CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT AND ADVERTISING MESSAGE STRATEGY: AN APPLICATION OF THE STIMULUS ORGANISM RESPONSE MODEL

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DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

JULY 2020
DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis, which I now submit for examination for the award of Doctor of Philosophy, is entirely my own work and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in the work have been fully acknowledged.

This thesis has been prepared according to the regulations for postgraduate study by the University of Ghana.

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CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this thesis was supervised in accordance with procedures laid down by the University of Ghana, Legon.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my darling husband and our precious daughter. Thank you for your love, patience and encouragement throughout my period of study. Thank you, my dear, for putting up with me all this while as I worked on this thesis. I would not have been able to make it without your support. God richly bless you.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Thank You, Lord Jesus, for being so merciful toward me. If it had not been for Your mercy and grace, I surely would have given up along the way.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>AMOS</td>
<td>Analysis of Moments of Structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE</td>
<td>Average Variance Extracted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2B</td>
<td>Business to Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2C</td>
<td>Business to Consumer</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2C</td>
<td>Consumer to Consumer</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>Comparative Fit Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>Composite Reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVLA</td>
<td>Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCB</td>
<td>Foote, Cole and Belding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDA</td>
<td>Food and Drugs Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>G-D Logic</td>
<td>Goods-Dominant Logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNA</td>
<td>Ghana News Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANOVA</td>
<td>Multivariate Analysis of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercedes-AMG</td>
<td>Mercedes Aufrecht Melcher Großaspach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSI</td>
<td>Marketing Science Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSV</td>
<td>Maximum Shared Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAD</td>
<td>Pleasure, Arousal, Dominance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-D Logic</td>
<td>Service-Dominant Logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-O-R</td>
<td>Stimulus-Organism-Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>Standardised Root Mean Residual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSAL</td>
<td>Silver Star Auto Limited</td>
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<td>WOM</td>
<td>Word of Mouth</td>
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ABSTRACT

It has been documented in the literature that customer engagement, defined as “customers’ behavioural manifestation toward a brand or firm, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers”, leads to increased profits, sustained differentiation and superior competitive advantage. Scholars for a while have therefore focused on understanding the dynamics of this concept and, in particular, the factors that account for it. They have particularly called for studies that focus on message strategies that are employed in advertisement on social media which is a form of customer engagement. Others have asserted that such studies should be conducted in unexplored areas like Africa, South America and the Middle East. (Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016b). This study, therefore sought to examine the customer engagement and advertising message strategy within the Ghanaian context. The objectives of this research include to determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude, to highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude, to ascertain if the emotions of pleasure and arousal, derived from an advertising message strategy stimulus leads to customer engagement, and to uncover if attitude towards advertisement is a determinant of customer engagement. The study draws on the stimulus-organism response model and Taylor’s (1999) advertising message strategy and aims to provide insights into the most effective advertising message strategies for both hedonic (luxury) and utilitarian (functional) products. Through an extensive literature review, a conceptual framework and empirical results from over 400 individuals in top to middle-level management, the study employs a within-subjects quasi experimental research, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), confirmatory factor
analyses along with structural equation modelling. The findings of the research show that for hedonic products, the most effective ritual message strategy is the social strategy, which has the most effect on emotions and attitude towards the advertisement. This is followed by the ego and then finally the sensory message strategies. In addition, the findings also show that for utilitarian products, all transmission message strategies have virtually the same effect on attitudes and emotions. Finally, regarding the relationship between emotions, attitude towards the advertisement and customer engagement, the study finds that pleasure and attitude towards the advertisement have a significantly positive effect on customer engagement. From the findings, it is recommended that marketers should craft advertisements for hedonic products using the social message strategy in order to stimulate the emotions and attitude of customers. Also, when advertising utilitarian products, marketers are at liberty to choose among the transmission strategies.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW
This chapter discusses the background to the study, research problem, research aim and objectives and research questions. The study’s significance and organisation are further discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY
Competition within the global economy is reaching heightened levels of fierceness and myriad companies “battle” for virtually the same markets. The breakdown of trade barriers in some countries and the onset of technology in the form of e-commerce has meant the customer now has a wide range of product and service providers from which to choose (Cuillierier, 2016). Not only are the customers exposed to similar products and services from their home countries, they now have the luxury of making purchases overseas at the simple touch of a button. Hence, for firms to stand out, relying on the elements of the traditional marketing mix and on the management practices of years gone by can no longer suffice (see Gronroos, 1997). Even more startling is the reality that merely seeking to satisfy the customer does not necessarily provide sustained immunity from the pressures of competition (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Pansari and Kumar (2017, p. 294) put it this way:

…both managers and academicians understand that over the course of time, it is not enough to simply satisfy the customer to make him/her loyal and profitable. Profitable loyalty and satisfaction need
to be evolved to a higher level, a level of desired differentiation and of sustainable competitive advantage.

In a bid to mitigate against the current pressures of competition, management seems to have shifted from a preoccupation with selling and the benefits of relationships to now “engaging” with actual and potential customers on all fronts and in every way possible (Sawhney, Verona & Prandelli, 2005; Wang, 2006; Kumar et al., 2008; Wang, 2010). The aim now is to emotionally connect with the customer in such a way that (s)he becomes bonded with the firm, remains loyal, makes repeat purchases, and ultimately on their own becomes a brand ambassador (Kumar & Pansari, 2016). According to Pansari & Kumar (2017, p. 295):

Firms have been slowly shifting their focus from the objective of selling to emotionally connecting with their customers with the hope of generating sales and ultimately ensuring a lifetime of profitable loyalty. In other words, a firm’s focus is shifting to personalising interactions, delighting its audience, and understanding customers’ unique challenges to make their lives better and involving them as spokespersons of the firm.

It is this bonding (engagement), that scholars have discovered, leads to sustained differentiation, cost reduction (Thomas, 2011), sales growth (Neff, 2007 as cited in Hollebeek, 2012), profitability (Voyles, 2007) and superior competitive advantage (Sedley, 2008). Engagement, according to Pansari and Kumar (2017), is “the mechanics of a customer’s value addition to the firm, either through direct or/and indirect contribution” (pg. 295).

Evidence from a cursory examination of practitioner forums and conferences on engagement reveals the increased interest in engagement in industry. For instance, the Customer Engagement Summit, heralded as Europe’s biggest customer and
employee engagement event, boasts such big names as Accenture, AT&T, Bosch, DHL, Financial Times, McDonalds, Mercedes Benz, Virgin Atlantic as past delegates since its inception about eight years ago (Engage Customer, 2018). Additionally, that majority of the topic streams for the November 2018 edition of the summit bordered on how to engage customers is in itself indicative of the active interest industry has in the topic of engagement (Engage Customer, 2018).

Despite its popularity in the business world and development in practitioner literature, there is limited understanding of the concept of engagement in marketing academic research (van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2012). Relative to other concepts deemed similar to it such as involvement and satisfaction, there is a deficit of empirical studies on engagement (Bitter & Grabner-Kräuter, 2016). Additionally, what exists tends to be focused on what Barger, Peltier and Schultz (2016) term “consumer-based” antecedent factors and consequences of engagement (see for example, Packard & Wooten, 2013; Goldsmith et al., 2013; Blazevic et al., 2014; Barasch & Berger, 2014; Eisingerich et al., 2015; VanMeter et al., 2015; Carvalho, 2016). In other words, current engagement research bordering on antecedents and consequences majorly centres on variables dependent on customers’ goals, traits and resources (Islam & Rahman, 2016b). Firm-specific antecedent factors (that is to say, those factors that firms control, such as brand characteristics, service quality and improved work environment) are not employed as much as the former (Islam & Rahman, 2016b).
Scholars have called for more research on firm-specific antecedent factors of customer engagement, particularly advertising (see Islam & Rahman, 2016b; Barger et al., 2016). In a 2018 special issue of the Journal of Advertising, it was revealed that scholarly work on advertising and customer engagement was lacking and there was the need for research into the same (Rodgers & Thorson, 2018). Lamberton and Stephen (2016), Gavilanes, Flatten and Brettel (2018) and Kim, Ahn, Kwon and Reid (2017), made similar assertions, arguing for the conduct of empirical research into advertising and customer engagement on social media. It is interesting to note that despite the existence of findings that imply that firm-specific factors, such as the tools, strategies and channels a brand uses have an impact on consumers’ propensity to engage with a brand, (see for example Ashley & Tuten, 2015) to this date there is a relative paucity of research that specifically addresses advertising as a tool for engagement on social media (Rodgers & Thorson, 2018). This is alarming considering the fact that advertising is one of the most resource-intensive investments a firm can make, inevitable for firm survival (Park & John, 2012).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RESEARCH GAPS
Generally speaking, there is a call for the growth of research into advertising and customer engagement (Islam & Rahman, 2016b; Barger et al., 2016; Lamberton & Stephen, 2016; Kim, Ahn, Kwon & Reid, 2017; Gavilanes, Flatten & Brettel, 2018). This is because despite the fact that advertising plays a central role in business, it generally is not an area that has received much attention in the customer engagement literature.
Limited extant scholarly work enables us understand that customer engagement can be a precursor to advertising effectiveness (e.g. Calder, Malthouse & Schaedel, 2009). However, with regard to advertising’s impact on customer engagement on social media, not much work has been carried out, except for a few studies (see Roberts & Alpert, 2010; Islam & Rahman, 2016b). Though these report that advertising has an effect on customer engagement, scholars have called for more research into this particular area to generate further understanding (Brettel et al., 2015; Khang, Ki & Ye, 2012; Okazaki & Taylor, 2013) particularly with regard to message strategies that are employed in advertisements on social media (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Tafesse & Wien, 2018; Gavilanes, Flatten & Brettel, 2018).

Although some prior research has examined the link between advertising message strategy and customer engagement (e.g. Swani et al., 2013; Araujo et al., 2015; Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Kim et al., 2015; Swani et al., 2016; Gavilanes et al., 2018), insights that have emerged from these few studies have been far from consistent. This, according to Tafesse and Wien (2018), is due to the diverse ways in which the message strategies have typically been defined and conceptualised in the extant literature. Theory-based approaches that in a comprehensive manner define and conceptualise message strategy have for the most part been lacking (Tafesse & Wien, 2018).

Literature makes it clear that advertising message strategies generally take two basic approaches (1) transmission/informational and (2) ritual/transformational which are further broken down into sub-strategies (see Carey, 1975; Wells, 1980;
Laskey et al., 1989; Taylor, 1999). The type of product/service to be advertised typically determines the approach to be used (Holbrook & O’Shaughnessy, 1984; Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Shavitt, 1990, 1992; Rodgers & Thorson, 2012; Ahn et al., 2013; Behboudi et al., 2014). Specifically, scholars have stated that for products that are purchased for hedonic (pleasure/luxury) purposes, a ritual/transformational approach should be used (Ahn et al., 2013; Lynn, 2015; Klein & Melnyk, 2016) whereas a transmission/informational approach is to be employed for those that are purchased mainly for utilitarian (functional) reasons (Ahn et al., 2013; Behboudi et al., 2014; Kleinc & Melnyk, 2016). Most studies to date, however, and to the best of this researcher’s knowledge, seem to overlook this and are equivocal in showing which transmission and ritual strategies are the most effective in generating customer engagement as far as hedonic and utilitarian products are concerned. Specifically, most studies conclude that strategies that fall within the transformational approach are most effective, regardless of product type. This arguably is not practical, considering the fact that this “one-size fit all” approach propounded by previous studies does not take into account the fact that not all products and services can be advertised with one particular approach. This study was poised to contribute to literature by taking main advertising message strategies traditionally used for hedonic and those for utilitarian products and seeing which of them is a greater generator of customer engagement.

1.2.1 Gaps in Theoretical Approaches

The customer engagement literature seems to majorly rely on (1) relationship marketing (e.g. Bowden, 2009; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013; Hollebeek, 2011; Vivek et al., 2012, 2014; Cambra-Fierro et al., 2013, 2015; Islam & Rahman, 2016b) and
(2) service dominant logic theories to explain the concept of customer engagement (e.g. Brodie et al., 2011, 2013; Hollebeek, 2011; Breidbach et al., 2014; Chathoth et al., 2014; Vivek et al., 2014).

In recent times, however, there seems to be a slight shift towards adopting other theories, particularly personal behaviour theories (see Islam & Rahman, 2016b). According to Islam and Rahman (2016b), these theories exemplify customer behaviour (from intent to actual deed) at the individual or personal level. Notable among this group of theories is Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model. According to it, stimuli in the environment provoke the emotional (pleasure and arousal) and attitudinal responses of an individual, which then drive a behavioural response (Donovan & Rositer, 1982). In the literature it has been employed to explain the effect of (1) online environmental characteristics (Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Zimmerman, 2012; Melton, 2013; Demangeot & Broderick, 2016; Sahoo & Pillai, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018; Claffey & Brady, 2014; Islam & Rahman, 2017), and (2) company strategies (Palmet & Ghasemi, 2019; Choi & Kandampully, 2019) on customer engagement. It has, arguably, not been applied to study the impact of advertising message strategy on customer engagement.

Aside these studies, fairly none of the empirical works on advertising and customer engagement have been situated on the foundations of the stimulus-organism-response model at the time of this review. Despite the fact that there has been some work (though scant) in relation to the application of this theory in the broader
customer engagement literature, the question of how message strategy acts as a stimulus to generate customer engagement remains to some extent unexplored.

This research approaches the study of customer engagement from the perspective that stimuli in the form of advertising message strategies affect the internal emotional and attitudinal states of the individual customer and as a result, elicit customer engagement. In light of this, the more popular theories of relationship marketing and service dominant logic are not suited for this work. The use of the stimulus-organism-response model is in addition a response to the call for the further application of personal behaviour theories in customer engagement research (see Islam & Rahman, 2016b).

1.2.2 Gaps in Context

The current customer engagement research stream mostly emanates from Europe, North America (particularly the United States of America), and Australasia (Australia and New Zealand). Very few works originate from Asia, particularly China, India, Korea and Singapore. With regard to developing regions (i.e. Africa, Middle East and South America), research is scarce, to say the least. An internet search of extant customer engagement studies emerging from Africa using Science Direct, Emerald, Scopus, JSTOR and Google Scholar academic databases, for instance, yielded very few results. Additionally, what emerged centred on the effect of trust (Kosiba et al., 2018), brand attachment (Hinson et al., 2019) and relationship marketing (van Tonder & Petzer, 2018) on customer engagement.
Engagement is contextual in nature (Sprott et al., 2009 as cited in Hollebeek, 2011; Verhoef, Reinartz, & Krafft, 2010), and in fact, as van Doorn et al. (2010) reveal, contextual factors (e.g. political, legal and economic climate) have an impact on it. Prior research having been conducted mainly in regions which arguably bare some semblance to each other in terms of the aforementioned contextual factors could mean that to some extent, extant customer engagement research is somewhat biased to those contexts. As a result, and for the purpose of enriching “the emerging research area of customer engagement” (Islam & Rahman, 2016b), calls have been made for the emergence of studies from largely unexplored regions, particularly Africa, South America, and the Middle East (Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016b). Many opportunities for multinational enterprises abound in these developing markets and insights from same would prove useful.

1.3 RESEARCH AIM, OBJECTIVES

The central question posed for the current study is “What advertising message strategy is most effective in enabling firms realise customer engagement on social media?”

Using the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model as the theoretical lens through which to view and explain the advertising message strategy and customer engagement phenomenon, this research seeks to provide insights into the most effective advertising message strategies for both hedonic and utilitarian products. The S-O-R model argues that individuals react behaviourally to stimuli in the environment because of the emotions of pleasure and arousal as well as the attitude
they have towards the stimuli when they come into contact with the stimuli. With this understanding, this current research seeks to contribute to existing literature by achieving the following objectives:

1. To determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude

2. To highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude

3. To ascertain if the emotions of pleasure and arousal, derived from an advertising message strategy stimulus, leads to customer engagement.

4. To uncover if attitude towards advertisement is a determinant of customer engagement.

1.4 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

From an academic standpoint, there have been calls for research on the effect of advertising, with particular reference to message strategy, on customer engagement as highlighted in previous paragraphs. This is because to a large extent it has been ignored in the literature (Brettel et al., 2015; Khang, Ki & Ye, 2012; Okazaki & Taylor, 2013; Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Tafesse & Wien, 2018; Gavilanes et al., 2018). This study, in that regard, is a response to this academic call. The current study in its uniqueness will also contribute to existing literature on customer engagement by providing evidence from a developing country, which has been
scant, and for which reasons scholars have made calls for same (Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016b).

This study employs the S-O-R model in order to address some of the gaps identified. It is positioned to add on to the body of knowledge in marketing and in particular enhance the customer engagement discourse regarding advertising message strategies. This study is not only relevant but also timely, given the importance of advertising in a firm’s long-term survival (Park & John, 2012).

Recent developments in Ghanaian industry with particular reference to the creation of new portfolios in the form of customer engagement officers/managers (Ghana Guardian, 2018) and firms’ drives to create opportunities to engage with customers (thebftonline, 2019) show the growth in interest among industry players in engaging customers. In recent times there has also been a mass adoption of social media in Ghana and firms upload brand-related content and advertisements in a bid to directly engage with their customers (GhanaWeb, 2014; Amponsah-Twumasi, 2016). Recently, there was a call for the development of social media guidelines in order to help Ghanaian firms navigate social media to achieve business goals (Ansah, 2014). This study is thus significant in attempting to provide some guidelines regarding company advertisements on social media that will ultimately lead to the achievement of corporate goals.
In respect of policy, this study will create more awareness on the most suitable message strategy for customer engagement for both hedonic and utilitarian products.

1.5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF ENGAGEMENT FOR THIS STUDY

From a scholarly standpoint, there is as yet no agreed-upon definition of engagement in marketing literature and this may be related to the fact that there are inconsistencies regarding its nature and dimensionality (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016). Some authors opine that the concept is one-dimensional (e.g. Sprott et al., 2009), whereas others maintain that it is multidimensional, comprising either two or three dimensions (e.g. Bowden, 2009; Mollen & Wilson, 2010; van Doon et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011; Vivek et al., 2014; Bowden et al., 2015, 2017).

According to Mollen and Wilson (2010), for instance, engagement is “the cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand as personified by the website or other computer-mediated entities designed to communicate brand value”. Additionally, Bowden (2009) defines engagement as an emotional and cognitive psychological process. Hollebeek (2011, p. 790) also views engagement as “the level of a customer’s motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterised by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in brand interactions”. Sedley (2007 in Chaffey, 2007) additionally define engagement as “repeated interactions that strengthen the emotional, psychological (cognitive) and physical (behavioural) investment a customer has in a brand.”
Despite the existence of other definitions and conceptualisations of the concept as indicated above, for the purposes of this study, Pansari and Kumar’s (2017) definition and multi-dimensional conceptualisation of engagement is adopted. According to this conceptualisation, engagement comprises buying/purchase, referring, influencing and feedback and is “the mechanics of a customer’s value addition to the firm, either through direct or/and indirect contribution” (pg. 295).

Other definitions tend to exclude transactional customer behaviour (e.g. purchase), which, this study opines, is fundamental to the existence of the firm. For instance, van Doorn et al. (2010, pg. 254) define engagement as “customers’ behavioural manifestation toward a brand or firm, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers”. This implies the exclusion of purchase as a customer engagement behaviour manifestation. Just as this definition indicates, engagement arises from certain motivational triggers, which, we agree. However, to exclude purchase from customer engagement is somewhat erroneous. First of all, it is only natural to consider purchase as one of the means through which a customer interacts or engages with a firm and secondly, it is a behavioural manifestation that can follow motivational drivers (Kumar et al., 2010). Subsequent chapters will discuss this conceptualisation in detail.

1.6 SYNOPSIS OF CHAPTERS AND STRUCTURE OF THESIS

After this introductory chapter, this is how the remainder of the research is structured: chapter 2 is the context of the study. It is devoted to discussions on Ghana, a hedonic product (Mercedes-Benz) and utilitarian product (Pepsodent
toothpaste). Issues outlined here include a brief overview of the Ghanaian economy (including demographic information); key developments in same, and a discussion on the two brands in question. Chapter 3 is a review of literature on the engagement concept. It begins with a brief synopsis of the concepts from across disciplines and then narrows to the marketing literature. This is done to examine the current state of literature in order to identify existing gaps this thesis is to fill. Following from this, Chapter 4 provides an overview of theories that have characteristically underpinned engagement research and culminates in discussions on the selected theory for this study. It then proceeds with a discussion culminating in a set of testable hypotheses. This is designed to guide the analysis and collection of empirical data for the study.

Chapter 5 discusses the methodological considerations related to this research. It examines the research design, and the empirical data collection approach employed in this study. Chapter 6 is the data presentation chapter. Chapter 7 is a comprehensive discussion of findings based on the various hypotheses and objectives outlined in this introductory chapter. Finally, chapter 8 discusses the managerial and theoretical contributions of the study. It also includes the limitations of the study and directions for future research.
CHAPTER TWO

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter reviews journal articles, magazines as well as internet publications on the Ghanaian economy, Ghanaian automobile and consumer goods industries respectively and then proceeds to specific discussions on Mercedes Benz and Pepsodent toothpaste, the two specific brands chosen for this particular study.

2.1 ABOUT THE NATION OF GHANA

The Republic of Ghana, previously referred to as the “Gold Coast”, is a West African country bounded by Burkina Faso in the north, the Gulf of Guinea/Atlantic Ocean in the south, Togo in the east and Ivory Coast in the west (WorldAtlas, 2017). It covers an area of approximately 238,533 km sq., or 92,098 sq. miles (Government of Ghana, 2019). It was the first African country to be liberated from colonial rule, led by its founding fathers namely, late, William Ofori Atta, Ebenezer Ako-Adjei, Dr Kwame Nkrumah, Edward Akuffo-Addo, Emmanuel Obetsebi-Lamptey, and Joseph Boakye Danquah (Embassy of Ghana The Hague, 2019a). This feat occurred on 6th March, 1957, as a result of which Dr Nkrumah became the first Prime Minister of the country. After Ghana became a republic on 1st July, 1960, Dr Nkrumah became its president.

Ghana is rich in both minerals and other natural resources (Government of Ghana, 2019). It is one of the global leaders for the exportation of cocoa and gold and also
exports bauxite, manganese and electricity (Government of Ghana, 2019). Almost a decade ago Ghana discovered oil along its coast. This discovery changed the fortunes of the nation and since then, oil has been a major contributor to the country’s foreign exchange reserves and economic growth (Ghana Country Commercial Guide, 2018). In 2016 the International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea (ITLOS) had to settle a maritime border dispute between Ghana and Ivory Coast which halted offshore oil production before the case was settled (Ghana Country Commercial Guide, 2018). A ruling in favour of Ghana in September 2017 resulted in an increase in the country’s offshore territory by 80 kilometres square, opening the way for drilling to resume (Ghana Country Commercial Guide, 2018). In February 2019, the Government of Ghana announced oil production will increase in four years (Ministry of Finance, 2019b).

2.1.1 Nation Demographics

According to the Ghana Statistical Service, the population of Ghana currently stands at approximately 30.3 million, an increase from the official 2010 census figure of 24.2 million (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019a). Out of the 30.3 million people in Ghana, around 48.8% are male, whereas the female population is around 51.2% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). Major ethnic groups in Ghana include Akan, Dagbani, Ewe (representing 47.5%, 17% and 14% respectively), Ga-Adangbe, Gurma, Guan, Gurunsi, and Bissa (7%, 6%, 4%, 2.5% and 1% respectively) (World Population Review, 2019). Although English is the official language of Ghana, due to the multi-ethnic landscape of the country, there are reportedly over two hundred and fifty (250) languages and dialects spoken (Embassy of Ghana The Hague, 2019b).
2.1.2 The Ghanaian Economy

Ghana is said to be the fastest-growing economy in Africa (Ministry of Finance, 2019a). According to the Ghana Statistical Service, the real gross domestic product (GDP) for the third quarter of 2018 grew by 7.4% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b) compared to 8.7% recorded for the 3rd quarter of 2017. At the end of the year 2018, Ghana’s GDP was 65.56 billion US dollars (Trading Economics 2019). Additionally, according to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) 2019 GDP growth projections, Ghana’s economic growth was robust in the first three quarters of 2018 mainly because of oil production (Ministry of Finance, 2019a).

The services sector has remained the highest contributor to overall GDP for many years (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b). At the end of the third quarter of 2018, for instance, the sector was reported to have accounted for approximately 45.50% of the overall GDP (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b). The agricultural and industry sectors followed with 19.2% and 35.3%, respectively. Overall, the industry sector recorded the highest growth of 11.7% in that same period (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b). Despite being the second highest contributor to overall GDP, the industry sector seems likely to become the sector to spearhead Ghana’s economic growth in the not too distant future (GhanaWeb, 2018).

2.1.3 The Ghanaian Industry

Ghana possesses a sizeable consumer and industrial goods and services sector which also serves other countries in West Africa (PWC Ghana, 2019). Medium-
sized local companies and multinational firms’ subsidiaries form the bulk of establishments within the sector (PWC Ghana, 2019).

2.2 CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT AMONG FIRMS IN GHANA

Although customer engagement emerged in theory and practice over ten (10) years ago in developed countries, anecdotally, it seems as if it is only in recent times that developing countries such as Ghana have begun to take engagement seriously. Searches via the Google search engine yield results that seem to show that customer engagement may not have entered into the Ghanaian business terminology prior to 2016. Currently, firms in Ghana are increasingly placing importance on the need to engage with customers (actual and potential). Hence a number of firms continue to put in place measures and interventions in order to create an atmosphere for customer engagement to occur.

The measures that are taken to create customer engagement vary. For instance, some firms now have a “customer engagement officer” position and others periodically organise customer engagement training workshops and sessions for their employees. In recent years, numerous companies in Ghana have also turned to social media in a bid to engage with their actual and potential customers. This is because such platforms provide superior channels of communication, increased user interactivity, and extensive network connectivity (Haughn, 2017).
2.2.1 Social Media Use and Customer Engagement among Firms in Ghana

In Ghana, approximately 14.76 million people, representing a penetration rate of 48%, are connected to the internet (Kemp, 2020). Social media penetration is estimated at 40% with 5.6 million social media users (Zurek, 2018). 71% of internet users aged between 16 and 64 years use Facebook, 62% YouTube and 61% and 37%, respectively, use Instagram and Twitter (Kemp, 2020).

In the recent past years, social media use among firms in Ghana has increased. Many firms across a wide range of industries such as banking/finance, hospitality, real estate, manufacturing, automobile, personal care, etc., are logged on to various social media platforms. Most of these, however, employ Facebook and Twitter and upload a variety of content ranging from products/services posts, to news/trending posts, promotions, competitions, infographics, videos, questions, quotes/memes and at times livestreams.

Despite all this, it must be said that many companies are till date struggling to find effective and lasting ways of navigating their way through social media. First of all, marketers are challenged when it comes to demonstrating the impact of social media, especially since in general it is increasingly becoming challenging for brands as far as their organic reach and user engagement are concerned (Hubspot, 2016, Thomson, 2018). In addition, it is reported that the rate at which consumers are engaging with branded content is reducing, despite there being an upsurge in content marketing efforts (Erskine, 2018; Moran et al., 2019). This is to a large extent due to the enormous amount of content found on social media (Moran et al.,
As a result, one pressing question remains for marketers regarding what to do to achieve engagement with online consumers (eMarketer, 2015; Moran et al., 2019). Many marketers in Ghana are not taking advantage of social media to grow their business (ThinkExpand, 2018).

2.3 BRIEF BACKGROUND OF THE GHANAIAN AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

Vehicles first made their appearance in Ghana at the turn of the 20th century, not very long after they took to the road in Europe in the 1890s (Bokpe, 2016).

The automobile industry in Ghana is characterised by heavy importations of brand new and in particular second hand cars and car parts (see OEC, 2019). In fact, according to a recent study by the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA), over one million vehicles were imported into the country from 2005 to 2016, 80% of which were second hand (GNA, 2018). Service businesses in the sector generally consist of (1) new and used car dealers; (2) independent garages/shops; (3) specialty garages/shops; (4) service stations or garages; and (5) fleet garages/shops (Africa Business Pages, 2019).

All cars imported and manufactured in the country are registered with the Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority (DVLA). The DVLA provides licensing to both vehicles and drivers, promotes good driving standards and ensures only roadworthy vehicles are used (DVLA, 2019). There are currently over one million registered cars (private and public), according to the DVLA (Bokpe, 2016).
2.3.1 Key Developments in the Ghanaian Automobile Industry

The government of Ghana, at the latter part of 2018, signed memoranda of understanding with three (3) global car manufacturing firms (Volkswagen, Nissan and Sinotruk) to establish assembly plants in the country (GhanaWeb, 2018). In March 2019, Suzuki, Toyota and CFAO motors also announced a joint venture to produce and sell vehicles in Ghana (Ghana Export Promotion Authority, 2019). CFAO motors is the sole distributor for international brands Citroën, Mitsubishi Motors, Bridgestone and Suzuki in Ghana (CFAO Automotive, 2019). In addition to these new developments, Ghana launched her maiden local automobile manufacturing company, Kantanka Automobile Manufacturing Company in 2015 (Effah, 2015).

Toyota is the most sought-after car in Ghana’s second-hand automobile market (Peacefmonline, 2015). The Japanese brand owns the largest share of the second-hand car market in the country (approximately 33% share of the total car market) with Nissan and Kia following with 13% and 7%, respectively (Peacefmonline, 2015). Altogether, all three brands command about 53% of the total market share. These brands are the most popular for their fuel efficiency, affordability and availability of spare parts (Car Ghana, 2018).

Popular brands in the Ghanaian luxury car market include BMW, Mercedes Benz, Rolls Royce, Land Rover, Maserati and Bentley. Mercedes-Benz, however, has the biggest market share among them in the Ghanaian context (Car Ghana, 2018). This
study will focus on the Mercedes-Benz brand of luxury cars. The decision to use Mercedes-Benz was influenced by the objective to determine the most effective message strategy for hedonic (luxury) products.

2.2.3 Mercedes-Benz

Mercedes-Benz, a division of Daimler AG, is a German automobile brand known for trucks, coaches, buses and luxury vehicles, (Daimler, 2019). It is headquartered in Stuttgart, Baden-Württemberg, Germany. Mercedes-Benz sold approximately 2.31 million cars in 2018 and as a result was the largest selling luxury car brand (Taylor et al., 2019).

Mercedes-Benz Ghana

Mercedes-Benz operates in Ghana through its general distributor Silver Star Auto Limited (SSAL). Silver Star Auto Limited was incorporated as a limited liability company on December 11th, 1996 (Silver Star, 2019).

As general distributor, SSAL distributes the Mercedes-Benz range of vehicles (comprising the A, B, C, CLA, CLS, E, G, GLA, GLC, GLE, GLS, S, SLV and V classes) as well as Mercedes-AMG cars, spare parts and accessories (Silver Star, 2019).

Mercedes-AMG and Mercedes-Benz Range of Vehicles
Although thought of as being the same, Mercedes-Benz and Mercedes-AMG are different. First of all, Mercedes-AMG (Aufrecht, Melcher and Großaspach) is the performance division of Mercedes concerned with providing extra sporty handling and stylish aesthetics (Mercedes, 2019). Mercedes hires special engineers who invest time and effort designing special engines that make Mercedes-AMG cars all the more exclusive, more than regular Mercedes-Benz vehicles (Mercedes, 2019). For every regular class of Mercedes Benz, there is an AMG model version (Bocaautohaus, 2017). This particular study focuses on the regular class of Mercedes Benz vehicles and in particular the C-class.

Mercedes Benz Advertising and Engagement on Social Media

Mercedes-Benz employs various social media platforms (LinkedIn, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram and Facebook) to advertise and engage with their actual and potential customers. In 2013, the brand was named among the most active automotive brands on Facebook, leading in fan growth (Vasquez, 2014). In 2016 it was awarded “best strategy” for the best social media strategy on Instagram (Daimler, 2019).

2.3 BACKGROUND TO THE GHANAIAN PERSONAL CARE PRODUCTS INDUSTRY

Personal care products encapsulate all products that relate to hygiene and beauty and include toothpastes, deodorants, shampoos, makeup, perfumes and skin moisturisers (FDA, 2016).
2.3.1 Pepsodent Toothpaste

Pepsodent toothpaste is originally an American brand of toothpaste. The brand is owned by Unilever. However, in the United States and Canada, it is owned by Church & Dwight (Revolvy, n.d.).

Pepsodent Ghana

Pepsodent Ghana is a brand of Unilever Ghana Limited. It is the leading oral care brand in Ghana (Myjoyonline, 2019a, b). In fact, the brand is so popular in Ghana that almost every toothpaste is referred to as Pepsodent, regardless of the brand (Myjoyonline.com, 2019c).

Pepsodent Products

The brand comprises two (2) products (1) toothbrushes and (2) toothpastes, according to its Ghana website. Pepsodent toothbrushes include (1) Pepsodent triple protection toothbrush (2) Pepsodent smart clean toothbrush and (3) Pepsodent deepclean toothbrush. For the toothpastes (1) Pepsodent Sensitive Expert-Whitening, (2) Pepsodent Sensitive Expert- Original (3) Pepsodent Sensitive Expert- Gumcare (4) Pepsodent Extra Gram Promo (5) Pepsodent 1-2-3 Triple Protection and (6) Pepsodent Expert protection. This study employs the Pepsodent Expert protection toothpaste. The decision to use Pepsodent toothpaste was influenced by the objective to determine the most effective message strategy for utilitarian (functional) products. Personal care products such as toothpaste are some of the most commonly purchased products consumers buy. In addition, Pepsodent toothpaste is the largest toothpaste brand in Ghana.
2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter took a look at the setting for the study, Ghana and narrowed down to Mercedes-Benz and Pepsodent toothpaste. Attention was given to Ghana’s history, demographics, and economy. The chapter revealed that the services sector has remained the highest contributor to overall GDP for many years. It currently accounts for approximately 45.50% of the overall GDP (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b). The agricultural and industry sectors follow with 19.2% and 35.3%, respectively (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019b). After presenting background information on Ghana, there was a discussion about customer engagement among firms in Ghana. The chapter reported that developing countries such as Ghana have begun to take customer engagement seriously. Many firms across a wide range of industries such as banking/finance, hospitality, real estate, manufacturing, automobile, personal care, etc., are logged on to various social media platforms in order to engage with both actual and potential customers. Most of these, however, employ Facebook and Twitter and upload a variety of content ranging from products/services posts, to news/trending posts, promotions, competitions, infographics, videos, questions, quotes_memes and at times livestreams. Despite these efforts, many companies are till date struggling to find effective and lasting ways of navigating their way through social media. Thereafter, a brief background of the Ghanaian automobile industry was given. This was subsequently followed by discussions on the Mercedes-Benz brand. This particular study focuses on the regular class of Mercedes Benz vehicles and in particular the C-class. With regard to customer engagement activities of Mercedes-Benz, the chapter reported that Mercedes-Benz employs various social media platforms (Facebook, Instagram,
Twitter, YouTube and LinkedIn) to advertise and engage with their actual and potential customers. In 2013, the brand was named among the most active automotive brands on Facebook, leading in fan growth. The chapter ended with a dive into the personal care industry in Ghana with a particular focus on Pepsodent toothpaste which is the largest toothpaste brand in Ghana. The decision to select the two brands is based on the popularity of the brands within the context of the nation of Ghana, as representations of the luxury and consumer goods (functional/utilitarian) markets respectively.
CHAPTER THREE

A REVIEW OF THE CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT LITERATURE

3.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The concept of customer engagement has in recent years been gaining traction in the marketing literature. Scholars have studied the phenomenon from a number of angles, offering insights in an effort to develop scholarship in the area. Despite it being an area of an increasing number of scholarly work, compared to other areas in the marketing literature, it is fairly underdeveloped. Hence, there remains ample opportunity for further research into the area.

In recent times studies have emerged investigating the effect of advertising on customer engagement (see Roberts & Alpert, 2010; Islam & Rahman, 2016b). These have been in response to calls for investigations into how marketing activities create customer engagement (MSI 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016). Despite the presence of such research, it has been observed that research addressing message strategies as precursors to customer engagement is somewhat scant and what exists is inconsistent (Tafesse & Wien, 2018). Even with regard to the broader customer engagement literature, the number of studies from developing economy contexts is comparatively scant and there is the need for research to originate from less advanced parts of the world in order to enhance knowledge in this new research area (Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2017).
This chapter, in that regard, is a review of literature pertaining to the customer engagement concept, the aim of which is to identify current knowledge gaps for possible contribution to knowledge in the chosen area of research.

3.1 CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT

3.1.1 The Concept of Engagement

The term “engagement” surfaced in the English language around the 17th century (Brodie et al., 2011) from the French word “engager” and described numerous concepts denoting obligation such as a “pledge”, a “legal/moral obligation”, “formal promise”, “tie of duty”, “betrothal”, “employment” and/or “military conflict” (van Doorn et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2011). Recently, however, more volitional and/or discretionary meanings (e.g. Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004; Jennings & Stoker, 2004;) have surfaced. These include, for instance, “connection” “attachment” “emotional involvement” and/or “participation” (e.g., London, Downey, & Mace, 2007).

According to Axelson & Flick (2011), modern engagement research can be traced to the 1984 student involvement research of Alexander Astin (Axelson & Flick, 2011). Astin (1984, p. 528) argued that the greater a student's involvement (“the quantity and quality of physical and psychological energy that students invest in the college experience”) at the university, the higher the level of personal development and student learning.
As a concept, engagement has in the last two decades, been studied across diverse disciplines ranging from psychology, sociology, organisational behaviour/management, information systems, education and finally to practitioner literature (Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Vivek et al., 2012; Kumar & Pansari, 2016). However, each discipline possesses a unique perspective on the domain and definition of the concept, resulting in a variety of conceptual approaches (Illic, 2008; Hollebeek, 2011).

*Engagement in Psychology*

Research on engagement within the field of psychology exists both in mainstream psychology and educational psychology. In the former, engagement is referred to as “social engagement” (Huo, Binning, & Molina, 2009; Achterberg et al., 2003), “occupational engagement” (Bejerholm & Eklund, 2006; Bejerholm & Eklund, 2007) and less commonly as “task engagement” (Matthews et al., 2010). Social engagement is a person’s participation and involvement in the activities of a social group (Prohaska, Anderson & Binstock, 2012). It is defined severally in literature as “a high sense of initiative, involvement and adequate response to social stimuli, participating in social activities, interacting with others” (Achterberg et al., 2003), “the extent to which an individual participates in a broad range of social roles and relationships” (Avison, McLeod, & Pescosolido, 2007, p. 333) or “the commitment of a member to stay in the group and interact with other members” (Zhang, Jiang, & Carroll, 2011).
Occupational engagement has been defined in the literature as “a lifestyle characteristic that describes “the extent to which a person has a balanced rhythm of activity and rest, a variety and range of meaningful occupations/routines and the ability to move around society and interact socially” (Bejerholm & Eklund, 2007, p. 21). Task engagement, according to Matthews et al. (2010, p. 189), “reflects neural arousal systems linked to approach behaviour”, and corresponds to “vigilance performance on a particular task; attentional resource availability, sustained attention, and alertness”. With regard to educational psychology (Bryson & Hand, 2007a; Bryson & Hand, 2007b; Hu, 2010), engagement is referred to as “student engagement” and is defined as the degree to which a student is committed, motivated, academically invested in, psychologically connected to and feels a sense of belonging to an academic institution (London et al., 2007). It is also known as “school engagement” and comprises (a) cognitive, e.g. the desire to perfect particular skills; (b) emotional, e.g. positive/negative reactions to tutors, & (c) behavioural; (e.g. participating in academic/extracurricular activities).

Engagement in Organisational Behaviour/Management Literature

In the organisational behaviour/management literature, engagement is termed “employee engagement” (Schaufeli et al., 2002b; Catteeuw et al., 2007; Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010) or occupational engagement (Bejerholm & Eklund, 2007); “stakeholder engagement” (Greenwood, 2007; Noland & Phillips, 2010). According to Schaufeli et al. (2002b), employee engagement is a positive,
satisfying state of mind related to work activities. Catteeuw et al. (2007) also define employee engagement as how much satisfaction employees derive from their work, and feel a sense of partnership, trust and appreciation. On the other hand, occupational engagement refers to a lifestyle characteristic which involves occupational performance and an interplay among personal, occupational & environmental factors (Bejerholm & Eklund, 2007).

Table 3.1 contains a sample of various definitions of the concept across various disciplines.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Definition/Key Findings</th>
<th>Themes/Dimensionality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Civic Engagement</td>
<td>Jennings and Zeitner (2003)</td>
<td>Behaviours and attitudes concerning (quasi-) political processes/institutions</td>
<td>Multidimensional:</td>
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<td>Media attentiveness</td>
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<td>Trust</td>
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<td>Political involvement</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jennings and Stoker (2004)</td>
<td>Engagement refers to participation in volunteer work and the fostering of social networks</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
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<td>Cognitive</td>
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<td>Emotional</td>
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<td>Behavioural</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mondak et al. (2010)</td>
<td>The level of civic engagement is majorly determined by extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism.</td>
<td>Not disclosed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Science</td>
<td>State Engagement</td>
<td>Resnick (2001)</td>
<td>Engagement is a repetitive process aimed at influencing the political behaviour of a particular country via sustained interactions spanning a variety of issues</td>
<td>Unidimensional</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>Kane (2008)</td>
<td>Comprehensive engagement is comprised of possible staff change, mechanism for change and mind-set change,</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
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<td>Engagement</td>
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<td>Cognitive</td>
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<td>Behavioural</td>
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<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Social Engagement</td>
<td>Social engagement refers to an active participation in social activities and interaction with others</td>
<td>Multidimensional Interaction with others Ability to carry out activities as planned Ability to carry out activities that are self-initiated Involvement Active participation in group activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Huo, Binning, and Molina (2009)</td>
<td>Identification with a group and behaviour directed at group</td>
<td>Multidimensional Emotional Behavioural</td>
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<tr>
<td>Task Engagement</td>
<td>Matthews et al. (2010, p. 189)</td>
<td>“Vigilance performance on a particular task; attentional resource availability, sustained attention, and alertness”</td>
<td>Multidimensional Cognitive Behavioural</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Engagement</td>
<td>Bejerholm and Eklund (2006)</td>
<td>“A lifestyle characteristic including the external/objective &amp; internal/subjective aspects of occupational performance, which involves both anticipation &amp; comprehension thereof, and serves as the basis for an ongoing, cyclical means of maintaining a sense of self &amp; well-being”</td>
<td>Multidimensional Initiating performance Routines Extent of meaningful occupations Interpretation Social interplay Social environment Place Occupational variety/range Daily rhythm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational Psychology</td>
<td>Student Engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Bejerholm and Eklund (2007)</strong></td>
<td>“A lifestyle characteristic that describes the extent to which a person has a balanced rhythm of activity and rest, a variety and range of meaningful occupations/routines and the ability to move around society and interact socially” Levels tend to vary along a continuum</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Fredricks et al. (2004)</strong></td>
<td>Engagement comprises cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Bryson and Hand (2007a,b)</strong></td>
<td>Students showcase different levels of engagement towards higher education, modules and tasks</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>London, Downey and Mace (2007)</strong></td>
<td>The extent to which a student invests academically, is motivated, psychologically connected and committed to an institution to which they belong</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Multidimensional</strong></td>
<td><strong>Cognitive</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional</strong></td>
<td><strong>Behavioural</strong></td>
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</table>

**Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational Behaviour/Management</th>
<th>Employee Engagement</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Multidimensional</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Behavioural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hu (2010)</td>
<td>The extent to which students work hard with school activities</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Behavioural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frank, Finnegan, and Taylor (2004)</td>
<td>How willing employees are to voluntarily apply themselves in their places of work by working overtime and actively thinking about their work</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Behavioural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luthans and Peterson (2002)</td>
<td>Employee engagement comprises the employee is emotionally, cognitively and behaviourally involved with their workplace.</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Behavioural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saks (2006)</td>
<td>How much of an individual’s physical, affective and cognitive resources he/she is willing to dedicate to their work.</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Behavioural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catteeuw et al. (2007)</td>
<td>How much satisfaction employees derive from their work, and feel a sense of partnership, trust and appreciation</td>
<td>Multidimensional</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information Systems</td>
<td>Customer Engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Macey and Schneider (2008)</strong></td>
<td>“A broad construct consisting of state, trait, and behavioural forms that connote a blend of affective energy and discretionary effort directed to one’s work and organisation” Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010)</strong></td>
<td>How employees use cognition, emotions and behaviour to express themselves as they work. Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wagner and Majchrzak (2007)</strong></td>
<td>The degree to which customers participate with employees and other customers to exchange knowledge Unidimensional Behavioural</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Erat et al. (2006)</strong></td>
<td>“Engagement with customers calls for exchanging information and knowledge with customers and fostering exchanges between customers” (p. 511). Unidimensional Behavioural</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2 Emergence of Engagement Research in Marketing Scholarship

In the last five to six years, engagement has been gaining grounds within marketing literature (Gambetti & Graffigna, 2010) and this is not surprising. First of all, it has been touted as a promising concept, providing superior explanatory and/or predictive power of focal consumer behavioural outcomes in comparison with other concepts similar to it (Hollebeek, 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2014). Secondly, authorities in the field of marketing have set the precedence of heightened interest in the concept by their calls for research on it (Kumar, 2015). For example, the Marketing Science Institute (MSI) on three occasions listed customer engagement among the top research priorities for the years 2010-2012, 2014-2016 and 2016-2018 (MSI, 2010; 2014; 2016). The MSI publishes a biennial list of pertinent topics for research, garnered from the most pressing research needs and interests of their member companies, in addition to input from academic trustees, executive directors, and young scholars (MSI, 2016).

Engagement is a relatively new concept in marketing. Scholars and marketing executives alike opine that it is a powerful force that drives consumers’ behaviour and the making of decisions (Gambetti & Graffigna, 2010). Engagement surfaced in marketing literature in 2005 when Sawhney et al. (2005) penned a paper on “collaborating to create: the internet as a platform for customer engagement in product innovation” (Brodie et al., 2011). In their seminal publication, they argue that the internet possesses unique qualities which help with interaction, increased reach as well as speed and flexibility for persistent dialogue as opposed to episodic, one-way customer interactions. They suggest that these capabilities can be used by firms to engage customers in collaborative product innovation. The concept has in
the past five (5) to seven (7) years been steadily gaining traction in marketing research (Hollebeek et al., 2016).

Within the field of marketing, the concept is referred to in diverse ways. For instance, whereas some scholars prefer to use “customer engagement” (Patterson, et al., 2006; Brodie et al., 2009), others employ “consumer engagement” (Vivek, 2009; Moreau, 2011; Bain & Fountain, 2010), “customer brand engagement” (Hollebeek, 2011a; 2011b; 2013), “social media engagement behaviour” (Dolan et al., 2016), “advertising engagement” (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2010), “media engagement” (Calder et al., 2009), “audience engagement” (Scott & Craig-Lees, 2010), “customer engagement behaviours” (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010), “brand engagement in self-concept” (Sprott, Czellar, & Spangenberg, 2009) and “engagement” more generically (Higgins & Scholer, 2009). Each term falls under either one of what extant literature (e.g. Wang, 2006; Ephron, 2006; Schultz, 2007; Neff, 2007; Kilger & Romer, 2007; Sprott et al., 2009; Heath, 2009; Bowden, 2009 et al), essentially refers to as the “five contextual categories of engagement”: consumer, customer, brand, advertising and media (see Gambetti & Graffigna, 2010). In explaining the differences among the terms, Gambetti and Graffigna (2010) reveal that brand, advertising and media engagement focus on the brand and media contexts that have the ability to create engagement, whereas customer and consumer engagement are focused on the individual customer with whom a brand engages and is who can be engaged by a communication medium or advertisement.
Table 3.2 Summary of Engagement Terms in Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Engagement Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience Engagement</td>
<td>Comprises cognitive effort and affective response</td>
<td>Scott and Craig-Lees (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Engagement in Self Concept</td>
<td>The degree to which a consumer includes key brands in their self-perception</td>
<td>Sprott et al. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Engagement</td>
<td>How intensely the consumer participates and connects with the offerings and undertakings of a brand</td>
<td>Vivek (2009); Moreau (2011); Bain and Fountain (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Engagement</td>
<td>The extent to which a customer is emotionally, cognitively and physically present in their interactions with organisations</td>
<td>Patterson, Yu, and De Ruyter (2006); Brodie et al. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Engagement Behaviours</td>
<td>A customer’s behaviour toward a brand that goes further than purchase and is as a result of recommendations and word-of-mouth activities</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010); Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>Being engrossed, involved, completely absorbed or occupied with something</td>
<td>Higgins and Scholer (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Media Engagement Behaviour</td>
<td>A customer’s behaviour on social media toward a brand that goes further than purchase and is as a result of certain motivational drivers</td>
<td>Dolan et al. (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Engagement</td>
<td>“Turning on a prospect to a brand idea enhanced by the surrounding context”</td>
<td>Calder, Malthouse, and Schaedel (2009, p. 322)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the purposes of this current research, the term “customer engagement” is adopted the reason being that the main focus is on the likelihood of customers to be engaged by a brand advertisement.
3.1.3 Marketing Constructs Related to Engagement

Engagement is conceptually similar to (yet different from) other (relational) marketing constructs (Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2012; Kabadayi & Price, 2014). Table 3.3 below provides an exhibit of selected marketing concepts deemed similar to engagement. Definitions are provided for each concept and the relationship between each of them and engagement is discussed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Relationship to Engagement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactivity</strong></td>
<td>Customer interaction with a firm (Bolton &amp; Saxena-Iyer, 2009).</td>
<td>An antecedent of engagement. It is a requirement for the expression of a consumer’s relevant engagement level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer Involvement</strong></td>
<td>The degree of interest in and perceived relevance of an object founded on an individual’s interests, values and needs (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Mittal, 1995).</td>
<td>An antecedent of engagement. It is a requirement for the expression of a consumer’s relevant engagement level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Flow</strong></td>
<td>It is the condition of the most ideal experience which is evident by clear mind, effortless concentration, loss of self-consciousness, focused attention, complete control, intrinsic enjoyment and distortion of time (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).</td>
<td>Flow can serve as a precursor to transient ultimate experiences that customer engagement has not captured directly (Patterson et al., 2006).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rapport</strong></td>
<td>It’s an apparent level of congruent, sympathetic or empathetic bond to another (Brooks, 1989). It is a sense of real concern and interpersonal sensitivity (Ashforth &amp; Humphrey, 1993).</td>
<td>Rapport is created by consumer/brand interactions that are human-based (i.e., new consumers); Rapport may also lead to customer engagement by existing customers (e.g., of a focal brand).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value Co-Creation</strong></td>
<td>It is the level of apparent value that is created in the mind of the customer that emanates from joint and/or personalised and</td>
<td>Value co-creation is an engagement consequence and is a result of human-based consumer/brand interactions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
interactive activities for and or with stakeholders (Dall’Olmo-Riley & De Chernatony, 2000; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004).

<p>| Brand Experience | A biased inner consumer response (sensations, feelings, cognitions) and behavioural responses induced by brand-related stimuli such as, packaging, design, identity, environment and communications (Brakus et al., 2009). | “Engagement consequence, and/or concurrent factor,” (Brakus et al., 2009: p. 53). |
| Perceived Quality | What a customer deems to be the overall excellence/superiority of a product or service (Zeithaml, 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1988). | A consequence of engagement. It is created by service/interactive and/or value co-creative contexts. |
| Consumer Satisfaction | A consumer’s total assessment of the performance of an offering to-date (Johnson &amp; Fornell, 1991; Gustafsson et al., 2005) | Engagement consequence with a potential positive relationship between satisfaction and engagement (cf. Saks, 2006). |
| Consumer Empowerment | It is the degree of the perception of control that a customer has over his/her choices and/or an understanding of his/her environment and efforts to wield control (Zimmerman &amp; Warschauksy, 1998; Wathieu et al., 2002). | Engagement consequence with a potentially positive relationship between these concepts. |
| Trust | It is the degree to which the customer perceives a brand to be reliable in interactions with the brand and the belief that it puts the customer’s interests first (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003; Rotter, 1967). | Strong bonds to a brand are created through consumer engagement. Consequently, the consumer maintains his/her engagement with a brand (van Doorn et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2011; Sashi, 2012). |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship Commitment</th>
<th>“An enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship” (Moorman et al. 1992, p. 316).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Perceived Value</td>
<td>This is the total evaluation of the usefulness of a product/service based on perceptions about what is given and received (Zeithaml, 1988).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude</td>
<td>The psychological likelihood of assessing a brand with a certain amount of favour and/or disfavour (Petty &amp; Cacioppo, 1986; Eagly &amp; Chaiken, 1993).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Brand Connection</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals have integrated [a focal] brand(s) into their self-concept (Escalas, 2004).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Brand Equity</td>
<td>It is the difference in the manner with which a consumer responds to a focal brand and an unbranded product when both possess the same product attributes and degree of marketing stimuli (Yoo &amp; Donthu, 2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Love</td>
<td>It encompasses self-brand integration, positive emotional connection, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, anticipated separation distress, and positive overall attitude valence, attitude certainty and confidence (strength), (Batra et al., 2012).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship commitment is evidenced by the willingness of consumers to expend more resources (time and money) on the brand.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consumer perceived value enables the perception of a customer to be viewed quantitatively. The perception of value impacts customer engagement which in turn leads to good customer-brand relationship.</td>
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<tr>
<td>This is an engagement consequence</td>
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<tr>
<td>It leads to engagement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>It leads to engagement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>It may lead to engagement.</td>
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</table>
**Brand/Customer Loyalty**

It refers to the phenomenon where a consumer patronises a brand repeatedly (i.e., behavioural loyalty) prompted by a strong personal disposition (i.e., attitudinal loyalty) (Day, 1969) over a given period of time (Guest, 1944).

It leads to engagement (Bowden, 2009a; Patterson et al., 2006). Whereas customer engagement to a large extent measures multiple types of customer behaviour, brand/customer loyalty measures only recurrent purchases over time.

**Customer Experience**

It is all-inclusive in nature and involves the customer’s affective, cognitive, emotional, social and physical responses to the entity, product and service (Verhoef et al. 2009).

Customer experience is a cognitive measure that is as a result of the actions of a firm and may not include the actions of the customer toward the brand. On the contrary, customer engagement measures the customers’ actions toward the brand.
From the table above, it is evident that each of the concepts is theoretically distinct from customer engagement. Whereas concepts such as interactivity and involvement serve as precursors to engagement, others are seen as engagement outcomes (Schaufeli et al., 2002a/b; Schouten, McAlexander, & Koenig, 2007).

While brand experience includes behaviour, Brakus et al. (2009: p. 53) clearly state that it “differs from motivational/affective concepts, including involvement [i.e., thus extending to engagement] in that it does not presume a motivational state” (Hollebeek, 2011a). On the contrary, involvement and engagement both focus on consumer needs/values that motivate the customer toward a specific object (e.g., a brand; Hollebeek et al., 2007). The motivational, activation-oriented aspect therefore differentiates engagement from brand experience. Further, the relatively enduring nature of brand attitude generates a conceptual distinction from engagement, which may exhibit greater variability of its focal levels across brand usage occasions.

Whereas brand experiences are comprised of the consumer’s behavioural, emotional and cognitive responses to brand communications (Verhoef et al., 2009), customer engagement permits more proactive (as opposed to reactive) consumer behaviours and these may result in customer empowerment and/or value co-creation (Hollebeek, 2011).
Furthermore, empathy and responsiveness, two of Parasuraman et al.’s (1988) proposed five dimensions of perceived service quality (seem to be closest conceptually to customer engagement (Patterson et al., 2006). That said, though service quality is centred on the actions and performance of employees in contrast to engagement, which focuses on the interactively-induced responses and/or empathy of the consumer (Hollebeek, 2011). Further, in contrast to perceived service quality, the consumer is able to express their preferred contextual self (Patterson et al., 2006).

3.1.4 The Definition, Nature and Dimensionality of Engagement

There is as yet no unanimity regarding the definition, nature and conceptualisation of engagement in extant marketing literature (Kunz et al., 2017). In fact, there seems to be a debate in the literature pertaining to the dimensionality of the concept. This has been attributed, in part, to the fact that there are inconsistencies regarding its nature and dimensionality (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016), which, some scholars argue, is dependent on the context within which engagement may be taking place and being analysed (Brodie et al., 2011; Gavalines et al., 2018).

Some authors define the concept from a one-dimensional perspective. For instance, Sprott et al. (2009) define engagement in terms of an individual’s proclivity for including key brands in their self-perception. Others, on the other hand, subscribe to a multidimensional view of engagement (e.g. Bowden, 2009; Kumar et al., 2010;
Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Vivek et al., 2014; Dwivedi, 2015; Kumar & Pansari, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). For example, Bowden (2009), maintains that engagement comprises calculative commitment, involvement, and affective commitment. Mollen and Wilson (2010, p. 12) opine that it is “a cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand… characterised by sustained cognitive processing, instrumental value and experiential value”.

In addition to the varied schools of thought on the dimensionality of the concept, it is clear from extant scholarship that marketing scholars define and study engagement from three main perspectives (Brodie et al., 2011; Kunz et al., 2017). Specifically, some academics have viewed customer engagement (1) as a psychological process (e.g. Bowden, 2009); (2) from a motivational psychology perspective (e.g. Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Brodie et al., 2011); and in more recent years (3) as a behavioural manifestation (van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar & Pansari, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). These are discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

**Engagement as a Psychological Process**

Individuals are said to progress through a sequential psychological process that ultimately culminates in loyalty to a brand (Bowden, 2009). Within this perspective, engagement is defined, for instance, as “a psychological process that models the
underlying mechanisms by which customer loyalty forms for new customers of a service brand as well as the mechanisms by which loyalty may be maintained for repeat purchase customers of a service brand” (Bowden, 2009, p. 65). The psychological process, according to this perspective, begins with an initial formation of commitment, considered to be largely cognitive in nature, then progresses to an affective (emotional) state of commitment to a brand which then leads to an ultimately enduring state of brand loyalty (Bowden, 2009). As a process reflecting a series of combined states, engagement, according to this perspective, may be modelled over time (Hollebeek, 2013).

Engagement from a Motivational Psychology Perspective

Adherents to this perspective opine that engagement reflects an individual consumer’s psychological state brought about by their interactive experiences with a brand (Patterson et al., 2006; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013; Vivek et al., 2012; Dwiveldi, 2015). For instance, according to Patterson et al. (2006), engagement is a psychological state characterised “by a degree of vigour, dedication, absorption and interaction”. In a similar vein, Hollebeek (2011, p. 785) defines the concept as “the level of a customer’s motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterised by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in a brand.” As a psychological state, engagement may be observed at a focal level at a given point in time (Brodie et al., 2011). Conceptualisations that fall within this category usually comprise cognitive, emotive and observable behaviour components.
Engagement as a Behavioural Manifestation

Adherents to this school of thought aver that engagement is essentially behaviour (e.g. Verhoef et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2015; Kumar & Pansari, 2017; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Contrary to the other two perspectives outlined in the above paragraphs, engagement according to this school of thought, is neither a systematic process beginning with a cognitive commitment and ending in brand loyalty, nor a psychological state of mind. It is, however, behaviour towards an object of engagement, which more often than not is a brand (Libai, 2011). As such, conceptualisations of engagement within this perspective typically comprise various forms of behavioural manifestations (Libai, 2011). For instance, according to Van Doorn et al. (2010, p. 254), the concept is “a customer’s behavioural manifestations that have a brand or company focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (emphasis mine). In a similar fashion and according to Verhoef et al. (2010, p. 247), engagement is “a behavioural manifestation toward the brand or firm that goes beyond transactions.” According to Kunz et al. (2017), this perspective of engagement acknowledges that due to advancements and the emergence of new media, customers currently exhibit company-related behaviours which were virtually non-existent years ago. Hence, this perspective of engagement includes the novel ways customers are able to communicate (be directly involved with) brands, which includes both non-purchase and purchase behaviour (Libai, 2011; Jahn & Kunz, 2012). Additionally, the argument by some scholars for the adoption of this perspective is that it shows that
currently, consumers play active roles, as against passively consuming brand communications, since the latter no longer reflects present day reality (Coulter et al., 2012; Javornik & Mandelli, 2012).

With behavioural engagement, customers voluntarily make resource contributions to either a firm or brand (van Doorn et al., 2010; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Such contributions include knowledge, experience, time, social influence and constructive feedback (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Harmeling et al., 2016; Taffesse & Wien, 2017). Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) outline two main forms of behavioural engagement: “consumer involvement in word-of-mouth (WOM) behaviour” and “consumer involvement in innovation and product development”. Specifically, behaviourally-engaged customers provide feedback, ideas and information to help firms better their product offerings (Tafesse & Wien, 2018). In addition, they influence other actual and/or potential customers’ perceptions via word-of-mouth (WOM) activities like blogging and web posting (Tafesse & Wien, 2018). Behavioural engagement can occur either organically, because of consumers’ personal experience with the firm’s offerings or its marketing communication, or through the firm’s initiation, which involves using specific tactics that stimulate customer engagement (Vivek et al., 2012).

In recent years (particularly the last four to five years), marketing scholars seem to have gravitated towards the perspective that engagement is essentially behavioural.
This is evident in the increasing number of scholarly works that conceptualise engagement as behaviour. For instance, Pansari and Kumar (2017), conceptualised engagement as indirect behaviour (feedback, influence, referral) and direct behaviour (purchase) towards an object, in this case, a brand. Dolan et al. (2016) additionally conceptualised engagement as differing levels and intensities of behaviour ranging from co-creation, positive contribution, consumption, dormancy, detachment, negative contribution, and co-destruction. Taffesse and Wien (2017) conceptualise the concept in terms of likes, shares and commenting on brand posts on social media.

Whilst the use of other perspectives of customer engagement is recognised, this study, however, perceives the concept to be majorly behavioural in nature, in agreement with prior conceptualisations of engagement in social media contexts (e.g. van Doorn et al., 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012). This research opines that ultimately, it is consumer behaviour, in whatever form, that affects firm performance. Hence, it is a key aspect worth focusing on. The current study, therefore, takes a principal interest in the behavioural perspective of customer engagement.

3.1.5 Customer Engagement on Social Media

The recent developments and increase in technological advancements, especially the introduction of web 2.0, have created many opportunities for firms which were
previously non-existent. Web 2.0 is “the current state of online technology as it compares to the early days of the web, characterised by greater user interactivity and collaboration, more pervasive network connectivity and enhanced communication channels” (Haughn, 2017). Along with the arrival of web 2.0 have come social media (Muntinga et al., 2011), defined as “forms of electronic communication for social networking and microblogging, through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content” (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2017). Among the various social media types are (1) social networking sites such as Facebook and MySpace; (2) microblogging sites like Twitter; and (3) content communities examples such as YouTube (Sashi, 2012; Tsai & Men, 2013).

Businesses and individuals alike utilise social media to support and expand their already existing social or business networks and to create new ones (Lorenzo-Romero et al., 2011). Social media have revolutionised the way consumers interact with brands to such an extent that the former uses them as much as official websites when searching for brand information (Dei Worldwide, 2008). Additionally, the manner in which firm/brand-related content is consumed, distributed and produced has been transformed by social media and many opportunities for targeting stakeholders and the general public online have arisen in more precise ways than is possible with traditional media (Ofcom, 2008; Kelly et al., 2010). This consequently leads to strategic outcomes in the form of “stickiness” (Bowden et al., 2009; Guo et
Research indicates that business executives in both public and private sectors throughout the world are working towards increased levels of customer engagement and many are resorting to social media to do just that. In fact, it is documented (see Markman, 2012; Smith, 2017) that approximately 65 million and between 50%-70% of business to business (B2B) firms respectively, are present on two of the most popular social media platforms (Facebook and Twitter). This is not surprising, considering the overwhelming statistics that indicate the popularity of the two platforms among individuals. According to Aslam (2017), Twitter boasts of approximately 328 million active users per month, 500 million tweets on a daily basis and 100 million active users each day. Additionally, Facebook has 1.32 billion active users (Facebook, 2017; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2014) who collectively spend nearly 10 billion minutes uploading 250 million pictures and creating 4 billion pieces of content (Tsotsis, 2011; Rusli, 2012).

The interactive nature of social media also means it is possible for customer engagement to take place and for customers to be involved in content generation and value creation (Sashi, 2012; Cabbidu et al., 2014; Harrigan et al., 2017; Haughn, 2017). Engagement on social media therefore is in the form of likes, shares, comments and re-posts (Taffesse & Wien, 2018; Gavilanes et al., 2018; Moran et
al., 2019). The Facebook ‘like’ is currently one of the most common engagement metrics. The “like” helps consumers to indicate satisfaction or approval toward content on social media (Swani et al., 2013; Gavilanes et al., 2018). A post is considered popular and interesting when it receives an appreciable number of likes. This makes it easier for it to receive more likes (Sabate et al., 2014). Other Facebook engagement metrics, like shares and comments also increase the popularity and reach of a brand post (de Vries et al., 2012). Although the current study acknowledges the engagement metrics of likes, comments and shares, it is not focused on customer engagement behaviours limited to social media.

3.1.6 Pansari & Kumar’s (2017) Conceptualisation of Customer Engagement

This study conceptualises customer engagement as behaviour and relies upon Pansari and Kumar’s (2017) conceptualisation of the concept. According to this conceptualisation, customer engagement is the direct and indirect contribution of the customer to the company, where customer purchases represent direct contribution and customer knowledge/feedback, customer influence and customer referrals.

Direct Contribution

Customer Purchases

When customers purchase the products/services of a company, they make a direct contribution to its value (Gupta et al. 2004; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). They help firms allocate resources efficiently (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). As a result, firms have
the ability to increase their revenue by reallocating their resources based on customer purchases (Kumar, 2008).

**Indirect Contribution**

Customer Referrals

Customer referrals are defined as “the extent to which customers advise other customers (e.g., friends, family, colleagues) to do business with the focal supplier” (Verhoef et al., 2002, p. 203). Referrals have been found to be a powerful tool in influencing consumer decision-making. According to Kumar et al. (2010), consumers often rely on referrals when making product purchase decisions. In fact, it is argued that at times customers trust referrals more than the claims made by brands about their products (Miller, 2020). In addition, those who ordinarily would not gravitate towards a firm’s product offerings just from traditional marketing channels such as print, direct mail, broadcast and telephone, can be attracted via referrals (Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar, 2013; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Referred customers are more likely to persist in making contributions, remaining loyal to the brand (Van den Bulte et al. (2018) and are more profitable than non-referred customers (Schmitt et al., 2011). As a result, referrals help contribute indirectly to firm performance.
Customer Influence

Product-related information is increasingly being shared on social media platforms in business to business (B2B) (Chakravarty et al., 2014) business to consumer (B2C) and consumer to consumer (C2C) contexts (Kumar, 2013). Social media enable subscribers to use their posts and activities to influence the actions of others within their social network (Trusov et al., 2009). For instance, Facebook engagement metrics such as likes, shares and comments increase the popularity and reach of a brand post beyond close social networks to a wide group of customers (Hogan et al., 2003). In the end this indirectly impacts the firm’s profits (Lee & Grewal, 2004; Kumar, 2013; Kumar & Pansari, 2017).

Customer Knowledge

Companies are increasingly realising that knowledge is a key resource and differentiating factor in the current business space (Wu, 2019). In order to meet the demands of the changing business environment, and survive, it is essential for firms to be actively involved in the generation and application of customer knowledge (Kumar & Bhagwat, 2010). Customer knowledge or feedback arises as a result of a current customer being actively involved in enhancing the products of a company by giving feedback or making suggestions (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). A customer adds value when they (1) help a company appreciate customer preferences and (2) participate in knowledge development processes (Kumar & Bhagwat, 2010; Joshi & Sharma 2004).
3.1.7 Antecedents of Customer Engagement

Given the importance of customer engagement there have been several attempts to understand the factors that trigger it (Taffesse & Wien, 2018). A scrutiny of extant literature on the customer engagement concept was carried out and it was identified that various constructs have been employed as antecedents of customer engagement. Following the classification of van Doorn et al. (2010) and Islam and Rahman (2016), all the constructs are categorised into customer-based, brand/firm based and context-based antecedent factors. Per the descriptions given by van Doorn et al. (2010) and Islam and Rahman (2016), customer-based factors refer to the specific variables that are dependent upon a customer’s traits, goals, resources and affective states (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Islam & Rahman, 2016). On the other hand, firm/brand-based factors are variables that are controlled by firms, for instance brand advertising, improved work-environments, product characteristics, and service quality). Finally, context-based factors are variables that are neither within the control of brands or customers, but they generally emerge from the external environment. They include technological political and economic events.

Majority of research works have been focused on customer-based antecedents of customer engagement and fewer still on brand-based factors. In an effort to expand the scope of the customer engagement literature, scholars have therefore called for further research to focus on those factors that are within the brand/firm’s power (see
Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016). Notably and within the more recent years, scholars have called for research into the effects of advertising on customer engagement. For some time, advertising was seen as a resource-intensive venture that no longer had power (Graham & Havelena, 2007; Cummings, 2007; Laurie et al., 2019; Weigel, 2019). Hence, there was a need to justify its continued use by marketing executives (Graham & Havelena, 2007; Laurie et al., 2019). One research question that marketing scholars sought to find answers to was whether advertising drives customer engagement. This led to some research on same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedent</th>
<th>Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer-focused</td>
<td>Bowden (2009a, b), Claffey and Brady (2014), Goldsmith et al. (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Bowden (2009a, b), Cambra-Fierro et al. (2013, 2014), So et al. (2014a), Cambra-Fierro et al. (2015), Cheung et al. (2015) Dessart et al. (2015) and Van Doorn et al. (2010),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Banyté et al. (2014), Bowden (2009a, b), Hollebeek (2011a), So et al. (2014a) Van Doorn et al. (2010),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
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<td>-----------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consumption goals</td>
<td>Azar et al. (2016), Eisingerich et al. (2015), Rohm et al. (2013), Son et al. (2012), Shao and Ross (2015), Van Doorn et al. (2010),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Bowden (2009a), Gambetti and Graffigna (2010), Hollebeek (2011a), Kosiba et al. (2018), Roy et al. (2018), So et al. (2014a), Van Doorn et al. (2010),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived costs</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Bowden (2009a, b), Brodie et al. (2011), Dwivedi (2015), Harrigan et al. (2018), Hollebeek (2011a), Hollebeek et al. (2014), So et al. (2014a, 2015), Vivek et al. (2012),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telepresence</td>
<td>Mollen and Wilson (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality traits</td>
<td>Kabadayi and Price (2014) Pagani et al. (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer knowledge</td>
<td>Packard and Wooten (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of followers</td>
<td>Barasch and Berger (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Brodie et al. (2011), Oviedo-García et al. (2014), Vivek et al. (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship quality</td>
<td>Hollebeek (2011a)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>Wirtz et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived company actions</td>
<td>Hollebeek and Chen (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived brand warmth</td>
<td>Bernritter et al. (2016)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived brand value</td>
<td>Hollebeek and Chen (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived brand innovativeness</td>
<td>Hollebeek and Chen (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived brand/company Responsiveness</td>
<td>Hollebeek and Chen (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived delivery of brand promise</td>
<td>Hollebeek and Chen (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social value</td>
<td>De Vries and Carlson (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-creation value</td>
<td>De Vries and Carlson (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
<td>Source(s)</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Brand love</strong></td>
<td>Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand jealousy</strong></td>
<td>Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand attachment</strong></td>
<td>So et al. (2014a), Hinson et al. (2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand attitude</strong></td>
<td>Anderson and Simester (2014), Huang et al. (2013),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rapport</strong></td>
<td>So et al. (2014a),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand usage duration</strong></td>
<td>Dwivedi (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Customization</strong></td>
<td>Cheung et al. (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peer recommendations</strong></td>
<td>Nadeem et al. (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand identification</strong></td>
<td>Dessart et al. (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firm-focused</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Brand advertising</strong></td>
<td>Gavilanes et al. (2018), Graham and Havlena (2007),</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lopez and Sicilia (2013), Roberts and Alpert (2010)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Swani et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Value proposition</strong></td>
<td>Roberts and Alpert (2010)</td>
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<td><strong>Company culture</strong></td>
<td>Roberts and Alpert (2010)</td>
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<td><strong>Employee engagement</strong></td>
<td>Roberts and Alpert (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Customer experience</strong></td>
<td>Roberts and Alpert (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Brand characteristics</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Firm reputation</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<td><strong>Firm size</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Firm diversification</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Firm information usage and processes</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industry</strong></td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Product/Service quality</strong></td>
<td>Chen et al. (2011), Islam et al. (2019), Kähr et al. (2016), Verhoef et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational support</strong></td>
<td>Verhoef et al. (2010) and Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)</td>
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<td><strong>Organisational Socialisation</strong></td>
<td>Verleye et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brand identification</td>
<td>Wirtz et al. (2013)</td>
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<td>Brand’s symbolic</td>
<td>Wirtz et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Function</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information quality</td>
<td>Dessart et al. (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wirtz et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incentives</td>
<td>Dessart et al. (2015)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Wirtz et al. (2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brand strength</td>
<td>De Vries and Carlson</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Firm communication</td>
<td>Banytė et al. (2014)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Borah and Tellis (2016)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Jaakkola and Alexander</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2014)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Schulze et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employee attitude</td>
<td>Cambra-Fierro et al.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Complaint handling</td>
<td>Cambra-Fierro et al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website service quality</td>
<td>So et al. (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Corporate social</td>
<td>O’Brien et al. (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td>responsibility activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Environmental factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technological factors</td>
<td>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In recent times, scholars have made calls for the conduct of research into advertising as a precursor of customer engagement (Gavilanes et al., 2018).

3.1.8 Advertising as an Antecedent of Customer Engagement

There exists some amount of scholarly work on online advertising as a precursor to customer engagement in the literature, though it is somewhat scant. Majority of the research in this area reveals that advertising is positively and significantly related to
customer engagement. Specifically, studies have shown that when exposed to online advertisements, actual and potential customers engage in online and offline word-of-mouth/brand advocacy behaviours, brand searches and website visits (Graham & Havlena, 2007; Lopez & Sicilia, 2013; Swani et al., 2013). For instance, in a study assessing the influence that advertising has on word-of-mouth behaviour, Graham and Havlena (2007) concluded that advertising builds brand advocacy and a combination of both on and offline brand communications leads to searches, website visits and word-of-mouth.

Customer Engagement and Message Strategy

Previous studies have shown that customer engagement also depends on the kind of message strategy that is used in advertisements. Table 3.5 provides a summary of some researches that link customer engagement and advertising message strategy. From the table, it is clear to see that message strategies have been conceptualised in numerous ways. For instance, whereas in earlier instances studies created an oversimplified content typology of message strategies comprising transactions, entertainment and information (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; De Vries et al., 2012), other studies advanced more complex typologies which distinguish between brand-related, informational and emotional message themes (Araujo et al., 2015; Ashley & Tuten, 2015;). That said, though, these more complex typologies are lacking in consistent conceptual development. In addition, the irregularity of their nature means it is a challenge drawing clear conclusions with respect to the effect(s) of advertising message strategies on customer engagement. In addition, although some
studies ascertain certain message strategies as being key determinants of customer
engagement, their findings seem not to be replicable elsewhere. For instance, as can
be seen from the table below, there are inconsistencies regarding the effects/impact
of entertainment, informational and emotional strategies on customer engagement
(Table 3.5). Further, the proposed content typologies that have typically been used
appear to lack consistent theoretical development and hence the resulting
conclusions from such studies run the risk of being subjective and hence ambiguous.
While typologies of message strategies have long been developed by scholars in the
advertising literature, they have been surprisingly and to a large extent ignored by
research on social media (Taffesse & Wien, 2018). These strategies were developed
from content analyses of print as well as television (TV) commercials (Puto & Wells,
1984; Laskey et al., 1989). They serve as a solid basis from which to conduct a study
of advertising message strategies on social media. Additionally, they have been
confirmed across numerous online and offline environments and are assimilated into
advertising practice and theory (Golan & Zaidner, 2008). Both online and traditional
advertising possess the same fundamental creative principles (Golan & Zaidner,
2008; Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Taffesse & Wien, 2018).

Findings from studies on customer engagement and message strategies indicate that
emotional appeals increase the probability of engagement occurring. For instance,
Swani et al. (2013), sampled the message strategies of over a thousand Facebook
posts from 193 Fortune 500 companies to see which strategies garnered more likes.
It was concluded that in the Business to Business (B2B) category, Facebook account
posts are more effective in garnering more likes when “hard sell” or overtly commercial statements are avoided and rather include corporate brand names. Koch and Benlian (2015) also established that consumers are more likely to share content with scarcity appeals that content that employs a scarcity appeal than those without such appeals. Additional researches have arrived at similar conclusions (see for example Liu-Thompkins & Rogerson, 2012; Berger & Iyengar, 2013; Blasco-Arcas, et al., 2016; Chen & Berger, 2016) Contrary to the aforementioned studies, other studies opine that the format and purpose of the content of an advertisement is a predictor of customer engagement. Here it is argued that advertisements that are multisensory and interactive (de Vries et al., 2012), contain pictures (Kim et al., 2015), communicate a sales promotion (Kim et al., 2015) and are entertaining (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; Tafesse, 2015) generate customer engagement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Message strategy</th>
<th>Studies</th>
<th>Customer engagement</th>
<th>Significant findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>De Vries et al. (2012)</td>
<td>Number of comments and likes</td>
<td>Whereas transactional had a positive relationship with both comments and likes, entertainment had a negative relationship with likes and comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informational affected neither comments nor likes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remuneration Information Entertainment</td>
<td>Cvijikj and Michahelles (2013)</td>
<td>Number of likes, comments and shares</td>
<td>Of the three, entertainment was more potent in generating likes, comments and shares. Information was linked to comments and likes and finally remuneration was positively related to comments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational Brand Emotional</td>
<td>Araujo et al. (2015)</td>
<td>Number of retweets</td>
<td>Findings revealed that more retweets occurred as a result of informational content as compared with emotional content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusivity appeal, user-image appeal, functional appeal, experiential appeal, emotional appeal, social causes, animation, resonance, and incentives to share content</td>
<td>Ashley and Tuten (2015)</td>
<td>Klout score and engagement score</td>
<td>Resonance, social causes, experiential appeals, animation, and incentives were to a significant extent related with Klout score. while incentives and experiential appeal each had positive relationships with Engagement Score.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

University of Ghana http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Author (Year)</th>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Tafesse (2015)</td>
<td>Number of shares and likes</td>
<td>Content that was entertaining garnered more shares as well as likes than informational and transactional content. In addition, people were less likely to share transactional content than informational content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td>Yuki (2015)</td>
<td>Number of shares</td>
<td>Consumers were more likely to share content that had an emotional element and were functional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>Taecharungroj (2016)</td>
<td>Number of favourites and retweets</td>
<td>Consumers were more likely to retweet and favourite action-inducing tweets than emotion-evoking tweets. On the other hand, information-sharing tweets were less likely to be retweeted and favourited compared to emotion-evoking tweets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Informational Interactional</td>
<td>Tafesse and Wien (2018)</td>
<td>Number of like and shares</td>
<td>The strongest predictor of customer behavioural engagement was the transformational strategy. There was no significantly major difference between informational and interactional message strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Advertising Message Strategy**

Message strategy/creative strategy generally refers to what is said in an advertising or marketing communications campaign (Taylor, 1999). In times past, both terms were used interchangeably. However, in recent times, scholars seem to favour the former when narrowing their discussions to the “nature” of content (see for instance Huang et al., 2013; Leung et al., 2017; Tafesse & Wien, 2018). This is because “creative strategy” seems to possess a broader connotation than message strategy, encompassing both message content and execution, whereas the latter is limited to message content (Laskey, Day & Crask, 1989; Taylor, 1999; Ashley & Tuten, 2015). For the purposes of this study, “message strategy” is used as the study’s main focus is on message content.
According to Puto and Wells (1984), message strategy is a guiding principle that defines the content domain of a branded content and aligns the latter with consumers’ precise needs (Taylor, 1999; Laskey et al., 1989). To be more specific, it merges what the consumer needs to hear with what brands want to communicate or put across (Laskey et al., 1989; Taylor, 1999; Tafesse & Wien, 2018). Advertising message strategies require the crafting of marketing communications content in such a way that a company is able to achieve its desired effects in the target audience, where desired effects could mean purchase, creation of awareness, brand familiarity, brand preference, etcetera (Puto & Wells, 1984; Tafesse & Wien, 2018).

As such, this research does not test for the link between both. It however departs from extant research in that it seeks to establish the most effective advertising message strategy for hedonic and utilitarian products. To be specific, it purports to show that not all advertising message strategies are the same in their ability to generate customer engagement. Some may have a higher propensity than others.

Carey (1975) was among the first people to propound a dichotomous view of advertising message strategy (Taylor, 1999). He noted that most advertisements merely transmitted information, with the aim of controlling distance and people. In addition, he found that a second group of advertisements existed, whereby the aim of communication was not to send across or transmit information, but rather to create drama. These two he termed (1) the transmission view and (2) the ritual view,
respectively. These have also been referred to as informational and transformational in the literature (Wells, 1980; Laskey et al., 1989; Tsai & Lancaster, 2012; Ahn et al., 2013; Ashley & Tuten, 2015). According to Puto and Wells (1984) while transmission/informational messages appeal to one’s cognition, ritual/transformational messages appeal to senses or emotions.

3.2 TAYLOR’S (1999) SIX SEGMENT MESSAGE STRATEGY

In 1999, Ronald E. Taylor developed a six-segment message strategy model to remedy the shortfalls of previous conceptualisations of advertising message strategies. Specifically, previous conceptualisations had been criticised for the lack of inclusion of social factors that affect purchasing decisions. Taylor’s (1999) strategy has become widely accepted and employed not only in the extant advertising literature, but also in the broader management literature (see, for instance, Hwang et al., 2003; Golan & Zaidner, 2008; Lee et al., 2011; Tsai & Lancaster., 2012; Ahn, Wu & Taylor, 2013; Ju & Park, 2015).

model provides a more detailed, sophisticated analytical approach to message strategy than previous conceptualisations (Ahn et al., 2013). This is mainly due to the addition of six sub categories to the conventional binary conceptualisation of message strategies proposed in earlier studies (Tsai & Lancaster, 2012). Specifically, his model proposes three sub categories under each of the two transmission and ritual classifications.

### 3.2.1 The Transmission View

Under this view, communication is largely focused on delivering information, knowledge and ideas to others. As such advertising based on this view, to a large extent, appeals to consumers’ intellect (Carey 1975; Puto & Wells, 1984). According to Taylor (1999), sub sections under this view comprise “routine”, “acute need” and “ration”. “Routine” is focused on the mundane part of human behaviour. As a result, adverts that fall within the ambit of this segment seek to remind consumers to persist in purchasing products so that they maintain consumption habits. Product satisfaction, ease of use and convenience are among the more popular appeals used. The “acute need” segment describes the circumstances where a product need suddenly arises. In such situations, consumers are likely faced with time restraints preventing them from seeking as much information as they would have desired prior to making the purchase. Hence, product choice is based on availability and familiarity. The aim of advertising in this case is to ensure that the consumer retains the product/brand in their subconscious, ready to emerge once the opportunity arises. This can be achieved via creating and maintaining consumer trust, brand recognition.
and brand familiarity. In the final segment (ration), consumers are more concerned with information about products. Hence they search for information on price, warranties and product quality and make purchase decisions from a rational perspective. Advertisements that are created from this are therefore informative in nature and employ positioning strategies, generic, pre-emptive, unique selling proposition (USP) and comparative appeals. This category is mainly used for utilitarian products (Ahn et al., 2013).

### 3.2.2 The Ritual View

The second view, ritual, appeals to people’s perceptions, self-image, attitudes and beliefs. Hence, advertisements tend to be based on the senses or emotions (Puto & Wells, 1984). The belief here is that people make purchases based on their emotions. Sub sections under this view as per Taylor’s conceptualisation include “ego”, “social” and “sensory”. According to the first ritual segment, the “ego” segment, consumers make purchases and employ products that they feel are a reflection or an enhancement of how they perceive themselves. As a result, purchase decisions made based on ego and the consumer’s emotional bonding with the product. Advertisements are therefore developed with the intent of showing to the consumer how the product corresponds to or improves their self-image. Ego-based advertisements would typically include, but would not be limited to appeals to (1) personal feelings, (2) self-actualisation, (3) image, and (4) vanity. The second ritual sub segment, social, on the other hand, is focused on the consumer. In this particular segment, the consumer is said to seek affection from people, signify that they belong
to a specific social crowd, respect, approval and attention from others. As a result, purchase decisions are made with others in mind. Resonance is usually used as an appeal. The final sub segment of the ritual view, sensory, includes appeals to sight, hearing, smell, touch and taste. The aim of advertisements in this case is to show how consumers can enjoy “moments of pleasure” by using the products being advertised (Taylor, 1999, p. 13).

![Figure 3.1: Six Segments Message Strategies](http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh)

Under Taylor’s model, advertisers are at liberty to use a single advertising approach (e.g. social) or a combination of approaches (e.g. ration and routine). Taylor’s strategy is of value to this present study since in comparison to prior conceptualisations, it is more wide-ranging and sophisticated for analysing a wider array of brand communications. In addition, the strategy wheel is argued to be
successful at capturing various purchase decisions across varying advertising platforms (see Tsai & Lancaster, 2012).

Morrison and White (2000) used Taylor’s model to conduct an analyses of television commercials during the Super Bowl advertisements of the year 2000. Super Bowl is an annual American football tournament between the winners of the National Football Conference and the American Football Conference each January or February (Carroll, 2019). Their study found that most of the commercials utilised ration and ego message strategies. Again in 2005, in a similar study, Kim, McMillan and Hwang looked at the creative, message as well as overall strategies, which were used in both television commercials and websites during the 2003 Super Bowl. Their findings reveal that out of fifty-five (55) television advertisements and 40 websites, the former were more likely to feature ritual strategies whereas the latter mostly employed transmission approaches.

In their study on the use of company websites as a type of corporate advertising, Hwang et al. (2003) concluded that Taylor’s strategy wheel was beneficial in helping to identify the message strategies of websites. They found that high revenue firms mostly used social and ego strategies, whereas low revenue firms were more likely to use a routine strategy. In another instance, Golan and Zaidner (2008) similarly applied the strategy wheel to viral advertising. They established that an
The overwhelming majority of viral videos utilised ego strategies whereas 24% employed ration-based strategies.

In more recent studies, Ahn et al. (2013) applied the strategy wheel to websites that advertised cosmetic surgery and discovered that ration was the only strategy used by websites which adopted a transmission approach. They additionally found that websites that employed the ritual approach used all three strategies (sensory, social and ego). Finally, in a 2017 study on brand content on social media, Tafesse and Wien (2018) discovered that both approaches (transformational and informational) and all six message strategies were used in all 270 brand posts they studied. Each of these shows that Taylor’s strategy wheel is a flexible tool which may be applied across diverse media.

This study adopts Taylor’s (1999) message strategies.

3.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY
This chapter was a review of studies on customer engagement, the purpose of which was to assess the current state of engagement research and in particular uncover knowledge gaps which need to be addressed. It began by tracing the etymology of the term “engagement” from French and old English, and gave the various meanings the term has had ever since it surfaced in the English language in the 17th century. It then progressed to reveal when the concept first emerged in modern research, and
then showed how in psychology and organisational behaviour, engagement is generally treated and conceptualised. It was noted that engagement only emerged in the marketing literature approximately fifteen (15) years ago in 2005, and is referred to in various ways, such as consumer engagement, audience engagement, consumer behavioural engagement, and etcetera. A case was made for the adoption of the term “customer engagement” after which discussions turned to concepts in marketing that are similar to but are in actual fact different from the concept of customer engagement. It was shown that there are various schools of thought as it pertains to the nature and dimensionality of customer engagement. However, the argument that a behavioural perspective shows that currently consumers play active roles, as against passively consuming brand communications, since the latter no longer reflects present day reality (Javornik & Mandelli, 2012; Coulter et al., 2012) was made. The chapter then progressed to discuss customer engagement on social media. It revealed that many firms are resorting to social media in order to engage with their customers. Further, it was argued that despite likes, comments and shares being popular engagement metrics on social media, this study is focused on engagement behaviours that are not only limited to social media, such as purchase. As a result, Pansari and Kumar’s (2017) conceptualisation of customer engagement was adopted, as it captures engagement behaviours that can be exhibited both online (on social media) and offline. According to this conceptualisation, customer purchases, in addition to referrals, influencing and knowledge/feedback are engagement behaviours. Subsequently, and in an effort to elucidate the gaps in the literature that this thesis intends to fill, the chapter progressed to a discussion on the various
antecedents of customer engagement that have typically been employed in the customer engagement literature. Evidence provided in the review shows that to a large extent, brand/firm-based antecedent factors (for instance advertising), are scant. A review was then carried out on advertising as an antecedent factor, and discussions were further narrowed to advertising message strategies employed in advertisements. The review revealed that messages strategies have been conceptualised in numerous ways. However, those that have been utilised in previous works seem to lack consistent conceptual development. In addition, the irregularity of their nature means it is a challenge drawing clear conclusions regarding what effect(s) advertising message strategies have on customer engagement. As a result of this, it became apparent that in order to fix this, a conceptualisation that is conceptually consistent and is not lacking in consistent theoretical development was needed. Hence, discussions then progressed to the selected conceptualisation of message strategies, Taylor’s (1999) six segment message strategy. The decision to utilise Taylor’s (1999) conceptualisation was based on the fact that it was developed from content analyses of print and television commercials (Laskey et al., 1989; Puto & Wells, 1984). It also serves as a solid basis from which to conduct a study of advertising message strategies on social media. Additionally, it has been confirmed across numerous online and offline environments and is well assimilated into advertising practice and theory (Golan & Zaidner, 2008). It is also, in comparison to prior conceptualisations, more wide-ranging and sophisticated for analysing a wider array of brand communications. In addition, the strategy wheel is argued to be successful at capturing various purchase
decisions across varying advertising platforms (see Tsai & Lancaster, 2012). Discussions on Taylor’s (1999) six-segment message strategy showed that three strategies are classified as “ritual message strategies” which are mainly used for hedonic (luxury) products, and the other three, “transmission message strategies”, for utilitarian (functional) products. As a result, the study follows these two main groupings and seeks to find the most effective strategies of both classifications.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

4.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

In the previous chapter a review of extant literature was carried out to help understand the current state of research work in the area of customer engagement. Following from the previous chapter, this chapter is dedicated to discussions on the popular theories that have traditionally underpinned customer engagement research and the stimulus-organism-response model, the theory selected for this study in particular. Additionally, how the theory applies to the current study is discussed. The chapter then proceeds to the development of testable research hypotheses where arguments based on extant research are made. Finally, the research framework is discussed.

4.1 THEORIES EMPLOYED IN THE CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT LITERATURE

Theory-based approaches to the study of customer engagement were largely non-existent prior to 2011. Publications on the concept underpinned by identifiable and testable theory began to emerge in 2011. Most of these, however, were based on relationship marketing (Bowden, 2009; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013; Hollebeek, 2011) and service dominant (S-D) logic theories (Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013).
4.1.1 Relationship Marketing Theory

Relationship marketing, according to Gronroos (1996, p. 7), is “to identify and establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers and other stakeholders, at a profit, so that the objectives of all parties involved are met, and that this is done by a mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises”. According to the theory, as a company delivers value to customers, the strength of its relationship with them will improve, inevitably leading to increased customer retention (Juneja, 2020).

The theory has been used in the customer engagement literature. Scholars have argued that the concept of customer engagement is an extension of the sphere of relationship marketing, since it is linked to establishing relationships with customers (Vivek et al., 2012; van Tonder & Petzer, 2018; So, King, Sparks, & Wang, 2016). However, scholars are split as to the nature of the connection that exists between the constructs of relationship marketing and customer engagement. For instance, there is one school of thought that opines that commitment, value, trust and satisfaction are consequences of customer engagement (Vivek et al., 2012; Islam & Rahman, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2016) whereas another is of the view that they are rather antecedents (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek, Srivastava, & Chen, 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2016).
4.1.2 Service Dominant Logic

According to the service dominant (S-D) logic, every exchange, regardless, is inherently a trade-off of resources for the benefit of others (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In the customer engagement literature, Brodie et al. (2011) posit the S-D logic represents a suitable theoretical perspective from which to view customer engagement. The authors (p. 253) suggest the theory presents “a transcending view of relationships,” in contrast to the goods-dominant (G-D) logic, a more traditional, transactional view of marketing relationships (Vargo, 2009; Karpen et al., 2012; Hollebeek, 2012). According to them, S-D logic is related to customer engagement based upon the premise that particular consumer behaviours are the result of individuals’ focal value co-creative and interactive encounters with firms and/or other stakeholders within service relationships, as expressed through focal value-in-use contexts (see also Hollebeek, 2012).

In addition, Brodie et al. (2011) develop five key propositions addressing the customer engagement’s conceptual domain. To be specific, Brodie et al. (2011) posit four of Vargo and Lusch’s (2008) S-D logic foundational premises to be of particular relevance to the customer engagement concept in marketing research. First, according to the sixth premise, “the customer is always a co-creator of value”. This shows the co-creative and interactive nature of value creation which typically occurs in service relations among customers and/or other stakeholders. Second, according to the eighth premise, “A service-centred view is inherently customer-oriented and relational” (Vargo, 2009). Engagement thus “becomes the core of any service-
related outcome” (Subbiah & Ibrahim, 2011, p. 443). Third, the ninth premise divulges that “all social and economic actors are resource integrators,” implying that value creation occurs in an environment of co-creation and interaction. Finally, Premise 10 posits: “Value is uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary,” which stresses the contextual, inherently subjective and highly experiential character of value co-creation; concurring with the conceptual underpinnings of engagement (Hollebeek, 2012).

Under S-D logic and relationship marketing theories, the customer is perceived to make proactive contributions when interacting with the brand (Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Fournier, 1998; Islam & Rahman, 2016b) and not be a mere passive recipient of brand-related cues. Both theories in implicit and explicit terms assume customer engagement to be highly interactive (Hollebeek, 2011b).

4.1.3 Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory is one of the most prominent theories for comprehending attitude and behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). It emerged in the 1920’s (Malinowski, 1922; Mauss, 1925) and bridged such disciplines as sociology (e.g., Blau, 1964), social psychology (e.g. Thibault & Kelley, 1959; Homans, 1958; Gouldner, 1960) and anthropology (e.g. Sahlins, 1972; Firth, 1967). Despite the fact that there are varying views regarding social exchange, theorists agree that it involves a series of interactions which produce obligations (Emerson, 1976). These
interactions within social exchange, are to a large extent perceived to be interdependent and reliant on the actions of others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Blau, 1964).

The social exchange theory posits that a gesture of goodwill on the part of one party engenders an obligation on the recipient’s part to reciprocate (Aryee et al., 2002), and depending on the nature of the goodwill, the exchange could either be social or economic. In other words, the recipient of a goodwill gesture is obliged to return the acts of favour in a manner that ultimately benefits the initiator (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). Social exchanges happen when specific obligations in response to acts that benefit others are not required. On the other hand, an economic exchange involves precise obligations in response to tangible exchanges.

In the literature, customer engagement is said to be a social exchange because (1) customers exchange cognitive, emotional, physical, social and economic resources with marketers and (2) for customer engagement to continue, both the customer and marketer must see the exchange to be profitable (Pervan, Bove, & Johnson, 2009; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011; Verleye et al., 2013; Bitter et al., 2014; Hwang et al., 2015; Harrigan et al., 2018; Alvarez-Milána et al., 2018; Islam et al., 2019).

Though this study acknowledges the importance of these theories, in the development of the customer literature, it is its contention that the concept of
engagement can be extended with the study and application of other behaviour theories. Moreover, in recent years, scholars have called for the application of personal behaviour theories to study customer engagement and in particular the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model (see Islam & Rahman, 2016). This is to broaden the understanding of the engagement concept. This study, therefore, is a response to the call for the stimulus-organism-response model.

4.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY- THE STIMULUS-ORGANISM-RESPONSE (S-O-R) MODEL

The first time scholars started to study consumer reactions to different circumstances, there was no clear explanation for their behaviour (Belk, 1975). As a result of this, researchers began to believe that consumer behaviour was determined by the situation in which a consumer was (Wysong et al., 2012).

The S-O-R model originated from the classical stimulus–response theory (Zhang & Benyoucef, 2016). This stimulus- response theory explained consumers’ individual behaviours as acquired responses to external stimuli (Woodworth, 1929). Despite its initial widespread use, the theory was later criticised for oversimplifying behaviour causes and for not considering mental states (Zhang & Benyoucef, 2016). In order to remedy its shortfalls, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) extended the model and added the concept of “organism” as a mediator between stimulus and response. This concept was adopted as a better reflection of an individual’s cognitive and affective
states prior to their response behaviours (Zhang & Benyoucef, 2016). Prior to the S-O-R model, environmental psychology researchers mostly focused on the emotional responses of an individual to stimuli and their effects on the individual’s behaviour, but had not considered the merging of the two scenarios into one (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The S-O-R theory incorporated the most dominant variables used in previous research such as environmental stimuli, emotional responses and behaviour (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

While marketing science strongly relies on service-dominant logic, relationship marketing and the social exchange theory to understand and explain customer engagement, for this study, however, Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model is used as the theoretical lens for explaining consumer engagement behaviour. The S-O-R deals with the understanding of the influence of environmental factors on consumer behavioural response (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Thus, customer engagement behaviour is conceptualised as consumer response to marketing stimuli presented on social media platforms. This model is operationalised in a stimulus–organism–response (S-O-R) framework which proposes that antecedent stimuli affect the emotions and attitudes (organism) of consumers which the affect their behaviours (responses), for example, purchase intention (Thang & Tan, 2003). Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) S-O-R framework was one of the first, developed to research the effect of atmosphere on behaviour and it remains widely used to this day (Choi & Kandampully, 2019).
The foundational core of S-O-R is that the environment contains stimuli (S) which cause a change in customers’ internal (organismic states, O), and this results in behavioural responses (R) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Thus, the S-O-R model argues that there are some environmental features that can provoke the emotions and cognitions of consumers and these result in certain behavioural outcomes (Donovan & Rositer, 1982). Previous studies have conceptualised these environmental features as advertising (Olney et al., 1991), online brand community (Islam & Rahman, 2017), and the store environment (Vieira, 2013). While the cognitive and emotional state have been conceptualised as pleasure and arousal (Koo & Ju, 2010). The behavioural responses have been conceptualised as customer engagement (Islam & Rahman, 2017), purchase intention (Kim & Lennon, 2013) and impulse buying (Huang, 2016). The S-O-R is therefore made up of three elements; namely: stimulus (S), organism (O), and response (R). Thus, S is external to the individual, O, on the other hand, is internal, and S and O together generate a third behavioural response(R).

4.2.1 The Stimulus Variable

Stimulus has largely been conceptualised in the marketing literature as something that provokes action or increased action (see Sherman, Mathur & Smith, 1997). Thus, in the context of consumer behaviour, the stimulus is conceptualised as the external factors which affect future decisions. According to Bagozzi (1986), “when consumer behaviour is depicted as a stimulus–organism–response system, the stimuli are external to the person and consist of both marketing mix variables and
other environmental inputs” (p. 46). Thus, stimulus is an environmental element that causes changes in an organism (Vieira, 2013). Also, Eroglu, Machleit, and Davies (2003) refer to stimulus as the atmospheric cues that cause changes in customers’ reactions. In marketing, stimuli has been referred to as website quality, reputation in online marketing (Kim & Lennon, 2013), colour, temperature in store environment (Vieira, 2013); motivation to participate in social media (Kamboj, Sarmah, Gupta, & Dwevedi, 2018), ambience, design, and social in retail environment (Chang, Eckman, & Yan, 2011), rewards, virtual interactivity, system quality and information quality in online community (Islam & Rahman, 2017), vocals, visuals, celebrity in tourism marketing (Rajaguru, 2014), marketing mix elements in social commence (Wu & Li, 2018). These stimulus variables are treated as independent variables in consumer behaviour studies. In this current study, stimulus refers to the advertising message strategy employed by firms in their advertising efforts on social media platforms.

4.2.2 The Organismic Variable

In a stimulus–organismic–response model of consumer behaviour, organism refers to “internal processes and structures intervening between stimuli external to the person and the final actions, reactions, or responses emitted (Choi & Kandampullyy, 2019). Notice that the intervening processes and structures consist of perceptual, physiological, feeling, and thinking activities” (Bagozzi, 1986, p. 46). From this conceptualisation, emotional responses explain the perception an individual has
regarding the environment. The dimensions of arousal, pleasure, and dominance are used to describe individual’s perception of the environment (Bakker, van der Voordt, Vint, & de Boon, 2014; Jang & Namkung, 2009). Russell and Mehrabian (1977) posit that in an attempt to adequately describe emotions, there is the need to identify dimensions that are capable of defining all emotional states.

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) describe arousal as a mental activity describing feelings such as excitement, sleep, relaxed, calm etc. pleasure is explained as a state of extreme pain or unhappiness to extreme happiness. Dominance expresses the ability of an individual to express feeling of control or extent of restriction. The organism refers to the individual’s past experiences, predispositions, intentions, values, attitudes, motives, personality, feelings, expectations, images, and other factors (Jacoby, 2002). These factors are regarded as internal structures and processes serving as mediators between external stimuli and the actions of an individual (Chang, Eckman, & Yan, 2011). In marketing studies, organisms are described as emotional reactions such as pleasure, attitude, arousal in online store environment (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2003), experience, mood, and emotions in restaurants (Goi, Kalidas, & Zeeshan, 2014), tourist intentions in tourism marketing (Rajaguru, 2013), consumer value in social commerce (Wu & Li, 2018), utilitarian value, and hedonic value in theme park marketing (Chang, Shu, & King, 2013). In marketing, scholars use these emotional responses as mediators in research models. The purpose therefore is that, the organism (individual) must possess some emotional reactions towards external stimulus presented to them to enable a desired
response. Liu and Jang (2009) state that the model is applied in marketing research, by using emotions as a mediator between environmental stimuli, and customer responses.

### 4.2.3 The Response Variable

Response (R) in the S-O-R model represents all behaviours that can be externally observed, and can take the form of verbal, and non-verbal actions (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Jacoby, 2002). These responses are evident in behaviours such as product purchase, word-of-mouth, storage, usage, and disposal of products, eye fixation, smiles, and other responses (Jacoby, 2002). Chang, Echman, and Yan (2011) posit that responses are final outcomes of consumer behaviours, which could be positive or avoidance behaviour. In marketing literature, the response dimension has been looked at in many studies to examine consumer behaviour. These response variables are operationalised as customer responses to marketing stimuli. In the retail environment, customer impulse buying has been studied as a response variable to retail store environment, design, and customer positive emotions (Chang, Eckman, & Yan, 2011).

### 4.2.4 Customer Engagement Research Underpinned by the S-O-R Model

Marketing scholars have adapted the stimulus-organism-response model, using it to explain consumer behaviour responses to certain stimuli (Carlson et al., 2018). Specifically, the framework has been adapted to studies on retail shopping
environments, where it has been shown that the stimuli of a retail environment affect consumers’ internal state of emotions which then influence behavioural responses towards the store (Baker et al., 1994). Other studies on online retail have also shown that website features influence customer emotions and cognitions and these in turn lead to purchase behaviour, exploration of the store and online communication (Hu et al., 2016; Eroglu et al., 2003).

The S-O-R model has been applied to social media. Research thus far has probed the impact that social media environment cues have on emotions, cognition and intentions to participate in “social commerce” (see Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2018). Additionally, through a literature review, Zhang and Benyoucef (2016) found that web-based “stimuli” include convenience, socialising, interactivity and information content.

In recent times, the S-O-R model has been applied to the study of customer engagement. To be specific, it has been used to show the effect of (1) online environmental characteristics and (2) firm strategies on customer engagement. The first stream of research borders on the effect of online environmental characteristics on customer engagement and seems to be the most popular so far. Studies under this category focus mainly on stimuli within online environments that have the potential to engender customer engagement and other behavioural responses. To be specific, researchers have examined (1) website characteristics (e.g. Demangeot & Broderick,
(2016; Sahoo & Pillai, 2017); and (2) online brand community characteristics (e.g. Islam & Rahman, 2017; Claffey & Brady, 2014). Findings that have emerged from this group of research reveal that the interface design of a website (Demangeot & Broderick, 2016; Sahoo & Pillai, 2017), and quality of the content (Demangeot & Broderick, 2016; Carlson et al., 2018) are positively related to customer engagement.

In respect of online brand community characteristics, studies have shown that the level of brand page interactivity (Islam & Rahman, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018; Palmet & Ghasemi, 2019), brand page sociability (Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016; Carlson et al., 2018; Palmet & Ghasemi, 2019), information quality (Claffey & Brady, 2014; Islam & Rahman, 2017), system quality (Islam & Rahman, 2017), ease of use (Claffey & Brady, 2014), visual appeal (Claffey & Brady, 2014; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016), rewards (Islam & Rahman, 2017) and user-generated content (Palmet & Ghasemi, 2019), are all positively-related to customer engagement.

In addition to online brand characteristics, it is documented in prior research that firms’ strategies can also lead to customer engagement. For instance, Palmet and Ghasemi (2019) in examining the effect of social commerce marketing stimuli found that sales campaigns, targeted messages, offers and recommendations had significant effects on customers’ propensity to engage on Instagram and subsequently brand trust and intention to purchase. Choi and Kandampully (2019)
also concluded that store ambience, design and service providers’ positive delivery of services are positively related to customer engagement. Goor (2012) found that the likelihood of engagement occurring between customers and brands is increased by the brand’s use of contests and promotions and these can result in trust and better relationships (Erdoğmuş & Tatar, 2015). In addition, they argue that these “campaigns” have a positive effect on purchase intention.

4.2.5 Applying the S-O-R Model to the Current Research

The S-O-R model is a fitting theory for this study for two reasons. First of all it has been utilised in an extensive manner in earlier studies pertaining to consumer behaviour (Liu et al., 2014; Grace et al., 2015; Zhang & Xu, 2016). For instance, Parboteeah et al. (2009) researched consumers’ cognitive and emotional responses to website mood and task-relevant nodes and the subsequent effect on online purchase behaviour. Wang et al. (2011) also studied the effects of the features of online stores on consumers’ emotions and cognition, and their behavioural responses. Whereas Koo and Ju (2010)’s research was a confirmation that online environmental features affect consumer intentions and emotions, Wang et al. (2010) recounted a significant relationship among satisfaction, perceived service quality, web athletics and online shopping based on the S-O-R model. Secondly, considering the key role of advertisements in influencing actual and potential customers’ behaviours, the stimulus-organism-response model provides a parsimonious and structured manner through which to research the effects of advertising message
strategies (as external stimuli) on customers’ emotional and attitudinal reactions and, subsequently customer engagement.

As it pertains to this research, the stimulus refers to the advertising message strategies, organism refers to customer emotions and attitude and response, customer engagement.

*Customer Emotions*

As per the chosen S-O-R model, stimuli have the propensity to generate emotions within those exposed to them.

Emotions is measured and defined differently in the literature (Izard, 1977; Russell, 1980; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Richins, 1997). For example, emotions are said to be “a reaction to stimuli that impact one's immediate sensory environment” (Kiehl et al., 2001; Petrides et al., 2007; Ramsøy et al., 2012). Scherer (1987, 2001, 2005) also defines it as “an episode of interrelated, synchronised changes in the states of all or most of the five organismic subsystems in response to the evaluation of an external or internal stimulus event as relevant to major concerns of the organism”. The presence of numerous definitions and measurements of the concept is indicative of the lack of consensus among marketing and management scholars on its definition and measurement (Larsen & Diener 1992; Russell & Feldman
Barrett, 1999; Scherer, 2005; Reisenzein, 2007). In fact, this lack of consensus has existed for over one hundred and twenty years ever since James (1884) first introduced the emotions concept and scholars are doubtful if there ever will indeed be one (Reisenzein, 2007; Frijda, 2016).

**Approaches to Studying Emotions in Marketing Literature**

In the marketing literature, emotions have to a major extent been studied from three approaches, namely, (1) categories, (2) cognitive appraisals, and (3) dimensions (Watson & Spence, 2007). Regarding the categories approach, emotions are grouped depending on their similarities (Watson & Spence, 2007). For instance, in 1980, Plutchik suggested that emotions should be divided into eight groups, with one “basic” emotion (e.g. happiness) utilised as an archetype determining what other emotions should be added to that group. Plutchik’s (1980) suggestion has been adopted by some scholars such as Batra and Holbrook (1990) and Batra and Ray (1986). In both instances, they adopted the approach and showed that emotions affect attitudes towards advertisements. The cognitive appraisals approach, on the other hand, explains the subtle nuances of emotions. It makes predictions about the emotions that will be manifested in a given context and how they will impact behaviour (Watson & Spence, 2007).

The most popular approach, the dimensions approach, has typically included (i) intensity, (ii) potency, (iii) valence and (iv) activation (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).
Out of these, activation and valence are the most commonly-used dimensions (Russell, 1980; Mano, 1990; Larsen & Diener, 1992; Athiyaman, 1997), where valence refers to an affective reaction to perceptions of situations (Clore et al., 1987; Perez & del Bosque, 2015). In other words, emotions are either positive or negative (pleasant or unpleasant) reactions to individuals’ perceptions of situations. The activation dimension, on the other hand, refers to the customer’s sense of energy, referred to in literature as either sleepy or excited (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999).

Mehrabian and Russel (1974) proposed the pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) scale of emotions, a measurement scale which falls under the dimension approach of studying emotions (Watson & Spence, 2007). This measurement scale was later refined by Mehrabian (1980). The scale evaluates individual pleasure and arousal states and is arguably the most commonly used emotions measurement system in consumer research to date. The PAD scale has been employed by researchers such as Christ and Biggers (1984), Donovan and Rossiter (1982), Holbrook et al. (1984), Christ (1985), Holbrook and Batra (1987) and more recently Alsaggaf (2017), Huang et al. (2017), Hall et al. (2017), Hsieh (2017).

*Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) Measurement Scale*

Mehrabian and Russell advanced pleasure, arousal and dominance as three distinct, independent dimensions of affect to describe people’s emotional states (Bakker et al., 2014). According to them, pleasure, arousal and dominance describe individual
emotional states and are key in explaining the way in which customers react in service environments (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Alsaggaf, 2017).

According to Mehrabian and Russell (1974), pleasure relates to feelings of happiness contentment, satisfaction, joy and goodness (Mehrabian, 1976; Menon & Khan, 2002). It is said to entail individuals’ responses to the surrounding environment (e.g., Baker et al., 1992; Sweeney & Wyber, 2002; Yalch & Spangenberg, 2000; Walsh et al., 2011). On the other hand, arousal is related to wakefulness, alertness and a readiness to respond to external stimuli (Mehrabian, 1976). It also expresses the excitement generated, the activity concluded and the degree of stimulation received (Menon & Kahn, 2002; Eroglu et al., 2003). As a result, arousal refers to the excitement the individual experiences in relation to a stimulus (Mehrabian, 1976). Dominance is said to be the degree to which an individual thinks he/she has command over a particular situation (Blackwell et al., 2006). Additionally, Russell and Mehrabian (1976) considered dominance to be a function of the perception an individual has of their power relative to their surroundings. Hence, an individual perceives him/herself to be dominant and empowered based on the degree to which they think they can control their surroundings.

Though originally part of the measures of emotions, the relevance of dominance has been questioned in the literature with some scholars including Russell suggesting it be relegated altogether and the focus remaining solely on pleasure and arousal.
(Russell, 1980; Russell & Pratt, 1980; Russell et al., 1981; Russell, Weiss, & Mendelsohn, 1989; Wu, Cheng & Yen, 2008; Ha & Lennon, 2010). Eroglu et al. (2001, p. 181) further argued that “pleasure and arousal can adequately represent the range of emotions exhibited in response to environmental stimuli”, in effect nullifying the need for the dominance dimension.

This study does not intend measuring perceptions of control or empowerment. Additionally, in agreement with Russell (1980), Eroglu et al. (2001) and the scholars mentioned above, the current research finds no need for the third (dominance) dimension. It therefore opines that pleasure and arousal are sufficient in capturing emotions.

**Attitude towards Advertising**

Attitude is a key concept in marketing research. According to Fishbein (1967, p. 53), an attitude is “a learned predisposition of human beings”. Kotler (2000) also explained that an attitude is “a person's enduring favourable or unfavourable evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies toward some object or idea”. With regard to advertising, consumer attitude is one of the major indicators of advertising effectiveness (Tsang et al., 2004).
Bauer and Greyser (1968) opine that attitude towards advertising is synonymous to audience behaviour towards advertising. Audience behaviour towards advertising is shown via consumers’ favourable or unfavourable responses towards an advertisement (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). Consumers’ attitude towards advertising is a major indicator of advertising effectiveness (Mehta, 2000). This is because consumer’s thoughts and feelings about an advertisement affect their attitude towards the particular advertisement (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989).

Customer Engagement as a Response/Outcome

Most studies that employ the S-O-R model/paradigm treat customer engagement as a response outcome. Few studies employ it as the organism variable (e.g. Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Palmet & Ghasemi, 2019). The treatment of customer engagement as the response outcome seems to be in line with the current perspective that engagement is behaviour. This study also treats the concept as a response outcome, in keeping with earlier discussions in the previous chapter of engagement being behavioural.

Prior studies that have used customer engagement as the response variable have conceptualised it in diverse ways. For instance, Sahoo and Pillai (2017), conceptualised it in terms of word-of-mouth, following the brand on social media, and making use of the brand’s app. Choi and Kandampully (2019), on the other hand, in addition to word-of-mouth, also expressed engagement in terms of offering
product suggestions to the firm. Additionally, for Melton (2013), customer engagement encompasses sharing brand posts, recommending the brand to others and creating user-generated content. This study adds to this existing literature by adopting a conceptualisation of customer engagement that includes engagement behaviour tendencies that occur both online and offline. Hence, this study employs Pansari and Kumar’s (2017) conceptualisation of customer engagement, as discussed in the previous chapter.

Figure 4.1: Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) theoretical framework, as modified for this study.

The S-O-R framework is a theoretically-justified, parsimonious theory through which to study consumers’ responses (Sheth & Sisodia, 2006; Jacoby, 2002; Eroglu et al., 2001) to advertising message stimuli. This is because consumer engagement is seen to be an experiential response to environmental stimuli (Mollen & Wilson, 2010). As Figure 4.1 illustrates, this study proposes that advertising message strategies as stimuli (S) influence customer engagement, a behavioural response (R). This response is mediated by emotions and attitude towards the advertisement that
stimuli (S) relating to the advertising message strategies influence consumer engagement, a behavioural response (R) as per this study. However, this response is mediated by an organism state (O), which for this research encompasses emotions and attitude.

4.3 HYPOTHESES

This study is underpinned by the S-O-R model. The basic underlying argument of the stimulus-organism-response (SOR) model, as discussed in the previous chapter, is that the individual is exposed to a stimulus (in this case a message strategy). This stimulus in turn generates initial emotional and cognitive responses in the individual, which then translate into behaviour. In this study, the attitudinal and emotional (pleasure/arousal) responses represent the organism variables as outlined in the stimulus-organism-response model. This study draws from the fundamental arguments of the SOR model, and extant empirical research to develop the following testable hypotheses.

4.3.1 Advertising Message Strategies, Emotions and Attitude towards Advertisements

It is established in the literature that advertising message strategies have the ability to influence the emotional and attitudinal responses of individuals (Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Olney et al., 1991; Bagozzi & Moore, 1994; Pham et al., 2013). This influence, however, has been said to vary based on message strategy and product
type, where advertisements for hedonic products have been found to generate greater emotional and attitudinal responses than those for utilitarian products (Pham et al., 2013). This study, however, does not intend to compare strategies typically used for hedonic products with strategies typically used for utilitarian products. It is, however, the focus of this study, to ascertain the differences among the various strategies within the two main approaches in their effect on customer emotions and attitude towards the advertisement. The aim is to determine the strategies with the greatest impact on emotions and attitude.

Though the literature has established that advertisements for hedonic products are more potent in generating emotional responses than those for utilitarian, it is interesting to note that there is a paucity of empirical work on the specific types of sub-strategies that are the most potent in the degree to which they influence emotions and attitude towards the advertisement for both types of products. This study opines that differences may exist among the various sub-strategies in their ability to generate emotional responses. Hence the ensuing hypotheses:

\[ H_{1a} \text{ There is a significant difference among the three transmission strategies in their impact on emotions} \]

\[ H_{1b} \text{ There is a significant difference among the three transmission strategies in their impact on attitude towards the advertisement} \]
There is a significant difference among the three ritual strategies in their impact on emotions

There is a significant difference among the three ritual strategies in their impact on attitude towards the advertisement

4.3.2 Emotions and Customer Engagement

An array of research across disciplines documents the significant influence of emotions in the actions and behaviours of individuals. In health psychology, for instance, emotions have been linked to actual behaviour and behavioural intentions (O’Connor et al., 2016; Russell et al., 2017; Drouvelis & Grosskopf, 2016). Previous marketing literature also indicates a positive relationship between customers’ emotions and their actual and potential behaviour (e.g. Olney et al., 1991; Bagozzi et al., 1999; Bloemer & de Ruyter 1999; Fredrickson, 2011; Tronvoll, 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Perez & del Bosque, 2015; Alsaggaf, 2017; Zhao et al., 2018).

According to Mehrabian and Russell (1974), customer emotions result in numerous behavioural responses like purchase intention (Kim & Lennon, 2013; Ha & Lennon, 2010; Hsu & Lin, 2015; Bues et al., 2017) and approach behaviours such as intention to refer, influence and give feedback (Wen, 2012; Hwang et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2008; Karson & Fisher, 2005; Bruner & Kumar, 2005; Eroglu et al., 2003; Shih, 2004; Menon & Kahn, 2002). Numerous studies have found that the process of decision-making, evaluation and purchase are to a large extent affected by emotions
(Ladhari et al., 2008). For instance, Donovan & Rossiter’s (1982) research revealed that pleasure is a major predictor of the probability of a customer returning to a store, the propensity to spend more money than intended and the amount of time spent browsing a store. In a similar study, Baker et al. (1992) found that a customer’s willingness to purchase was affected by their emotions. Walsh et al. (2011) stated that pleasure resulted in positive behaviour. Studies by Ladhari (2007), Loureiro and Ribeiro (2014) and Miniero, Rurale, and Addis (2014) indicate that arousal and pleasure have a strong influence on consumer behaviour. In line with these studies and the evidence they provide, this study anticipates arousal and pleasure to positively influence customer engagement. This study therefore hypothesises as follows:

\[ H_{3a} \text{ pleasure is significantly related to purchase intention} \]

\[ H_{3b} \text{ arousal is significantly related to purchase intention} \]

\[ H_{3c} \text{ pleasure is significantly related to intention to give feedback} \]

\[ H_{3d} \text{ arousal is significantly related to intention to give feedback} \]

\[ H_{3e} \text{ pleasure is significantly related to intention to influence} \]

\[ H_{3f} \text{ arousal is significantly related to intention to influence} \]

\[ H_{3g} \text{ pleasure is significantly related to intention to refer} \]

\[ H_{3h} \text{ arousal is significantly related to intention to refer} \]
4.3.3 Attitude towards the Advert and Customer Engagement

In this particular study, the “response” variable is represented by customer engagement, as conceptualised by Pansari and Kumar (2017). Prior studies indicate that consumer behaviour is affected by attitude towards advertising (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Izquierdo-yusta et al., 2015; Boateng & Okoe, 2015a, b). For example, Lee et al. (2006) argue that favourable attitudes towards an advertisement lead to positive actions. Similar results were revealed by Li et al. (2002), Zeng et al. (2009), Sun and Wang (2010a, b), Chu et al. (2013). Izquierdo-yusta et al. (2015) reveal a direct relationship between consumer attitude towards advertising and behaviour. On the basis of these studies, it is expected that there is a positive and significant relationship between attitude towards the advert and customer engagement (conceptualised as intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to influence and intention to give feedback). Hence it is this study’s contention that:

\[ H_{4a} \text{ Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to purchase} \]

\[ H_{4b} \text{ Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to refer} \]

\[ H_{4c} \text{ Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to influence} \]

\[ H_{4d} \text{ Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to give feedback} \]

4.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

According to scholars, for a framework to be classified as good, it should indicate the phenomenon under consideration, clearly explain the relationship(s) among the constructs and clearly describe the key assumptions underpinning the framework.
(Crossan et al., 1999; Odoom, 2015). This study is an examination of the differences among advertising message strategies in their influence on customers’ emotions and attitude towards the message strategies and the subsequent effect that emotions and attitude have on customer engagement. To be more specific, this research aims at uncovering the most effective type of advertising message strategy for eliciting emotional, attitudinal responses and subsequently customer engagement.

As it pertains to the relationships among the various constructs in the framework, this study opines that advertising message strategies lead to customer engagement via customer emotions and attitude. That advertising and message strategies affect emotions and attitude is not new. In the broader advertising literature, it is well established that customers respond attitudinally and emotionally to advertisements before they do behaviourally (Mitchel & Olson, 1981; Li et al., 2002; Tsang et al., 2004; Zeng et al., 2009; Sun & Wang, 2010; Chu et al., 2013). As a result, this study does not test if the advertising messages impact emotions and attitude.

Regarding assumptions, the framework articulates that advertising message strategies comprise social, ego, sensory, acute need, ration and routine, following Taylor et al.’s (1999) conceptualisation. Three of these (social, ego and sensory) are ritual message strategies whereas the other three are transmission strategies (Taylor et al., 1999). It is pertinent to note that the three ritual strategies are largely employed when advertising hedonic/luxury products, while the transmission strategies are
mainly used for advertising utilitarian/functional products. As it pertains to customer attitudes and emotions, the study draws on the works of Mehrabian and Russell (1974), Mazaheri et al. (2011) and Blasco-Arcas et al. (2016) to include pleasure and arousal as well as attitude towards the advert. Regarding customer engagement, Pansari and Kumar’s (2017) conceptualisation was relied upon. This includes intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence.

In light of the above, this study proposes a conceptual framework presented in figure 4.2. This framework theorises that there are differences among ritual and transmission message strategies in their effects on emotions and attitude which ultimately trigger a behavioural response in the form of customer engagement. Hence, the message strategies with the greatest effect on emotions and attitude, by logic, have the greatest effect on customer engagement. Based on the preceding discussions in this chapter, this study proposes the following conceptual framework as the basis for examining empirical data. It has been adapted from Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response model:
4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter was dedicated to discussions on the popular theories that have traditionally underpinned customer engagement research, the theoretical framework and conceptual framework of the study. The chapter began by briefly highlighting

Source: Adapted from Merhabian and Russell’s (1974) S-O-R model
Figure 4.2 The research model.
three (3) of the most popular theories in the literature (social exchange theory, service dominant logic and relationship marketing). Each theory, the assumptions underlying them and the manner in which each of them relates to customer engagement was discussed. The study then contended that the engagement concept can be extended with the study and application of other behaviour theories. Additionally, scholars have called for the application of personal behaviour theories to study customer engagement and in particular the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model (see Islam & Rahman, 2016). This is to broaden the understanding of the engagement concept. This study, therefore, is a response to the call for the stimulus-organism-response model. The chapter then moved to discuss the main theory that has been adopted for this study: the stimulus-organism-response model. This theory explains that people’s behaviour towards certain things are as a result of learned responses to external stimuli (Woodworth, 1929). Thus, for the purposes of this research, customer engagement behaviour can be viewed as consumer responses to marketing stimuli presented on social media platforms. The foundational core of S-O-R is that environmental stimuli (S) cause changes to customers’ internal states (O), and this results in behavioural responses (R) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The chapter then progressed to examine some of the research on customer engagement where S-O-R model has been applied. The model has been used in researches that focus on retail shopping and social media environments to ascertain the effect of technological environment stimuli on emotions and cognition and plans to engage in social commerce. In addition, prior studies have shown that online environmental characteristics and firm strategies affect customer engagement. The chapter then
progressed to show how the S-O-R model applies to the current study. Extant research was cited, arguments were made and it was finally concluded that as it pertains to this study, the stimulus (S) refers to the advertising message strategies, organism (O) refers to customer emotions and attitude towards the advertisement and response (R) refers to customer engagement. The justification for using the S-O-R model for this study is that it has been extensively used in previous studies pertaining to consumer behaviours (Liu et al., 2014; Grace et al., 2015; Zhang & Xu, 2016). Also given the critical role of advertisements in influencing actual and potential customers’ behaviours, the stimulus-organism-response model is a theoretically-justified, parsimonious theory through which to study consumers’ responses (Sheth & Sisodia, 2006; Jacoby, 2002; Eroglu et al., 2001) to advertising message stimuli. The chapter concluded with the development of testable research hypotheses where arguments based on extent research were made. The research framework was also discussed. This framework theorises that there are differences among ritual and transmission message strategies in their effects on emotions and attitude which ultimately trigger a behavioural response in the form of customer engagement. Hence, the message strategies with the greatest effect on emotions and attitude, by logic, have the greatest effect on customer engagement.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter reports on the research design and methodology employed in the study. Research paradigms and their respective philosophical assumptions underpinning them are first discussed. Discussions then proceed to the research purpose, research strategy, research approach and data collection methods employed. A detailed description of the analyses procedure ends the chapter.

5.1 RESEARCH PARADIGMS AND PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS

All academic research is based on and influenced by a particular paradigm and the philosophical assumptions underlying it (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Proctor, 2005; Blaikie, 2010).

5.1.1 Research Paradigms

A research paradigm (or worldview), is a “system of beliefs and practices that influence how researchers select both the questions they study and methods that they use to study them” (Morgan, 2007, p. 50). Researchers may view research paradigms as conceptual frameworks within which they may work (Healy & Perry, 2000) or “a set of linked assumptions about the world which is shared by a community of scientists investigating the world” (Deshpande, 1983, p. 101). Research paradigms
determine what a “valid” research is and the suitable method(s) to be used (Myers, 2013). They are not theories in themselves, but they are the foundation upon which theories are built (Arndt, 1985; Tronvoll et al., 2011).

Filstead (1979 in Deshpande, 1983) summarises research paradigms and their objectives thus:

A paradigm (1) serves as a guide to the professionals in a discipline for it indicates what are the important problems and issues confronting the discipline; (2) goes about developing an explanatory scheme (i.e., models and theories) which can place these issues and problems in a framework which will allow practitioners to try to solve them; (3) establishes the criteria for the appropriate "tools" (i.e., methodologies, instruments, and types and forms of data collection) to use in solving these disciplinary puzzles; and (4) provides an epistemology in which the preceding tasks can be viewed as organizing principles for carrying out the "normal work" of the discipline. Paradigms not only allow a discipline to "make sense" of different kinds of phenomena but provide a framework in which these phenomena can be identified as existing in the first place (Filstead, 1979, p. 34).

5.1.2 Common Paradigms in Management Research

Several paradigms exist, each with their own philosophical assumptions regarding axiology (set of values), epistemology (what is regarded as knowledge), methodology (instruments, research design) and ontology (assumptions about the nature of social reality) (Brennan et al., 2011; Tadajewski, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Effah, 2015; Odoom, 2015). Saunders et al. (2009), however, have indicated that in
management research, pragmatism, positivism, realism and interpretivism are the most common paradigms.

A. Positivism as a Research Paradigm

Positivism, also known as logical positivism, emerged as a philosophy in the 1920s and thirties from philosophers Ludwig Wittgenstein and Rudolf Carnap (Hunt, 1991), though some aspects of it were derived from David Hume and Auguste Comte, Scottish and French philosophers, respectively (Arndt, 1985). Positivism dominates in science and scholars who adhere to this paradigm and its variants reject metaphysics, hold on to the notion that research ought to be conducted only on observable phenomenon, via deductive reasoning and the use of formal logic as an analytical tool (Hunt, 1991; Healy & Perry, 2000.). Positivists are of the view that researchers must detach themselves from the world they study (Healy & Perry, 2000; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). They rely on formal propositions as well as quantifiable measures of variables. Furthermore, they employ hypotheses testing and draw conclusions about phenomena from a representative sample drawn from a population (Tronvoll et al., 2011; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Additionally, positivist researchers rely on theory and pre-defined apriori relationships in conducting their research. The primary mode of data collection in positivist research includes controlled experiments and sample surveys (Healy & Perry, 2000) and scholars usually employ quantitative methods of data analyses (Crossan, 2003).
B. Interpretivism as a Research Paradigm

Interpretivism is also known as constructivism. Scholars belonging to this paradigm deny that one real world exists (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). They believe, in contrast to the positivists, that multiple realities exist due to various individual perspectives which are constantly changing (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988; Harrison & Reilly, 2011), hence ignoring these multiple realities in the conduct of research violates the individual’s views (Krauss & Putra, 2005). The main goal of interpretive research is understanding behaviour via the process of seeking to determine other subjective experiences reasons, meanings and motives (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988; Gephart, 2004; Harrison & Reilly, 2011). As a result, interpretivists tend to favour qualitative research (Feilzer, 2010) often arriving at emergent themes (Chung & Alagaratman, 2001).

C. Pragmatism as a Research Paradigm

Pragmatism is an alternative worldview to the positivist and interpretivist paradigms and focuses on the problem to be researched and the consequences of the research (Fielzer, 2010). Rather than focusing on assumptions regarding the nature of reality, pragmatism is concerned with solving practical problems in the real world. (Brennan et al., 2011). Pragmatism is essentially a blend of both positivism and interpretivism. It accepts that there are singular and multiple realities Fielzer (2010) hence the researcher in a sense is not “imprisoned” by either positivism or interpretivism. Pragmatists also hold an “antirepresentational view of knowledge” and contend that
research ought not to make the accurate representation of reality its goal, but rather aim at being useful, aiming at utility (Rorty, 1999, p. xxvi in Fielzer, 2010). Pragmatists make use of mixed methods research, and induction, deduction and abduction for understanding results (Harrison & Reilly, 2011).

D. Realism as a Research Paradigm
Realism is an increasingly popular worldview among social science researchers (Healy & Perry, 2000). Academics who subscribe to the realism paradigm are of the view that an imperfectly apprehensible “real” world exists (Tsoukas, 1989; Merriam, 1988; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Godfrey & Hill, 1995). This “real” world “consists of abstract things born of people’s minds which exist independently of any one person” (Healy & Perry, 2000, p. 120). Hence, there is an external reality (Harre & Madden, 1975; Bhaskar, 1978). Realists acknowledge that differences exist between their perception of the world and what it is in reality. They seek to create various views of this reality in terms of which ones are relative in time and place (Riege, 2003). “The desire of realism research is to develop a “family of answers” that covers several contingent contexts and different reflective participants” (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p. 152).
Table 5.1 Summary and comparison of four main research paradigms in management research.

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<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Realism</th>
<th>Interpretivism</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
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<td><strong>Ontology:</strong> the</td>
<td>External; objective and independent of social actors.</td>
<td>Is objective.</td>
<td>Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple realities</td>
<td>External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering of research question</td>
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<td>researcher’s view of</td>
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<td>Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but it is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist).</td>
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<td>the nature of reality</td>
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<td>or being</td>
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<td><strong>Epistemology:</strong> the</td>
<td>Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law-like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements</td>
<td>Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively, phenomena create sensations which are open to misinterpretation (critical realism).</td>
<td>Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions</td>
<td>Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data</td>
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<td><strong>Axiology:</strong> the</td>
<td>Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.</td>
<td>Research is value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing. These will impact on the research.</td>
<td>Research is value bound; the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective</td>
<td>Values play a large role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view</td>
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<td>the role of values in</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Data Collection</strong></td>
<td>Highly structured, large samples, measurement, qualitative, but can use qualitative</td>
<td>Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, qualitative or quantitative</td>
<td>Small samples in-depth investigations, qualitative</td>
<td>Mixed or multiple method designs, qualitative and quantitative</td>
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This research adopts an objective ontology independent of social actors, focuses on causal relationships and law-like generalisations and subscribes to the axiology of the researcher being independent of the phenomenon being studied. As a result, the positivist paradigm underpins this work.

5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

Two (2) basic approaches to research exist, both of which are widely employed in marketing research: exploratory (qualitative) and conclusive (quantitative) (Boyd et al., 2002). Both approaches have their respective benefits and uses in respect of the fundamental objective(s) of any research and neither of them is better than the other (Cassell & Symon, 2006). For instance, the exploratory/qualitative approach is adopted when the objective is to discover new relationships (Boyd et al., 2002; Malhotra, 2007). On the other hand, when decision-making is the goal researchers adopt a conclusive/quantitative method (Boyd et al., 2002; Malhotra, 2007). A third approach, (mixed methods), is a hybrid of qualitative and quantitative approaches and is used by numerous scholars, especially those who subscribe to a pragmatic worldview (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

5.2.1 Research Approach used in this Study

A conclusive/quantitative approach to research was adopted, specifically a causal approach. The decision to adopt such an approach was based on the study’s objectives and the paradigm of choice which requires such an approach. Causal
research, according to Malhotra (2007), is useful in the event that the researcher desires to obtain information on cause-and-effect relationships. To explain further, he reveals that a causal approach is an appropriate method if the aim of the research is to:

- Determine which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which ones are the effect (dependent variables) of a phenomenon
- Determine the nature of the relationship between causal variables and the effect to be predicted (Malhotra, 2007)

The conclusive approach was adopted since this study sought to test and examine the cause-and-effect relationship(s) among six (6) advertising message strategies (social, sensory, routine, acute need, ration and ego, emotions (pleasure and arousal), attitude and customer engagement conceptualised as behaviour. The research sought to determine the message strategy which elicits the greatest impact on customers’ emotions, attitude and consequently customer engagement.

The main form of causal research is the experiment (Malhotra, 2007), which is a “process of manipulating one or more independent variables and measuring their effect on one or more dependent variables” (Malhotra, 2007 p. 224). A major requirement of the experiment is the complete control of all factors that might affect the phenomenon of interest (Neuman, 2007). However, in reality, it is neither possible nor is it practical to control for all factors. Therefore, scholars recommend the quasi-experimental design, which is similar to the classic experimental design,
but enables the researcher to test for causality without having to control for all factors (Neuman, 2007). This study employed the quasi-experimental design as it was not possible or practical to control for all factors.

5.3 QUASI-EXPERIMENT AS A RESEARCH DESIGN

A quasi-experiment is an observational study with “an exogenous explanatory variable that the investigator does not control” (King et al., 1995). The prefix “quasi” means “resembling”, hence quasi-experimental research bears semblance to experimental research, although it is not (Chiang, 2015). The objective of quasi-experiments is to establish causality between a phenomenon and an outcome (Harris et al., 2006). As a design, quasi-experiments, though not as popularly used as the survey, are gradually being employed in the wider management literature as well as in marketing scholarship. They differ from classic experimental studies due to the fact that it is not required of the investigator to actively randomise participants to different treatments, though some types randomise respondents (Neuman, 2007; Geldsetzer & Fawzi, 2017). Treatments in experimental research refer to the independent variable or stimulus the researcher modifies/manipulates (Neuman, 2007).

Regarding the manner in which experimenters construct the environment, there are two primary ways (Charness et al., 2012). First there is the between-subjects design in which each respondent is individually exposed to just one treatment/condition.
With this type of design, so long as individuals are randomly assigned to different groups, results are attained by comparing the behaviour of those in one experimental condition with those of others in other groups (Charness et al., 2012). The within-subject design is the second. With these designs, each respondent is exposed to all treatment conditions being tested (Shuttlesworth, 2009; Cherry, 2019). So long as each of the exposures is independent of the others, results can be attained by comparing the changes in behaviour of the individual in each circumstance (Charness et al., 2012). One major advantage of the within-subjects design over the between-subjects is errors associated with individual differences are reduced. In addition, with between-subjects where individuals are assigned to the independent variable or treatment, there remains the possibility that there may be fundamental differences between the groups which could impact the results (Cherry, 2019). For the purposes of this study and to mitigate against the errors of the between-subjects design, the within-subjects design was adopted for this particular study.

5.4 DATA COLLECTION

Data can be classified as either primary or secondary in nature. Secondary data essentially includes such as is found within books, journal articles, websites and catalogues and which provides information which may have been collected for other purposes (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005). Primary data, on the other hand, is collected when there is no secondary data to answer a specific research problem. The subsequent subsections give a detailed account of the processes involved in data
collection, right from the crafting and design of advertising message strategies and questionnaire through to the actual procedure of collecting data.

### 5.4.1 Advertising Message Strategies

Six different messages were created, following the six message strategies espoused by Taylor’s (1999) conceptualisation of message strategies. In keeping with discussions in the literature, three of the messages were crafted to follow the three strategies (ego, social and sensory) deemed suitable for hedonic (luxury) brands and the other three followed the message strategies (rational, acute need and routine) suited for utilitarian (functional) brands. The first three were developed for Mercedes Benz and the latter for Pepsodent toothpaste.

**Advertising Message Validation**

All six advertising messages were reviewed by six academics familiar with the advertising literature. Three of the academics from were from the Department of Marketing and Entrepreneurship, University of Ghana Business School and the other three from the Department of Marketing, University of Professional Studies, Accra. All six academics are doctorate degree holders and have been teaching and offering consultancy to firms for at least 10 years. One has been teaching close to five years. Each of the scholars has published in several peer-reviewed journals of international repute. Each person was given a sheet of paper on which was printed a table, on the left side of which were Taylor’s (1999) definitions and descriptions of each of the
six advertising message strategies. The right side of the table comprised the six advertising messages each developed according to the descriptions/definitions of the six message strategies advanced by Taylor (1999). Three were developed for Mercedes-Benz and the other for Pepsodent toothpaste. They were arranged in no particular order. Each person was required to match each description/definition with a message they felt best captured it. At the end of the exercise, where the matchings did not reflect what was intended, respondents were each given the opportunity to provide reason(s). Feedback was taken in that regard and the messages were refined with the help of a copywriter working for Origin8 Limited, one of the largest advertising agencies in Ghana and given to another set of academics for review.

Once the messages were complete, the study progressed to the next stage where the advertisements were created. In keeping with the six message strategies, six advertisements were developed, three for Mercedes-Benz and three for Pepsodent toothpaste. All six adverts were created with the help and input of one graphic designer and an adman from Origin8 Limited.

5.4.2 Data Collection Instrument

The data collection instrument, being a structured questionnaire, was developed based on the objectives set for the research. In order to accurately develop the questionnaire and realise the study’s objectives, a synthesis of the customer engagement literature was conducted, from which Taylor’s (1999) and Pansari and
Kumar’s (2017) conceptualisation of advertising message strategies and customer engagement respectively, in addition to Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model were adopted. Per the study’s adaptation of the S-O-R model, the stimuli were the advertising message strategies. The organism comprised both the customer emotions and attitude and the response variable was customer engagement, conceptualised as intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence.

An initial draft of the questionnaire was developed with measurement scales adapted from existing literature and pre-tested on forty (40) executive masters in business administration (EMBA) students, who possess characteristics similar to the desired sample, following the recommendation of Malhotra (2007) and DeVellis (2003). Respondents were given the opportunity to request explanations regarding any part of the questionnaire which was unclear. The questionnaire was subsequently revised and reworded in order to ensure clarity of measurement items.

The questionnaire was divided into three main parts. The first required the respondents to provide information pertaining to their gender, age and level of education. The second section comprised questions pertaining to customer emotions (captured by pleasure and arousal) and attitude, whilst the third pertained to customer engagement. The questionnaire for the most part relied on a 7-point Likert scale.
Regarding the various contents in the questionnaire, pleasure and arousal were measured using multiple item scales via seven-point semantic differentials. These were adopted from Mehrabian and Russell (1974), Mazaheri et al. (2011) and Blasco-Arcas et al. (2016). Attitude was also measured using a multiple item seven-point semantic scale adopted from Muehling (1987) and Madden et al. (1988).

5.4.3 Sampling
According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005), sampling is an important procedure in quantitative research providing at least two (2) benefits over utilising an entire population: (1) it would be expensive to include all units in a population, and (2) it would take too long a time to obtain such information.

Determination of Sample Size
The sample size utilised in this particular study was arrived at based on the minimum accepted sample size for structural equation modelling (SEM). According to scholars, a sample of at least 300-500 offers adequate statistical power for data analysis for SEM (Hoe, 2008; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2013; Singh et al., 2016; DeVellis, 2017). The final sample size was four hundred and twenty-eight (428).
Sampling Method Employed in this Study

Sampling techniques may be classified as either being probability or nonprobability (Neuman, 2007). Probability sampling is a sampling method whereby each member of a given population possesses an equal probabilistic chance of being chosen to be part of the sample (Malhotra, 2007). It includes such techniques as cluster sampling, stratified sampling, systematic sampling and simple random sampling. Nonprobability sampling techniques, on the other hand, are not based on chance, but on the researcher’s own judgement (Malhotra, 2007). Examples of these methods include snowball sampling, quota sampling, judgemental sampling and convenience sampling (Neuman, 2007; Malhotra, 2007).

This study employed purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling procedure, to select respondents. Purposive sampling was utilised to select middle and top-level managers working mostly in service firms in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The services sector in the Greater Accra Region was used as the bulk of Ghanaian executives work in same (Sabutey, 2017; Plecher, 2019). In order to achieve results that are as close to reality as much as possible, purposive sampling was used to select middle to top tier level management. Purposive sampling allows for the researcher to obtain participants with specific characteristic traits needed for the study (Neuman, 2007; Hair et al., 2010). Middle and top-level management individuals were selected for this study because they fall within Mercedes-Benz’ target market of middle to top level income earners (Zafeer, 2014). It was important that the sample used in this particular study was a reflection of Mercedes-Benz’ actual target
so that the results reflect reality as much as possible. In addition, business executives were also used in the case of Pepsodent because it is the brand that is the most popular in Ghana as far as toothpaste brands are concerned. As the within-subject quasi-experimental design was selected for this study, there was no need to further divide the respondents into treatment groups via random sampling. Each respondent was exposed to all six treatment conditions.

5.4.4 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher sought permission from the relevant quarters of firms within the Greater Accra Metropolis, specifically requesting for a 45-minute meeting with business executives. Each executive was given a brief summary of the study by way of introduction, then shown the adverts on a tablet the researcher used. They were exposed to one advert for five (5) minutes subsequent to which they filled one questionnaire. This process was repeated for all the six types of advertisements until each respondent was exposed to all six advertisements and their respective questionnaires. It must be noted that the advertisements were not shown in immediate succession. Neither were all six advertisements shown in one day for any particular executive. Some spanned several days. In all, the entire duration of the data collection period spanned approximately six (6) months, from September 2019 to February 2020.
5.5 MODE OF ANALYSIS

Quantitative data analysis techniques can be grouped into two (2) broad categories, namely univariate and multivariate techniques (Malhotra, 2007). Univariate techniques are useful for analysis when a single measurement exists for each element in the sample or several measurements on each element and each variable is analysed separately (Malhotra, 2007). On the other hand, multivariate techniques, are utilised when the variables are to be analysed simultaneously and there are two (2) or more measurements on each element (Malhotra, 2007).

5.5.1 Multivariate Analysis Techniques

Multivariate techniques are classified as either dependence or interdependence techniques (Hair et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra, 2007). Dependence techniques are those techniques which are employed in the event that one or more variables is the dependent variable to be predicted by other variables termed independent variables (Hair et al., 2006). These techniques seem good for use with causal/experimental research. Examples of dependence techniques include multiple regression, structural equation modelling and multivariate analysis of variance (Hair et al., 2006). On the other hand, interdependence techniques include those in which variables are not classified as being either dependent or independent. However, all variables are analysed collectively at the same time (Hair et al., 2006). One major example of this type of analyses technique is factor analysis (Malhotra, 2007).
Analytical Techniques Employed in this Study

Structural equation modelling (SEM) and one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were the methods of data analysis used in this study. The decision to employ these techniques was informed by the objectives of this research. To be specific, MANOVA was selected to fulfil objectives one (1) and two (2). It was also chosen instead of its univariate form (ANOVA) because the study possessed more than one dependent variable, (Malhotra, 2007). The dependent variables, in this study, were pleasure, arousal and attitude. SEM was employed to examine the interrelationships among pleasure, arousal, attitude and the four (4) dimensions of customer engagement. To be specific, it was employed to fulfil objectives three (3) and four (4). It was selected instead of other dependence techniques such as multiple regression because it considers measurement errors in variables, hence generates more potent and precise results than other analytical techniques (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Hair et al., 2016).

a) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

The decision to employ a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was informed by the objectives of the research, the measurement scales and number of both the independent (advertising message strategies) and dependent (pleasure, arousal and attitude) variables. As an extension of one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA), MANOVA measures the differences between more than one
metric dependent variable on a set of nonmetric independent variables (Malhotra, 2007; Hair et al., 2014). It offers more insights than ANOVA into the effects that independent variables have on dependent variables Sharma, 1996; Kleinbaun et al., 1998). MANOVA can be used in non-experimental studies. However, it is especially useful when used with experimental designs (Maposa et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014; Biswas et al., 2018; Hildebrand & Schlager, 2018). MANOVA makes it possible for judgements to be made regarding observed effects (i.e., whether a difference is due to variability in random sampling or a treatment effect) (Hair et al., 2014). What is unique about MANOVA is that “the variate optimally combines the multiple dependent measures into a single value that maximises the differences across the groups” (Maposa et al., 2010).

Prior to running a MANOVA, three main assumptions are to be met. Normality is the first and most basic assumption. It refers to the degree to which each metric variable’s data distribution corresponds to the normal distribution (Maposa et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014). A violation of the normality assumption leads to a compromising power of the test statistic (Johnson & Wichern, 1998). The second assumption requires the covariance matrices for all treatments be equal (Maposa et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014). The final assumption is that observations must be independent (Maposa et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014). This assumption of independence of observations has a considerable impact on the degree of significance and the power of a test (Maposa et al., 2010).
b) Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a group of statistical models that explain the relationships between multiple variables (Hair et al., 2014). Similar to multiple regression, SEM examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations. However, unlike multiple regression, it considers measurement errors of latent variables (Jöreskog et al., 1979, Odoom, 2015). These equations show all of the relationships between dependent and independent variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The difference between SEM and other multivariate techniques is that the former uses distinct relationships for each set of dependent variables. Simply put, SEM in a simultaneous manner estimates a series of distinct, but interdependent, multiple regression equations.

SEM yields benefits not possible with other statistical methods. First of all, unlike is the case with other procedures, SEM takes into account types of errors that confound other procedures (Odoom, 2015). It is useful in institutional or cultural contexts, within or across groups, measurement or hypothesis testing, cross-sectional or longitudinal studies and experimental or survey research, (Odoom, 2015).

The justification for employing SEM is its ability to answer additional multifaceted questions about data. It allows for the identification of structural relationships among the latent variables and considers measurement errors in the variables to generate
more precise representations (Hair et al., 2014). SEM is also said to be a more potent option to multiple regression and factor analysis. According to Hair et al., (2014), latent variables, also called constructs or factors, are not directly measurable, but measured indirectly by their respective indicators (observed variables). SEM considers simultaneous equations with dependent variables, and the simultaneous analysis of a series of structural equations. In addition, SEM’s ability to consider and assess both structural and predicative questions presents an exceptional strength deemed appropriate for the current investigation. SEM represents the appropriate technique where inherent errors reflecting the “imperfect nature” of the constructs are fully considered within the specification of the technique.

In this study, structural equation modelling was applied in order to test the hypothesised relationships put forth in the previous chapter. Specifically, the study sought to examine the structural paths among the constructs (i.e. to test the various hypotheses proposed in this study). Prior to running the SEM model, a measurement model was run in order to (1) specify the indicators for each construct and (2) assess construct validity and reliability (Kline, 2005; Byrne, 2013; Hair et al., 2014). The measurement model for this study was tested through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). After the measurement model had been specified and all constructs were found to be in conformity with established measures, the structural model was then conducted. A structural model is a set of one or more dependence relationships that links the constructs of a hypothesised model (Hair et al., 2010; 2014). The structural
model is useful in representing the interrelationships of variables between constructs.

5.5.2 Analytical Instruments Employed

The analytical instruments used for this study were the IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22.0 and IBM’s Analysis of Moments of Structures (AMOS) version 21 software package. Both these software have been extensively used by researchers in customer engagement as quantitative data analysis instruments (Gummerus et al., 2012; Poorrezaei, 2017; Harrigan et al., 2017; Martinez-Lopez et al., 2017; Kosiba et al., 2018; van Tonder & Petzer, 2018; Hinson et al., 2019). SPSS was used to code, screen and clean the data, and to conduct the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Afterwards, the data were transferred to Amos for the second part of the analysis which involved structural equation modelling (SEM).

5.5.3 Data Analysis Procedure

a) Initial Data Screening/Examination

After the data were entered into SPSS, they were cleaned and then examined for the assumptions underlying MANOVA and SEM. First of all, all of the variables were checked for univariate normality via kurtosis and skewness. Each variable was examined for univariate normality since no statistical tests as yet exist for testing multivariate normality (Hair et al., 2006; 2014). The results showed the variables followed a normal distribution.
As pertains to the MANOVA analysis statistical technique, both multivariate Box’s M and univariate Levene’s tests for equality of covariance matrices and equality of error variances, respectively, were carried out to test for the assumption of homoscedasticity. Neither test was significant, indicating variances were equal across groups on the dependent variables for both ritual and transmission message strategies.

The data conformed to all the statistical assumptions underlying a MANOVA and SEM. As such there was no need to transform either variable. Hence the analysis proceeded.

(b) MANOVA

In order to ascertain overall model fit and estimate the MANOVA, multivariate tests were carried out. Alpha was set to .05. As the study sought to determine the differences in the effect of ritual and transmission message strategies, the multivariate tests were run twice. The first for the ritual messages and the second for transmission strategies. A significant main effect of the independent variable (advertising message strategies) on the combined set of the dependent variables (pleasure, arousal and attitude) was uncovered. However, this was only true of the ritual advertising message strategies primarily used for hedonic (luxury) products. The initial multivariate tests showed a non-significant main effect for transmission
advertising message strategies for utilitarian (functional) products. As a result, no further tests were carried out for the three transmission strategies. However, additional univariate tests were conducted on the three ritual strategies. This was done in order to ascertain the likelihood of significant differences among the ritual advertising message strategies. Results of the tests pointed to significant differences among the three ritual strategies in their influence on pleasure, arousal and attitude towards the advertisement.

Additionally, although the results of the MANOVA and univariate ANOVA tests revealed significant differences across the three ritual message strategies, there was no clear indication regarding the origin of the differences. Also, that there is a statistical main effect does not mean each group difference will be statistically significant (Hair et al., 2006; 2014). Therefore a Scheffé post hoc test was carried out with the aim of uncovering the nature of the differences among the three ritual strategies. Many post-hoc tests are available and at the disposal of scholars. Notable among the post-hoc tests are Duncan’s multiple-range test, Newman-Keuls test, Tukey’s least significant difference (LSD) and Tukey’s honestly significant difference (HSD) and (Hair et al., 2006; 2014). Each of these tests for the presence of significant differences among all possible pairs of groups (Hair et al., 2006; 2014). The Scheffé test was selected as against the other post-hoc tests because it is less susceptible to a type one error (Hair et al., 2006; 2014). A type one error is “the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it should be accepted, that is,
concluding that two means are significantly different when in fact they are the same” (Hair et al., 2006; 2014).

The Scheffé test made comparisons between groups of the three ritual advertising message strategies. This was to ascertain the differences between the groups that were significant. As was made clear earlier, the initial tests revealed that there was no significant difference in the effects of the transmission strategies on the dependent variables. Hence there was no need to conduct a post-hoc test on them. Multiple combinations of the three ritual advertising message strategies were made. Each combination was assessed at a 95% confidence level for differences between the means. Each combination comprised two message different message strategies. Conclusions were then drawn from those results.

(c) Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Testing Model Fitness

The process of testing the fitness of the model involves interpreting the extent to which the conceptualised model suits the research. It involves selecting among a number of fit indices that show if the data fit the theoretically-postulated model (Hair et al., 2014). Numerous fit indices have been proposed by scholars and these are divided along the lines of absolute fit and incremental fit indices, respectively (Hair et al., 2014). Absolute fit indices assess the extent to which a research’s theory suits the sample data (Hair et al., 2014). Incremental fit indices provide an assessment of
how well the estimated model matches some alternative baseline model (Hair et al., 2014). Regardless, the model fit criteria that are commonly used include, but are not limited to, the standardised root mean residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Pcose and chi-square ($\chi^2$).

The chi-square ($\chi^2$), p of Close fit (PClose), standardised root mean residual (SRMR) and comparative fit index (CFI ≥ 0.90) fit indices were used in this study to ascertain the extent to which the measurement model suited the data and assess how strong and acceptable the construct measurements were. Each index had conventionally-acceptable values.

Reliability

Reliability is “an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 123). Internal consistency is one common measure of reliability. It is an assessment of the individual items or indicators of a scale to ensure they are all highly intercorrelated and measure the same construct (Nunnally, 1979; Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2014). For the purposes of testing the internal consistency, or reliability of the constructs, maximum shared value (MSV), composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE), following Hair et al. (2014), were assessed. Composite reliability measures the overall reliability of a collection of similar but heterogeneous items. The AVE, on
the other hand, indicates the amount of variance that items purporting to measure a particular construct share with the construct (Odoom, 2015).

Construct Validity

To assess construct validity, convergent and discriminant validity were examined. Convergent validity was assessed using the standardised factor loadings provided by the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). According to scholars, convergent validity refers to the degree to which a high proportion of variance is shared in common with indicators of a specific construct (Hair et al., 2014).

Discriminant validity was analysed using Fornell and Larcker’s (1981)’s recommended procedure. It is the degree to which a construct is dissimilar to other constructs in terms of the extent to which it correlates with other constructs and how unique variables represent only this single construct (Hair et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2014). The procedure recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981) requires the square root of the AVE to be greater than all the corresponding correlations.

Results for both reliability and validity measures are presented in Chapter 6.
5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, this chapter outlined the processes through which data were gathered and analysed. It defined the research approach as quantitative and situated within the positivist research paradigm (Hunt, 1991; Healy & Perry, 2000; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The research employed a within-subjects quasi-experimental method, the justification for which is that in comparison to a between-subjects design, the errors as far as individual differences, which could impact the results, are reduced (Cherry, 2019). Six (6) advertisements all with different advertising message strategies were developed, three of which were for hedonic (luxury) products and three for utilitarian (functional) products. The development of the advertisements and their advertising message strategies was done in consultation with academics well versed in the advertising literature, a copywriter working for Origin8 Limited, one of the largest advertising agencies in Ghana and a graphic designer and an adman from Origin8 Limited. Over four hundred (400) respondents in middle to top tier management took part in the study. The processes through which the data were collected are captured in detail in the chapter. In order to analyse the data, two methods were utilised. First was the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), which was used to answer the first and second objectives of the study. Subsequent to that, the chapter documents the manner in which a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equations modelling (SEM) analysis was conducted in order to achieve the third and fourth objectives. Prior to conducting the analyses using both MANOVA and SEM, the data underwent several tests recommended by scholars (Maposa et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014; 2016) to determine if they
conformed to the fundamental assumptions underlying both analyses. The chapter lists the various indices that were used to test for model fit (the chi-square ($\chi^2$), standardised root mean residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI) and Pclose). To test for the reliability of the constructs, it was documented that composite reliability, average variance extracted and maximum shared value were used, following Hair et al. (2014). The analysis techniques were deemed suitable for accomplishing the research objectives.
CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION OF EMPIRICAL DATA

6.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter is a presentation and discussion of the empirical results of the study. The results are presented first, in order of the research objectives proposed in the introductory chapter. It begins with the descriptive statistics of the scale variables, then proceeds to the profile of the respondents. The results of the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) are then presented, followed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results. Additionally, the results of the various tests carried out to check for the reliability and validity of the scales employed in this research are presented. The chapter finally ends with the results of the structural model.

6.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

According to Pallant (2011), before statistical analyses on data are carried out, descriptive analyses must be conducted on same particularly when human participants are involved (Odoom, 2015). Statistics such as range of scores, standard deviation, the mean, kurtosis and skewness all descriptively analyse the data (Odoom, 2015). The table below presents the descriptive statistics of the variables used in the questionnaire. They indicate how much the respondents disagreed or agreed with statements in the questionnaire and indicate how each statement performed from the respondents’ point of view. From the table the highest mean was
5.05 (angry - content) while the lowest was 3.32 (interesting – boring). The seven (7) variables shown in Table 6.1 below represent the constituents of the main constructs depicted in the conceptual framework; pleasure, arousal, attitude towards the advertisement, intention to purchase, intention to influence, intention to refer and intention to give feedback.
Table 6.1 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Angry – Content</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unhappy – Happy</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Displeased – Pleased</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sad – Glad</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disappointed – Delighted</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uninterested – Enthusiastic</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Indifferent – Surprised</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calm – Excited</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>-0.87</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards the advertisement</td>
<td>Interesting – Boring</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Favourable – Unfavourable</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to purchase</td>
<td>The probability that I would consider buying this [product] is high</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My willingness to buy the [product] is high</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The likelihood of purchasing this [product] is high</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>-0.99</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I intend to buy this [product]</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to influence</td>
<td>I would actively comment about this [product] on any media</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>-0.94</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would comment about this [product] in my conversations</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to refer</td>
<td>I would promote this [product]</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>-0.98</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would refer this [product] to my family and friends</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to give feedback</td>
<td>I would provide feedback for the developing this [product]</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.1 Profile of Respondents

The profiles of the respondents are presented in Table 6.2 below. Respondents have been profiled according to gender, age and educational qualification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Frequency (n = 428)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>98.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, there were 243 males and 185 females representing 56.8% and 43.2% of the sample, respectively. Regarding their ages, majority of respondents were aged between 30-39 years (59.8%, n = 256). Those aged 40-49 formed the second largest group, accounting for 25.7% (n = 110) of the entire sample. The rest were aged 50-59 (14.5%, n = 62). As regards the educational qualifications of the respondents, 98.6% (n=422) indicated they have a postgraduate degree, whereas, 1.4% (n=6) were doctorate holders. Each of the respondents were in middle to top management levels. The researcher did not skew any of the above profiles to suit a particular parameter. All respondents were contacted and only partook in the exercise as a result of their availability and willingness to participate.
6.2 RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (MANOVA)

6.2.1 Homoscedasticity of the Dependent Variables

Table 6.3 contains the results of the univariate test of homoscedasticity of the dependent variables. MANOVA assumes that the variance-covariance matrices among groups are equal. These assumptions must be met prior to running the MANOVA. As shown, the univariate Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances for both variables are non-significant, $F(2, 404) = 1.747, p = .176$ for emotions and $F(2, 404) = .577, p = .562$ for attitude towards the advert. This indicates that no significant difference exists in the variances of the message strategies with regard to emotions and attitude towards the advert.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.3 Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.2 Estimation of the MANOVA Model

Statistical Testing and Power Analysis

*Transmission Message Strategies*

The Box’s M value of 17.925 was associated with a p value of .008. This figure, based on Huberty and Petoskey’s (2000) guideline (i.e., p < .005), was interpreted as being non-significant. As a result of this, the covariance matrices among the
groups were assumed to be equal for the MANOVA. Hence, the assumption of equality of groups is not violated and Wilk’s Lambda is an appropriate test to use.

As is shown in table 6.4 below, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) revealed an insignificant main effect for the transmission message strategies, Wilk’s Lambda = 0.94, $F(4, 248) = 1.87, p > .005$, partial eta squared ($\eta^2_p$) = 0.029. This insignificant multivariate main effect indicates that among the three transmission advertising message strategies, there are no significant differences in their means as it pertains to the collective linear combination of emotions and attitude towards the advert. Therefore, the null hypothesis that all three message strategies are equal with regard to their means was supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>$\eta^2_p$</th>
<th>Observed</th>
<th>Power$^d$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CaseNo</td>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td>1.873$^b$</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>7.493</td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no need to conduct a univariate test of between subject effects for the transmission message strategies. This was because no statistically-significant difference was found among the three transmission strategies in their effect on both emotions and attitude towards the advert.
Testing of Hypotheses

As a result of the non-significant test results of the MANOVA for the transmission advertising message strategies, hypothesis 1a and 1b were rejected.

Ritual Message Strategies

Similar to the earlier analysis, the Box’s M test (18.259) for ritual message strategies was not significant, p (.006) > α (.005), indicating that no significant differences exist between the covariance matrices. Therefore, as per the results, the MANOVA can be carried out. Subsequently, the findings from the Wilk’s Lambda test shows a significant main effect for the ritual message strategies (Wilk’s Lambda = 0.96, $F(4, 806) = 4.48$, $p < .005$, partial eta squared ($\eta^2_p$) = 0.022. Power to detect the effect was 0.94. This significant multivariate main effect indicates that across the three ritual message strategies, there was a significant difference in the means as it pertains to the collective linear combination of emotions and attitude towards the advert. To be more specific, each of the ritual message strategies is different in a significant manner in their effect on emotions and attitude towards the advert. Hence, the null hypothesis that all three message strategies are equal with regard to their means was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.5 MANOVA Results for Ritual Advertising Message Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Effect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaseNo Wilks’ Lambda</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Univariate main effects of the ritual message strategies were assessed, since the results of the overall multivariate test were significant. The results of the univariate ANOVAs as shown in table 6.6 revealed significant differences among the ritual message strategies as it pertains to their effect on emotions and attitude towards the advert ($F (2, 404) = 3.849, p<0.05$). Although the results of the multivariate and univariate tests resulted in the null hypothesis of equality of means being rejected, there was no indication of the origin(s) of the differences. In addition, a post-hoc test had to be carried out since there were more than two ritual message strategies (Hair et al., 2006; 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>7.698a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.849</td>
<td>4.876</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>10.047b</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.023</td>
<td>5.864</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>3220.349</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3220.349</td>
<td>4079.682</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>2672.253</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2672.253</td>
<td>3119.375</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers’ emotional state and</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>7.698</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.849</td>
<td>4.876</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attitude</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>10.047</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.023</td>
<td>5.864</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>318.903</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>346.092</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>3543.293</td>
<td>407</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>3020.075</td>
<td>407</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>326.601</td>
<td>406</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>356.138</td>
<td>406</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing of Hypotheses

Table 6.8 presents the results of the Scheffe post hoc comparisons among the ritual message strategies. Despite there being an overall significant main effect, the
differences among the message strategies are not constant. These differences are examined in light of the hypotheses that pertain to the ritual message strategies, specifically hypothesis 2a and 2b.

Tests of Hypothesis 2a

The study hypothesised that there would be a significant difference among the ritual message strategies in their impact on a) emotions. The results of the Scheffe post hoc test revealed that among the three ritual message strategies, social had the highest mean (M= 2.965), followed by ego (M= 2.844) and then sensory (M= 2.636), indicating a slightly higher effect of social message strategies on emotions, than ego and sensory. In addition, the results indicate a slightly higher mean for ego than sensory. However, the differences in the means was only significant between social and sensory strategies. Hence, the hypothesis 2a is only supported in respect of the comparison between social and sensory strategies. It is, however, rejected in respect of the comparisons between social and ego strategies and also ego and sensory strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Advertising strategy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Ego</td>
<td>2.844</td>
<td>0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensory</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>2.965</td>
<td>0.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Ego</td>
<td>2.597</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensory</td>
<td>2.358</td>
<td>0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>2.737</td>
<td>0.081</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tests of Hypothesis 2b

The study hypothesised that there would be a significant difference among the ritual message strategies in their impact on b) attitude towards the advertisement. The results of the Scheffe post hoc test revealed that among the three ritual message strategies, social had the highest mean (M= 2.737), followed by ego (M= 2.597) and then sensory (M= 2.358), which indicates that social message strategies have a greater effect on attitude towards the advertisement, than ego and sensory strategies, respectively. In addition, the results indicate a slightly higher mean for ego than sensory. However, the differences in the means was only significant between social and sensory strategies. Hence, hypothesis 2b is only supported in respect of the comparison between social and sensory strategies. It is, however, rejected in respect of the comparisons between social and ego strategies and also ego and sensory strategies.
6.3 RESULTS OF THE STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

6.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was not carried out because the study used pre-existing scales. Hence, the study proceeded and a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted instead. Structural equation modelling was employed with Analysis of Moments of Structures (AMOS).

Measurement Model Validity

Prior to testing a structural model, it is imperative that the measurement model is tested in order to ensure that it holds. This is because the structural model may be useless unless it is established that the measurement model holds (Odoom, 2015). According to Hair et al. (2014), a measurement model is a “specification of the measurement theory that shows how constructs are operationalised by sets of measured variables”. In other words, it is a test of the affiliation between latent variables and their measures. Research scholars have “suggested that testing of a structural model may be meaningless unless it is established that the measurement model holds” (see Odoom, 2015). In the event that the measurement model results show the chosen variables do not actually measure the constructs, it is imperative for the specified theory to be altered before the analysis can proceed (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2014; Odoom, 2015). In view of this, the measurement models of pleasure, arousal, attitude towards the advertising, intention to purchase, intention to give feedback and intention to influence were assessed via a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The CFA was conducted via the
twenty-second version of Analysis of Moments of Structures (AMOS) software. These results are displayed in the table below.

**Overall Fit**

From the table below, it can be seen that the model provides an acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 251.381$ (df = 120), CFI = 0.973, SRMR = 0.03, PClose = 0.351), with all values falling within Hu and Bentler’s (1999) recommended parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMIN</td>
<td>251.381</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMIN/DF</td>
<td>2.095</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>&gt;0.95</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PClose</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Construct Validity**

To assess construct validity, discriminant and convergent validity were examined. Convergent validity was assessed using the standardised factor loadings provided by the CFA. According to scholars, standardised factor loadings should be at least 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014). From the table below, all the items possessed factor loadings greater than the 0.50 standard. They each also showed superior convergent validity, being statistically significant at the 5% level.
### Table 6.10 Standardised Factor Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R. (t-Values)</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pleasure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>20.523</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>20.372</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displeased</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>21.373</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>19.654</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointed</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>19.302</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>19.114</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arousal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>12.445</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>14.848</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitude</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>17.189</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favourable</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>15.577</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Purchase</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The probability that I would consider buying this [product] is high</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>21.211</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My willingness to buy the [product] is high</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>22.371</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The likelihood of purchasing this [product] is high</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>20.272</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to buy this [product]</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>20.867</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Influence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would actively comment about this [product] on any media</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>19.295</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would comment about this [product] in my conversations</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>20.441</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Refer</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would promote this [product]</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would refer this [product] to my family and friends</td>
<td>0.853</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>20.374</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to determine the internal consistency of the constructs, average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR) and maximum shared value (MSV) following Hair et al. (2014) were assessed. The CR and AVE scores ranged between 0.748 and 0.928 and 0.775 and 0.6, respectively. In addition, the MSV<AVE. All of these results indicate adequate construct internal consistency, as recommended by scholars (Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014).
Discriminant validity was analysed with Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) recommended procedure. The procedure requires the square root of the AVE to be greater than all the corresponding correlations. From table 6.11 it is clear to see that discriminant validity exists between the constructs. This is due to the fact that the square root of the AVE (ranging from 0.881 to 0.775) is greater than all the corresponding correlations (ranging from 0.646 to -0.558).

Table 6.11 Reliability and Validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>MSV</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - Pleasure</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – Attitude</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>-0.558</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – Intention to Purchase</td>
<td>0.918</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.468</td>
<td>-0.418</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - Intention to Influence</td>
<td>0.843</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>-0.383</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - Intention to give Feedback</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-0.422</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – Arousal</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>-0.189</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>0.775</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.2 The Structural Model

Subsequent to evaluating the measurement model and establishing the reliability and validity of all constructs, the structural model is conducted. This is the main aspect of the SEM analysis. The structural model is a representation of the interrelationships of variables between constructs, which is in contrast to the measurement model which assesses the measures for each construct (Hair et al., 2014). In other words, the structural model illustrates the degree of relatedness among constructs. The structural model for this study therefore tested the
hypotheses regarding pleasure, arousal, attitude towards the advertisement intention to purchase, intention to give feedback, intention to refer and intention to influence.

Validation Test of the Structural Model

The main aim of examining a structural model is to determine the nature of the relationships between constructs and to assess if the data support the hypothesised relationships. Key things to be considered in examining a structural model include: (i) whether it is the case that relationships between constructs are as hypothesised, (ii) how strong the hypothesised links are and, (iii) the extent of variance in the endogenous variables explained by the proposed determinants (Vieira, 2011; Odoom, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMIN</td>
<td>13.842</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMIN/DF</td>
<td>4.614</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>&gt;0.95</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PClose</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the study model, a chi-square of 13.842 (df = 3, p < .01) which indicates a normed chi-square fit value of 4.614. The comparative fit index (CFI) value is 0.994, SRMR 0.061 and PClose is 0.057. These results reveal that the model has an acceptable fit.
The coefficients are significant and support the theory represented in the model. The $R^2$ values for intention to give feedback, intention to purchase, intention to influence and intention to refer are 0.137, 0.296, 0.347 and 3.90, respectively. Table 6.13 below depicts the statistical results emerging from the structural equation modelling test of the hypothesised paths.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.13</th>
<th>SEM Model – Hypotheses Testing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\beta$ Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Refer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Refer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Refer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Give feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Give feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Give feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Give Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>Purchase</td>
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<td>Influence</td>
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<td>Refer</td>
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</table>

On the individual relationships among the constructs, it was found that pleasure had a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer ($\beta$=0.273, t-value= 4.421, p<.001), intention to influence ($\beta$=0.368, t-value= 5.895, p<.001), intention to purchase ($\beta$=0.277, t-value= 4.161, p<.001) and intention to give feedback ($\beta$=0.282, t-value= 1.974, p<.005) providing support for H3a, c, e and g. In support of H3d, f and h, results indicate that arousal is positively related to intention to refer ($\beta$=0.232, t-value= 4.312, p<.001), influence ($\beta$=0.127, t-value= 2.339, p<.05), and
give feedback ($\beta=0.315, t$-value$= 2.544, p<.05$). On the contrary, the results did not show support for H3b (arousal is positively related to purchase intention) ($\beta=0.083, t$-value$= 1.43, p>.05$). Finally, results show that attitude towards the advertisement had a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer ($\beta=0.277, t$-value$= 5.199, p<.001$), intention to influence ($\beta=0.188, t$-value$= 3.48, p<.001$), intention to purchase ($\beta=0.294, t$-value$= 5.109, p<.001$) and intention to give feedback ($\beta=0.308, t$-value$= 2.502, p<.05$) providing support for H4a, b, c and d.

6.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the results of the analyses that were carried out on the data gathered. The chapter began with a presentation of the descriptive statistics. To be specific, the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness of the main constructs (pleasure, arousal, attitude towards the advertisement, intention to purchase, intention to influence, intention to refer and intention to give feedback) depicted in the conceptual framework were presented. The profile of the respondents was presented next. In total, the sample size for the study was 428, comprising 243 males and 185 females representing 56.8% and 43.2% of the sample respectively. Subsequent to the descriptive statistics and profile of respondents, the results of the one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were brought to the fore. Prior to running the MANOVA, the results of a univariate Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances were presented and results showed that the variances of the message strategies are not significantly different across emotions and attitude towards the advertisement. This assumption of homogeneity needed to be met before finally progressing to the MANOVA (Hair et al., 2016). Results of the one-way multivariate analysis of variance showed that as far as ritual message strategies
are concerned, social message strategies affect emotions and attitude towards the advertisement more than ego and sensory message strategies, respectively. In addition, the ego message strategy is more potent in impacting emotions and attitude towards the advertisement than the sensory message strategy. Pertaining to the transmission message strategies, the MANOVA results show that there are no differences between the three transmission message strategies. The chapter then progressed with a presentation of the results of the structural equation modelling analysis. The measurement model showed an acceptable overall fit ($\chi^2 = 251.381$ (df = 120), CFI = 0.973, SRMR = 0.03, PClose = 0.351) as advised by Hu and Bentler (1999). Construct validity was measured using discriminant and convergent validity. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which was used to measure convergent validity, are greater than the standard of 0.50. They are also significant at the 5% level. Results also showed sufficient discriminant validity (the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) [ranging from 0.881 to 0.775] is greater than all the corresponding correlations [ranging from 0.646 to -0.558]).

Results of the validation test of the structural model also show that the structural model has an acceptable fit [chi-square of 13.842 (df = 3, p < .01) indicative of a normed chi-square fit value of 4.614. The comparative fit index (CFI) value is 0.994, SRMR 0.061 and PClose is 0.057]. On the individual relationships among the constructs, the study finds that pleasure has a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer ($\beta=0.273$, t-value= 4.421, p<.001), intention to influence ($\beta=0.368$, t-value= 5.895, p<.001), intention to purchase ($\beta=0.277$, t-value= 4.161, p<.001) and intention to give feedback ($\beta=0.282$, t-value= 1.974, p<.005). Arousal is positively related to intention to refer ($\beta=0.232$, t-value= 4.312, p<.001), influence ($\beta=0.127$, t-value= 2.339, p<.05), and give feedback ($\beta=0.315$, t-value=
Arousal is not positively related to purchase intention ($\beta=0.083$, t-value= 1.43, $p>.05$). Finally, results show that attitude towards the advertisement has a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer ($\beta=0.277$, t-value= 5.199, $p<.001$), intention to influence ($\beta=0.188$, t-value= 3.48, $p<.001$), intention to purchase ($\beta=0.294$, t-value= 5.109, $p<.001$) and intention to give feedback ($\beta=0.308$, t-value= 2.502, $p<.05$).
CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The previous chapter presented the empirical results and analysis found in the study – model evaluation, estimation of results and testing of the conceptual framework. This chapter is a discussion of the empirical outcome of the hypotheses testing conducted in this investigation and their significance, particularly in relation to findings from other studies reported in the literature. It is essentially divided into two major parts. The first provides a brief background to the study while the second part discusses the study’s findings in light of the research questions and hypotheses posed in the introductory part of this research. A chapter summary is subsequently provided as a review of the key issues addressed in this chapter.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The key objective of this study was primarily to determine, among advertising message strategies for hedonic and utilitarian products, the most effective in generating customer engagement. The fundamental question underlying this study, therefore, is “what advertising message strategy is most effective in creating customer engagement for hedonic and utilitarian products, respectively?” The results found from the current research have been deliberated upon in a detailed manner in relation to the objectives as espoused in the first chapter of the study.
Drawing on the stimulus organism response model, we argued that customer engagement is a behavioural response to stimuli in the form of advertising message strategies. This behavioural response occurs after an initial attitudinal and emotional response to the message strategies. We further argued that there are differences among the message strategies in their effect on emotions (pleasure and arousal), attitude towards the advert and consequently customer engagement. The findings of this research are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs in line with the objectives stated in the first chapter.

Until recently, majority of the studies that examined the impact that advertising message strategies have on customer engagement employed diverse definitions and conceptualisations of message strategies. The result of this is that findings have been inconsistent and generally there is a lack of clarity regarding effective message strategies (Tafesse & Wien, 2017).

Extant literature reveals that advertising message strategies in general trigger customer engagement. In addition, many studies conclude that between the two main forms of advertising message strategy, advertisements that are crafted with ritual message strategies are more likely to generate customer engagement than those with transmission strategies. The issue with this, however, is that previous studies do not take into account that different product categories require different message strategies. Not all products, for instance, can be advertised using ritual strategies. It has been argued that ritual strategies are better suited for products bought for pleasure, whereas transmission strategies are better suited for functional
products (Ahn et al., 2013). Previous studies, however, have so far not taken this into consideration and as such have grouped all strategies together regardless of their suitability. This study, therefore, sought to uncover the most effective messages strategies for each category of product, specifically hedonic and utilitarian.

As the stimulus organism response (S-O-R) model was the theoretical framework underpinning the study, the first thing was to determine the advertising message strategies that are most effective in generating emotional and attitudinal responses. Afterwards, the study went on to investigate the relationship between attitude, emotions and customer engagement. Inferences were then made about the best message strategy based on the ones that impacted emotions and attitude the most.

7.2 ADVERTISING MESSAGE STRATEGIES, EMOTIONS AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE ADVERT

7.2.1 Ritual Message Strategies, Emotions and Attitude towards the Advert

The initial test to determine if there are significant differences among the three ritual message strategies showed there were indeed significant differences among the three strategies. Further tests to ascertain where the differences lay showed that for hedonic products, the social message strategy has a stronger impact on emotions and attitude to the advert than either the sensory or the ego message strategies. This result supported the hypotheses put forth in the fourth chapter that there are differences among the three ritual messages in their impact on emotions and attitude towards the advert. Previous studies similar to, though not related to customer
engagement, also report differences among ritual message strategies in their impact on customer’s internal states (Faseur & Geuens, 2012). Unlike in this study, however, those studies report ego as having the most impact on customers’ internal states. One main reason for this difference could arguably be the fact that those studies have been conducted in cultures typically regarded as majorly individualistic in nature, whereas the Ghanaian context from which this study emerged is regarded as collectivist (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; Haj-Yahia & Sadan, 2008).

According to psychology scholars, in a collectivist society individuals consider the wellbeing of the greater society as opposed to solely seeking their wellbeing (Triandis, 1998, 1989; Yamaguchi, 1994; Kongsompong et al., 2009; Han, 2017). They have strong ties to family, country and the social circles to which they belong (Kongsompong et al., 2009). As a result, their decisions are influenced by this orientation towards others (Kongsompong et al., 2009) and this also extends to their evaluation of advertisements (Polyorat & Alden, 2005; Zhang et al., 2011; Chang & Cheng, 2015). According to previous studies, collectivists tend to favour advertisements with a social message strategy because such a strategy conveys principles that resonate with their beliefs about community, family and the collective good (Polyorat & Alden, 2005; Zhang et al., 2011; Chang & Cheng, 2015). At the core of the social message strategy is a suggestion that one can have a greater active social life and win the attention of others by buying an advertised product (Tsai & Lancaster, 2012; Ahn et al., 2013). Consumers at times use products/services to gain affection, respect, attention and approval (Tsai & Lancaster, 2012). In addition, social strategies more often than not emphasise that
advertised products and consumers possess a family-like bond. Taylor (1999) revealed that advertisements that employ the social strategy are mostly focused on creating, sustaining, and celebrating relationships with others or caring for loved ones. The social strategy therefore bases an advert’s message on the collective, instead of the individual (Ahn et al., 2013).

Aside the social message strategy being the most potent in influencing the emotional and attitudinal states of customers, results of the empirical study revealed ego to be a stronger influence on the three internal states than sensory message strategy. This result is in agreement with literature that shows that advertisements with ego-based messages to a large extent have a strong effect on consumer reactions. According to a phenomenon called “status consumption”, individuals convey their status via the conspicuous consumption of products and services that symbolise their status (Eastman & Liu, 2012). The aim is to boost one’s ego (Sharma & Chan, 2017). In other words, individuals in high positions tend to favour products and services that they believe reflect their positions in life. Judging that the respondents in this study held high positions, it is understandable that the ego strategy would be a greater impactor than the sensory.

7.2.2 Transmission Message Strategies, Emotions and Attitude

The initial test to determine if there are differences in the effects that the three transmission message strategies have on emotions and attitude towards the advertisement yielded non-significant results. Wilk’s Lambda yielded a p-value greater than .05. As a result, no further tests with the MANOVA were conducted as
they were not needed. This finding therefore revealed that as it pertains to utilitarian products and services, all three of the transmission message strategies are similar in their impact on emotions and attitude. The hypotheses that there are differences among the transmission strategies in their impact on emotions and attitude towards the advertisement is therefore not supported. This finding does not mean that consumers do not experience emotions or do not have an attitude towards the advert. It is already established in the advertising literature that consumers process advertisements emotionally and cognitively regardless of the strategy employed (Mackenzie et al., 1986; MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Gavilanes et al., 2018). What the findings simply mean is that whatever cognitive and affective reactions actual and potential customers may have regarding the three message strategies is virtually or in effect the same across all three transmission strategies.

The apparent lack of a difference among the three transmission strategies could be attributed to the underlying nature of transmission strategies. Unlike ritual message strategies which create a sense of identity, transmission message strategies impart product information from a sender to a receiver (Rodgers & Thorson, 2012, emphasis mine). Whereas with ritual message strategies some strategies impact emotions more than others probably because of the varying degrees of emotional appeals used, transmission message strategies are not significantly different from each other because they are generally low in their use of emotional appeals.
7.2.3 Effects of Pleasure, Arousal and Attitude towards the Advertisement on Customer Engagement

As per the stimulus-organism-response model, internal organismic states influence external behavioural reactions. This research obtained interesting results pertaining to the effect of customers’ emotions and attitude towards the advertisement on customer engagement. Customer engagement was conceptualised as intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence, following Pansari and Kumar (2016).

Regarding the predictive capacity of pleasure, arousal and attitude to have positive relationships with customer engagement (measured by intention to purchase, intention to give feedback, intention to refer and intention to influence), results of the empirical survey revealed that pleasure and attitude are significantly positive predictors of customer engagement. To be specific, pleasure and attitude significantly predict intention to purchase, intention to give feedback, intention to refer and intention to influence. These results support earlier studies that report a positive relationship between pleasure and customer behaviour (Ha & Lennon, 2010; Eroglu et al., 2003; Koo & Ju, 2010; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016; Das & Varshneya, 2017; Huang et al., 2017) and attitude and behaviour (Zeng, 2008). For instance, emotions such as pleasure have been found to cause customers to spread positive word of mouth (Loureiro & Ribeiro, 2014; Huang et al., 2017).

Conversely, results of the empirical study revealed that despite being a significant predictor of intention to refer, intention to influence and intention to give feedback,
arousal does not possess significant relationship with purchase intention. In other words, though an advertising message strategy may arouse interest in actual and potential customers, this arousal is not potent enough to drive them to want to purchase, though they may intend to refer, influence and give feedback. This finding is interesting, for in previous literature, it is reported that arousal is positively related to purchase intention. However, it does confirm the findings of some studies such as Loureiro and Ribeiro (2014) and Huang et al. (2017) who all found insignificant relationships between arousal and behaviour. A possible reason accounting for the insignificant result between arousal and purchase intention could be that the respondents were highly aroused by the colours, messages, and images on the advertisement (Eroglu et al., 2003; Pappas et al., 2014). High levels of arousal have been found to be the cause of insignificant relationships between arousal and approach behaviours such as purchase intention (e.g. Sanbonmatsu & Kardes, 1988; Mano, 1992; Menon & Khan, 2002). For example, Mano (1992) found that when consumers are highly aroused, they spend less time thinking about subsequent decision tasks, examine less decision-related information and use simple decision strategies. Vieira (2013) also found arousal to be a weaker predictor of customer behaviour than pleasure.

In testing the relationship between customer engagement and attitude towards the advertisement, the empirical results show that attitude towards the advertisement has positive relationship with customer engagement. This relationship is also significant across all measures of customer engagement used in this study. The results support earlier studies that report that attitude, specifically attitude towards advertising, determines consumer behaviour such as intention to purchase, search
for information about the product, (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010; Sallam & Wahid, 2012; Boateng & Okoe, 2015).

7.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the results of the quasi experiment relating it to existing research as well as the study’s conceptual framework. It began with a brief background to the study and then progressed to discuss the results in light of previous studies. Discussions were made based on the objectives outlined in the first chapter of the study and in comparison with previous studies. The findings of the empirical study revealed that among the three ritual message strategies, the social message strategy has the most impact on customers’ emotions and attitude compared to ego and sensory strategies. It was argued that although previous studies also report differences among ritual message strategies, they report the ego as having the most impact on customers’ attitude and emotions (Faseur & Geuens, 2012). One main reason for this difference could arguably be the fact that those studies have been conducted in cultures typically regarded as majorly individualistic in nature, whereas the Ghanaian context from which this study emerged is regarded as collectivist (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; Haj-Yahia & Sadan, 2008). To further explain the reason for the disparity in the findings with extant literature, it was argued that in collectivist societies, like Ghana, consumer decision-making is linked to consumer orientation towards others (Kongsompong et al., 2009). In other words, consumers in collectivist cultures are influenced by their strong ties to family, country and the social circles to which they belong. Additionally, previous studies have shown that collectivists tend to favour advertisements with a social message strategy because such a strategy conveys
principles that resonate with their beliefs about community, family and the collective good (Polyorat & Alden, 2005; Zhang et al., 2011; Chang & Cheng, 2015). At the core of the social message strategy is a suggestion that one can have a greater active social life and win the attention of others by buying an advertised product (Tsai & Lancaster, 2012; Ahn et al., 2013). Secondly, the results of the study showed that between the ego and sensory ritual message strategies, ego is a stronger influencer. As a way of explaining the reason for this finding, the chapter argued based on a phenomenon called “status consumption”, whereby individuals convey their status via the conspicuous consumption of products and services that symbolise their status (Eastman & Liu, 2012). The aim is to boost one’s ego (Sharma & Chan, 2017). In other words, individuals in high positions tend to favour products and services that they believe reflect their positions in life. Judging that the respondents in this study held high positions, it is understandable that the ego strategy would be a greater impactor than the sensory. Subsequently, discussions turned to the MANOVA results on the three transmission strategies. It was asserted that the reason for the lack of disparity among the three transmission message strategies can be attributed to the underlying nature of transmission strategies. Unlike ritual message strategies which create a sense of identity, transmission message strategies impart product information from a sender to a receiver (Rodgers & Thorson, 2012, emphasis mine). Whereas with ritual message strategies some strategies impact emotions more than others probably because of the varying degrees of emotional appeals used, transmission message strategies are not significantly different from each other because they are generally low in their use of emotional appeals. It was also explained that the lack of differences does not mean that consumers do not experience emotions or do not have an attitude towards
the advert. It is already established in the advertising literature that consumers process advertisements emotionally and cognitively regardless of the strategy employed (Mackenzie et al., 1986; MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Gavilanes et al., 2018). What the findings simply mean is that whatever cognitive and affective reactions actual and potential customers may have regarding the three transmission message strategies is virtually or in effect the same across all three transmission strategies.

The chapter then concluded by tackling results pertaining to the effects of pleasure, arousal and attitude towards the advertisement on customer engagement. Regarding the predictive capacity of pleasure, arousal and attitude to have a positive relationship to customer engagement (measured by intention to purchase, intention to give feedback, intention to refer and intention to influence), results of the empirical survey revealed that pleasure and attitude are significantly positive predictors of customer engagement. To be specific, pleasure and attitude significantly predict intention to purchase, intention to give feedback, intention to refer and intention to influence. These results support earlier studies that report a positive relationship between pleasure and customer behaviour (Ha & Lennon, 2010; Eroglu et al., 2003; Koo & Ju, 2010; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016; Das & Varshneya, 2017; Huang et al., 2017) and attitude and behaviour (Zeng, 2008). Conversely, results of the empirical study revealed that despite being a significant predictor of intention to refer, intention to influence and intention to give feedback, arousal is not significantly related to purchase intention. It was revealed that though this finding does not confirm previous studies, it is in agreement with others such as Loureiro and Ribeiro (2014) and Huang et al. (2017) who all found insignificant
relationships between arousal and behaviour. One possible reason given for the insignificant result between arousal and purchase intention was that the respondents were highly aroused by the colours, messages, and images on the advertisement (Eroglu et al., 2003; Pappas et al., 2014). High levels of arousal have been found to be the cause of insignificant relationships between arousal and approach behaviours such as purchase intention (e.g. Sanbonmatsu & Kardes, 1988; Mano, 1992; Menon & Khan, 2002). For example, Mano (1992) found that when consumers are highly aroused, they spend less time thinking about subsequent decision tasks, examine less decision-related information and use simple decision strategies. Vieira (2013) also found arousal to be a weaker predictor of customer behaviour than pleasure.
CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

8.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter provides a summary of the empirical research, the conclusions, implications and directions for future studies. Broadly, it provides an evaluation of some critical lessons drawn from the study and deliberates the contribution this research makes to theory and practice. The chapter has been further segmented into four key parts. First, the chapter briefly summarises the research problem, objectives, and then presents the major outcomes of each objective. Following this, the chapter discusses the potential contributions and implications for theory and management/practice. The third part discusses the study’s limitations. Lastly, directions for future research are provided and relevant research avenues for consideration are pointed out.

8.1 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH AND MAJOR FINDINGS

This research began with the aim of uncovering the advertising message strategies with the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude and subsequently customer engagement for hedonic and utilitarian products. In order to achieve this goal, four (4) research objectives were identified. The first objective was to determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude. The second was to highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude. The third was to ascertain if the emotions of pleasure and arousal, derived from an advertising
message strategy stimulus leads to customer engagement. The final objective was to uncover if attitude towards advertising message strategy is a determinant of customer engagement. In order to achieve these four objectives, literature on advertising, advertising message strategies and customer engagement was reviewed. Definitions of advertising message strategy, customer engagement were given. The nature of advertising message strategies, in particular, Taylor’s (1999) widely-used six segment message strategy was discussed and shown how it fits with the selected stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) theoretical model.

An enquiry into the literature on advertising message strategies was carried out with the primary goal to understand the key issues and find answers to the study’s objectives. One key observation was the fact that there were numerous ways in which advertising messages had been conceptualised in the literature and this led to inconsistencies in results (Tafesse & Wien, 2018). In addition, it was observed that previous studies had clumped up all types of message strategies in analysing the most effective strategies, which this study argued in the first chapter, could potentially lead to misleading results. This is because, as it was established from extant literature, different message strategies are tailored for different products and services, depending on the product/service type (Rodgers & Thorson, 2012; Ahn et al., 2013). Hence concluding that a particular message strategy is the most effective, regardless of product type, in a sense contradicts even reality where certain classes of products/services, by their nature, require certain types of message strategies (Ahn et al., 2013). As previous studies had not taken the types of products into consideration, this study was poised to contribute to literature by taking main advertising message strategies traditionally used for hedonic and those for
utilitarian products and seeing which of them is a greater generator of customer engagement.

Drawing on the theory of choice, as well as extant literature, the current research developed a set of testable hypotheses. After the initial segment of this study, which comprised a literature review on issues pertinent to the conduct of this study, a second stage encompassing an empirical enquiry was carried out. Using business executives from a range of service firms in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana as the sample, a quasi-experimental approach was adopted for testing the hypotheses subsequent to which the data gathered were analysed. The analyses of the empirical results were conducted in two separate stages, based on the study’s objectives. In order to fulfil the first two objectives, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analysis was conducted. Subsequently and for the third and fourth objectives, the study employed structural equation modelling (SEM). The analyses of the empirical data generated certain results which were then discussed in light of extant research. In addition, possible explanations were given for departures from both previous works and the hypotheses put forth. The following table briefly summarises the outcomes/findings of the study as it pertains to the research objectives.
Table 8.1 – Summary of Major Results/Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Objective</th>
<th>Major Results/Findings</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Research Objective 1:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>To determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on pleasure, arousal and attitude</strong></td>
<td>The study provides evidence that there are no differences among all three transmission message strategies in their effect on pleasure, arousal and attitude. Therefore, there is no particular transmission strategy that has the greatest impact. All are equal.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Research Objective 2:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>To highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on pleasure, arousal and attitude</strong></td>
<td>It is evident from the findings that among the three ritual message strategies, the social strategy is the most influential in respect of pleasure, arousal and attitude. This finding is in contrast with previous studies. It is the contention of this research that the reason for this finding could be the collectivist culture from which the sample came. In addition, the ego strategy was found to be a stronger determinant of the three internal states of pleasure, arousal and attitude than the sensory strategy.</td>
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Research Objective 3:
To ascertain if the emotions of pleasure and arousal, derived from an advertising message strategy stimulus, lead to customer engagement.

The empirical results revealed that the internal states of pleasure and attitude were positively-related to customer engagement (intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence). However, when it came to arousal, it was found that it was not significantly related to purchase.

Research Objective 4:
To uncover if attitude towards advertising message strategy is a determinant of customer engagement.

The empirical results show that attitude towards the advertisement has a positive relationship with customer engagement. This relationship is also significant across all measures of customer engagement used in this study.

8.2 REFLECTIONS
It is appropriate at this juncture to reflect on the processes and approaches employed in the course of the conduct of this study which provided solutions to the research problem and led to the realisation of the research objectives. The rationale for this reflection is to provide solid arguments for the designs chosen for the current research and to show their suitableness as it pertains to the research contributions. As a result, the following areas of this study (theory, research framework and
methodology) have been selected. These represent the main crust of this particular research.

8.2.1 Reflection on Theory (Stimulus-Organism-Response Model)

To be able to address the research problem and objectives outlined in the first chapter of this study, it became imperative to conduct a review into the existing literature on advertising and customer engagement. One key issue that was identified from the review was the focus on social exchange service-dominant logic and relationship marketing theories. It was further identified that a number of scholars had called for the introduction of other theories, in particular personal behaviour theories, such as the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model to enhance the study of customer engagement (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Barger et al., 2016). As a result, this research employed the S-O-R model. Not only was this to answer the call for the application of other theories in the customer engagement literature, it was also selected to underpin the study because it suited the study’s objectives best and in addition provided a parsimonious, structured theoretically-justified way with which to study the effects of advertising message strategies (as external environmental stimuli) on customers’ emotional and attitudinal reaction and, in turn customer engagement (Sheth & Sisodia, 2006; Jacoby, 2002; Eroglu et al., 2001). The more popular theories of Relationship Marketing, Social Exchange Theory and Service Dominant Logic could have helped unearth some perspectives. However, considering the fact that the underlying assumptions of the aforementioned theories are not in sync with what this study sought to achieve, this research found it wise to employ the S-O-R model. Previous studies had revealed that customer engagement is an outcome of numerous motivational drivers.
including advertisements (see Islam & Rahman, 2016; Barger et al., 2016). In addition, evidence from the advertising literature points to the fact that prior to behaviourally reacting to an advertising stimulus, customers react cognitively and emotionally (Olney et al., 1991).

8.2.2 Reflection on Research Framework

A research framework was developed which was an adaptation of Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model. The framework incorporated the underlying assumptions of the theory in question, that stimuli create internal cognitive and affective reactions which ultimately result in behavioural responses. In adapting the theory, the framework included advertising message strategies as antecedents, though this was not tested at the empirical stage and customer engagement (intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence). The two internal states of emotions and attitude remained mostly unchanged save for the fact that the emotion “dominance” was left out. This was because the relevance of dominance has been questioned in the literature with some scholars suggesting it be relegated altogether and the focus remaining solely on pleasure and arousal (Russell, 1980; Russell & Pratt, 1980; Russell et al., 1981; Russell, Weiss, & Mendelsohn, 1989; Wu, Cheng & Yen, 2008; Ha & Lennon, 2010). Eroglu et al. (2001, p. 181) further argued that “pleasure and arousal can adequately represent the range of emotions exhibited in response to environmental stimuli”, in effect nullifying the need for the dominance dimension. In addition, the current study found no need for it as it was not intent on measuring perceptions of control or empowerment which define dominance (Rusell, 1980; Eroglu et al., 2001).
The empirical results supported twelve of the fourteen hypotheses. In all, all constructs of the proposed framework provided answers to the research question and ultimately the research problem. The relevance of the carefully chosen constructs of the framework is seen in their ability to provide empirical support for the current study.

8.2.3 Reflection on Methodology

As it pertains to the suitability of the methodology adopted, this study used a quantitative technique, specifically a quasi-experimental approach. Structured questionnaires were distributed among the respondents from which information pertaining to the research objectives was gleaned.

The rationale for employing the quasi-experimental approach as against the more popular survey approach was to have clarity on causal relations, which research scholars aver the former provides the researcher (Malhotra, 2007; Neuman, 2007). In addition, this study endeavoured to uncover the differences, if any, in the effect of the various forms of advertising message strategy on pleasure, arousal and attitude and to find out which of them has the strongest effect. In order to make generalisable conclusions from the results, it was necessary to employ a significant sample size. As a result, a relatively large sample size of 428 was utilised in order to achieve exactly that.
A qualitative or mixed methods approach could have provided some additional insights from respondents. However, this would have been cumbersome, judging from the size of the sample employed. In addition, a qualitative approach could have increased the probability of response bias from respondents. As a result, this current study followed a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis as espoused by the positivist school of thought in order for the researcher to obtain results from an objective a stance as is possible. In addition, this study considers the quantitative processes employed in questionnaire design, administration and data analysis sufficient and providing a water-tight solution to the research problem.

8.3 CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

8.3.1 Theoretical Implications

As per the contribution to knowledge within the field of marketing, this study attempts to make three major contributions to knowledge in the area of customer engagement. Generally, it was observed that though research pertaining to customer engagement was increasing, with respect to advertising and customer engagement, it was a bit unclear as to how advertising affects customer engagement, particularly with regard to effective message strategies for hedonic and utilitarian products. This study brought together a collection of studies on customer engagement, synthesising them into a comprehensive review of literature.

The review culminated into a research framework which describes how advertising message strategies affect customers’ emotions and attitude ultimately lead to customer engagement. In other words, the framework provides an explanation of
the advertising message strategies which firms can use to drive customer engagement for its benefit. The framework is grounded in and based on the stimulus-organism-response model.

A further contribution of this study comes from the empirical evidence from a developing country context in sub-Saharan Africa. The distribution of literature in the current research strongly reveals that most of the extant works are concentrated in North America, Australasia, Europe, and fewer still in Asia. Africa, the Middle East and South America are less represented regions. Within these regions, there are differences with respect to the number of articles per country. Studies from North America, for example, emanate from the United States of America (USA) and Canada; those from Europe come from countries such as The Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, Lithuania, United Kingdom, Austria, Spain, France, Finland, Russia, Norway and Italy. Those from Asia stem from China, India, Hong Kong, Korea and Singapore. In the last year (2018-2019), a few studies from Africa (particularly Ghana and South Africa) and the Middle East (United Arab Emirates) surfaced. South America seems to not be represented as yet in the research pool. A critical look at the distribution of both conceptual and empirical studies on customer engagement suggests a major focus on developed economies (Europe, North America and Australia). As a result, there is relatively scarce evidence from developing economy contexts (Barger et al., 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016b). According to Islam and Rahman (2016b), the apparent lack of research emanating from Africa, the Middle East and South America is not surprising, considering that more often than not developing countries tend to lag behind their more advanced counterparts in respect of scholarly publications. Further, combining both
conceptual and empirical papers, the USA tops the list with the highest number of peer-reviewed publications on the concept till date. In fact from 2005 when the concept first emerged in marketing literature until 2009, the United States was the only country churning out research on engagement. As a result, this current study provides evidence from a developing country context, filling a contextual gap in the literature and for which reason several calls were made (Islam & Rahman, 2016b; Barger et al., 2016).

In addition, the study adds to the limited literature on message strategy and customer engagement. Whereas prior studies in the area took a broad approach and compared transmission to ritual message strategies, this current study employed a narrow approach, not comparing transmission and ritual strategies with each other, but rather comparing among transmission strategies and ritual strategies. The aim of this was to determine which transmission strategy and ritual strategy has the strongest effect on customer emotions, attitudes and subsequently customer engagement. In addition to making comparisons among the various transmission strategies and also ritual strategies, the study adds to marketing knowledge by providing evidence of effective strategies for hedonic and utilitarian products which prior research did not provide.

Finally, the study contributes to the customer engagement literature by its use of the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model as the theory of choice. The review of literature revealed that as it pertains to theories, research in customer engagement is majorly driven by the social exchange, service-dominant (S-D) logic and
relationship marketing theories (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Barger et al., 2016). Additionally, by using Taylor’s (1999) typology of advertising message strategies, this study resolves the inconsistencies of prior research by utilising a typology long developed by advertising scholars. This typology has to a large extent been ignored by scholars studying message strategies and customer engagement (Taffesse & Wien, 2018).

It is the contention of this study that the findings will spawn further discussions on advertising message strategy and customer engagement.

8.3.2 Implications for Management/Practice
The findings from this study have important implications as far as management/practice is concerned. A number of practical managerial implications as far as advertising message strategies and customer engagement are concerned are provided. First of all, the study found that for hedonic products, the social message strategy is superior to both ego and sensory strategies in stimulating the emotions and attitude of customers. In addition, the study’s results showed that emotions (specifically pleasure) and attitude towards the advertisement have a positive and significant relationship with customer engagement, measured in terms of intention to purchase, intention to refer, intention to give feedback and intention to influence. It goes without saying, therefore, that the strategies with the greatest impact on emotions and attitude are the most potent in driving customer engagement. Accordingly, marketers should craft advertisements for hedonic products using the social message strategy in order to stimulate the emotions and
attitude of customers. By so doing, they will be able to generate customer engagement. The results of the study also revealed that when it comes to utilitarian products, all of the transmission message strategies had virtually the same degree of effect on emotions and attitude. There was no difference among the strategies. As a result, when advertising utilitarian products, marketers are at liberty to choose among the transmission strategies.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS AND RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This research concludes that there are differences in the degree to which ritual message strategies affect consumer emotions and attitudes. Specifically, the empirical findings of the research showed that among the three ritual strategies, the social strategy had the most effect on emotions and attitude towards the advertisement, followed by the ego and then finally the sensory. However, the Scheffe post hoc test in chapter 7 showed that the differences among them were only significant with respect to the social strategy. This finding was explained in light of the majorly collectivist culture from which the sample was taken. There was no significant difference in the effect of ego and sensory strategies on emotions and attitude.

Transmission message strategies, on the other hand, were found to have virtually the same effect on attitudes and emotions. Finally, regarding the relationship between emotions, attitude towards the advertisement and customer engagement, the study found that pleasure and attitude towards the advertisement have a significantly positive effect on customer engagement. Hence the degree to which
customers feel pleasure and have a positive attitude towards an advertisement determines whether or not they will intend to engage with the brand. Arousal, however, was not significantly related to purchase intention. It was, however, significantly related to intention to refer, intention to influence and intention to give feedback.

With these findings, it is safe to say that the social message strategy being the ritual message with the greatest effect on emotions and attitude is also has the greatest effect on customer engagement. Using the same logic, all transmission message strategies are therefore equal in their influence on customer engagement.

This study was not carried out without limitations and they ought to be mentioned. According to researchers, acknowledging the limitations of a study provides key information which might be of use to future researchers (Woloshin & Schwartz, 2002; Odoom, 2015). First, the study adopted a single industry approach each, for both hedonic and utilitarian products. Hence it can be argued that findings from this study may only be applicable to the automobile and personal care industries. Secondly, the study created the six advertisements using one message strategy per advertisement, which means the research findings may not be applicable to other advertisements which employ more than one message strategy.

8.5 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH
The findings emanating from this research as well as the limitations outlined above suggest that there is the need for additional research in the area under study. In order
to legitimately propose some directions as research implications, there is the need to reflect on the literature review presented in the third chapter of this study. First of all, it is apparent that studies on advertising message strategies and customer engagement are few. In addition, the previous chapters established that the few ones that exist in the literature compare the effectiveness of the broad categories of message strategy, specifically ritual and transmission strategies. They are for the most part silent with regard to the individual effectiveness of the several message strategies within the broad categories. As such, it has remained unclear the individual differences in the effects of these as it were “sub” message strategies. Further, the typologies of message strategies used in prior research have been criticised as not having a theoretical base and being fragmented. Though this study was a response to the call for more work on advertising message strategies and customer engagement, it contends that there still remains room for further research in the area. In particular, as the study designed the six adverts using only one message strategy per advert, further research can be done using several combinations of message strategies. It is the case that in some instances, more than one message strategy may be employed in an advertisement. As such it would not only be interesting but beneficial to explore the varying degrees of effectiveness of different combinations of advertising message strategy on emotions and attitude and subsequently customer engagement. In addition, further research could be conducted by expanding this study to other industries, such as the hospitality, finance, etcetera.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE

CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT AND ADVERTISING MESSAGE STRATEGY: AN APPLICATION OF THE STIMULUS ORGANISM RESPONSE MODEL

Dear Sir/Madam,

This is a survey instrument created by Anne Renner, a PhD student at the University of Ghana Business School, Legon. The purpose of this instrument is to explore advertising’s impact on customer engagement. The questionnaire is anonymous and there are no right or wrong answers. Information provided for the purposes of this research will be treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only. Kindly take a few minutes to fill out this questionnaire based on your objective opinion.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Please indicate the code for the ad you are responding to

Section A: General Information about respondent

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Age: 20-29 [ ] 30-39 [ ] 40-49 [ ] 50-59 [ ] over 59 [ ]
3. Educational Status: Professional [ ] Diploma [ ] Undergraduate [ ] Masters [ ] PhD [ ] Other, please specify……………………………………………………………………

Carefully study the advertisement. This section measures how you feel about the advertisement. Kindly select between each of the extreme emotions outlined below by ticking the number closest to the emotion you feel. 7 is the highest for the emotions on the right and 1 the highest for the emotions on the left. 4 is neutral.

Emotions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotions</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displeased</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pleased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Glad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Delighted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Surprised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Excited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carefully study the advertisement. This section measures your attitude towards the advertisement. Kindly select between each of the extreme attitudes outlined below by
ticking the number closest to the description of your attitude. 7 is the highest for the attitudes on the right and 1 the highest for the attitudes on the left. 4 is neutral.

### Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favourable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unfavourable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On a scale of 1-5, please indicate by ticking [√] the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements, 1= Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree.

### Intention to Purchase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The likelihood of purchasing this [product] is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The probability that I would consider buying this [product] is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My willingness to buy the [product] is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to buy this [product]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Intention to Refer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would promote this [product]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would refer this [product] to my family and friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Intention to Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would actively comment about this [product] on any media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would comment about this [product] in my conversations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Intention to give Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would provide feedback for developing this [product]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B – ADVERTISEMENT AD 01

For those with a Taste for the finer things in Life.
APPENDIX C – ADVERTISEMENT AD 02

Impress your Family and Friends with a C-Class Mercedes.
Savour the Sleek, Ultra-Modern interior of the C-Class Mercedes.
APPENDIX F – ADVERTISEMENT AD 05

Your shopping list is not complete without Pepsodent.

Pepsodent
APPENDIX G – ADVERTISEMENT AD 06

Pepsodent toothpaste offers Superior Protection against Bad Breath, Cavities and Tooth Decay.