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

BY

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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, Dr. Douglas Coleman and our precious daughter, Dael Kuukuwa Coleman. 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.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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

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. 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). 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).

This study therefore sought to examine customer engagement and advertising message strategy within the Ghanaian context. Specifically, 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 a social strategy, which has the most effect on emotions and attitude towards the advertisement. This is followed by 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. Previous research in customer engagement focuses on its antecedents and consequences. This study is the first, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, to incorporate different message strategies available to firms, and show what are the most effective strategies for luxury (hedonic) and functional (utilitarian) products, as far as generating customer engagement is concerned.

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 carrying out activities that enable "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 and 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).

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. Businesses utilise social media (SM) to support and expand their already existing social or business networks and to create new ones (Lorenzo-Romero et al., 2011). 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 the most popular SM platform (Facebook). This is not surprising, considering the overwhelming statistics that indicate the popularity of the platform among individuals. 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). Ghanaian firms also make use of social media, predominantly Facebook (Karikari et al., 2017; Gyampo, 2017).

SM has transformed the manner in which firm/brand-related content is consumed, distributed and produced 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). For example, with brand-related content such as advertisements, firms are able to see, almost immediately, the reactions of actual or potential customers. The number of Facebook likes, comments, and shares per social media advertisement, some scholars have argued, is a rich source of data for possible strategic decision-making and is said to be an indication of the degree of customer engagement (Gavilanes et al., 2018).

Facebook is the most-used social network for corporate advertising (Statista 2017); therefore, this study follows recent research (Gavilanes et al., 2018) and uses Facebook as its focal social media network.

A number of studies have been conducted on social media advertisement and customer engagement. In particular, research has focused on uncovering effective message strategies that can generate customer engagement (Lamberton & Stephen, 2016; Gavilanes, Flatten & Brettel, 2018; Kim, Ahn, Kwon & Reid, 2017). Though these are indicative of engagement towards the advertisement, arguably, they do not necessarily provide a concrete idea when it comes to what type of message strategy works best for certain products (for example hedonic and utilitarian products) when advertising on social media. Utilitarian products are effective, helpful, functional, necessary, and practical, whereas hedonic products are fun, exciting, delightful, thrilling, and enjoyable (Lu et al., 2016).

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 fits 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, 2011b; 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, 2011b; 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, 2011b; 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 both the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model as the theoretical lens and Taylor's (1999) conceptualisation of message strategy 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 used in social media advertisement has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude
2. To highlight the specific ritual message strategy used in social media advertising 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 on social media, lead to customer engagement.
4. To uncover if attitude towards social media 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 both the S-O-R model and Taylor's (1999) conceptualisation of message strategy 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 to 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, 2011b; 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 (2011b, 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

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter discusses the concept of advertising, then progresses to discussions on social media advertising and message strategies. It then proceeds to talk about the concept of customer engagement, beginning with the origins of the concept, before narrowing the discussion to various conceptualisations of the concept, and then the conceptualisation selected for the study is finally presented.

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF ADVERTISING

2.1.1 Defining Advertising

The term ‘advertising’ originates from the Latin verb “clamare”, meaning “to call” (Boateng, 2019). According to the American Marketing Association (AMA), advertising is the placement of announcements and messages in time or space by business firms, non-profit organizations, government agencies, and individuals who seek to inform and/or persuade members of a particular target market or audience regarding their products, services, organizations or ideas (American Marketing Association, 2021). The basic objectives of advertising are to inform, persuade, remind or reinforce.

According to Chunawalla and Sethia (2008), advertising is a powerful instrument that is capable of reaching multitudes at once. Fill (2009) states that advertisements can be placed on six distinct mediums, including outdoor (street furniture, billboard & transit), digital media (digital TV & Internet), print (magazines & newspapers), broadcast (radio

& television), in-store (packaging & point-in-purchase) and other medias (product placement, cinema & exhibition).

In recent years, due to the rise in popularity of the internet and social media, many companies have taken to online advertising and more especially, advertising on social media (Appel et al., 2020). In fact, it is argued that the rise in social media use has resulted in less viewership and readership among traditional media, such as the television and their impact as advertising channels has declined (Asiedu, 2017). This is mainly due to the fact that the technology allows for companies to reach a wide audience at a cheaper cost than traditional media (i.e. television, radio, print).

2.1.2 Social media advertising

Today’s advertising is somewhat different from that of 20 years ago. Media spending patterns and advertising formats have changed dramatically, and so have the functions and behaviours related to advertising (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016). Two decades ago, majority of advertising was carried out on media such as the television, radio, and print, in what currently are referred to as “traditional media”. Recently, however, more companies are increasingly adopting non-traditional media, specifically social media, for the dissemination of their advertisements. According to Appel et al. (2020, p. 80), social media can be thought of as “a collection of software-based digital technologies—usually presented as apps and websites—that provide users with digital environments in which they can send and receive digital content or information over some type of online social network”. Many companies use social media because (1) it costs less to advertise than on traditional media; (2) the firm is able to directly reach actual and potential customers; and (3) social media provides a more reliable way of tracking advertising return on investment through technologies such as “Facebook metrics” (Breuer, Brettel, & Engelen, 2011; Faber, Lee, & Nan, 2004; Ha, 2008; Alhabash et al., 2017).

Social media advertising, according to Taylor, Lewin and Strutton (2011, p. 259) refers to “all forms of advertising—whether explicit (e.g. banner advertising and commercial videos) or implicit (e.g. fan pages or firm-related ‘tweets’)—that are delivered through [social network sites]”. Social media advertising can be grouped into paid, owned, and earned media (Hurrle & Postatny, 2015). Platforms like Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Instagram, offer advertisers numerous ways to pay social media platforms in exchange of targeting consumers through display ads, promoted content, and various applications and plug-ins, among others. On the other hand, advertisers may resort to strategic tactics using organic presence, wherein the company directly disseminates content to their followers online (Alhabash et al., 2017).

While the benefits of social media have been touted in the literature (Gavilanes et al., 2018), research into what constitutes a social media advertisement that is the most effective in generating behaviour are few, where behaviour refers to customer engagement. Some scholars have argued that the message strategy that is employed within the advertisement influences customer enagagement (Bertrand et al., 2010). While this study agrees that the message strategy to a large extent affects customer responses, one drawback of past studies, however, has to do with the way in which message strategy has been conceptualised.

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). Table 2.1 presents a summary of previous studies and their conceptualisation of message strategy.

Table 2.1: Summary of studies

Message strategy	Studies	Customer engagement	Significant findings
Transactional Informational Entertainment	De Vries et al. (2012)	Number of comments and likes	Whereas transactional had a positive relationship with both comments and likes, entertainment had a negative relationship with likes and comments Informational affected neither comments nor likes
Remuneration Information Entertainment	Cvijikj and Michahelles (2013)	Number of likes, comments and shares	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
Informational Brand Emotional	Araujo et al. (2015)	Number of retweets	Findings revealed that more retweets occurred as a result of informational content as compared with emotional content
Exclusivity appeal, user-image appeal, functional appeal, experiential appeal, emotional appeal, social causes, animation, resonance, and incentives to share content	Ashley and Tuten (2015)	Klout score and engagement score	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
Interaction-oriented Task-oriented Self-oriented	Kim et al. (2015)	Number of likes, comments and shares	As compared to interaction-oriented and self-oriented messages, task-oriented messages generated more comments, shares and likes
Entertainment Informational Transactional	Tafesse (2015)	Number of shares and likes	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
Social currency Emotional	Yuki (2015)	Number of shares	Consumers were more likely to share content that

Functional (practical usefulness) Story telling			had an emotional element and were functional
Action-inducing Emotion-evoking **Information-sharing**	Taecharungroj (2016)	Number of favourites and retweets	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
Transformational Informational Interactional	Tafesse and Wien (2018)	Number of like and shares	The strongest predictor of customer behavioural engagement was the transformational strategy. There was no significantly major difference between informational and interactional message strategies.

Source: Gavilanes and Brettel (2018).

With this gap now highlighted, it is important to progress to discussions on advertising message strategy and subsequently customer engagement.

2.1.3 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.

Although the contributions of the aforementioned studies regarding the two major categories of message strategy are appreciated, the study contends they are rather generic and therefore do not provide a detailed, sophisticated, and analytical approach to message strategy (Ahn et al., 2013). As such, the study opines that such an unclear, generic approach to message strategy may not necessarily provide the needed information for the comparison of different message strategies implicitly contained within each category. Therefore, for the purposes of this research, a typology which overtly details specific message strategies within each category is needed. The subsequent section discusses that.

2.1.4 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 & Lan.caster., 2012; Ahn, Wu & Taylor, 2013; Ju & Park, 2015).

In order to aid advertising executives to create effective advertising messages, Taylor (1999) advanced a six-segment message strategy wheel. His model builds on previous theorisations of message "strategies", in particular (1) Kotler's (1965) buying models, (2) Carey's (1975) "transmission and ritual" models, (3) Vaughn's (1980, 1986) Foote, Cole and Belding (FCB) model, and (22) Laskey et al.'s (1989) "dichotomy of transformational and informational message strategies". Taylor's 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.

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).

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 2.1: Six Segments Message Strategies
Source: Taylor, R. E. (1999). A six segment message strategy wheel. *Journal of Advertising Research, 39*(6), 7-17.

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). The model combines existing literature about message strategy into a single applicable model for professionals that they can easily employ in their advertising practices (Yurittas, 2020). It is, arguably, one of the most significant and comprehensive models in advertising from the last two decades of advertising and communications research (Jenkins, 2018). Taylor's model has been tested by various scholars concerning advertising messaging (Golan & Zaidner 2008; Porter & Golan 2013; Kim, McMillian, & Hwang 2005). In addition, Taylor's model has been used in corporate website strategies (Hwang, McMillian, & Lee 2003). Kim et al. (2005) assert that Taylor's model is extremely important for two reasons. The authors base the first reason on the model handling the issue from the perspective of how people make purchasing decisions and how advertisements operate. The second reason is that the model pays equal attention to both transformational and informational advertisements and that a sophisticated reasoning is presented for defining the sub-segments.

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 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.

With this definition, the current study can now address the research gap regarding advertising message strategy and customer engagement (Brettel et al., 2015; Taffesse & Wien, 2018; Gavilanes et al., 2018). For this, it is necessary for customer engagement to be conceptualised.

2.2 CONCEPTUALISING CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT

2.2.1 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, 2011b; 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 (Ilic, 2008; Hollebeek, 2011b).

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 2.2 contains a sample of various definitions of the concept across various disciplines.

Discipline	Concept	Author(s)	Definition/Key Findings	Themes/Dimensionality
Sociology	Civic Engagement	Jennings and Zeitner (2003)	Behaviours and attitudes concerning (quasi-) political processes/institutions	Multidimensional: Media attentiveness Trust Political involvement
		Jennings and Stoker (2004)	Engagement refers to participation in volunteer work and the fostering of social networks	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
		Mondak et al. (2010)	The level of civic engagement is majorly determined by extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism.	Not disclosed
		Metzger et al. (2018)	Civic engagement encompasses the prosocial values, skills, behaviors, and attitudes that orient individuals towards social and political issues and contributions to community	Multidimensional Social responsibility Informal helping Political beliefs Civic skills Environmental behaviours Volunteering Voting intentions News consumption
Political Science	State Engagement	Resnick (2001)	Engagement is a repetitive process aimed at influencing the political behaviour of a particular country via sustained interactions spanning a variety of issues	Unidimensional Behavioural
	Comprehensive Engagement	Kane (2008)	Comprehensive engagement is comprised of possible staff change, mechanism for change and mind-set change,	Multidimensional Cognitive Behavioural

Psychology	Social Engagement	Achterberg et al. (2003);	Social engagement refers to an active participation in social activities and interaction with others	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
		Huo, Binning, and Molina (2009)	Identification with a group and behaviour directed at group	Multidimensional Emotional Behavioural
	Task Engagement	Matthews et al. (2010, p. 189)	"Vigilance performance on a particular task; attentional resource availability, sustained attention, and alertness"	Multidimensional Cognitive Behavioural
	Occupational Engagement	Bejerholm and Eklund (2006)	"A lifestyle characteristic including the external/objective & internal/subjective aspects of occupational performance, which involves both anticipation & comprehension thereof, and serves as the basis for an ongoing, cyclical means of maintaining a sense of self & well-being"	Multidimensional Initiating performance Routines Extent of meaningful occupations Interpretation Social interplay Social environment Place Occupational variety/range Daily rhythm
		Bejerholm and Eklund (2007)	"A lifestyle characteristic that describes the extent to which a person has a balanced rhythm of activity and	Multidimensional Cognitive

			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	Behavioural
Educational Psychology	Student Engagement	Fredricks et al. (2004)	Engagement comprises cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions.	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
		Bryson and Hand (2007a,b)	Students showcase different levels of engagement towards higher education, modules and tasks	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
		London, Downey and Mace (2007)	The extent to which a student invests academically, is motivated, psychologically connected and committed to an institution to which they belong	Multidimensional Sense of belonging to institution Comfort with institution Perceived psychological connection to institution Commitment to institution Academic Motivation Academic Investment
		Hu (2010)	The extent to which students work hard with school activities	Multidimensional Cognitive Behavioural
Organisational Behaviour/Management	Employee Engagement	Frank, Finnegan, and Taylor (2004)	How willing employees are to voluntarily apply themselves in their places of work by working overtime and actively thinking about their work	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional

				Behavioural
		Luthans and Peterson (2002)	Employee engagement comprises the employee is emotionally, cognitively and behaviourally involved with their workplace.	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
		Saks (2006)	How much of an individual's physical, affective and cognitive resources he/she is willing to dedicate to their work.	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
		Catteeuw et al. (2007)	How much satisfaction employees derive from their work, and feel a sense of partnership, trust and appreciation	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional
		Macey and Schneider (2008)	"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
		Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010)	How employees use cognition, emotions and behaviour to express themselves as they work.	Multidimensional Cognitive Emotional Behavioural
Information Systems	Customer Engagement	Wagner and Majchrzak (2007)	The degree to which customers participate with employees and other customers to exchange knowledge	Unidimensional Behavioural
		Erat et al. (2006)	"Engagement with customers calls for exchanging information and knowledge with customers and fostering exchanges between customers" (p. 511).	Unidimensional Behavioural

Table 2. 2: Engagement Conceptualisations across Disciplines
Source: Adapted and extended from Hollebeek, (2011b). Exploring customer brand engagement: Definition and themes. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, *19*(7), 555-573.

2.2.2 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., 2019).

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 et al., 2009), 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 2. 3: Summary of Engagement Terms in Marketing

Engagement Term	Definition	Reference
Audience Engagement	Comprises cognitive effort and affective response	Scott and Craig-Lees (2010)
Brand Engagement in Self Concept	The degree to which a consumer includes key brands in their self-perception	Sprott et al. (2009)
Consumer Engagement	How intensely the consumer participates and connects with the offerings and undertakings of a brand	Vivek (2009); Moreau (2011); Bain and Fountain (2010)
Customer Brand Engagement	A customer's emotional, behavioural and cognitive state in brand interactions.	Hollebeek (2011a; 2011b; 2013)
Customer Engagement	The extent to which a customer is emotionally, cognitively and physically present in their interactions with organisations	Patterson, Yu, and De Ruyter (2006); Brodie et al. (2009)
Customer Engagement Behaviours	A customer's behaviour toward a brand that goes further than purchase and is as a result of recommendations and word-of-mouth activities	Van Doorn et al. (2010); Jaakkola and Alexander (2014); Beckers et al. (2018)
Engagement	Being engrossed, involved, completely absorbed or occupied with something	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Social Media Engagement Behaviour	A customer's behaviour on social media toward a brand that goes further than purchase and is as a result of certain motivational drivers	Dolan et al. (2016); Dolan et al. (2019); Pentina et al. (2018); Yasin et al. (2020)/
Media Engagement	"Turning on a prospect to a brand idea enhanced by the surrounding context"	Calder, Malthouse, and Schaedel (2009, p. 322)

Source: Adapted and extended from Hollebeek (2011b), Brodie et al. (2011) and Hollebeek (2012).

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 being engaged by a brand's advertisement.

2.2.3 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 t are (1) social networking sites such as Facebook and MySpace; (2) microblogging sites like Twitter; and (3) content communities example 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 al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017), purchase intentions (Baker et al., 2016; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016) and brand image (Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016).

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, and therefore, it seeks to adopt a conceptualisation of engagement that transcends engagement behaviours limited to the social media space.

2.2.4 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).

Pansari and Kumar's (2017) conceptualisation of customer engagement is appropriate for the purposes of this study, as it captures behaviour not only limited to social media, but also behaviours without (e.g. purchase).

2.3 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 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 was made (Javornik & Mandelli, 2012; Coulter et al., 2012). 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. 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 This conceptualisation of 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 THREE

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

3.0 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

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 discussion on the research framework and finally the development of testable research hypotheses, where arguments based on extant research are made.

3.1 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, 2011b) and service dominant (S-D) logic theories (Hollebeek, 2011b; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013).

3.1.1 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, et al., 2019; Islam & Rahman, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2016).

3.1.2 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).

3.1.3 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, 2011b; 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 the importance of these theories in the development of the customer engagement literature can be acknowledged, the current study maintains they are not suitable for this study. This is because the research approaches the study of customer engagement from the perspective that advertising message strategies are stimuli, which affect the internal emotional and attitudinal states of the individual customer and as a result, elicit customer engagement. The tenets and principles of the aforementioned theories, therefore, are not aligned with the purposes of this research. Additionally, 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 also a response to the call for the application of the stimulus-organism-response model.

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).

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

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, 2011b) and service dominant (S-D) logic theories (Hollebeek, 2011b; Brodie et al., 2011, 2013).

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 (Meharabian & Russell, 1974). The S-O-R theory incorporated the most dominant variables used in previous research such as environmental stimuli, emotional responses and behaviour (Meharabian & 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 customer 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 then 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 & Kandampullyy, 2019).

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.

3.2.1 Tenets of the Stimulus-Organism-Response Model

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).

The Stimulus Variable

A 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.

The Organism Variable

In a stimulus–organism–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.

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).

3.2.2 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 finally, response refers to customer engagement. These are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Customer Emotions

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

Emotions are 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). The following section discusses into detail the PAD scale of emotions.

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 Rusell (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.

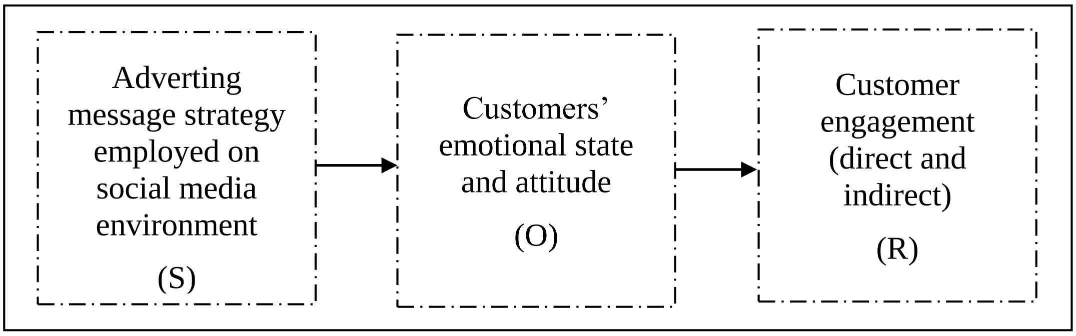

Figure 3. 1: Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theoretical framework, as modified for this study.

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.

3.3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.3.1 Conceptual Framework

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.

Figure 3.2 presents the conceptual framework for the study. It includes six different advertising message strategies, adopted from Taylor's (1999) message strategy conceptualisation. As was discussed in the previous chapter, three of the message strategies (social, sensory and ego) are mostly employed in advertising hedonic (luxury) products. The other three (acute need, ration and routine) are mainly used for utilitarian (functional) products. The study therefore seeks to determine, among the three message strategies mainly used for hedonic products is the most effective in influencing customer emotions and attitudes. Additionally, it seeks to uncover, which strategy, among the three message strategies mainly used for utilitarian products, is the most effective in influencing customer emotions and attitudes. There is already ample literature proving that advertisements influence emotions and attitudes (Mitchel & Olson, 1981; Li et al., 2002; Tsang et al., 2004; Zeng et al., 2009; Sun & Wang, 2010; Chu et al., 2013) and therefore, this study is not focused on proving further that particular relationship.

The framework posits that having experienced the emotions of pleasure and arousal after being exposed to a message strategy, the customer reacts behaviourally towards the brand. This behavioural reaction is customer engagement, seen as intention to purchase, give feedback, refer the brand and also give feedback.

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 and Taylor's (1999) advertising message strategy conceptualisation.

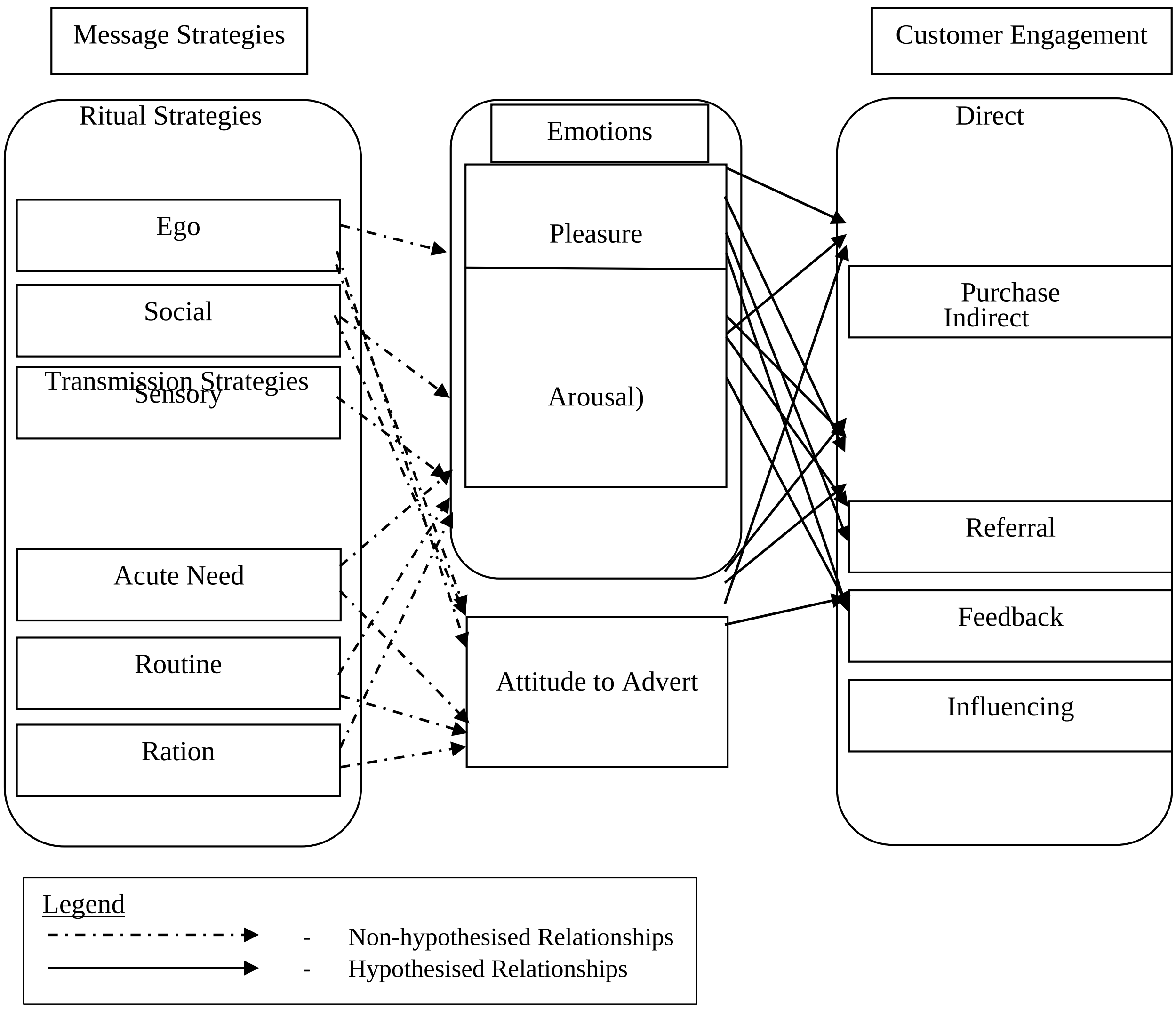

Figure 3.22 The research model.
Source: Adapted from Merhabian and Russell's (1974) S-O-R model

3.3.2 Hypotheses Development

This study draws from Taylor's (1999) conceptualisation of advertising message strategy, in addition to the fundamental arguments of the SOR model, and extant empirical research to develop the following testable hypotheses.

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, is 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} *There is a significant difference among the three transmission strategies in their impact on emotions*

H_{1b} *There is a significant difference among the three transmission strategies in their impact on attitude towards the advertisement*

H_{2a} *There is a significant difference among the three ritual strategies in their impact on emotions*

H_{2b} *There is a significant difference among the three ritual strategies in their impact on attitude towards the advertisement*

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 and 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} pleasure is significantly related to purchase intention

H_{3b} arousal is significantly related to purchase intention

H_{3c} pleasure is significantly related to intention to give feedback

H_{3d} arousal is significantly related to intention to give feedback

H_{3e} pleasure is significantly related to intention to influence

H_{3f} arousal is significantly related to intention to influence

H_{3g} pleasure is significantly related to intention to refer

H_{3h} arousal is significantly related to intention to refer

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). Izquerdo-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}. Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to purchase

H_{4b}. Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to refer

H_{4c}. Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to influence

H_{4d}. Attitude towards the advert is positively related to intention to give feedback

3.4 CHAPTER 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 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 FOUR

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

4.0 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.

4.1 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).

Ghana's Automobile Market is valued at USD 4 billion (year 2020) and is expected to reach USD 11 billion by the year 2026 (Mordorintelligence, 2021). By the outbreak of COVID-19, the automobile industry in Ghana faced considerable delays in 2020, due to supply chain disruptions in major automotive production hubs across the globe, leading to delays in the shipments of critical automotive components to carry out vehicle assembly operations (*Mordorintelligence*, 2021).

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).

4.1.1 Key Developments in the Ghanaian Automobile Industry

Growing Automobile Industry

The Government of Ghana, as part of its transformational agenda, has identified Vehicle Assembly and Automotive Components Manufacturing as a strategic anchor industry to be facilitated and supported as part of a Ten Point Plan for industrial development (*Ghanaweb*, 2020). As a result of this positive signal, Ghana is attracting investment in vehicle assembly from leading Original Equipment Manufacturers (OEMs) and investment partners, with positive projections of spill-overs into local manufacturing (*Mordorintelligence*, 2021).

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).

Market Trends

In 2020, the Ghanaian vehicle market was affected by the global COVID-19 pandemic, which impacted sales significantly (*Focus2move*, 2021). Full-Year sales for 2020 were 4.710, reporting a 17.4% decrease compared to 2019. Brand-wise, Nissan (-14%) gained 1% market share, overtaking usual market leader Toyota (-8.1%), which gained 2.3% share (*Focus2move*, 2021). Mitsubishi (-22.6%) was in the third position and lost 0.6% market share (*Focus2move*, 2021). Altogether, all three brands command about 53% of the total market share (*Car Ghana*, 2018). . 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.

4.2 BACKGROUND TO THE GHANAIAN FAST MOVING CONSUMER GOODS INDUSTRY

Fast moving consumer goods are products that sell quickly at relatively low cost. These goods are also called “consumer packaged goods”. They have a short shelf life because of high consumer demand (e.g. soft drinks and personal hygiene products) or because they are perishable (e.g. meat, dairy products, and baked goods). These goods are purchased frequently, are consumed rapidly, priced low, and are sold in large quantities (*Investopedia*, 2021).

Seventy-four percent (74%) of fast moving consumer goods in Ghana are imported (*African Eye Report*, 2021). While foreign brands continue to enjoy a market perception of superiority in packaging, and quality, evidence seems to point to the shrinking of the "packaging gap" as several made in Ghana goods are catching up with foreign brands *(African Eye Report*, 2021).

One of the major sectors of the fast moving consumer goods industry is the cosmetics and personal care sector.

4.2.1 Market Trends of the Personal Care Industry

A growing urban population and rising disposable incomes are benefiting sales of personal care products in Ghana. In Ghana, most suppliers of personal care products engage in both wholesale and retail activities. Most activity is centred on the central business, and most retailers purchase varying quantities of the various brands and re-sell in them in their various localities.

The personal care products sector in Ghana is competitive and profitable, thanks in part to an influx of new and foreign products on the market. Ghanaian consumers show a preference for products with attractive packaging. While local manufacturers use a wide range of media to market their brands, it is notable that one of the greatest challenges faced by these companies in marketing their brands is overcoming the perception that locally made products are inferior to foreign ones. In Ghana, a majority of consumers prefer to buy cosmetics and personal care products from cosmetics shops. Ghanaian consumers are influenced by the quality of product more than the price.

A large number of Personal care products encapsulate all products that relate to hygiene and beauty and include toothpastes, deodorants, shampoos, makeup, perfumes and skin moisturisers (*FDA*, 2016).

4.2.2 Mercedes-Benz

Mercedes-Benz, a division of Daimler AG, is a German automobile brand known for trucks, coaches, buses and luxury vehicles (*Daimle*r, 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).

4.2.3 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.

4.3 ADVERTISING IN GHANA

Advertising formally began in Ghana in 1927 (Nartey, 2010). Since then, the industry has grown with the inclusion of various media aside television, radio and print. The advertising industry is currently regulated by the Advertising Association of Ghana, a body that sets operational standards for the industry through advisory, training, and information services (*Advertising Association of Ghana*, 2021). The organisation runs a yearly award scheme, the Gong Gong awards, to recognise successful industry players.

Financially, the industry is making strides. In 1991, total revenue derived from television advertising was ¢328 million or GH¢32,800.00 (Nettey, 2009). As at December 2018, the industry raked in USD 174,000,000, approximately GH¢ 1,005,720,000 and is set to increase to USD 266,000,000 (GH¢ 1,537,480,000) by 2026 (*Statista*, 2021). Television advertising for the same period (2018) was USD 89,000,000 (GH¢ 514,420,000), radio was USD 35,000,000 (GH¢ 202,300,000), and print advertisement USD 9,600,000 (GH¢ 52,020,000).

Aside traditional media, non-traditional media such as the internet, and particularly social media, are increasingly being used by companies in Ghana for advertising. In the year 2018, revenue from social media advertising was USD 15,000,000 (approximately GH¢ 86,700,000). Although this amount seems small in comparison to television and radio advertisements, revenue from social media advertising is set to increase even more in the coming years (*Statista*, 2021).

4.3.1 Social media advertising among firms in Ghana

As of January 2021, the internet penetration rate in Ghana reached 50%, up from 48% in the same month in the preceding year (*Statista*, 2021). Social media use was also up from 6 million in January 2020 to 8 million in January 2021 (Sasu, 2021). Additionally, the number of social media users in Ghana was equivalent to 26.1% of the total population in January 2021 (*Datareportal*, 2021). The rapid use of social media has caught on with many Ghanaians in several areas of national life. This has led to the emergence of social media as an alternative medium for information sharing.

In Ghana, most companies use social media to augment their traditional radio and television broadcasts (Boateng, 2019). Also, individuals and groups are using social media to push their interests on social or political issues to the masses. Social media has eliminated cultural and sociological barriers and pulled down boundaries that separate nations and prevent communities from instant communication. People from diverse backgrounds closely and socially interact on these platforms without an intermediary's interruption.

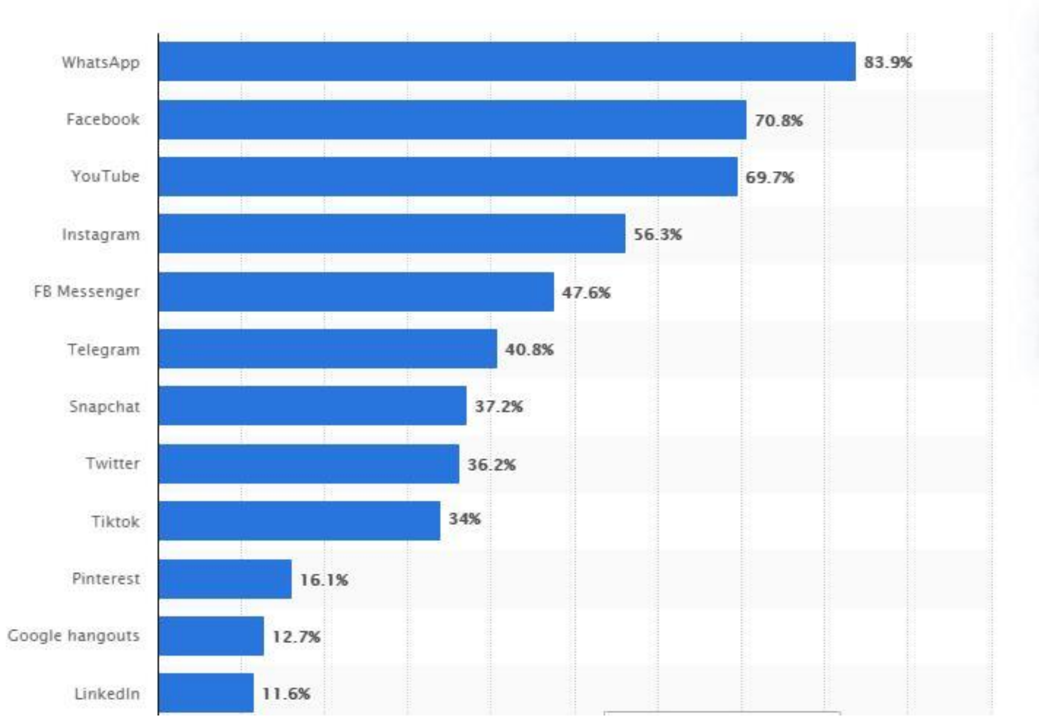

Figure 4. 1: Most used social media platforms in Ghana as of the third quarter of 2020

Source: Statista (2021).

4.4 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).

4.4.1 Customer Engagement on social media among firms in Ghana

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 (*Statista*, 2021; *Datareportal*, 2021).

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., 2019). 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). A number of marketers in Ghana are not taking advantage of social media to grow their business (*ThinkExpand*, 2018).

4.5 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 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). 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).

5.1.1 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.

Table 5. 1: Summary and comparison of four main research paradigms in management research.

	Positivism	Realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology: the researcher's assumption of the nature of reality or being	External, objective and independent of social actors	Reality exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence. However, it is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Reality is socially constructed, subjective, and may change. There are multiple realities.	External, multiple realities. View chosen to best enable answering of research question
Epistemology: What the researcher considers to be acceptable knowledge	Only observable phenomenon are regarded as credible sources of data. Focus is on causality and law-like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Observable phenomena provide credible data and facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations. On the other hand, phenomena create sensations which are open to misrepresentation. Focus is on explaining within a context or contexts.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus on the details of situations, a reality behind these details. Subjective meanings motivating actions.	Either or both observation phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent on the research question. Focus on practical applied research. Different perspective to help interpret the data.
Axiology: the researcher's view of the role of values in research	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researchers is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Research is value-laden. The researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing. These will impact on the research.	Research is value bound the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective.	Values play an important role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view.
Methodology: the instruments and research design deemed suitable by the researcher	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative	Methods must fit the subject matter, qualitative or quantitative	Small samples in-depth investigations, qualitative	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative

Source: Adapted from Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009), Research methods for business students, London, Prentice Hall. p. 119.

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. This approach is in line with previous studies on advertising message strategies and customer engagement (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Gavilanes et al., 2018; Taffesse & Wien, 2018).

Furthermore, a quantitative research approach is appropriate for testing hypotheses, making generalisations and reducing researcher bias (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Also, 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

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.

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 master's 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).

Regarding the development of all six advertising messages, each strategy was reviewed by six academics familiar with the advertising literature. Three of the academics 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 advertiser from Origin8 Limited.

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 45minute 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), Pclose and chi-square (χ^2).

The chi-square (χ^2), p of Close fit (PClose), standardised root mean residual (SRMR) and comparative fit index (CFI $\geq$ 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 advertiser 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 (χ^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).

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS/FINDINGS

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

Table 6.1 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

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

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 6. 2: Profile of Respondents

Details		**Frequency (n = 428)**	**Percent (%)**
Gender	Male	243	56.8
	Female	185	43.2
Age			
	30-39	256	59.8
	40-49	110	25.7
	50-59	62	14.5
Education	Post Graduate	422	98.6
	PhD	6	1.4

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 6. 3: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Emotion	1.747	2	404	.176
Attitude	.577	2	404	.562

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 (η^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 6. 4: MANOVA Results for Transmission Advertising Message Strategies

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[d]
CaseNo	Wilks' Lambda	.942	1.873[b]	4.000	248.000	.116	.029	7.493	.563

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 (η^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 6. 5: MANOVA Results for Ritual Advertising Message Strategies

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[d]
CaseNo	Wilks' Lambda	.957	4.475[b]	4.000	806.000	.001	.022	17.901	.940

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 6. 6: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

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

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 6. 7: Descriptive Analysis

Dependent Variable	Advertising strategy	Mean	Std. Error
Emotion	Ego	2.844	0.078
	Sensory	2.636	0.075
	Social	2.965	0.076
Attitude	Ego	2.597	0.08
	Sensory	2.358	0.078
	Social	2.737	0.081

Table 6. 8: Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Emotion	Ego	Social	-0.1209	0.10917	0.542
		Sensory	0.2082	0.10785	0.156
	Sensory	Social	-.3291*	0.1068	0.009
		Ego	-0.2082	0.10785	0.156
	Social	Sensory	.3291*	0.1068	0.009
		Ego	0.1209	0.10917	0.542
Attitude	Ego	Sensory	0.2394	0.11126	0.1
		Social	-0.1394	0.11373	0.473
	Sensory	Ego	-0.2394	0.11126	0.1
		Social	-.3788*	0.11235	0.004
	Social	Ego	0.1394	0.11373	0.473
		Sensory	.3788*	0.11235	0.004

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 tables below.

Overall Fit

From table 6.9 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 6. 9: Model Fit Measures

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	251.381	--	--
DF	120	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.095	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.973	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.03	<0.08	Excellent
PClose	0.351	>0.05	Excellent

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 table 6.10 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

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

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

	CR	AVE	MSV	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 - Pleasure	0.928	0.682	0.311	**0.826**					
2 – Attitude	0.806	0.676	0.311	-0.558	**0.822**				
3 – Intention to Purchase	0.918	0.736	0.417	0.468	-0.418	**0.858**			
4 - Intention to Influence	0.843	0.729	0.639	0.516	-0.383	0.588	**0.854**		
5 - Intention to give Feedback	0.873	0.775	0.639	0.52	-0.422	0.646	0.8	**0.881**	
6 – Arousal	0.748	0.6	0.291	0.539	-0.189	0.273	0.333	0.382	**0.775**

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 6. 12: Model Fit Measures for SEM Model

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	13.842	--	--
DF	3	--	--
CMIN/DF	4.614	Between 1 and 3	Acceptable
CFI	0.994	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.061	<0.08	Excellent
PClose	0.057	>0.05	Excellent

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 6. 13: SEM Model – Hypotheses Testing

			β Estimate	S.E.	C.R. (t-Values)	P
Pleasure	----->	Refer	0.273	0.062	4.421	***
Attitude	----->	Refer	0.277	0.053	5.199	***
Arousal	----->	Refer	0.232	0.054	4.312	***
Pleasure	----->	Influence	0.368	0.063	5.895	***
Attitude	----->	Influence	0.188	0.054	3.48	***
Arousal	----->	Influence	0.127	0.054	2.339	0.019
Arousal	----->	Purchase	0.083	0.058	1.43	0.153
Attitude	----->	Purchase	0.294	0.057	5.109	***
Pleasure	----->	Purchase	0.277	0.067	4.161	***
Pleasure	----->	Give feedback	0.282	0.143	1.974	0.048
Attitude	----->	Give feedback	0.308	0.123	2.502	0.012
Arousal	----->	Give feedback	0.315	0.124	2.544	0.011
		R^2				
		Give Feedback	0.137			
		Purchase	0.296			
		Influence	0.347			
		Refer	0.390			

On the individual relationships among the constructs, it was found that pleasure had a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer (β=0.273, t-value= 4.421, p<.001), intention to influence (β=0.368, t-value= 5.895, p<.001), intention to purchase (β=0.277, t-value= 4.161, p<.001) and intention to give feedback (β=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 (β=0.232, t-value= 4.312, p<.001), influence (β=0.127, t-value= 2.339, p<.05), and give feedback (β=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) (β=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 (β=0.277, t-value= 5.199, p<.001), intention to influence (β=0.188, t-value= 3.48, p<.001), intention to purchase (β=0.294, t-value= 5.109, p<.001) and intention to give feedback (β=0.308, t-value= 2.502, p<.05) providing support for H4a, b, c and d.

The first objective of this study was to determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude on social media. The results showed that there was no difference in the impact of the three transmission message strategies on customer emotions and attitude. All three had similar, if not, the same effect on emotions and attitude. Hence, on social media, no particular transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on emotions and attitude.

The second objective of this study was to highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on customer emotions and attitude on social media. The results indicated that the social message strategy had the most impact on emotions and attitude, followed by the ego strategy and then the sensory strategy. This indicates that social media advertisements for hedonic (luxury) products are more effective at influencing the emotions and attitudes of actual and potential customers than ego and sensory strategies.

Objective three was to ascertain if the emotions of pleasure and arousal, derived from an advertising message strategy stimulus, leads to customer engagement on social media. The results showed that pleasure leads to customer engagement. However, it was revealed that arousal is not a significant predictor of intention to purchase, although it significantly predicts all the other dimensions of customer engagement.

The final objective was to uncover if attitude towards advertisement is a determinant of customer engagement on social media. Attitude advertisement was found to be a significant predictor of customer engagement. This indicates that when customers encounter an advertisement on social media, they are more likely to have a more positive attitude towards the advertisement, which in turn leads to customer engagement, compared to ego or sensory message strategies.

Table 6.14 briefly summarises the outcomes/findings of the study as it pertains to the research objectives.

Table 6. 14: Summary of Major Results/Findings

Research Objective	Major Results/Findings
Research Objective 1: To determine which transmission message strategy has the greatest impact on pleasure, arousal and attitude	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.
Research Objective 2: To highlight the specific ritual message strategy that has the greatest impact on pleasure, arousal and attitude	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.
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.

Source: Author’s own construct

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 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) is greater than all the corresponding correlations). Results of the validation test of the structural model also show that the structural model has an acceptable fit 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, intention to influence, intention to purchase and intention to give feedback. Arousal is positively related to intention to refer, influence, and give feedback. Arousal is not positively related to purchase intention. Finally, results show that attitude towards the advertisement has a significantly positive relationship with intention to refer, intention to influence, intention to purchase and intention to give feedback.

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. Subsequently, discussions turned to the MANOVA results on the three transmission strategies. No difference was found in the effect of all three transmission message strategies on emotions, attitude and subsequently customer engagement.

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. 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.

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 (stimulus-organism-response model), Taylor's (1999) conceptualisation of advertising message strategy, 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.

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

The use of theory in customer engagement research is nascent (Islam & Rahman, 2017; Barger et al., 2016). There are some attempts to apply theory to customer engagement research (Islam & Rahman, 2017; Barger et al., 2016). Further, theory use in regard to advertising and social media research is not common. Therefore, this study has theoretical implications. The use of the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model in this study was to show the potency of advertising message strategies as stimuli within social media advertisements, in influencing customer emotions and attitudes and subsequently customer engagement. The S-O-R model argues that when individuals are exposed to external stimuli, they react internally and then their internal reactions cause an outward behavioural reaction (Mehrabian & Russel, 1974). By using this theory and applying it in conjunction with Taylor's (1999) conceptualisation of message strategy, to the social media context this study demonstrates the applicability of the S-O-R to the social media context and extends previous conceptualisations of stimuli to advertising message strategies.

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 regarding previous customer engagement research conceptualisations of advertising message strategies by utilising a typology long developed by advertising scholars. Within the customer engagement literature, studies on message strategy have to a large extent ignored Taylor's (1999) typology (Taffesse & Wien, 2018).

8.3.2 Implications for Management/Practice

The findings from this study have important implications as far as management/practice is concerned, regarding advertising hedonic (luxury) in addition to utilitarian (functional) products on social media. First, the study found that for hedonic brands, the social message strategy is superior to both the ego and sensory message strategies in stimulating consumer emotions, attitudes and ultimately customer engagement. This therefore underscores the importance of the social message strategy in advertising hedonic brands in a social media context. Accordingly, for hedonic products, marketers should build their creative skills vis-a-vis the social message strategy, which primarily includes emotional posts with messages centred on the ability of the product to win the approval of persons within the customer's social circle. Appeals should be directed at being noticed, gaining social approval or recalling and reliving social experiences through product consumption. By grasping and deploying these brand posts more frequently, marketers can improve engagement not only on social media, but can drive purchase as well.

Secondly, the results of the study revealed that when it comes to utilitarian (functional) products, all of the transmission message strategies had virtually the same degree of effect on emotions and attitude and therefore on customer engagement. There was no difference among the strategies. This implies that marketers can drive customer engagement for utilitarian products by crafting message strategies based on any of the three transmission strategies. For instance, marketers could craft messages that centre on product information such as product distribution, point-of-purchase information and unique selling proposition (USP). In addition, communication should provide a 'cue' as to how consumer needs can be satisfied, with convenience, ease of use, and product efficacy being used as appeals. By using these transmission strategies when advertising utilitarian products, marketers stand to gain by way of generating customer engagement.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS, RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

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. 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.

First of all, the study designed the six adverts using only one message strategy per advert, which may not be practical in all circumstances, as some advertisements can have a combination of message strategies (Taffesse & Wien, 2018). To produce further insights in this area, therefore, further research can be conducted using several combinations of message strategies. This would not only be interesting, but beneficial to explore the varying degrees of the effectiveness of different combinations of advertising message strategy on emotions and attitude and subsequently customer engagement.

Furthermore, this study did not control for extraneous variables, which, admittedly, can have an effect on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Future studies, therefore, may control for demographic variables in order to ascertain the variations in the results. For instance, future research can control for gender, to see if it plays a role in determining which (1) transmission message strategy and (2) ritual message strategy has the most effect on emotions, attitude and finally, customer engagement.

The study adopted also 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. Future research can be conducted by expanding this study to other industries, such as the hospitality, finance, etcetera industries. Finally, 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.

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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

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pleasure	Angry								Content
	Unhappy								Happy
	Displeased								Pleased
	Sad								Glad
	Disappointed								Delighted
	Uninterested								Enthusiastic
Arousal	Indifferent								Surprised

	Calm								Excited

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

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	
Favourable								Unfavourable
Interesting								Boring

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	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The likelihood of purchasing this [product] is high							
The probability that I would consider buying this [product] is high							
My willingness to buy the [product] is high							
I intend to buy this [product]							

Intention to Refer	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I would promote this [product]							
I would refer this [product] to my family and friends							

Intention to Influence	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I would actively comment about this [product] on any media							
I would comment about this [product] in my conversations							

Intention to give Feedback	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I would provide feedback for developing this [product]							

APPENDIX B – ADVERTISEMENT AD 01

APPENDIX C – ADVERTISEMENT AD 02

APPENDIX D – ADVERTISEMENT AD 03

APPENDIX E – ADVERTISEMENT AD 04

APPENDIX F – ADVERTISEMENT AD 05

APPENDIX G – ADVERTISEMENT AD 06