). In store research, a positive emotional state explained one’s satisfaction with the shopping experience (Babin and Darden, 1996). In other store research, shopper’s hedonic reaction to and utilitarian orientation towards the shopping experience were associated with their overall satisfaction with the marketplace offerings (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Griffin, Babin, and Modianos, 2000). In a second mall study, Shim and Eastlick (1998) report a composite measure of product knowledge and emotional variables contributes to one’s overall frequency of shopping and average monthly mall expenditures. Knowledge based and emotional variables contribute also to an increase in the amount of time and money spent in shopping (Babin, Griffin, and Boles, 1997).

Efficient, pleasurable, and satisfying shopping experiences are thought also to contribute to the consumer’s personal and social confidence in decision making (Bearden,
Hardesty and Rose, 2001). According to the authors, consumer self-confidence is the “extent to which an individual feels capable and assured with respect to his or her marketplace decisions and behaviours”. These feelings of competence characterize the personal and the social outcomes associated with shopping decisions. Shoppers who consider themselves capable in and assured of their personal shopping decisions will experience a minimal level of doubt about those decisions (Folkes and Kiesler, 1991).

Similarly, socially capable and assured shoppers possess a high level of confidence about the social consequences of their personal consumption/shopping related decisions. Stated somewhat differently, when information about the outcomes of the shopping event are communicated to one’s friends and acquaintances, the comments made by these significant others influence the shopper’s consumption related social self-confidence (Folkes and Kiesler, 1991).

Finally, the consumer retail search process model, in conjunction with other research, provides also a foundation for the development of additional insight into the nature of retail word of mouth communication. To be more explicit, when consumers interact successfully with shopping environments, they acquire personal and social information which can be passed along to their friends and acquaintances (Titus and Everett, 1995; Higie, Feick, and Price, 1987). This transmission should not be thought of as automatic. That is, since the personal and social nature of the shopping experience (Tauber, 1972) leads to the acquisition of information that will influence one’s personal outcomes and social outcomes self-confidence (Bearden et al., 2001), and since self-confidence influences word of mouth communication (Reynolds and Darden, 1971; Summers, 1970),

One’s personal outcomes and social outcomes self-confidence should influence one’s information sharing behaviour (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). In a series of
studies, (Paridon, 2005a; 2005b; 2005c) the relationships among the preceding constructs were researched and two principal findings emerged. First, when socially confident shoppers enjoy the shopping trip, they are more likely to share that experience with their friends and acquaintances. Second, when shoppers locate the products they need, their personal self-confidence increases. Since retailers are interested in generating favourable word of mouth communication and in insuring that their customers are able to locate the items they want, the scales used in the aforementioned research should be part of a resource base for retail managers when they evaluate merchandising practices and the effects of these store managed activities. An analysis of the scales follows, Consumer self-confidence (Bearden, Rose, Hardesty 2001), and information sharing (Paridon, 2004), led to the development and testing of an integrated model of word of mouth communication (Paridon, 2005). In the earlier study, the author suggested to change the indicator set for each of the preceding constructs. The first recommended change was the deletion of the “gift giving” and the “agonizing over purchasing” measures from the original personal and social self-confidence scales (Bearden et al., 2001).

Accordingly, four of the original five indicators for each construct were retained (Paridon 2005). In both of the latter studies, responses to the remaining four indicators for each construct were obtained by asking respondents to indicate on a seven point Likert type scale, the extent to which they agreed that the statement characterized themselves. Similar concerns for validity and reliability of the hedonic and utilitarian constructs resulted in selecting four scale items for each construct (Babin et al., 1994; Griffin et al., 2000). Scale items qualified if they demonstrated, by their standardized factor loading, an acceptable level of construct validity. To be more specific, Paridon (2005) suggested deleting a negatively worded hedonic construct indicator in order to improve reliability and variance extracted values. Paridon (2005) reported also that research into utilitarian
measurement (Voss et al., 2003) suggested an improvement to the original four indicator utilitarian scale might be realized by adding a direct measure of satisfaction. In the same study (Paridon 2005), it was suggested that deleting the negatively worded utilitarian statement “I couldn’t buy what I really needed” would lead to improved measurement statistics. Thus, utilitarian value was assessed using three original utilitarian value indicators and one supplemental indicator of satisfaction. For these eight personal shopping value measures, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed, using a conventional seven point Likert type format, with the item.

The final set of construct measures emerged from research in retail information sharing (Paridon, 2004) and word of mouth communication (Feick, Price, and Higie, 1986; Higie et al., 1987). An accepted measure of one’s propensity to engage in general marketplace conversations. In addition to the standard semantic anchors, the indicators for all five constructs and the market maven measures contained numeric anchors with one representing the least favorable interpretation of the statement and seven indicating the most favourable interpretation of the statement. Standard demographic measures viz., gender, age, marital status, employment status, annual household income, education, and ethnicity were included also. Finally, the second study included indicator variables that focused upon measuring the adequacy of assistance from employees and the accessibility of merchandise (Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz 1996; Kim and Jin, 2001). The statistical significance of these latter measures has been reported elsewhere (Paridon, 2005).

Wood and Stagner (1994) suggested that the explanation for this assumption is twofold. First, high-self-esteem persons are thought to be more confident of their own judgments and consequently less influenced by others opinions. Second, high-self-esteem individuals are more likely to believe others think well of them, and hence, are less concerned with social rejection than are low-self-esteem persons. Each of these
explanations provides impetus for the use of self-esteem scales to reflect general feelings of self-confidence. However, and as explained below, the use of self-esteem measures to reflect consumer self-confidence has resulted in an equivocal pattern of effects. At least two reasons may account for these mixed results. First, self-esteem is a global personal trait that may have only limited correspondence with self-confidence as related to consumer and marketplace phenomena. Second, the dimensionality and validity of the most frequently employed measures have been questioned (Tomas and Oliver 1999). For example, the Janis and Field (1959) Feelings of Inadequacy (FIS) scale was originally developed to quantify a person’s feelings of inadequacy, self-consciousness, and social anxiety. Questions about the dimensionality of the FIS and the low item to-total correlations for some items in the scale have been raised (Fleming and Courtney 1984). The Rosenberg measurement was originally designed to measure adolescent global feelings of self-worth. The measure has been criticized for being susceptible to social desirability bias and for often being so skewed as to produce low tripartite-split groups that are still relatively high in self-esteem (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Moreover, questions regarding the dimensionality of the scale, as well as the presence of methods effects have been raised (Tomas and Oliver, 1999).

Finally, Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) noted that the Coopersmith (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) measure, which was developed originally for use with children, is highly correlated with social desirability bias and lacks stable factor structure. The premise, then, is that measures more closely tied to consumer phenomena may prove useful in efforts to investigate the role of confidence in the understanding of consumer behaviour. As such, this effort is consistent with the frequently cited admonition of Kassarjian (1971) that consumer researchers need to develop measures more relevant to consumer issues. (Masao Nakanishi, 1972)
The purpose, then, of this article is twofold. First, the researcher offers a conceptual definition of consumer self-confidence, along with a description of the homological network in which consumer self-confidence (CSC) is embedded and a brief discussion of related but different concepts. The second objective is the development and validation of scales to measure the various dimensions that underlie consumer self-confidence. The researcher offers the measures as alternative for use in the study of consumer-related phenomena, including both tests of consumer behaviour theory and applied issues. Consumer self-confidence is important, too, both because it may serve as a protector against marketplace stress (Luce 1994) and because it provides motivation for consumers to seek assistance when confronted with complex or uncertain decisions.

Moreover, the measures should prove useful as antecedents and moderators of relationships among other important consumer behaviour constructs. Finally the researcher hopes that the conceptualization and measures will enhance research that seeks to identify factors that increase or improve consumer self-confidence.

Consumer self-confidence is defined as the extent to which an individual feels capable and assured with respect to his or her marketplace decisions and behaviours. As such, consumer self-confidence reflects subjective evaluations of one's ability to generate positive experiences as a consumer in the marketplace (Adelman et al. 1987). Consumer self-confidence is viewed as a multifaceted secondary disposition that is more closely related to consumer phenomena than are central dispositions such as self-esteem (Lastovicka 1982). Consumer self-confidence represents a relatively stable self appraisal that is assumed to be readily accessible to the individual because of the pervasiveness of consumer activity in everyday life (Blascovich and Tomaka 1991).

Briefly, the researcher proposes that consumer self-confidence results from more basic traits, such as self-esteem, perceived control (Langer 1983), and dominance (Lorr et
al., 1991), and from the collection of the individual's prior market place experiences that are not independent of personal characteristics such as age, income, and education (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998). While product-specific self-confidence will vary across product categories, feelings of global consumer self-confidence are still capable of differentiating among individuals within product-decision categories and purchase experiences.

Moreover, like other consumer measures, general consumer self-confidence should be able to predict tendencies. For example, correlations with a summed index of specific self-confidence items assessed across a series of products would provide evidence of criterion validity (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998). And, even in instances where the level of product- or situation-specific confidence may be low for most consumers, consumer self-confidence will still vary across individuals. In addition, purchase-specific factors, such as product expertise, can moderate the strength of the relationship between self-confidence and several outcomes. For example, greater expertise should strengthen the positive relationship between consumer self-confidence and the exertion of influence on others and the negative relationships with persuasibility and perceived risk. Consumer self-confidence is related to but differs from self-esteem, expertise, and product knowledge. Briefly, and considering each concept in turn, the concept of self-esteem goes by a variety of names (e.g., self-worth, self-respect, and self-acceptance), and it is assumed to represent the evaluative component of one's self-concept (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self-esteem is the overall affective evaluation of one's own worth, value, or immense. As such, self-esteem is a broad concept, and confidence about one's abilities and performance in the marketplace may or may not be related to self-esteem. In general, high self-esteem should enhance consumer self-confidence, and
thus self-esteem scales should have a modest, positive relationship with measures of consumer self-confidence.

Consumer expertise represents the individual's ability to perform product-related tasks successfully (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Product expertise includes both the cognitive structure and the processes required to effectively use product information and beliefs stored in memory. As such, expertise, which typically increases as product-related experiences accumulate, reflects product-specific issues (Moorthy et al., 1997).

Consumer self-confidence is conceptualized as a multidimensional concept consisting initially of two higher-order factors, each made up of multiple dimensions (Gerbing, Hamilton, and Freeman 1994). These multiple dimensions, which define specific domains of content, are subsequently operationalized using a unidimensional set of individual items. The two higher-order factors represent the two major functions served by enhanced consumer self-confidence (Mossman and Ziller, 1968). That is, consumer self-confidence reflects the individual's perceived ability (1) to make effective consumer decisions, including the ability to acquire and use information (DM): and (2) to protect himself or herself from being misled, deceived, or treated unfairly (PROT). Consumer self-confidence, then, functions to enable the consumer to operate effectively when faced with complex decisions involving large amounts of information and strain from marketplace pressures. The behaviours of persons low in consumer self-confidence are more subject to environmental circumstances and are more inclined to inconsistent decision-making than are those persons who are high in consumer self-confidence (Mossman and Ziller1968). However, over-confidence can also undermine the quality of consumer decision making (Alba and Hutchinson, 2000).

The two higher-order constructs also represent important streams of research in the consumer behaviour literature, both of which deal with the individual's ability to
operate effectively in the marketplace. First, the decision-making component is consistent with the extensive body of consumer research that has attempted to understand and improve consumer performance through knowledge of how marketplace information is obtained, analyzed, and used to make purchase-related decisions (Bettman, Johnson, and Payne 1991; Nedungadi, 1990). Moreover, this component is consistent with many of the descriptions embodied in general models of consumer behaviour. The second higher-order factor corresponds to the ability of the consumer to operate effectively in the exchange process, the basic unit in most consumer behaviour analysis (Oliver 1997; Richins 1983). These two higher-order factors are also consistent with the most frequently studied roles of consumer self-confidence in the consumer behaviour and marketing literature. For example, Park et al. (1994) and Wright, Peter L (1975) propose that self-confidence operates as an antecedent to marketplace choices and subjective knowledge perceptions. Likewise, Luce (1994) and others relate self-confidence to the individual's ability to protect himself or herself from harm under emotional strain and to resist persuasive attempts emanating from others in the marketplace.

Information Acquisition and Processing (IA and IP), two sub-dimensions reflect the individual's confidence in his or her ability to obtain the needed marketplace information and to process and understand that information (Moorthy et al., 1997; Punj and Staeiin, 1983). While consumers' need for information varies across product categories and with experience, the ability to acquire and process the right amount and content of information prior to further decision making is an important antecedent to effective decision making (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Moreover, differing levels of confidence in information acquisition and processing capabilities may well explain some of the variance in repurchase information-search activity that occurs even for high-ticket durable goods (Moorthy et al., 1997).
Consideration Set Formation (CSF). The third dimension represents confidence in one's ability to identify acceptable choice alternatives, including products, brands, and shopping venues. This dimension is consistent with the frequently used heuristic in which consumers screen the large number of alternatives (e.g., brands) available to arrive at a more manageable and relevant set, frequently labelled the consideration set (Hauser and Wernerfelt 1990). Moreover, this definition and label recognizes that consumers may well form consideration sets that include alternatives from diverse categories (Nedungadi 1990). For many decisions, a large variety of alternatives are generally available, both within and across decision categories that satisfy the same consumption or purchase objective. Like Ratneshwar, Pechmann, and Shocker (1996), researchers are assuming that consideration sets are frequently constructed as part of consumers' problem-solving routines. Moreover, the assumption is made that individuals vary in confidence regarding their ability to construct consideration sets that contain choice alternatives for effectively satisfying consumption goals. Concern for one's ability to develop or identify meaningful consideration sets is consistent with a number of basic theories and results in behavioural science. For example, Wright (1975) argues that consumers often strive to simplify their decision environment, while Alba and Hutchinson (1987) describe several phenomena related to simplification of choice through consideration-set formation. (Hauser and Wernerfelt, 1990)

Personal and Social Outcomes (PO and SO) the fourth and fifth dimensions of the decision-making higher order factor are labelled personal outcomes and social outcomes, respectively. Through these dimensions, it is recognized that consumers must make decisions routinely regarding the choice and purchase of products and services and that these decisions result in outcomes that elicit personal feelings of satisfaction and in many situations, reactions from others. (Bettman et al., 1991) More formally, these
aspects of consumer self-confidence are defined as the confidence in one's ability to meet purchase objectives such that choices are personally satisfying and generate positive outcomes in the form of the reactions of others (including friends, family, and neighbors; Wright, 1975). As such, these sub-dimensions of consumer self-confidence reflect the individual's beliefs regarding his or her ability to make sound judgments and to draw effectively on prior experiences and learning in efforts to arrive at satisfactory decisions.

Persuasion Knowledge (PK): The persuasion knowledge-dimension reflects the individual's confidence in his or her knowledge regarding the tactics used by marketers in efforts to persuade consumers (Friestad and Wright, 1994). This dimension of consumer self-confidence reflects the individual's confidence in his or her ability to understand marketers' tactics and to cope with these tactics. As such, this dimension recognizes that consumer self-confidence includes one's perceived ability to understand the cause and effect relationships that determine marketers' behaviour and to deal with these attempts to persuade.

Marketplace Interfaces (MI). The remaining facet of consumer self-confidence reflects confidence in the ability to stand up for one's rights and to express one's opinion when dealing with others in the marketplace (e.g., store employees and salespersons). Persons high in consumer self-confidence are more likely to express their own positions and to deal forthrightly with store clerks and other marketing boundary personnel than are persons who are low in consumer self-confidence. Consequently, consumers scoring high on this dimension should possess greater assurance in their own ability to interact with others in exchange situations, including requests for product demonstrations, refusals to purchase, and demands to remedy defective products (Richins et al., 1983).

In an additional effort to provide evidence of validity, the confidence measures were examined in a final study. The objectives of this study were three fold. First, the
study provided a vehicle for demonstrating appropriate uses of the consumer self-confidence measures in a theoretically and practically relevant context. Second, the study was intended to test theoretically interesting and provocative predictions regarding the relationships among self-confidence, the strength of consumer price-quality schema (PQ) and consumer choices. Third, the study provided a comparison of the ability of the current measures, self-esteem (Rosenberg 1965), IPC (Wright, 1975) and single-item product-specific self-confidence measures to moderate the relationship between PQ schema and choice.

The key issue to be addressed in this study concerns the conditions that facilitate the use of a price-quality heuristic when making product choices. To examine this issue, the researcher adopts a view that is consistent with the concept of the confident consumer as an efficient information processor. This position is consistent with Alba and Hutchinson's (1987) conceptualization of the efficiency dimension of consumer expertise. That is, reliance on a heuristic to make choices need not be viewed as lazy, uninvolved, uninformed, or uncertain decision making. Rather, it is entirely rational and efficient to rely on price when making product choices if the consumer is confident in his or her ability to make personally satisfying decisions in general and confident, specifically, that price is sufficiently diagnostic of quality. Likewise, it is reasonable for the consumer to avoid relying on price if he or she is confident and believes strongly that price is not related to quality.
2.2. Propensity to provide market information

Marketers make assumptions about marketplace helping and often develop programme to encourage it. For example, a women's clothing store in a medium sized Western city offers a discount when friends shop together. The store promotes how much more confident the buyer will feel and more fun he/she will have if he/she buys with the help of a friend. Other stores recognize that some people cannot find helpers and offer helpers (i.e., wardrobe consultants) as part of their service. McGrath et al., (1995) studied unacquainted consumers. They conclude that retailers must be alert to hiring natural helpers who are "genuinely interested in the customer needs are poised to expedite shopping problems". On the other hand, marketers occasionally attempt to discourage helping. For example, in recent advertising, the Satum company discouraged women from bringing along a friend to help them buy a car, because many of the advantages of Satum for women (e.g., no negotiation on Price) are available, regardless if a helper is there.

From a public policy perspective it is important to determine to what extent consumers assist others in attaining market and consumption goals. Market helpers can offset a lack of market information, police the market, protect vulnerable consumers, and contribute to the general welfare of consumers (Price, et al., 1989). Thus, it would be useful for consumer policy researchers to understand the extent of marketplace helping behaviour, the socioeconomic distribution of these behaviours, and the antecedents and market consequences of helping. For example, many local communities have organized volunteer groups to help the elderly to shop for groceries and other consumption items. For policymakers, predicting the success of such consumer information and protection programmes necessitates estimating levels of consumer helping.

Despite some recent research applying helping behaviour models to various market activities, such as protecting the environment or buying domestic products
(Granzin et al. 1991), no research has attempted to explore everyday marketplace helping behaviour. The purpose is to examine the incidence of a variety of market helping activities and hypothesize and test some potential antecedents of market helping behaviour. The researcher views market helping behaviour as falling within the theoretical domain of everyday helping behaviour (Amato 1985, 1990) and examine disposition and marketplace involvement as two potential antecedents of market helping behaviour.

2.3. Market Mavens

Market mavens have been defined as "individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information," (Feick and Price, 1987). Research demonstrates that consumers rely on market mavens for information and that mavens provide market information across a range of topics (Feick and Price, 1987; Higie, Feick, and Price, 1987; Slama and Williams, 1990). Thus, preliminary evidence suggests that market mavens act as market helpers.

Market mavens provide significantly more information about non-durables (Feick and Price, 1987) and retail information about store dimensions and types (Higie, Feick, and Price, 1987) than do other consumers. Research indicates market mavens provide greater information across a range of services, durables, and non-durables than do non-mavens (Slama and Williams, 1990). Although there has been no systematic attempt to examine the range of market mavens' assistance, there is limited evidence that market mavens may provide other forms of aid. For example, one study suggests that though market mavens do not receive more coupons, they give away four times as many coupons as non-mavens (Price, et al., 1987) suggest that market mavens
share information with others because of their interest in others' welfare, combined with their involvement in marketplace activities. Neither of these relationships, however, has been demonstrated empirically.

On the basis of prior research, Researcher expects that the market maven construct will mediate the relationship between marketplace involvement and market helping behaviour. In other words and marketplace involvement make people more likely to be market mavens, and market mavens are likely to be generally helpful in the marketplace. Thus, when the market maven construct is included in the model, the relationship between market helping behaviours and between marketplace involvement and market helping behaviours should disappear.

The market maven scale (Feick and Price, 1987) measures the extent to which persons possess general marketplace knowledge and are disposed to provide that knowledge to others. The scale consists of six Likert-type questions. Reliability and validity of the scale was established in the study and in subsequent articles (Higie et al., 1987 and Price et al., 1988). As in the previous studies, the items were measured with seven-point scales.

Zaichkowsky (1985) developed a scale to measure involvement; this scale is applicable to many types of involvement because it is independent of behaviour and product category. Researcher uses a modified version of Zaichkowsky's Personal Involvement Inventory (Higie and Feick, 1989). The modified version focuses on the hedonic component of involvement and uses five Likert-type items.

2.4. Measuring brand preferences

Consumer socialization model have been studied to investigate how socialization agents influence college students' brand preferences for athletic shoes and to examine the relationship between various demographic segments. The results of this study revealed
that socialization agents' influences on college students' brand preferences can be affected by individuals' some unique environmental status. Marketers who target college students should consider some antecedent variables that affect brand preferences to develop more useful marketing strategies. (Yoh & Taeho, 2001)

Researchers have examined that the consumer behaviors and preferences towards different kinds of extensions in fast fashion brands (FFBs). An unique evaluation model also was constructed to carry out the study. (Tsan-Ming Choi et al., 2010). The authors identified six factors, including brand loyalty, involvement, perceived quality, self-image, brand concept consistency and product feature similarity, which may affect the consumer behaviors towards brand extensions. The focus of the current study was to test and compare three existing models integrating both self-concept/product-image congruity and functional congruity, and to determine which is most predictive of consumers' brand preferences across different product categories in the context of ski equipments.

The study was done to examine the applicable brand preference model in the tradeshow industry and identify the most effective and powerful items to measure brand preference. They found and developed a theoretical model of tradeshow brand preference to the literature providing academicians a framework for understanding the unique brand associations and brand reference in the tradeshow industry. Most importantly, this research identifies unique brand association items that make up a consumer's perception of tradeshow brand meaning. (Lee, Hwabong 2003)

Consumerism in India gained a new momentum with the simplification of trade related laws and procedures. During the last two decades or so, there has been a steady increase in the number of brands for all categories of products. This could become possible with foreign companies coming to and investing in Indian market, and making all efforts to popularize their product/brand. This has generated greater competition
among producers (both domestic as well as foreign) and benefited consumers by providing them with ample opportunities to choose a product or brand of a product that suits them the most. In this research work, the authors made an attempt to analyze brand preference and brand loyalty of the people. Regarding this, they have considered three products, viz., Jeans, T-shirts and Footwear. These items were selected for the simple reason that the frequency of their change is high among youngsters. (Das Joy et al., 2012)

To identify the impacts of emotional marketing on purchase decision, a study was done by group of authors. Quantitative approach was the major method used and a self-administered questionnaire survey was conducted with sample size of 197 consumers who used the products of OMO washing powder, Neptune oil, Kotex tampon, and Red Bear noodle. The results showed that all factors of emotional marketing were positively associated with consumers’ purchase decision. In addition, this study argues that, in order to achieve high level of consumers’ purchase decision, companies employing emotional marketing should; a) focus on symbols of emotional advertising clips, b) concentrate on images of emotional advertising, and c) create self-identification elements. In addition, the empirical results showed that the purchase decision was directly affected by factors of brand recall, brand recognition and perceived quality of product. On the other hand, the factors of kind of media, meaning and form, cultural symbols indirectly affected the purchase decision. (Mai Ngoc Khuong, Vu Ngoc Bich Tram, 2014-15)

The study was carried out to understand the brand preferences which were influenced by the variables viz., brand association, brand experience and brand personality. The authors have focused that Consumers brand preferences represent a fundamental step in understanding consumer choices. A deeper understanding of such preference dynamics can help marketing mangers’ better design marketing program and build a long term relationship with consumers. Despite the existence of some studies
investigating how brand preference is built and changed, most of them focus on examining factors from consumer behavior perspective or advertising perspective. They found a conceptual framework of brand preferences from a new perspective, the consumer’s experiential view. (Reham & Ebrahim, 2011)

Two studies were conducted to obtain insights on how consumers form attitudes towards brand extensions, (i.e., use of an established brand name to enter a new product category). In one study, reactions to top 20 brand extension concepts involving six-well known brand names were examined. Attitude towards the extension was higher when (1) there was a perception of “fit” between the two product classes along one of three dimensions and a perception of high quality for the original brand or (2) the extension was not regarded as too easy to make. A second study examined the effectiveness of different positioning strategies for extensions. The experimental findings show that potentially negative associations can be neutralized more effectively by elaborating on the attributes of the brand extension than by reminding consumers of the positive associations with the original brand. (David A. Aaker and Kevin Lane Keller, 1990)

The study was done to investigate various factors that are associated with the consumption behaviour of the consumers in the Indian market. This study also tries to find out the new and emerging trends of the Indian cosmeceutical (combination of cosmetics and pharmaceuticals) industry. The research first sought to explore how different variables influence the behaviour of the consumers regarding the usage of cosmeceutical product. Various factors such as self esteem, the decision making process while purchasing the cosmeceutical products etc were also studied in depth. However this study also tries to examine the various key determinants involved in the purchasing behaviour of consumers while purchasing their cosmeceutical product. The target sample was above 15 years. The sample size is 120 and the sampling method used is the quota
sampling method. The study was conducted in six different cities of India that are Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Lucknow, Jaipur and Patna. Among these six cities three are metro cities and the rest of the three are Tier-I cities. Delhi, Mumbai and Kolkata are the metro cities and luck now, Jaipur and Patna are the Tier-I cities. The instrument used to collect primary data is the questionnaire. The data is finally analyzed through analytical software named SPSS version 18. The various analytical tests used are Correlation, ANOVA, and Post Hoc Tukey and Cross tabulation. The result of the study revealed that more of the young males were becoming aware of the cosmeceutical products. The result also revealed that the brand, quality, price and availability are certain factors that influence consumer behaviour. (Abdullah Bin Junaid, et al., 2014)

The study was carried out about the brand preferences and its effects for the exhibition. Successful exhibition branding is essential to ensure that an exhibition organizer attracts a critical number of both exhibitors and visitors to profitably operate in an ever more competitive marketplace. However, the process of developing a strong exhibition brand, and indeed, what constitutes an exhibition brand, is not well understood. This paper first presents an argument for an exhibition brand being unique and more complex than various other types of brands discussed in the literature so far. It then extends existing branding theory in the exhibition context by advancing a model of exhibition brand preference, from the perspective of exhibitors, which examines the impact on brand preference of the various components of an exhibition brand. Drawing on a survey of 600 exhibitors, study findings reveal that it is the quality of the supplier–buyer (organizer–exhibitor) relationship that primarily determines exhibition brand preference rather than the attractiveness of an exhibition destination/venue. (Xin Jin, Karin Weber, 2013)
Brand equity is a consumer’s subjective evaluation of a brand. The main sources for brand equity are brand awareness and brand image. Brand equity creates value for the consumer as well as for the company. However, if the term brand equity is used in this study, it is referred to as customer-based brand equity, i.e. the assets for the consumer and not to the brand’s financial value (Keller 2008, pp. 48 and Aaker, 1996).

The brand elements and associations defined by the brand managers responsible for the brand result in the brand identity. Thus, brand identity reflects how the company wants the brand to be seen by its customers (Keller 2008; Aaker 1996, Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000).

Brand knowledge, which contains brand awareness and brand image, is the key to creating brand equity and it represents everything a customer knows about a brand (Keller, 2008; Keller, 1993). Brand awareness is the strength of a brand’s presence in consumer’s memory and defines the ability of identification of this brand. The two main components of brand awareness are brand recall with its sub levels and brand recognition (Keller 2008 and Aaker, 1996).

Brand recognition means that the customer is able to assert previous experience to that brand when provided with a list of brand names and the recognition might even offer an approximation of potential recall-ability (Keller 2008 and Aaker, 1996). Brand elements are defined as “those trade markable devices that identify and distinguish the brand.”, e.g. brand name, URL, logo, symbol, slogans (Keller, 2008).

Brand recall means that the consumer is familiar with the brand and can recall it when the product category is given. Moreover, if the customer can recall a brand, he or she is definitely able to recognize it (Keller, 2008 and Aaker, 1996). Brand image represents the perception of a brand by its consumer and it is reflected by brand
associations (Keller, 2008 and Aaker, 1996). Brand associations contain the meaning of the brand for the consumer and reflect his perception of the brand (Keller, 2008 and Aaker, 1991). Brand personality contains the human characteristics which a consumer associates with the brand (Keller, 2008 and Aaker, 1996). Brand attitude contains the consumer’s overall opinion toward a brand – whether it is positive or negative – which can result in trust and loyalty when positive (Keller, 1993 and Aaker and Biel, 1993).

Brand awareness is not just having a slight idea about the brand; it is about having the brand knowledge about the thoughts, feelings, perceptions, metaphors, understanding, and all that becomes incorporated in the minds of the consumer. All these types of information can be thought of in terms of a set of associations to the brand in consumer memory. There are many brands which researcher daily hears about usually because of television advertising, bill boards and banners but not all of the knowledge is in our minds. A brand will have associated with it a perception of overall quality not necessarily based on a knowledge of detailed specification. The quality perception may take on somewhat different forms for different types of industries. Perceived quality means something different for Hewlett Packard or IBM than for Solomon Brothers or Tide or Heinz.

However, it will always be measurable, important brand characteristic. Perceived quality will directly influence purchase decisions and brand loyalty, especially when a buyer is not motivated or able to conduct a detailed analysis. It can also support a premium price which, in turn, can create gross margin that can be reinvested in brand equity. Further, perceived quality can be the basis for a brand extension. If a brand is well-regarded in one context, the assumption will be that it will have high quality in a related context.
The underlying value of a brand name often is based upon specific associations linked to it. Associations such as Ronald McDonald can create a positive attitude or feeling that can become linked to a brand such as McDonald’s. The link of Karl Malden to American Express provides credibility, and (to some) may stimulate confidence in the service. The association of a “use context” such as aspirin and heart-attack prevention can provide a reason-to-buy which can attract customers. A life-style or personality association may change the use experience: The Jaguar associations may make the experience of owning and driving one “different.” A strong association may be the basis of the brand extension: Hershey’s chocolate milk provides the drink with a competitive advantage based upon Hershey’s associations.

If a brand is well positioned upon a key attribute in the product class (such as service backup or technological superiority), competitors will find it hard to attack. If they attempt a frontal assault by claiming superiority via that dimension, there will be a credibility issue. It would be difficult or a competing department store to make credible a claim that it has surpassed Nordstrom on service. They may be forced to find another, perhaps inferior, basis for competition. Thus, an association can be a barrier to competitors.

### 2.5. Brand Identity and Brand Image

Kapferer (2008) defined the brand identity as a brand’s meaning as put forward by the firm. It is the way a company wants to present its brand to its target groups. Brand image, on the other hand, is the consumers’ perception and interpretation of the brand’s identity (De Pelsmacker, Geuens, & Van den Bergh, 2007). Academics typically conceptualize brand identity and image as multi-dimensional constructs of which brand personality is an important component. Keller (2008), for example, defines brand image as consisting of (1) user profiles, (2) purchase and usage situations, (3) personality and
values, and (4) history, heritage and experiences. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) organized brand identity elements around four perspectives: (1) the brand as a product, (2) the brand as an organization, (3) the brand as a person, and (4) the brand as a symbol.

Eva Martínez Salinas, Jose Miguel Pina Perez (2009) studied that how brand-extension evaluation can affect the current brand image and proposes a theoretical model formed by major factors related to brand associations, extension congruency and extension attitude. The model estimation includes structural equation analysis using data from 699 surveys developed under market conditions. The results verified that extension attitude influences brand image, whereas initial brand associations and perceived fit between the new product and either the remaining products or the brand image are able to strengthen consumer attitude. This work also explained the role of consumer innovativeness as a moderating factor and suggested that the characteristics of consumer personality could be more important than expected one.

Maria Saaksjarvi, Saeed Samiee (2011) studied about the relationships among brand identity, brand image, and brand preference in the context of cyber (pure online) and offline-based extension (traditional brick-and-mortar to online) retail brands over time. The authors have tested a conceptual model with survey data gathered over three time periods. The results of the study showed that offline-based extension brands have an advantage over cyber brands when it comes to translating a brand identity into a successful brand image, especially in the early Internet stages. Offline-based extension brands gain positive spill over effects from their offline-based counterparts, but such effects take time, and are not evident in the early Internet stage. Both types of brands have to work hard in the introductory stage to create a successful brand image that manifested into consumer preference for the brand. In connection with the Internet use, the authors
found that cyber brands have a slight disadvantage when moving from the elaboration stage to the reinforcement stage.

A. Belen del Rio, Rodolfo Vazquez, Victor Iglesias (2001) Studied that the dimensions of brand image, focusing on the functions or value of the brand as perceived by consumers. In this way, four categories of functions are identified such as guarantee, personal identification, social identification and status. By way of hypotheses, it has been proposed that these functions have a positive influence on the consumer's willingness to recommend the brand, pay a price premium for it and accept brand extensions. The hypotheses have been tested in the Spanish sports shoes market and were partially supported. The results obtained confirm the convenience of analyzing brand associations separately and enable the ascertaining of the brand associations that are the most relevant in order to attain certain consumer responses.

Building on the constructivist school of theorizing about communications, Kapferer (2008) developed a brand identity prism in which he considers a brand as a speech flowing from a sender to a receiver. He argued that the brand identity dimensions of physique (i.e., physical features and qualities) and personality (i.e., human personality traits) picture the sender. The identity dimensions reflection (i.e., image of the target group) and self-image (i.e., how the brand makes consumers feel) depict the receiver. The dimensions culture (i.e., values) and relationship (i.e., mode of conduct) form a bridge between the sender and the receiver.

Although several brand identity frameworks exist, most researchers share the opinion that brand identity (and brand personality) is best understood from the sender-side and brand image from the receiver-side perspectives. It is important to make this distinction between sender and receiver, and each of the composing elements of brand identity, not only theoretically, but also in practical measurement instruments (Azoulay &
Kapferer, 2003). Otherwise, among other things, brand and user personality get mixed up leading to unclear directions to take action in case of a gap between the desired and the perceived personalities.

### 2.6. Brand Awareness

Tsuji, Yosuke (2007) studied that brand awareness levels of virtual advertising in sport. More specifically, this study explored factors affecting brand awareness communicated through virtual advertising in a sport broadcast. Particularly, this study focused on the factors such as baseball involvement, team identification, animation, and repetition. The results suggested an effect of repetition on unaided recall levels. At the recognition level, repetition had an interaction with baseball involvement, but no other effects were found. Additionally, animation was found to be ineffective in attracting viewers' attention; however, animation had an interactive effect with repetition on unaided recall. The effects of baseball involvement and team identification were found to affect awareness levels, but were inconsistent in prediction.

Kwun, Joon-Wuk (2004) examined that the importance of recognizing the role of brand-specific associations (i.e., product and service quality, brand image, brand awareness) and brand portfolio effects (i.e., brand attitude toward the parent brand, familiarity, and fit) in consumer evaluations of extended brands. The conceptual relationships proposed and examined in this study seem to possess predictive validity, to some degree, in understanding lodging customers' brand attitude formation process for extended brands. Findings of the study suggested, in general, that both brand-specific associations and brand portfolios play an important role in consumer evaluations of extended brands.
Rao G Srinivas (2002) studied that rural India buys small packs, as they are perceived as value for money. There is brand stickiness, where a consumer buys a brand out of habit and not really by choice. Brands rarely fight for market share; they just have to be visible in the right place. Even expensive brands, such as Close-Up, Marie biscuits and Clinic shampoo are doing well because of deep distribution, many brands are doing well without much advertising support — Ghadi, a big detergent brand in North India, is an example. Srinivas (2002) further studied that rural consumers have a very high preference for credit in their purchase. Only one tenth of consumers, most of them coming from High Income Groups (HIG) and Middle Income Groups (MIG), do not seem to prefer credit. A properly designed credit facility would boost the rural markets and go a long way in firming them up.

Financial express, (2000) has published the strategy about FMCG majors, HLL, Marico Industries, Colgate Palmolive have a formula for rural markets. The language and content must be according to the suitability of rural environment. On information search, Rao G Srinivas (2002) revealed the fact that the awareness of the consumers about various products/brands plays a significant role in promoting a particular brand. Hence, a marketer needs to focus his attention primarily on the major source of information for the rural consumers. The main sources of information for a rural consumer are found to be friends, radio, TV, New paper, Cinema, retailers etc. Consumers appear to have high willingness to pay for particular brands, even when the alternatives are objectively similar. The majority of consumers typically buy a single brand of beer, cola, or margarine (Dekimpe et al. 1997), even though relative prices vary significantly over time, and consumers often cannot distinguish their preferred brand in blind “taste tests” (Thumin 1962, Allison and Uhl 1964). Consumers pay large premia to buy homogeneous goods like books and CDs from branded online retailers, even when they are using a
“shopbot” that eliminates search costs (Smith and Brynjolfsson 2001). A large fraction of consumers buy branded medications, even though chemically equivalent generic substitutes are available at the same stores for much lower prices (Ling et al. 2002).

2.7. Perceived Quality

Quality is discussed in terms of perceived quality, a perception process that may have a different content for various persons, products and places. Several elements of an integrative model of the quality perception process are addressed. Quality cues can be intrinsic or extrinsic and are used by consumers to form more abstract beliefs about the quality of a product. Experience quality attributes are based on actual consumption while credence quality attributes remain purely cognitive. The quality perception model can be used to bridge the gap between producer defined quality and consumer based quality perception. This quality guidance approach offers a useful framework for further identification and measurement of relevant quality parameters which influence the brand preferences. (Peter et al., 1995)

The “meaning” of a brand resides in the minds of consumers, based on what they have learned, felt, seen, and heard over time. This study explored that the relationship between quality and image with special attention on brands plagued with negative impressions, including instances where consumers' perceptions of a product's quality conflict with its perceived “image”. Data confirm that quality and image impact attitudes in a distinct manner, and overall, low brand image is more damaging than low quality. In addition, findings showed that (1) hedonic attitudes towards brands are most driven by image, whereas utilitarian attitude formation/change processes are dominated by quality, (2) non-attribute brand beliefs are a stronger predictor of hedonic attitudes when quality or image is low versus high, while (3) attribute-based beliefs are strong predictors of utilitarian attitudes across image and quality levels. In this work, researchers
have studied the factors such as Brand image, Perceived image, Perceived quality and Brand attitude. (Pamela Miles Homer, 2008).

The study was conducted to support managerial practice and help improve analytical models in retailing; this article extended the literature on processes in the psychological chain of effects from perceived quality to customer loyalty by making three original and fundamental contributions. Based on multilevel structural equation modelling of consumer data from Bolivia, Japan, and the USA, it has revealed that product beliefs mediate this chain of effects and that cross-over effects connect rational and emotional processes within this chain. This study developed a four-stage model from perceived quality to customer loyalty. (Bjorn Frank, Boris Herbas Torrico, Takao Enkawa, Shane J. Schvaneveldt, 2014) The amount and type of consumer experience were dealt in this work and the results hold across four retailing contexts viz., Customer loyalty; Perceived quality; Customer satisfaction and Product experience.

A study explored that the direct and indirect (through retailer perceived quality and purchase intention) impacts of retailer personality on store loyalty. Questionnaire was used to collect data using systematic sampling from non-food retail store shoppers of age 18 years and above in Kolkata, a metropolitan city of India. Multivariate data analysis techniques like structural equation modelling were used to analyze the data. Results supported both the direct and indirect impacts of retailer personality on retailer equity. (Gopal Das 2014) Interestingly, the extent of indirect impact of retailer personality on retailer loyalty is greater than direct impact. This paper explored the linkages among retailer personality, perceived quality, and purchase intention and store loyalty. The findings had implications for retailing theory and managerial practice also.

In order to address a lack of comprehensive evaluation of restaurant quality, this study was extended Mehrabian and Russell's stimulus–organism–response framework by
incorporating restaurant-specific stimuli and including restaurant-specific measures of emotion. Using structural equation modelling, this study revealed that atmospherics and service function as stimuli that enhance positive emotions while product attributes, such as food quality, act to relieve negative emotional responses. (SooCheong (Shawn) Jang, Young Namkung 2009) Results also suggested that positive emotions were mediated the relationship between atmospherics/services and future behavioural outcomes. The results were theoretically and practically meaningful because they addressed the relationships among three types of perceived quality (product, atmospherics, and service), customer emotions (positive/negative), and behavioural intentions in the restaurant consumption experience.

2.8. Brand Loyalty

The brand loyalty of the customer base is often the core of a brand’s equity. If customers are indifferent to the brand and, in fact, buy with respect to features, price, and convenience with little concern to the brand name, there is likely little equity. If, on the other hand, they continue to purchase the brand even in the face of competitors with superior features, price, and convenience, substantial value exists in the brand and perhaps in its symbol and slogans.

Brand loyalty, long a central construct in marketing, is a measure of the attachment that a customer has to a brand. It reflects how likely to be customer will be to switch another brand, especially when that brand makes a change, either in price or in product features. As brand loyalty increases, the vulnerability of the customer base to competitive action is reduced. It is one indicator of brand equity which is demonstrably linked to future profits, since brand loyalty directly translates into future sales.

Each level represents a different marketing challenge and a different type of asset to manage and exploit. All may not be represented in a specific product class or market.
The bottom loyalty level is the non-loyal buyer who is completely indifferent to the brand, each brand is perceived to be adequate and the brand name plays a little role in the purchase decision. Whatever is on sale or convenient is preferred, this buyer might be termed a switcher or price buyer.

The second level includes buyers who are satisfied with the product or at least not dissatisfied. Basically, there is no dimension of dissatisfaction that is sufficient to stimulate a change especially if that change involves effort. These buyers might be termed habitual buyers. Such segments can be vulnerable to competitors that can create a visible benefit to switching. However, they can be difficult to reach since there is no reason for them to be on the lookout for alternatives.

The third level consists of those who are also satisfied and, in addition, have switching costs—costs in time, money, or performance risk associated with switching. Perhaps they are invested in learning a system associated with a brand, as in the MicroPro case. Or perhaps there is a risk that another brand may not function as well in a particular use context. To attract these buyers, competitors need to overcome the switching costs by offering an inducement to switch or by offering a benefit large enough to compensate. This group might be called switching-cost loyal. On the fourth level, the researcher finds those that truly like the brand. Their preference may be based upon an association such as a symbol, a set of use experiences, or a high perceived quality. However, liking is often a general feeling that cannot be closely traced to anything specific; it has a life of its own. People are not always able to identify why they like something (or someone), especially if the relationship has been a long one. Sometimes just the fact that there has been a long-term relationship can create a powerful affect even in the absence of a friendly symbol or other identifiable contributor to liking. Segments at this fourth level might be termed friends of the brand because there is an emotional/feeling attachment.
The top levels are committed customers. They have a pride of discovering and/or being users of the brand. The brand is very important to them either functionally or as an expression of who they are. Their confidence is such that they will recommend the brand to others. The value of the committed customer is not so much the business he or she generates but, rather, the impact upon others and upon the market itself. The ultimate committed customer is the Harley Davidson rider who wears the Harley symbol as a tattoo, the Macintosh user who attends shows and will spend considerable effort to ensure that an acquaintance does not buy IBM and forego the pleasure of the user friendly Macintosh, or the Beetle owner of the 1960’s who flaunted the funkiness of the car. A brand that has a substantial group of extremely involved and committed customers might be termed as charismatic brand. Not all brands should aspire to be charismatic, of course, but when a Macintosh, NEXT, Beetle, or Harley does achieve that aura, there can be a big payoff.

These five levels are stylized; they do not always appear in the pure form and others could be conceptualized. For example, there will be customers who will appear to have some combination of these levels- i.e., buyers who like the brand and have switching costs. Others may have profile somewhat different from those represented-i.e., those who are dissatisfied but have sufficient switching costs to continue buying the brand in spite of being dissatisfied. These five levels do, however, provide a feeling for the variety of forms that loyalty can take and how it impacts upon brand equity.

Matrade (2005), studied a lot of aspects related to consumer behaviour in India and found that Indian consumers are deeply concerned with the traditions, values and they consider their family advice in the purchase decisions. About rural Indian consumer, the study revealed that rural consumers in India are changing rapidly related to the education, awareness of the products. Through internet, now they are connected with the
whole world. (Janmejaya Sinha and Arvind Subramanian, 2007) studied the next billion consumers. Rural Indian consumers are now richer and they are contributing more in the total purchases.

John Mano Raj S & Selvaraj P, (2007) explored about social changes and the growth of Indian Rural Markets with reference to FMCG products. The study concluded that FMCG companies would have to really gain inroads in the rural markets in order to achieve double-digit growth target in future. The winner would be the one with the required resources like time and money and also with the much needed innovative ideas to tap the rural markets.

There are lots of factors influencing the buyers to select the particular product in the competitive market. The researchers have been studied and identified the factors viz., quality, price, types & varieties of products and marketing strategies towards the brand loyalty of the consumers. These factors are acting as the mediating variables for the brand preferences of the consumers with respect to selective products of packaged milk. Further, the research results revealed that “In order to maintain the customer brand loyalty, packaged milk brands need to strengthen their unique strategies and proposed research model developed by this research”. (Vijay Anand et al., 2013).

Marketing academics and practitioners have acknowledged that consumers look for brands that provide them with unique and memorable experiences. As a result, the concept of brand experience has become of great interest to marketers. The present field study, conducted with actual consumers, addresses the question whether different consumers prefer different experiential appeals and whether experiential types create the relationships between brand experiences, satisfaction, trust and loyalty. Brand experience is conceptualized as sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging,
communications, and environments. Brand experience affects satisfaction, trust and loyalty. From the customer viewpoint, brands are relationship builders. In this present research, the authors proposed the effects of brand experiences to build long-lasting brand and customer relationship with brand trust, satisfaction, and loyalty. The study was conducted on 258 respondents. As a result of this study, brand experiences, satisfaction, trust have positively affected brand loyalty. (Azize Sahin et al., 2011).

Anca. E et al., (2007) studied that brand's image has a more specific influence on the customers' perceptions of product and service quality while the company's reputation has a broader influence on perceptions of customer value and customer loyalty. (Radha Chandrasekharan, Patrick S. McCarthy, Gordon P. Wright, 1994), This article addresses the question of consumer heterogeneity, explores the relationship between brand loyalty and singleton choice sets and estimates alternative structural models that are based on the common assumption that consumers are of two types: brand loyal and shoppers, who face the entire set of available choices.

Irem Eren Erdoğmuş, Mesut Cicek, (2012) studied about the effect of social media marketing on brand loyalty of the consumers. The concept and study consists of customers who follow at least one brand on the social media in Turkey and the data were collected through the questionnaire 338 size of sample and tested through the multiple regression analysis. The authors found that brand loyalty of the customers is positively affected when the brand (1) offers advantageous campaigns, (2) offers relevant content, (3) offers popular contents, (4) appears on various platforms and offers applications on social media.

Mijeong Kim, et al., (2010) focused that the South Korean consumers’ brand value and brand loyalty toward foreign luxury fashion brands and current distribution channels for those brands (i.e., Department stores/Specialty stores, Factory outlet, Internet
retailing, and TV home shopping). The study explored about the impact of channel diversification on consumers’ brand value and brand loyalty toward foreign luxury fashion brands. In this work, the participants evaluated brand value differently depending on the type of distribution channel. The authors have suggested that possible distribution channel options for foreign luxury brands to be successful in the Korean market and values they need to put an importance depending on the retail types. This research results are applicable for the luxury brands to their own markets.

John Dawes (2014) studied about the cigarette purchasing using an extensive panel dataset. They found that “(1) cigarette purchasing in this market exhibits a reverse-J, or NBD (Negative Binomial Distribution)-like shape: many infrequent buyers and fewer frequent buyers; (2) Cigarette brands do exhibit high loyalty compared to other consumer categories, and show a trend to higher brand loyalty over time coinciding with fewer price promotions; (3) The data shows a weak double jeopardy pattern of smaller brands enjoying somewhat lower loyalty; (4) Smokers of a given brand are on average more likely to purchase another large cigarette brand than another small brand; (5) A straightforward analysis method identifies occurrences of excessive cross-brand cannibalization in the portfolio of one of the major tobacco corporations; and (6) Certain brands enjoy particular appeal among specific demographic groups. The study sheds more light on consumer behavior towards a product with addictive qualities and known negative effects”.

The study was carried out to find out the brand loyalty and its impact on buying behavior of women consumer for beauty care products in Delhi region. They have focused that the buying behavior of consumer in relation to beauty products. Woman buying behaviours have been studied because women are the ones who are engrossed in purchasing beauty care products. Brand loyalty can be anticipated from women
consumers when, they deem for quality and brand while purchasing beauty care products. Women buyers buy same brands out of their habit. (Anjali et al., 2013). They are customary of their favourite brands, which they are having. Thus, they have similar buying patterns of beauty products. On the contrary, respondents do love trying new products. Further they found that the brand ambassadors are least measured when they purchase beauty care products and price and brand image of products are two majorly elected features affecting their preference for selecting a particular brand.

Brand associations are a core part of Consumer Based Brand Equity (CBBE), and behavioural brand loyalty is a desirable outcome of CBBE. The results showed a positive relationship, where those with a higher buying frequency and a higher share of category requirements are more likely to give brand associations. The findings also showed that share of category requirements is a greater driver of brand association responses than buying frequency. This finding suggested that the use of competitors has a greater dampening effect on brand associations than the reinforcement effect of repeated brand buying. These results have important implications for modelling brand associations, particularly using cross-sectional data. (Jenni et al., 2013).

Thus this chapter presented a detailed explanation of the concepts used in the study and also highlighted various relevant reviews of literature. Based on the literature review, dependent and independent variables were identified by the researcher for the study, which were analysed and presented in chapter 4. The following chapter discusses the methodology which deals with the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, hypotheses of the study, research design, sampling design, data collection method, reliability statistics, internal validity, statistical tools used for analysis and the proposed theoretical model for the study.