# Consumer Involvement and its Outcomes

## -Revealing asymmetrical relationships

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*Abstract*

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| **Title:** | Consumer Involvement and its Outcomes: Revealing asymmetrical relationships |
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| **Keywords:** | Involvement, Consumer response outcomes, Brands, Brand Strategy, Consumer Behavior |
| **Thesis purpose:** | The purpose of this study is to further develop and nuance the area of consumer involvement by using existing measurement tools and testing them in connection to consumer responses in form of outcomes of involvement. We also aim to investigate what dimensions of involvement that can be traced to different responses, clarifying what marketers should focus on if wanting to increase involvement and gain specific responses. |
| **Methodology:** | This study was performed through a quantitative study where questionnaires were used in both the pre-study and the main study. The hypotheses were tested through linear regression analysis. |
| **Theoretical perspective:** | The main theories can be classified according to involvement; where Laurent and Kapferer's five dimensional involvement measurement was highlighted and used in tests, and consumer response outcomes; which is divided between information search, knowledge, willingness to pay, word of mouth and brand loyalty. |
| **Empirical data:** | The data was gathered through online questionnaires, resulting in 84 respondents in the pre-study and 286 respondents in the main study. |
| **Conclusion:** | The study concludes that involvement does have a significant relationship on the tested outcomes, meaning that involvement leads to consumer responses and that to some extent, it is possible to influence the degree of consumer response. Furthermore, regarding the five involvement dimensions it can be concluded that not all dimensions of involvement will have affect on consumer responses, and the relationship between the dimensions of involvement and the outcomes is assymetrical. For information search, risk importance is vital to meet, for willingness to pay only the dimension of sign was proven significant and for loyalty, word of mouth and knowledge, interest is the most important dimension; proving that increasing involvement leads to the consumer responses. Since several of these outcomes are directly connected to brands, we can also conclude that involvement affects the brand and brand equity. These findings lead to several managerial implications, theoretical contributions and further research propositions. |

## *Acknowledgements*

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# 1 Introduction

*The first chapter opens with introducing the subject of involvement in general terms. This is followed by a discussion of the problem, where the aim is to guide the reader thru the area of focus in this thesis. This is followed by a presentation of the purpose of the study, whereas the research questions consequently are formulated and presented.*

## 1.1 Background

Being a consumer on today's market, one constantly stand in front of choices; what type of product? What brand of that product? Which version of that brand? As Ekström (2010:32) states, the consumption in people's lives has progressed and there exist a plethora of products and services to choose from. Lack of knowledge about the possible goods or lack of time to make decisions has complicated the consumer's role. Whether or not they like shopping, the action of making a choice or not making any choice has consequences. Ekström (20120:34) therefore points out the importance and possibilities for companies, both public and private, of understanding the new consumers and consumption patterns since they are very much flexible in their consumption patterns.

One important aspect of understanding those patterns is the idea of involvement, a concept that consumer behavior researchers started to focus on in the early 1970's. Laaksonen (2010:194) states that the concept of involvement can be used to explain differences in the nature of consumer behavior and the research branch originally stems from the field of social psychology, used for investigating the relations between the ego and an object with the purpose of explaining attitudes and beliefs (Sherif & Cantril, 1947 in Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008:85). Involvement in the discipline of consumer behavior reflects that a certain product category can be more, or less, central in an individual's life in regards of the identity and the relationship with the rest of the world (Traylor, 1981). The concept of involvement that we use in today's marketing and consumer behavior research developed when researchers started to question if it was possible for consumers to be extensive problem solvers of the likes of the economic man's rationality. It was argued that consumers could be characterized by limited information processing and physical effort that resulted in low involvement behavior. The opposite was termed high involvement behavior and included the notion that the consumer was able to process and perform an extensive cognitive information search (Laaksonen 2010:194).

The concept of product involvement have for long been recognized as a central aspect of consumer behavior, where both researchers and managers attribute a great importance to the involvement variable (Te'eni-Harari & Hornik, 2010). The notion of high and low involvement has therefore resulted in vast amounts of research and areas that has been covered includes how to measure involvement with product classes (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Kapferer & Laurent, 1993; Michaelidou &, 2006; Rahtz & Moore, 1989; Zaichkowsky, 1985; 1994 in Michaelidou & Dibb 2008), purchase decisions (Mittal, 1989; Slama & Tashchian, 1985; Smith & Bristor 1994 in Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008) and services (Keaveney & Parthasarathy, 2001 in Michaelidou & Dibb 2008) among others. Different scales have been developed using either one-dimensional or multidimensional approaches, such as Zaichowsky's Personal Involvement Inventory (Zaichowsky, 1985), Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) five dimensional Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale and Mittal's (1989) Purchase-

Decision Involvement Scale. The Kapferer and Laurent's (1985,1986,1993) five dimensional scale has been widely used in studies since its development and is often argued to show a more nuanced picture of the concept of involvement. As such, it is considered to be one of the most prominent contributions in the area of consumer involvement research. As can be seen by the vast use of involvement scales, and as Laaksonen (2010:194) points out, most researchers agree on the potential importance and role of involvement for consumers and there exists an agreement on that "involvement denotes the consumer's perception of the self-relevancy of the object" and that in the end, the consumers characteristics as well as the objects characteristics is what decides the degree of involvement.

## 1.2 Problem discussion

Even though most research has been performed on investigating the concept of involvement, there still exist a gap in the understanding of what creates and nurtures involvement (Bloch et al., 2009). The consequences and outcomes also remain to a large extent unexplored or neglected. Some suggested consequences of high involvement have been presented; Zaichowsky (1985) argues that involvement leads to greater information search as well as greater commitment to brand choice. LeClerc and Little (1997) present that brand loyalty interacts with product involvement and also Quester and Lim (2003) argue that there exists a relationship. Further interesting suggestions is the relationship between involvement and satisfaction, where Richins and Bloch (1991) suggest that high involved customers shows higher satisfaction in a short term perspective and Charters and Pettigrew (2006) argues that the degree of involvement affect the perception of quality in products. Bloch et al. (2009) also present that highly involved customers tend to be more influential in their family and peers, as well as being relatively free spenders within a high involvement product class. These possible consequences are obviously of great importance for the supplier of the product, as many interesting practical adaptations of market communication could be suggested as also increased information search and increased knowledge about the category are possible outcomes according to among others Charters and Pettigrew (2006) and Garcia (1996). However, even though these consequences are of great importance to companies, surprisingly few studies have focused on the notion of consumer response outcomes of involvement. Rather, the studies focus on the investigation of the concept of involvement and what makes the consumer involved with a selection of products. As the recognition of products as low and high involving has developed, a need for understanding how a company can use consumer response outcomes of involvement to their benefit can be seen as a natural logic.

Furthermore, an important aspect for practitioners and researchers alike is the issue of branding and involvement, and how these two factors influence and affect each other on today's market place. According to Salzer-Mörling (2010:531) we are living in a branded world where production and consumption are increasingly concerned with brands. The importance of brands has for long been recognized as one of the most crucial management priorities, affecting almost any marketing activity; in particular consumer responses (Keller, 2001). Hence, the brand construct is also related to the concept of involvement. The issue of brands in regards of involvement has been mentioned in several studies, for instance it has been suggested that low-involving products imply a sizeable evoked set of brands but with low brand commitment which would result in a higher degree of switching brands than for high-involving; or in other words, the higher the involvement, the greater the commitment (Traylor, 1981). But brands and involvement also seems to interact, for instance, the attractiveness of distributors' brands have been linked to the degree of involvement (Kapferer & Laurent, 1995, in Kapferer, 2008). Involvement and brands also have common denominators as it has been suggested that brands exist wherever customers perceive a high risk in purchasing, and the degree of

involvement is dependent on the degree of risk (Kapferer, 2008:74; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). The role of the brand in that situation would take on the function as recognition or basic practicalities, whereas in high involving categories would be more based on quality performance and personalization desires (ibid). As strong brands are assumed to be high involving, knowing the effects that involvement can have on brands would be of great interest to both practitioners and academics. As this relationship in previous studies has not been made clear, it is motivated to further investigate the relationship regarding brands and involvement

In the marketing literature and business research in general, the vast majority of studies and focus remains on physical products. The involvement construct is no exception, which has been developed by mostly using physical products in both conceptualization and empirical testing (Gabott & Hogg, 1999). Why this is the case is unclear, it can be due to the increased complexity of the service offer or just assumed that services are uninteresting in the involvement concept. Despite the fact that services differs from products in some characteristics it has been argued that there is a need to further develop the understanding of involvement including services (Day et al., 1995). However, Zaichowsky (1985 in Gabott and Hogg, 1999) argues that involvement is context free and applicable to all product types. Even though some studies of involvement mention services (e.g. Vaughn, 1986; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) very few have tried to develop and investigate the concept related to services, or for a combination of services and product categories. Thus it is possible to further explore involvement by including services and thereby contribute to an increasingly nuanced picture.

As can be concluded by the above discussion, much research has been performed in the area of involvement with products and, to some extent services, presenting many interesting findings. But, as has also been highlighted, the research seems to mainly cover the act of involvement, and not what leads up to different effects of involvement and what involvement results in, regarding consumer responses. When designing market communication for a new type of product or service, searching to increase loyalty towards a brand or looking to charge price premiums for a specific product or service, it would seem that much effect could stem from learning exactly what type of involvement behavior a consumer is likely to show when reacting upon the presented product or service type. Kapferer and Laurent (1986) recognized this importance 30 years ago and performed a study based on 5 antecedents or dimensions of involvement. 30 years later, not much new information is possible to obtain about such an important area since very few studies have been performed on consequences of involvement. We therefore recognize the need to investigate how involvement can be affected, and what different types of antecedents give rise to certain types of outcomes. Through our study, we intend to present a more nuanced view of the outcomes of involvement and the involvement concept as a whole. We also recognize the need for use of new types of goods and services in order to contribute to the more nuanced picture. Although using washing machines and vacuum cleaners 30 years later in a new study would be interesting, it is our understanding of modern society that other types of products and services may be valued.

We suggest that this study is important for both future research within involvement and for practitioners that could use the information to design campaigns that could achieve greater loyalty, more word-of-mouth and higher profit by more involved customers. As current research is inconclusive in the area, our findings would make a unique contribution.

## 1.3 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to further develop and nuance the area of consumer involvement by using existing measurement tools and testing them in connection to consumer responses in form of outcomes of involvement. We also aim to investigate what dimensions of involvement that can be traced to different responses, clarifying what marketers should focus on if wanting to increase involvement and gain responses. Both areas contribute to the existing research and offer new information for marketing practitioners on how they can make use of the findings in their current strategy.

## 1.4 Research questions

To fulfill the above stated purpose we perform this research study in order to answer:

***What are the consumer response outcomes to involvement in products and services?***

The main question is further supported by the more practically aimed sub-questions of:

- ***Which dimensions of involvement are most important for the different types of consumer outcomes suggested?***

- ***How do the dimensions and outcomes of involvement affect brands?***

# 2 Literature review

*The purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with a thorough resume of previous research conducted on involvement and provides an overview of relevant concepts used in this thesis. The chapter starts with a conceptual model of the relation between the dimensions of involvement and the outcomes, which is further explained in the chapter. Secondly, a presentation of different aspects of involvement is displayed, followed by an overview regarding its measurements. The third section includes a detailed table of suggested outcomes in previous research followed by a theoretical discussion regarding each selected outcome with proposed hypotheses for each construct. The chapter is concluded with the conceptual model including the selected outcomes for this thesis.*

## 2.1 Conceptual model of involvement

As this study includes involvement and it outcomes, we propose the following model as an outline for the theoretical framework. As seen below, involvement is assumed to include a number of dimensions, which further generates a number of outcomes. This will be discussed thoroughly in the following chapter.
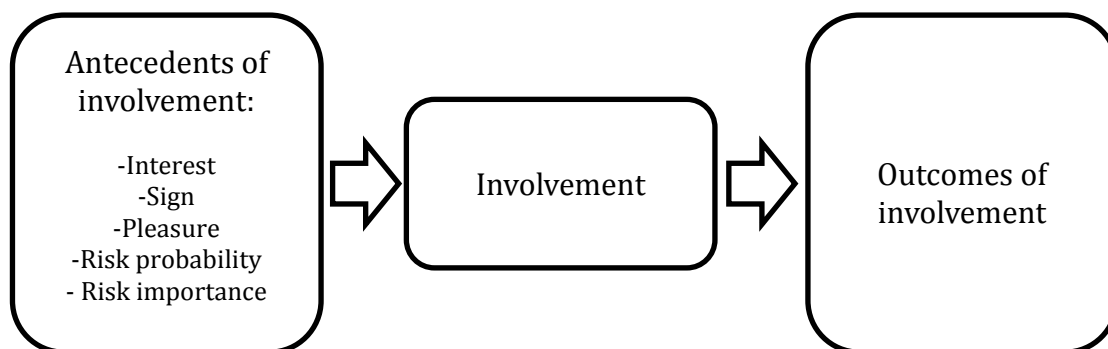


Figure 1: Conceptual model of involvement (own illustration).

## 2.2 The concept of Involvement

The concept of involvement has been studied and developed over a long period of time, resulting in several definitions (Bloch et al., 2009). According to Michaelidou and Dibb (2008) the development of involvement in consumer research has enlarged the original meaning, from addressing it as persuasive communication to a much wider context in both attitudes and various objects. According to Laaksonen (2010:194) the lack of consensus about what the concept should contain makes it difficult to understand and compare results across different studies. Whereas some branches of studies have referred to the concept as rooted in products, it can mainly today be recognized as "a person's perceived relevance of the consumption object based in inherent needs, values and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, pp. 342); or considered as a motivational state of mind and unobservable state of motivation (Mittal, 1989; Rothschild, 1984). Even though both perspectives emphasize the consumer, the distinction between the two reveals the different types of involvement: product involvement and purchase decision involvement (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006). Product involvement, also mentioned as enduring involvement, is perceived as more enduring with a greater experiential and symbolic significance; the purchase decision involvement, also mentioned as situational involvement since it stems from situations, also includes the involvement with brands (ibid). Furthermore, Laaksonen

(1994:25) have suggested a categorization of three distinct groups, cognitive based, individual state and response based involvement; which incorporate the first distinction of involvement as enduring, situational and response.

Enduring involvement has been described as highlighting the notion of duration, with a long-term attachment to a product-class which in turn can be exhibited by extensive information search, brand knowledge and brand commitment (Richins & Bloch, 1986). Since enduring involvement has adopted the perspective of ego involvement, the relevance and attitude is enduring and stable over time (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). It has been suggested that consumers with high enduring involvement experience passionate attraction to the specific product class that can lead to a subjective engagement (Bloch et al, 2009). Whereas this product class occupies the mind of the consumer, and even though this state is unobservable itself, the enduring involvement produces evident behavior, such as devoting excessive time and resources on the product category (ibid). Bloch et al. (1986) presents evidence that this mental focus result in an ongoing attention and constant information search of the product class and the accumulation of knowledge can turn consumer into an expert in the category, which results in an opinion leadership. The implication of enduring involvement, as being closely related to ego involvement, is also the notion of the consumer's self-concept and the high level of social risk; if the product fails to perform its desired function the consumer might experience embarrassment and damage the self-concept (Solomon et al. 2010; 195). However, since admitting such consumption error might distress the high enduring consumers, it has been suggested that they are particularly motivated to experience satisfaction and thereby also report higher satisfaction (Richins & Bloch, 1986).

Even though this highlight the importance of high enduring involved customers for marketers, the research of its origin has been limited. One study proposes that enduring involvement has social origins, but also stems from the design and interaction with the product (Bloch et al., 2009). This would imply the significance of design and aesthetics to generate high enduring involvement, but also to offer the ability to gain knowledge in the product category. Product complexity has often been seen as something negative but a wide range of selections could thus offer the consumer to gain knowledge and become an expert in the category (ibid).

Situational involvement is, contrary to enduring involvement, a short-term phenomenon where the consumer instead is involved with the situation, for instance a purchase decision (Mittal, 1989). Hence, the product is not the focus per se, but the concern lays in the purchase of it. After the purchase has been made, the situation has resolved and its involvement subsides (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). This involvement is thereby goal directed, and it has been suggested that it is primarily influenced by perceived risk and personal relevance (Gulas et al., 2009). As presented by Laaksonen (2010:200) an individual can be low involved in wines, but if the specific occasion is vital, the choice of wine increases in importance and the person becomes motivated and aroused to make a proper decision. The concept of situational involvement is thereby closely related to different classes of risks, and the involvement increases when the perceived risk is high (Bloch, 1981); Laurent and Kapferer (1985) also view perceived risk as an antecedent of involvement. However, it should be mentioned that perceived risk also could be viewed as a dimension of product involvement (enduring involvement), and even as a consequence of it (Dholakia, 2001). Besides the influence of risk, Houston and Rothschild (1978) state that product characteristics with its price, time of consumption and complexity have direct impact on situational involvement. This perspective is closely related to definition of involvement by Beatty and Smith (1983) in Michaelidou and Dibb (2008) who presents that situational involvement represents the degree to which a particular situation engenders involvement, which implies that the personal characteristics of the consumer have no effect on involvement levels.

In addition, the different concepts of enduring and situational involvement are distinct but they are also related. As presented can one low involved consumer experience transiently heightened situational involvement in an important purchase (Laaksonen, 2010:201). The interactions between the two concept remains fairly unknown, but one study conclude that the initial level of enduring involvement does not increase or suppress the effects of situational involvement in the time of the purchase (Richins & Bloch, 1992). Park and Mittal (1985) argue about a rather different view of involvement as being governed by both cognitive and affective motives, which thus falls between the two fundamental concepts. In this view the cognitive motives steers the functional performance, whereas the affective motives stems from the semiotic benefits generated from using the product (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). Park and Mittal (1985) propose through this perspective that persons who are cognitively motivated are likely to be concerned with the task of the purchase where the affectively motivated persons are enduringly involved with the product.

The last major concept, response involvement, differs from the previous concepts as involvement instead is perceived as behavior rather than a mediator of behavior (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). It refers to the behavioral and cognitive outcomes as a result of both enduring and situational involvement (Burton & Netemeyer, 1992). The concept is associated with difficulties, for instance as information search has been used for measurement of response involvement it is accepted that it can be the outcomes of involvement, and not involvement as such (Dholakia, 1997). Thus, it has been suggested that both enduring and situational involvement interact with a direct effect on response involvement (Burton & Netemeyer, 1992. However, it should be noted that response involvement is rarely mentioned in research, where the responses instead are treated as the consequences of the involvement.

Lastly, due to the high interest in this particular area, a vast number of studies have been conducted in attempt to clarify and explore what products that can be categorized as high- and low involving products (e.g. Traylor & Joseph, 1984; Ratchford, 1987; Mittal, 1989a). Additional research also shows that product involvement is a relatively stable and constant variable, which increases the importance for marketers in a long-term perspective (Havitz & Howard, 1995). Although providing a thorough base, the research regarding high- and low-involving products is not conclusive. For instance, Traylor and Jospeh (1984) categorize jeans as high involving when Garcia (1996) categorizes it as low involving. This raises issues regarding how involvement can be seen as something given, or merely a factor that can be stimulated; further indications of involvement as being a factor that can be stimulated is the recent increasing interest in products such as coffee and salt, products that previously have been classified as low-involvement products (Traylor, 1981; Mittal, 1989a).

## 2.2.1 How to measure Involvement

Due to the different branches and varying conceptualization of involvement, the attempts to measure involvement also differs widely. Many researchers focuses on one of the major concepts of involvement, where most attention has been given to measure involvement in products (enduring involvement) and the measurements of purchase decisions (situational involvement) has received less attention (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). The accumulative research also reveals the different perspectives of dimensions of involvement, where the measurement range from one dimension, as in Traylor and Joseph, 1984; Vaughn, 1980; Zaichkowsky, 1985, to seven dimension, as in Bloch, 1981. According to Laaksonen (2010:203), two approaches have been exceptionally employed: The Personal

Involvement Inventory by Zaichkowsky (1985) and the five facets of involvement by Laurent and Kapferer (1985).

The Personal Involvement from 1985, which was later revised in 1994, can be applied across different product categories, purchase situations and advertisements since it is constructed of ten bipolar adjectives, which consist of both cognitive and emotional adjectives (Zaichkowsky, 1994). The scale by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) is instead constructed on five dimensions based on the ego-importance, the hedonic value, the sign value, the perceived importance of purchase consequences and the probability of making a mispurchase. Despite some suggestions that the notion of risk should be treated as a distinct construct which influence involvement, and vice versa, the scale by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) has been widely used and implemented across different cultures (Laaksonen, 2010:203-204).

## 2.2.2 Involvement and brands

Brands have been recognized as one of the most vital qualities of a company and one of the few strategic assets which provide a long lasting competitive advantage (Kapferer, 2008:1). At the basic level, brands enable the consumer to identify the source of a producer and assign it with responsibility, but at deeper level brands also generate a deeper meaning, which can be seen as even more important (Keller, 2008:11). According to de Chernatony and McDonald (2003:125-128) the product or service is surrounded by an aura or personality which affects the consumer choice of brands and the brands that are powerful make strong image statements, where consumers can base their purchases on the image they project.

This argument leads to the fact that consumers not only evaluate products in the term of what they do but also what they mean. However, as Belk (1988) infer, the objects and brands are not isolated and static but are progressively constituted in an intersubjective manner and McCracken (1986) argues that social values transfer from the world into the good and from there into the consumer, helping to create a personality and identity that can be identified by others. What those goods values are and how they become values are decided through, among other marketing tools, advertising. Advertisements are used to bind together chosen meaning and signs with the goods in the eyes of the consumer. But, as Elliott and Wattanasuswan (1998) state, although consumers learn about consumption symbols through socialization and exposure to mass media, it does not mean that all consumers that possess the same product bought it for the same symbolic meaning. Besides advertisements, brands are used as a communication of social value and the consumption of brands is seen as a more occurring expressive process within consumer behavior and Salzer- Mörling (2010) denoted brands as cultural icons. She puts forward the idea of the marketplace becoming a brandscape, focused on the consumption of brands and their symbolic value in order for the consumer to express their own values and lifestyles. The brands personality, inherent identity, is used to express how we as consumers see ourselves and to what groups we belong. Thus, the meaning and perception of the brand is by this arguments dependent on individuals that gets involved in producing the meaning. Furthermore, how the brand is perceived is also in the hands of the company that through the creation of the brand identity can influence the brands perceived personality and positioning (Kapferer 2008:178). The brand identity can be seen as the blue print for the brand, and aids the building of market communication in general.

Brand owners are understandably interested in the brand equity, which is "the current financial value of the flow of future profits attached to the brand itself" (Kapferer, 2008:143). Brand equity is however complex with many variables, but it is argued that customers and their involvement is one important variable (Kapferer, 2008:28). The author also suggests that the power of brands varies between high and low categories, where for instance the power of a manufacturing brand may be very weak in a low involvement category (ibid. 2008:23). According to Keller (2008:48) the premise of brand equity is due to the customers' experience, where the power of a brand is what resides in the mind of the customers, which thus is dependent on the customers' knowledge of the brand. Thereby it has been suggested that customer involvement has a moderating influence on the relation between individuals' perception of brand attributes and brand equity (Swoboda et al., 2009).

Involvement has also been suggested to influence the brand in other perspectives (e.g. loyalty, brand search, brand discrimination), and as McWilliam (1997:61) states about involvement: "Given the vast sums of money which have been spent on brand development and brand acquisition, the fact that consumers may be broadly indifferent to these valued assets should send shivers down the spine of many chief executives and investors". The fact that the efforts invested in branding activities not only must be perceived but also valued as such would imply that brand owners view branding as an attempt to create high involvement (ibid). Furthermore, of interest to brand owners is the notion that for highly involved consumers it is more common that the chosen good, either product or service, is used for communicating their lifestyle and personality according to Laurent and Kapferer (1985). Mittal and Lee (1985) suggest that social observations of brands occur, meaning the process of deeming consumers identities on what they purchase, use and wear. The authors suggest that observations occur on different levels; it may be on the category level so the consumer learns about what product to use or not to use and it may occur on a brand specific level to learn about what brands to choose.

Where the vast majority of the literature deals with brands and branding in aspects of tangible goods, it might be important to clarify some distinct differences of the service brands. One distinct difference is the intangible nature of the offer in which the value of the brands are harder to communicate and harder for customers to evaluate, compared to products (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003). This would imply that the perceived risk generally is higher and there is a need for an extended information search. As Vargo and Lusch (2008) present, in services the customers are integrated in the production process where the service provider and customer mutually co-create the value. This condition would imply that customers' involvement is a prerequisite for the value of the service, as well as the brand value.

## 2.3 The antecedents of Involvment

One of the more commonly used measurement tools of involvement is the CIP-scale by Kapferer and Laurent (1986, 1993). The scale can be used to create consumer involvement profiles that the authors argue can be used for measuring the involvement level of products and services, predicting consumer behavior and segmenting consumers (Kapferer & Laurent, 1986). The scale was originally developed as the antecedents of involvement, indicating that the facets interest, pleasure, sign value, risk importance and probability of error together was the prelude to creating involvement. Further along, Laurent and Kapferer started calling these five facets the dimensions of involvement, indicating that besides creating involvement they were also the building parts of involvement and possible to measure on their own. Therefore, in this paper, we use the term antecedents and dimensions of involvement interchangeably, referring to the building blocks of involvement that all have their own specific characteristics.

### 2.3.1 Interest/importance

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) propose one dimension of the antecedents of involvement to be the perceived importance of the product and its personal meaning. It should also be noted that Kapferer and Laurent (1993) used the term personal interest as the interest a consumer has in a product category, its personal meaning or importance. The facet of importance has thereby been used synonymously with interest in several studies (e.g. Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001; Gabott & Hogg, 1999; Rodgers & Schneider, 1993; Guthrie & Kim, 2008) whereas it refers to both importance and interest in a product category, and the previous mentioned pleasure refers to the product purchase. The dimension of interest in the concept of involvement is central since it originally was used to explain the general idea of consumer involvement. For instance, Zaichkowsky (1985) defines involvement as a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and *interests*; which stems from the early definition by Hupfer and Gardner (1971) as: the general level of *interest* or concern about an issue without reference to a specific position.

Also worth noticing is that the dimension of interest in involvement also carries similarities with the enduring involvement, which represent the stable and long-term arousal and interest with a product (Guthrie and Kim, 2008). Even though the CIP scale in general does not distinguish between enduring and situational involvement, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) in Gabbott and Hogg (1999) suggest that the facet of interest, with hedonic value, equals the definition of Houston and Rothchilds (1977) definition of enduring involvement. As Kapferer and Laurent (1993) present, interest and pleasure can be correlated and sometimes merged into one single factor (e.g. Rodgers & Schneider, 1993). The authors does however argue that they should be seen as divided constructs, where a consumer indeed can receive great pleasure from a product without being deeply interested in it; to the contrary, a consumer can be highly interested in products without any pleasure being perceived. In a study by Gabbott and Hogg (1999) the result concluded that interest and pleasure indeed is different concept that should be treated separately.

### 2.3.2 Pleasure

According to Laurent and Kapferer (1985:43) the dimension of pleasure value represents: "the hedonic value of the product, its emotional appeal and its ability to provide pleasure and affect". Evidently, this dimension can be perceived as rather wide due to the subjective nature of both hedonic and emotional

value. For instance, products containing high pleasure value can be dresses, champagne and chocolate, but there is also a pleasure value in products as washing machines since it: liberates housewives by giving them free time (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:45). The construct of pleasure in the consumption context is created on Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) argument that products are not only subject of rational benefits, but is highly associated to hedonic, experiential and emotional pleasure.

The pleasure construct is of importance since it captures the bodily aspects of motivation by desire, without reducing it to our fundamental biogenic needs (Solomon et al., 2010:190). It has been suggested that the desire is more profound than wants, and the pleasure of desire many times stems from social relationships mediated by products and consumption experience, not the consumption in itself (Belk et al., 1997). As proposed by Richins and Bloch (1991), high enduring consumers find products highly pleasurable where for low enduring consumers products are not a specific source of pleasure. Pleasure itself can hence have several sources, as conspicuous consumption of luxury brands where the ownership is a greater pleasure than the display and semiotic consumption (Truong, 2010); likewise the function of a brand can be strictly to provide pleasure (Radder & Huang, 2008). But hedonic pleasure is not limited to the usage of the product or the social interactions, hedonic pleasure can also be generated from the shopping experience (Solomon et al, 2010:61); it is also argued that the motives of the consumption situation affects the experienced pleasure where consumers with strong shopping motives experience higher pleasure (McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998). Since pleasure can be derived from the shopping experience, service providers have the ability to affect the pleasure since they control the purchase environment (Solomon et al., 2010:61). Not surprisingly, Vilnai-Yavetz and Gilboa (2010:223) found support for that customers' does "derive greater pleasure from a clean and tidy servicescape than a dirty or messy one". Involvement and pleasure is thus highly interrelated, where Laurent and Kapferer (1985) perceive pleasure as an antecedent of involvement, pleasure can also be an outcome of involvement where high involved consumers experience greater pleasure (Morganosky 1986 in Ramirez & Goldsmith 2009). It has also been concluded that there is gender, income, occupation, as well as life stage, differences in perceived pleasure, (Hochgraefe et al., 2012).

### 2.3.3 Sign

The dimension of sign in Kapferer and Laurent's (1986) model is the dimension concerned with the consumer's expressive interest of a purchase in how the brand choice has the possibility of expressing a person's status and identity. Although originally portraying a type of risk, the sign value is more concerned with the psychosocial risk than possible functional risks (Laurent & Kapferer 1985). The search of products that tells the social environment of who the consumer is may depend on the situation according to Kapferer and Laurent (1986), who exemplify it by the situation of buying champagne; not caring much about champagne in general, the consumer change the involvement level if the boss is invited home for dinner and expects champagne to be served. Thus, the possibility of saying something about oneself as a consumer changes the level of involvement. As the authors created several involvement types, sign value can be seen to differ greatly from high to low involvement. For categories such as clothes (dresses used), perfume, coffee, jam and other more enjoyable and high involvement items the sign value was high, indicating that consumers mind greatly what the products says about them while such items as batteries, pasta and detergent scored low in overall involvement as well as how much weight consumers put on the goods expressive qualities. For the low involvement items, it is instead suggested that brand choices are based on lowering the perceived risk.

**2.3.4 Risk**

One of the frequently used antecedents of involvement is the concept of risk, or perceived risk, as it is seen as important in order to understand consumer behavior (Conchar et al., 2004). However, the concept of risk is mentioned as both an antecedent and an outcome by some authors, discussing which comes first; involvement or risk. Perceived risk has been found to relate to the concept of involvement according to Mitchell (1999). Risk is often seen as high when the price of the purchase is high and the monetary losses may be severe, thus implying that high risk gives high involvement (ibid.) Involvement can also be seen reducing risk since it is suggested that high involvement leads to brand loyalty according to the author, which is considered to reduce risk. The author states the importance of risk as an antecedent to involvement but also highlight the fact that it is an important part of the involvement construct as a whole. As Conchar et al. (2004) suggest, knowing what type of risks and consequences the consumer holds indicates possibilities of creating more effective marketing communication, especially aimed at reducing suggested risk. The Kapferer and Laurent (1986) construct used in this paper have two out of five dimensions linked to the concept of risk; probability of error and risk importance. The first depicts the subjective evaluation of making a mispurchase, and scores high in categories such as mattress, shampoo and washing machine. The second, risk importance, depicts perceived importance of the negative consequences of a mispurchase and scores high on items such as washing machines, vacuum cleaners and TV, all expensive items when the study was performed. A newer study performed on financial services also depicts the importance of risk and probability of error when choosing, showing higher scores on these dimensions than on the other factors (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001).

An important aspect in understanding what Kapferer and Laurent (1986) term *risk importance* and its effect on behavior is to understand what makes a consumer uncertain and thus expects negative consequences. Uncertainty and certainty is measured as confidence, reliability, trust, likelihood and probability while the consequences of risk have been defined and measured in terms of danger, trust, relevance and seriousness (Mitchell & Hogg 1997 in Mitchell 1999). Other research, such as Stone and Winter (1987) in Mitchell (1999) see risk as an expectation of loss, and loss is now perceived as the main adverse consequences within consumer behavior. Mitchell (1999) suggests several sources for uncertainty. Firstly, what the consumer knows about his or her needs, acceptance level or purchase goals may not be adequate. Secondly, consumers can be uncertain when deciding on the number of available, acceptable options, which Urbany et al. (1998) define as knowledge uncertainty. Thirdly, consumer can be uncertain about how well they may be able to predict future performance. Fourthly is how well consumers perceive that they have the ability to judge the outcome, described as confidence value by Cox (1967) in Mitchell (1999). Fifth is the uncertainty of how well the consumer can judge a brand over another. Lastly, it is suggested by the author that consumers are uncertain about the outcome since both preferences and context may change over time and then differ from the anticipated outcome. These collected uncertainties have given rise to several types of losses and negative consequence. Kotler and Keller (2009:213) have collected the mentioned losses and present them as:

1. Functional risk: when the product does not perform as it was expected.
2. Physical risk: when the product poses a threat to the physical welfare of the user or others. Conchar et al. (2004) also includes investment of personal effort into this type of risk.
3. Financial risk: when the product is not worth the price that was paid.
4. Social risk: when the product results in embarrassment from others.
5. Psychological risk: when the product affects the mental well-being of the user.
6. Time risk: when the failure of the chosen product results in opportunity cost of finding another satisfactory product.

To understand how consumers deal with risk and asses the probability of the above-mentioned losses in what Kapferer and Laurent (1986) describe as *probability of error*, the suggested framework by Conchar et al. (2004) that deal with risk processing can be used. The cognitive process helps consumer evaluate how likely it is to make a mispurchase. The authors has developed a full conceptual model and suggests that the process starts after a consumers decision regarding goals and context has been formed with the act of risk framing; weighing what types of risk matter most in the specified situation and through that decide on what risk dimensions (such as above mentioned losses) the evaluation should be based. The second step is risk assessment where the perceived risk is assessed based on the frame formed in the first phase, processing gains and losses of possible choices. The third phase, the one connected to the perceived dimension of risk probability, is risk evaluation where the consumer considers if the perceived risk is worth a potential loss of any of the types named above. Important to keep in mind is that this is done subjectively as some individuals are more prone to risk-taking behavior and therefore will be keen on risking more than other people when it comes to risk-taking propensity (Conchar et al. 2004:431).

## 2.4 Outcomes of Involvement

In order to present a clear overview of the literature review and a summarization of the proposed outcomes of involvement, we display a table below containing a selection of studies with author, type of study, the scale used in the study, the suggested outcomes and what products or services that are proposed to be either high or low involving. It might be important to highlight that this is a selection of the research and even if it is possible to present an even more elaborated table, this table is based on either the most cited studies or studied which are exceptional in terms of proposing products, services or outcomes in regards of involvement. Moreover, we select the most common and the most relevant outcomes presented in the table to further elaboration in this section of thesis, since it is simply not possible to investigate them all.

| Authors | Type of study | Scale used | Suggested outcomes | High involved product | Low involved product | High involved service | Low involved service | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Andrews et al (1990) | Conceptual | x | Increased search and shopping, increased complexity of decisions process, greater time spent examining options, greater perceived product attribute differences; greater number of personal connections, increased recall and comprehension. | x | x | x | x | |
| Bloch et al. (2009) | Qualitative | Bloch | Innovative buyers within a product class, influential among their family and peers, free spenders within the product class. | x | x | x | x | |
| Bloemmer and de Ruyter (1999) | Quantitative | x | Both satisfaction and positive emotions do have a positive effect on loyalty for both high and low involvement services | x | x | Travel agency, holiday camp, restaurant | Local public services, railway company, fast food | |
| Celuch and Longfellow (1992) | Quantitative | RPII* | Information search, information provision, and opinion leadership | x | x | Restaurant, family physician, hair care | Dry cleaner, life insurance, lawn care | |
| Charters and Pattigrew (2006) | Qualitative | x | Information-seeking activities, attention to opinion leaders and advertising, and brand involvement. Higher spender and opinion former. Different perception of quality | x | x | x | x | |
| Dens and Pelsmacker (2010) | Quantitative | Mittal | In high product category involvement situations, informational appeals benefit product and brand evaluations. | Laptop computer | Candybar | x | x | |
| Gabbot and Hogg (1999) | Quantitative | CIP | x | x | x | Legal services, entertainment services | x | No distinction: Credit card, Film, Evening class, Solicitor, Hotel, Car service, Restaurant, Dry cleaner, Hairdresser. |
| Garcia (1996) | Quantatative | CIQ | Affective link, search information and processing, social interaction, purchase purpose, social relevence | Automobiles | Jeans | x | x | |
| Kuenzel, Musters (2006) | Quantitative | Mittal | x | Soft drinks, mayonnaise and milk | Table salt | x | x | Medium involvement: Dried soup, ice cream, fruit yoghurt, chocolate and pasta, meal kits, margarine, ketchup, oil, fruit juice, readymade deserts |
| Laurent and Kapferer (1985) | Quantitative | CIP | High involved consumers are extensive choice process, information seekers, more expressive thru brand choice, recipient to reference groups. | x | x | x | x | No distinction: Dresses, bras, washing machines, TV, vacuum cleaner, iron, champagne, oil, yogurt, chocolate, shampoo, toothpaste, detergent. |
| Laurent and Kapferer (1986) | Quantitative | CIP | Extensiveness of the decision process, brand commitment, readership of articles on the product category. | x | x | x | x | No distinction: Mineral water, jam, batteries, pasta, perfume, matress. |
| LeClerc and Little (1997) | Quantitative | PII | Brand loyalty interacts with product involvement. | x | x | x | x | No distinction: bar soap,fruit juice, breakfast cereals, analgesics, cookies, crackers, margarine |

Table 1: Summary of involvement research

| Authors | Type of study | Scale used | Suggested outcomes | High involved product | Low involved product | High involved service | Low involved service | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mittal (1989a) | Quantitative | Mittal | x | Bicycle, Emergency eye glasses, Wine special occasion, Lawn mower, Regular eyeglasses | Pencils, Salt, Mailbox, Pencils for exam, House plant, Beer, Regular Wine | Airline ticket, Restaurant, Auto Insurance. | x | |
| Mittal and Lee (1989) | Quantitative | Mittal | Extensiveness of decision-making process, interest in advertising, brand-commitment, frequency of product usage, shopping enjoyment. | x | x | x | x | |
| Olsen (2008) | Quantitative | Own scale | Involvement proved to be a complete mediator between satisfaction and repurchase loyalty | x | x | x | x | |
| Park et al (2007) | Quantitative | Situational manipulation | Association between involvement and word-of-mouth transmission. Low-involvement consumers are affected by the quantity of online-reviews rather than the quality of reviews | x | x | x | x | |
| Quester and Lim (2003) | Quantitative | CIP | A relationship exist between product involvement and brand loyalty. | Sport shoes/sneakers | Ball-point pens (partial support) | x | x | |
| Radder and Huang (2008) | Quantitative | x | Higher consumer awareness of high-involvement product brands than of low-involvement product brands | Sports wear clothing | Coffee | x | x | |
| Richins and Bloch (1991) | Quantitative | Bloch | Consumers with high product involvement initially shows slightly greater satisfaction (with their cars) than low-involvement consumers over the term of ownership. | Automobiles | x | x | x | |
| Te'eni-Harari and Hornik (2010) | Quantitative | RPII | Young children's product-involvement level is influenced by parents and peers. Involvement influence the decision-making process, the extent of search for information, the timing in adoption, the consumer's attitudes and references, the perceptions of alternatives and brand loyalty | x | x | x | x | Uncategorized: mobile phones, hotdogs, books and toothpaste. |
| Traylor (1981) | Quantitative and qualitative | Own scale | Some products have a significant positive between product involvement and brand commitment | Soft drinks, instant coffee, vitamin tablets | Automobile, refrigeator, washing machine, furniture | x | x | |
| Traylor and Joseph (1984) | Quantitative | Own scale | Different levels of involvement lead to different processes in the purchase and use of products | Gasoline, cola, milk, potato chips, toothpaste, cereal, socks | Automobile, stereo speakers, wristwatch, blue jeans | x | x | |
| Varki and Wong (2003) | Quantitative | RPII | Involvement has a positive effect on consumers 'intrinsic willingness to engage in relationships. | x | x | x | x | |
| Vaughn (1986) | Quantitative | Own scale | x | Cars, cosmetics, jewelry, fashion clothing | Paper products, household cleaners, gasoline, beer, cigarettes, candy | Insurance | x | |
| Zaichowsky (1985) | Quantitative | PII | Involvement with products has been hypothesized to lead to greater perception of attribute differences, perception of greater product importance and greater commitment to brand choice, greater information search. | Jeans, cars, calculator, laundry detergent, jeans, color tv, camera, headache remedy. | Bubble bath, facial tissues, red wine, mouthwash, breakfast cereal, instant coffee, | x | x | |
| Zaichowsky (1994) | Quantatative | RPII | x | x | x | x | x | Uncategorized: Ice cream, Exercise equipment, soft drinks |

**2.4.1 Information search and knowledge**

One of the most commonly occurring effects of high involvement mentioned in the previous literature is the notion of that it leads to increased information search when buying the service or product, as stated in Zaichowsky (1985), Laurent and Kapferer (1985), Charters and Pettigrew (2006), Garcia (1996), Andrews et al. (1990) and Te'eni and Harrari (2010). Charters and Pettigrew (2006) go as far as stating that the buyer becomes an expert on the designated area. This can have several implications for managers; such as sellers not needing to educate their customers about the products, as they would already have great knowledge of the product class, but rather inform them on a brand specific level (Punj & Staelin, 1983). Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) state that behavior regarding information search and creation of knowledge also affects the susceptibility of advertisements and the information breadth they can contain. Both these implications are crucial to understand for managers, as the market communication needs to be tailored to specific needs of low and high involvement consumers and their susceptibility, as is also suggested by Vaughn (1986) when he discusses advertisements strategies. The type of search that a consumer participates in as well as how that search is performed will have impact on how they perceive marketing messages according to Vakratsas and Ambler (1999).

According to the basic decision making model for purchase decisions as presented by Kotler and Armstrong (2008:178), information search and creation of knowledge is the second step after recognizing the need for product or services. The authors propose that these stages lead to an evaluation of alternatives and thus the consumer decide if he or she will buy or not buy in the last step. As said by Haluk Köksal (2011) and Peterson and Merino (2003), a consumer can either engage in an internal (past experiences and memories) or an external (looking at advertisements, product labeling or packages) search for information. The authors argue that consumers start with examining what internal knowledge is already present and turn to external sources if internal information is deemed insufficient. According to Armstrong and Kotler (2008:278) the external sources include but are not limited to personal (family, friends, neighbors), commercial (ads, salespeople, web sites, packaging, displays), public (mass media, consumer rating organizations, Internet searches) and experiential sources (handling, examining and using the product). Conchar et al. (2004) point out that both types are important when creating the frames for understanding and evaluating perceived risk, especially risk importance. Kotler and Armstrong (2008:278) also state that most product information generally come from commercial sources while the most effective sources are of the personal type since these legitimize and evaluate products.

The approach to information search, where a need is firstly recognized, is the more traditional view of the *prepurchase search* as discussed by Bloch et al (1986). The authors as well as Peterson and Merino (2003) also acknowledge research where information search is performed for other reasons than for purchasing an item or service, named *ongoing search*. More specifically the definition of prepurchase search by Kelly (1968) in Bloch et al. (1986:120) is: "Information seeking and processing activities which one engages in to facilitate decision making regarding some goal object in the marketplace." The definition for ongoing search is more conceptual and according to Bloch et al. (1986:120) refers to: *"...//search* activities that are independent of specific purchase needs or decisions. That is, ongoing search does not occur in order to solve a recognized and immediate purchase problem."

Although the concepts are distinguishable in theory, it is hard to grasp the differences when a consumer is performing the process of searching for information. Using the term ongoing would also indicate that it is a behavior that takes place on a regular basis and independent of irregular purchases. According to Bloch et al. (1986), different factors determine the search, for prepurchase it includes the buyers' short-term involvement as a result from risk perception as well as situational factors and product familiarity. For ongoing search, levels of involvement are a significant factor of the enduring type, thus reflecting a more enthusiastic search for information about the object. The motive for ongoing search is two folded; firstly, it is to acquire knowledge that is potentially useful in the future either for personal use or for use for others when asked about the object. The difference from the prepurchase search behavior is the consumer's readiness to make the actual purchase in the end. The second motive the authors' term recreation or pleasure, meaning that the search is engaged in because of the intrinsic satisfaction of it, while Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) term it hedonic recreation or entertainment. As with the different types of search, Bloch et al. (1986) argue that the different motives are often hard to separate.

Besides the managerial implications mentioned above, Bloch et al. (1986) also mention other outcomes of an increased search behavior. These include, but are not limited to: increased product and market knowledge and heightened satisfaction with the purchase as "a job well done" (1986:121). For the ongoing search, the process results in future purchase efficiencies where product expertise develops through the regular search intervals. The behavior results in heightened personal influence as the searcher can influence friends and family with the expertise knowledge as well as impulse buys. It could be argued that this outcome would be especially interesting for managers when dealing with a word-of-mouth strategy. Bloch et al.'s (1986) empirical results show that ongoing searchers have a significant impact on the marketplace as they spend more time and money on their interest than consumers that only searches lightly, as the authors describe it. The authors also raise the question of what comes first, involvement or ongoing search behavior, as one may give rise to the other when performed.

As stated above, one of the outcomes of information search is the increased level of knowledge about the object being researched. Different types of knowledge exist and are used in consumer research, as well as different levels of knowledge infer into different performances in product related tasks, according to Aurier and Ngobo (1999). Experts and novices differ greatly in their knowledge and thus in their behavior in regards of amount, content and organization of their knowledge. Two different types of knowledge exist, namely objective knowledge and subjective knowledge. As Schater (1983) in Guo and Meng (2008: 261) points out, "what people think they know (subjective knowledge) is often different from what they actually know (objective knowledge)". The authors, together with Park et al. (1994), McDougall (1987) and Raju et al. (1993), argue that subjective knowledge is more connected to purchase-related behavior. Also, Park and Lessig (1981) claim that subjective measurements are better at capturing consumer strategies and heuristics as these measures are based on self-confidence and perceptions than measures used for objective knowledge. The connection between involvement and knowledge is also highly debated between authors. As noted by Laroche et al. (2003), involvement is one of the strongest moderators for perceived risk in a purchase situation, especially with intangible risks, such as services and products bought online where no actual touch and test is possible before the purchase. Therefore, it is suggested that the greater knowledge of a product or service, the more it reduces risk perception. Park and Moon (2003) furthermore points out that previous research has identified a relationship between subjective product involvement and confidence in decision making; what Kapferer and Laurent (1986) according to their description includes in the dimension of probability of error.

For this study, the relationship between the perceived knowledge and the level of involvement would be interesting to measure, as it is assumed that the more a consumer is involved the more he or she searches for information. Logical reasoning as well as previous authors also argues that the level of knowledge would increase. The following hypotheses are therefore formed:

*H1. Involvement is positively associated with increased information search.*

*H2. Involvement is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

Due to the lack of previous studies regarding the dimensions of involvement and increased information search and knowledge, we further propose the following hypothesis.

*H1a. Interest is positively associated with increased information search.*

*H1b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased information search.*

*H1c. Sign is positively associated with increased information search.*

*H1d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased information search.*

*H1e. Risk probability is positively associated with increased information search.*

As well as:

*H2a. Interest is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

*H2b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

*H2c. Sign is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

*H2d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

*H2e. Risk probability is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

## 2.4.2. Willingness to pay

The issue of price is an alluring fact for marketers and its connection to involvement is mentioned in earlier studies. Charters and Pettigrew (2006) in their study on involvement and wine consumption state that consumers that are highly involved are more likely to spend more money on their products. Bloch et al. (2009) develop the argument and suggest that high involvement in general indicates that the consumers are willing to spend money freely in the product category of interest. When it comes to lower involved consumers, as Charters and Pettigrew (2006) suggest, the price is perceived to be more strongly linked to quality and that consumers to a higher extent are driven by a value for money-perspective when choosing products. Although the study is performed on wine, there are indications that the findings may be applicable to other products. Knowing the price sensitivity of a consumer is of high relevance for marketing managers as it affects the company's profit.

According to Vakratsas and Ambler (2008), knowing and steering price sensitivity also has effects on advertisements and marketing communication overall, something that can be useful for marketing managers when designing their communication strategy.

Kotler and Keller (2009) suggest that marketers to a larger extent than economists understand that consumers actively process price information through interpreting prices and comparing them to their existing knowledge about the product, prior purchasing situations, informal communication, online and other sources. The actual purchase decisions is according to the authors based on the perceived price and not on the actual price, meaning that a lower and upper price threshold exist where prices are perceived as reasonable. This suggests that manager's needs to have extensive knowledge of these limits to hold a level of pricing perceived as reasonable. This concept is also important when it comes to willingness-to-pay (WTP). The theory of WTP has long been used to measure optimal market prices according to Hsu and Shiue (2008). The authors state that WTP is positively connected to several other factors such as household income levels, risk concerns, educational level, customer satisfaction and negatively connected in terms of lower WTP if the consumer do not have confidence in the suggested products (Fu et al., 1999; Bocaletti & Nardella, 2000; Homburg et al. 2005 and Krystallis & Chryssohidis, 2005).

The price sensitivity of the consumer is also an important aspect for determining what consumers are willing to pay for a product or service, according to Kotler and Keller (2009). The author states that generally, customers are less price sensitive to low-cost items and items they do not purchase on a regular basis. It is also suggested that it is possible to charge a higher price if the seller can convince the consumer that the offer constitutes the lowest total cost of ownership in the long term. How much a consumer in the end is willing to pay thus depends on the perceived economic value and the useable value gained from the product. Hsu and Shie (2008) argue that perceived value is made up by several factors; consumer image of product performance, warranty, quality, custom support, supplier's reputation, trustworthiness and esteem. This indicates that if the company is able to raise the perceived value of a product or service, they may also be able to charge the consumer a price premium.

The concept of price premium is simple in its purest form; it depicts the idea that the producer charges more based on additional perceived values in order to increase the profit gained from each sold good (Kim & Xu, 2007). As Allsop (2005) argues based on the performed study in the UK, in general, consumers state that it is worth paying more for premium products. This because of the connection consumer often do between high price and high quality, high spending as a status symbol as well as spending money to gain flawless function (Allsop, 2005; Goldsmith et al. 2010). Steenkamp et al. (2010) also argue that price-quality connection is important for WTP as well as what type of brand is perceived as giving the best value; national or private label. Another important factor is the consumers' involvement in the category, as have already been argued above.

For the purpose of this paper, and for practical implications for marketers; it is interesting to understand how involvement works in relation to willingness to pay among consumers, what type of involvement that leads to an increase of WTP and the possibility to charge price premiums.

We therefore propose the following hypothesis:

*H3. Involvement is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

And the following:

*H3 a. Interest is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

*H3b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

*H3c. Sign is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

*H3d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

*H3e. Risk probability is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

## 2.4.3. Word of mouth

The role and impact of word-of-mouth (WOM) on consumers purchasing behavior have been recognized for many years, since personal information tend to be more persuasive and effective than advertising (Xue & Zhou, 2011; Kotler & Armstrong, 2008:278). It is also suggested that the importance of WOM stems from the reliability and trustworthiness of information obtained from direct sources, where also social conformity can influence the desire to follow recommendations (Solomon et al, 2010:401). The managerial implications are evident, since consumer's evaluation and adoption of a products relies on WOM; the likelihood of a consumer adopting a product increases with the amount of positive information from its peers (Martilla, 1971). It is also argued that positive WOM increases revenue and reduces the cost for marketing expenses (Söderlund, 1998). The underlying motives to engage in WOM is not entirely clear, however it has been argued that knowledge and involvement are factors encouraging the activity (Solomon et al., 2010:402).

In an early study by Engel et al. (1969) the authors viewed product involvement as a reason for users to share their excitement and pleasure from the purchase. Involvement was also explained as an antecedent for WOM in the sense of ego enhancer, to impress others by their expertise in their field (ibid). This argument is similar to the suggestion of Brown et al. (2005) where WOM can function as a mean to express and enhance the self-identity. The relation between involvement and WOM is based on significant correlation among involvement and opinion leadership, where the highly involved consumers accumulates expertise and thereby the possibility to influence others understanding and behavior (Venkatraman, 1988). The effect is highly related to the information search itself, where consumers are significantly more influenced by opinion leaders and WOM in the state of high involvement (Ha, 2002); it is also argued that ongoing searchers displays a greater amount of WOM-activity (Bloch et al., 1986). The intentions to engage in WOM activities has also been linked to the degree of perceived risk, where the risk dimensions of social and psychological and social risk had significant impact on the WOM intentions (Ling & Fang, 2006). Brown et al. (2005) argue that WOM is linked to the enduring customer commitment to a specific entity, where the person has a desire to preserve the connection with the object. Richins and Root-Shaffer (1988) suggest that even if enduring involvement gives rise to opinion leaderships and other forms of WOM, situational involvement is not related to opinion leadership. But the situational involvement does produce WOM related to the experience of the situation (ibid). Involvement is hence viewed as a determinant of positive-WOM in both products and services, and research also confirms the relationship between both product- and purchase decision involvement with negative WOM behavior (Lau & Ng, 2001; Bone, 1995; Bloch et al., 2009). It is thus implied that firms which offers high involved products and services not only have

the benefit of generating positive WOM, but are at the same time more likely to generate negative WOM if the customer is unsatisfied (Lau & Ng, 2001).

Due to the advancement in technologies in regards of mobile phones and the Internet, WOM can occur more frequently and can be a social activity with a potential global audience (Xue & Zhou, 2011). Research regarding WOM online (e.g. eWOM) conforms to previous studies, where product involvement influences the effect of online WOM and especially negative WOM online has a stronger impact in high involved situations (ibid). There have also been suggestions that the perception of online WOM differs along the involvement of consumers (Park et al. 2007)

Because of the great importance of WOM and its impact on purchase intentions in both products and services (e.g. Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002), we find it highly motivated to further investigate the relation between involvement and WOM as a consequence and thus propose the following hypothesis:

*H4. Involvement is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

Due to the lack of previous studies regarding the dimensions of involvement and WOM, we further propose the following hypotheses:

*H4a. Interest is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

*H4b. Pleasure is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

*H4 c. Sign is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

*H4d. Risk importance is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

*H4e. Risk probability is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

### 2.4.4. Loyalty

Since the beginning of the 1990's, the concept of loyalty has gained vast attention since it proved to be one of the fundamental drivers of company profitability (Reichheld & Markey, 2000:135). This has been revealed empirically, where just a 5 % increase in customer retention consistently resulted in 25-100 % profit swings, and where the companies with the most loyal customers also earn the highest profits (ibid). According to Edvardsson et al. (2000) there are several reasons explaining the relationship between loyalty and profitability. First, the company's expenditures decreases in terms of customer acquisitions and operating cost. Secondly, the revenue increases with growth in volume and cross purchasing of additional products or services, as well as customers being more willing to pay a price premium. Furthermore there are synergetic effects as loyal customers are more likely to generate customer referrals and positive word of mouth, which increases the revenue even more (ibid).

According to Quester and Lim (2003) both product involvement and brand loyalty are two major concepts to explain consumer purchase decisions. Hence, studies (e.g. Traylor, 1983; Park, 1996; Leclerk & Little, 1997) have been conducted to further explain the relationship between involvement and loyalty. The research does however lack clarity due to the different application of terminology, where Taylor (1981) uses the concept of brand commitment and Park (1996) uses attitudinal loyalty;

criticism have also referred to the lack of empirical investigations (Quester & Lim, 2003). The concepts of involvement and brand loyalty are interrelated since involvement is significantly linked to repurchase intentions and higher loyalty. However, the effect fluctuates since a consumer with high involvement with a particular product can also be uninvolved with other brands in the same category (Hochgraefe et al, 2012). When the loyalty constructs were initially established it was argued that involvement with products, purchase and commitment to the brand is a prerequisite for true loyalty. Furthermore, the concept of brand loyalty is predominant in the loyalty literature and is treated synonymously with brand commitment (Olsen, 2007).

Loyalty is, just as involvement, a complex construct with different definitions; the most accepted view of loyalty includes the individuals' values and goals, and defines it as: a "deep commitment to repurchase a favored brand, product, or service, which resists changing situation characteristics and marketing efforts of competitors" (Oliver, 1999 in Hochgraefe et al, 2012:23). It is important to highlight the two dimensions of loyalty proposed in this definition as behavioral and cognitive characteristics. For instance, the behavioral aspect of loyalty is constructed on repeated purchase behavior but because of convenience, habit and switching barriers, purchases alone is insufficient as an indicator of loyalty (Hochgraefe et al, 2012). Customers can besides actual behavior, also form connections with an object thru thoughts, feelings and fantasies, which, if enduring, is referred to as (mental) loyalty (Söderlund, 2010:293). This attitudinal loyalty demonstrated by emotional liking of a specific brand, price resistance, reduced need for purchasing incentives and increased word of mouth (Hochgraefe et al, 2012); all of which are of great relevance in the managerial perspective.

Previous investigations of involvement and loyalty is indecisive; LeClerc and Little (1997) concluded that it exists and interaction with brand loyalty and involvement is based on repeated purchases of high involved products, where the same occurrence in regards of low involved products were explained as habitual behavior. This could also be explained as true loyalty versus spurious loyalty with absence of brand attachments (VonReisen & Herndon, 2011). According to Solomon et al. (2010:350) for brand loyalty to exist, the repeated purchases must be complemented with a positive attitude towards the brand. In one study by Park (1996), a high correlation between involvement and loyalty was determined; but as pointed out by Iwasaki and Havitz, (1998) the order of occurrence cannot be determined. Only one study has concluded a different result, where Warrington and Shim (2000) reported a weak influence of involvement on loyalty. The overall agreed principle in the literature is thereby that a person's involvement in a product class directly is related to the person's loyalty or commitment to a brand in the same product class (Quester & Lim, 2003). It has been further argued that the more a product class corresponds with the person's ego, the greater attachment will be exhibited to a particular brand. The considerations set might also affect the brand commitment, where a consumer with a small consideration set of highly involved products displays higher brand commitment (ibid).

The relation between involvement and loyalty has foremost been exemplified with physical products and not much is mentioned about involvement in regards of a service provider. Grönroos (2008:164) present involvement as a result of satisfaction towards a service supplier, which over time increases the mutual attachments, which produce relational loyalty. Service loyalty has been mentioned as somewhat problematic because of its immaterial and relational nature, and as Keaveney (1995) cited in Bloemer and de Reuter (1999) point out, the knowledge about loyalty in the product domain cannot always automatically be generalized to service loyalty. But as Grönroos (2010:319) reasons, regardless of product or services, the brand is a cognitive construct, which by emotional attraction also result in loyal behavior.

In one of few studies concerning involvement and services, Bloemer and de Reuter (1999) conclude that satisfaction and positive emotions have a positive effect on loyalty in high and low involvement services, but the relationship between involvement and loyalty itself is neglected. A relationship between involvement and service loyalty have previously been suggested, where the self-image and values are tied to the brand choice (Pritchard et al., 1999).

We thereby find it interesting to further clarify the link between involvement and brand loyalty and propose the following hypothesis:

*H5. Involvement is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

Further, we want to investigate each dimension of involvement and its effect on brand loyalty, as we propose the following hypotheses:

*H5a. Interest is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

*H5b. Pleasure is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

*H5c. Sign is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

*H5d. Risk importance is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

*H5e. Risk probability is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

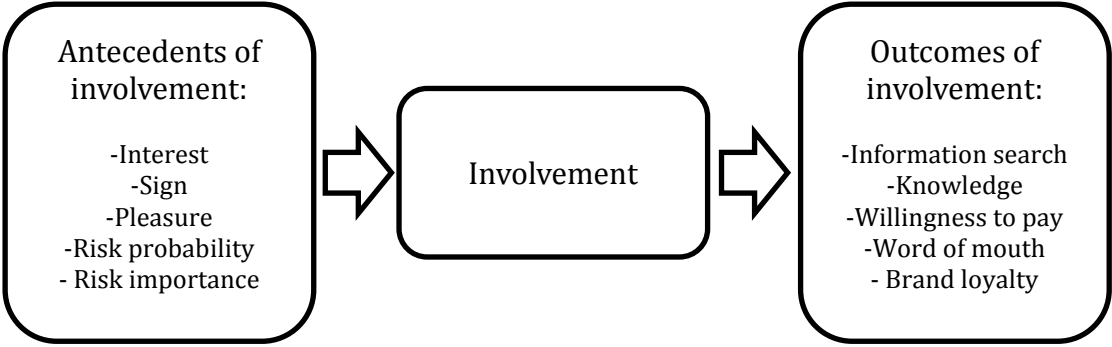## 2.5 Conceptual model of involvement and outcomes

Figure 2: Conceptual model of involvement and outcomes (own illustration).

As we have previously presented, involvement can according Kapferer and Laurent (1986) be seen as a multidimensional construct including: the personal interest, the sign value, the ability to provide pleasure, the perceived importance of negative consequences and perceived probability of such consequences. These dimension combined constitute involvement and together determine the degree of a consumers involvement. Involvement has further been suggested to be related to several outcomes, and as we presented in the forgoing literature review, we have selected to investigate the dimensions of involvement and the outcomes of: information search, knowledge, willingness to pay, word of mouth and brand loyalty.

# 3 Methodology

*In the methodology chapter, we demonstrate and provide evidence that the research is conducted in a systematic and trustworthy manner. The chapter will also provide an understanding of how the research was performed and display the underlying motives, which increases the research quality and enable replication of the study. Firstly the general philosophical assumptions are discussed and the ontological and epistemological position is clarified following with an overview of the deductive and quantitative approach, which affects the research design. Then the method and data collection of the two studies are presented, followed by a discussion concerning the data process, the validity, reliability and generalizability, concluded by a brief overview of the limitations of the method.*

## 3.1 Philosophical considerations

*"In our view it is not methods but ontology and epistemology which are the determinants of good social science"* - Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009:8

In regards of the ontological and epistemological considerations, as well as the purpose and aim of this study, we have taken a positivistic stance in this thesis. This is due to our research, which was conducted on existing theory as mentioned in the first chapter, where the aim was to discover relationships between involvement and consequences by providing credible data and generalizations. The previous studies do imply that the phenomenon is indeed observable and we also based our research on the previous work on measurement of involvement by Laurent and Kapferer (1985; 1993) and Zaichkowsky (1985; 1994), all of which responds to the elements of positivism (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:63; Saunders et al., 2009:119). However, according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008:56) there is a need to discuss and elaborate the philosophical stance, since these issues affects the research design and its quality. Furthermore, knowledge of philosophy may guide the researchers in what data is needed (ibid). The interplay between the philosophical ideas and the empirical works constitutes social research of high quality (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009:10). We thereby find it necessary to discuss the philosophical position in this research, which can be summarized by epistemology and ontology (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:60).

The notion of ontology is related to the nature of social entities where the question is whether it can be considered objective entities in which reality exists externally to social actors, or if they can be considered as social constructions (Bryman & Bell, 2007:22). The ontological positions can be divided into objectivism and constructionism; in the case of objectivism, the social phenomenon confronts us as external facts and the ability to influence it is beyond our control. The phenomenon is therefore treated like an object and thus, has an objective reality (ibid). Conversely, the alternative ontological position, constructionism, challenge the previous mentioned assumptions of external realities and but instead are emerging in a continuous state of construction (Bryman & Bell, 2007:23). The aspects of epistemology concerns what constitutes acceptable knowledge in the field of study (Saunders et al., 2009:112); hence, epistemology involves the assumptions about the approaches to inquiring into the nature of the world (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:60). As previously mentioned, the ontology cannot be separated from the approaches the research is being conducted, as it assumptions will, for instance, feed the way questions are formulated; the ontology affects the epistemological decisions (Bryman & Bell, 2007:25).

The conflicting views of positivism and constructionism also result in conflicting views about the use of research methods. Where positivists make the ontological assumption of an external reality and should be studied objectively, the epistemological stance suggests that the knowledge should be produced by objective observations world (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:62-63). The term itself stems from "something given", data are something that exists and the researchers task is to gather and systemize them (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009:17). Facts and data should be observable and thus possible to measure thru an instrument (ibid). Saunders et al., (2009:113) suggest that if the researcher reflects the position of positivism, he or she can embrace the stance of a natural scientist, where the product can be law-like generalizations. This position is contrary to the constructionism, which, since the world is constructed by individuals and assign meaning to it, rather uses the epistemological approach of interpret it (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:63).

As presented, we acknowledge the constructionist position but concur with the positivist view, which has been reflected, in our epistemological choices.

## 3.2 Deductive orientation

In this thesis we have employed a deductive approach by utilizing the theories of previous research, with an emphasis on the recognized works of Laurent and Kapferer (1985; 1993) and Zaichkowsky (1985). We enhanced the understanding with complementary theory from the literature review, and thus constructed hypotheses, which by collection of data could be rejected or confirmed. This is aligned with the concept of deduction, which is based upon what is known about the area of research where the researcher, with theoretical consideration, deduces a hypothesis or hypotheses, which is subject to empirical examination (Bryman & Bell, 2007:14). If the relationship between theory and research instead is inductive, the theory is the outcome of the research with generalizations drawn from observations (ibid).
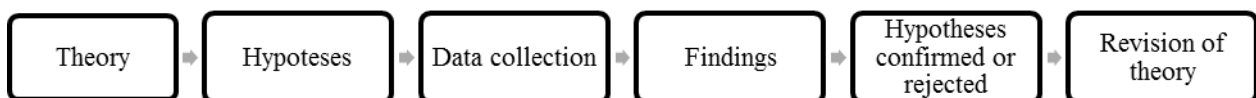


Figure 3: The process of deduction (Bryman and Bell, 2007:11).

According to Saunders et al. (2007:125) there are several important characteristics of deduction, which we considered during the research process: the search to explain causal relationships between variables by developing hypotheses and the collection of (mainly) quantitative data in order to test them. The methodology should be highly structured in order to enable replication of the study, as well as ensure reliability; and it is necessary to employ a sufficient size of the sample in order to make statistical generalizations (ibid). In the process of deductive theory there is also the possibility as the last step where the researcher, if necessary, can modify the theory in by the findings (Saunders et al., 2007:125). According to Bryman and Bell (2007:12) this involves induction since the researcher infers the findings if the study for the theory that served as a foundation of the research.

## 3.3 Quantitative approach

Another important issue when dealing with methodological reasoning is the choice of methodological strategy. Based on the above philosophical discussion and the fact that the research is founded on a deductive, hypothesis-testing style where information is gathered through measurement tools, the logical choice for our research is to be performed from what is known as a quantitative strategy approach. The quantitative research strategy emphasizes quantification of the collection of data while the other commonly used strategy, the qualitative research approach, rather goes in depth and look for underlying reasons through the collection of ideas and thoughts according to Bryman and Bell (2007:25). As is the characteristics of the empirical studies performed in this thesis, the quantitative approach is characterized by a deductive approach to the relationship between empirical research and theory, are more keen on incorporating the norms of a natural scientific model as well as holding a positivistic view on how the social reality is seen; meaning as an objective, external validity (Bryman & Bell 2007:28). All which well coincide with our chosen stances on the ontological and epistemological approaches.

Choosing this research strategy means that we during our research process needed to keep close track of what such a strategy entails, both to not stray of the path, but also as a help on how we should perform and analyze our research and findings. The preoccupations that most quantitative researchers keep to are the ideas of *measurement, causality, generalization* and *replication* according to Bryman and Bell (2007:168). Dealing with measuring, concerns of validity and reliability are important in a qualitative study. The focus for a quantitative study is often to prove causal relationships between different dimensions. But as Chisnall (2001:36) points out, the topic of causal relationships needs to be approached with caution since it is easy to find relationships between many completely unrelated maters, not truly finding out what is the cause and what is the effect. It is therefore suggested that relationships are more telling to investigate than finding causes.

For a quantitative study it is also important to be able to generalize the findings according to Bryman and Bell (2007:169), meaning that the respondents used should be as representative as possible in order to apply the finding to a larger population. Lastly, the study performed should be able to replicate, mandating the reliability and validity of the results (ibid. 2007:171).

## 3.4 Research design

As Bryman and Bell (2007:37) state, choosing a strategy is only one step further in the process of conducting a research study. Based on the above chosen philosophical approach, several research designs are suggested. As there is a need to discover relationships between multiple factors and from a larger population, the suggested cross-sectional design is the most relevant. As the authors state, the cross-sectional design enables researchers to measure multiple factors simultaneously, making it possible to discover underlying relationships between factors. Bryman and Bell (2007:55) describe it as the collection of data not limited to one case, performed at a single point in time with the purpose of collecting vast amounts of quantitative and quantifiable data that is connected to two or more variables. The collected data is then used to find patterns of association. Breaking down that description in terms of what is entails for our study would suggest firstly that using more than one case, in terms of individuals being one case each, is necessary to create a foundation and variation so that patterns can be detected. Collecting the data at a single point in time is used to gain access to the data and the possibility of processing it as soon as possible.

Using quantitative or quantifiable data is necessary in order to examine associations in variables so that we can detect any patterns, which is the main purpose of this study.

Both Bryman and Bell (2007:71) and Easterby-Smith (2008:91) suggest the use of a survey method in order to collect the vast amounts of data needed for detecting patterns of association. *Inferential surveys* are according to Easterby-Smith (2008:90) "aimed at establishing relationships between variables and concepts", an explanation that justifies the use of this kind of survey in this study. As Wilson (2006:135) explains, surveying involves the use of structured questioning of participants, either verbally, in writing or through computer-based technology. How the questions are asked differ, but because of limited time and the aspiration to gather as much data as possible, we use the self-completion type of a questionnaire with close end answers, where no interviewer is present. As Bryman and Bell (2007:241) point out, since there is no interviewer present, the questions must be easy to answer and should be as clear as possible so little room is left for different interpretations of what is being asked. To make sure that questions were easy to follow, we tested the surveys before distributing, in the end making no changes to the formulations as they were perceived correctly from the start.

Having certain constraints for the performance of the study, the survey type holds several advantages for us. As Bryman and Bell (2007:241) state, self-completion surveys are cheaper and quicker to administer as well as being done at the convenience of the respondents. One negative aspect that we had in mind when designing the surveys was that since no interviewer is present, it is not possible to go beyond the questions stated in the form and interesting information may be lost as well as there being a possible lower response rate than in interview studies (ibid. 2007:243).

When created the actual designs of the questionnaires, we kept in mind what Bryman and Bell (2007:247) state; that it is important to make the instrument to appear as short as possible since the response rate normally is low. However, Dillmann (1983) in Bryman and Bell (2007) suggest that an attractive layout may help increase the response rate and that one should avoid cramping together the questions as they may be easier to miss. Since we used a closed-end questions type of questionnaire and since were interested in the attitudes of the respondents, we opted for the use of a 7-point Likert scale and a differential scale answer type. This is also suggested by Bryman and Bell (2007:249), who state that the pre-coding also helps the researcher with the collection and analyze of the data. Also, as Chisnall (2001: 143) points out, it is always important to leave room for an answer of the "don't know" type, which we also included in the main study.

### 3.4.1 Distribution

Distributing the questionnaires has traditionally been done through post, fax, e-mail, Internet pages and mobile phones according to Wilson (2006:135). As argued before, because of the time constraint on this study, we propose the use of online distribution and collection. Wilson states that the main two online survey methods are the e-mail survey and the online survey. E-mail surveys either contain the survey directly in the e-mail body or they have an attached file. Online surveys are most common as a standard questionnaire where the questions appear on the webpage and the respondent can either scroll down to see all questions or have one question at a time appearing based on the format chosen by the researcher. Based on these arguments, we opted for the online survey, offering one construct at a time in the pre-study as well as in the main study.

One problem with the online survey is the potential bias of the sample where only respondents with an Internet connection receive the survey. Steps to include a wide variety of respondents should therefore be chosen, which we complied with as argued below.

### 3.4.2 Sampling

The process of sampling the right population is also important to consider. This study was performed in order to find associations and patterns among the everyday *consumer*, meaning that the possible population would be almost everyone in the world that consumes. As this is hardly possible, a representative sample meeting the set criteria must be chosen. This can according to Bryman and Bell (2007:182) be done either through a probability sampling method (the whole population stands an equal chance to participate) or a non-probability sampling method (samples not chosen through a random method). The non-probability form of convenience sampling, where the sample is simply available to the researcher, is not encouraged by Bryman and Bell (2007:198) to use, as it is hard to generalize the results to a large population. However, as the authors state, it is possible to use this form for example pilot studies that are to be distributed to a large population when done. The results could help with future research, and based on these arguments, we used a convenience sample for the pre-study.

For the main study, the sampling procedure can be perceived as somewhat more difficult as we required a larger number of respondents, once again representative for the whole population. A stratified random sampling method could be used, but as described by Easterby-Smith et al. (2008:216), it includes large stratum, which is not in line for the study. One could also use the survey non-probability method of quota sampling where a sample is produced that represents the population within certain criteria (Bryman & Bell, 2007:201). However, final choice of participants are left to the one asking questions, meaning that bias and sampling errors of other types may occur. On the other hand, using this type of sampling allows the researcher to truly include all types of respondents required in terms of age range, user frequencies and gender. As we in this study have certain demands about age range and user frequency, the quota sample is deemed to be the best fit.

Below we outline how we designed, sampled and conducted the two studies we performed.

### 3.5 Pre-study

The first study we performed was aimed at investigating which products and services were considered high and low involvement. We then used the finding of the first study when constructing the second as the indication from previous research was that using actual products as representable for the different levels would increase the reliability of the findings. Also based on previous research, and our literature review, we chose to use one of the developed measurements of involvement, Zaichowsky's Personal Involvement Inventory from 1985. The questionnaire design was based on Zaichowsky's reduced scale as the size of the previous one was rather lengthy.

Zaichowsky (1985) developed a scale using the previously mentioned definition, and formed it as a semantic differential scale. By firstly forming a list of 168 words in pairs representing the definition, the author was able to reduce the number to 23 using the help of two rounds of expert judging. When finally distributing the first forms, a list of 30 word pairs appeared testing two types of products

representing low and high involvement. Thoroughly testing both internal scale reliability and test-retest reliability, it was followed up through a second test round to test the validity of the scale. All in all, the survey was administered for 6 rounds among students, administrative and management staff at the University according to the author, and resulted in 20 word pairs to measure involvement. The test has hence after been used within consumer behavior research to measure involvement with products and services. In 1994, Zaichowsky, revised it and managed to reduce the scale to 10 word pairs, still holding a good number for Cronbach Alpha.

| Important | Unimportant |
|---|---|
| Boring | Interesting |
| Relevant | Irrelevant |
| Exciting | Unexciting |
| Means nothing | Means a lot to me |
| Appealing | Unappealing |
| Fascinating | Mundane |
| Worthless | Valuable |
| Involving | Uninvolving |
| Not needed | Needed |

Table 2: Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (Zaichowsky, 1994).

When designing the questionnaire, we mainly followed Zaichoswsky's format of a differential-scale. However, as the questionnaire is intended to measure the attitudes among Swedish consumers, we chose to translate the word pairs into their Swedish equivalents, checking and re-checking the translations with a translator gradate in English. As we wanted to check the translation, we opted to do a small pilot study with two different questionnaires, one containing a detailed instruction as Zaichowsky's had and one with a short type. The pilot study resulted in that there was no need for lengthy explanations, which resulted in that we opted for a smaller one. One of Zaichowsky's (1985) criteria for respondents was that they should have used or use the product or service regularly. We therefore chose to only include respondents that had used the product or service within the last year.

Regarding sampling, the pre-study was to be distributed to a small sample in order to obtain at least 30 respondents per survey that was still representative for the everyday consumer. We decided to use a convenience method, using our social networks and the Internet. Facebook is more and more used as a distribution method for gaining respondents. We chose to send it to all Swedish-speaking contacts found on the list. Still, using a social network of this type still limits the population representation as well as showing possible sampling errors of attitudes corresponding or being similar to our owns as it is *our* network of friends. However, being aware of this, we tried keeping the bias to a minimum level. We received responses within a week. Another way to do it would have been to stand on a street handing out questionnaires, which might have lowered the possible sampling error, but here also exist a risk of bias as we as interviewers might be affected of whom we approach. By using our social networks we spread the questionnaires over large parts of Sweden, covering ages, occupation types as well as gender within that process, leaving it up to our network to respond. Still, as the general participation on Facebook is something done mainly by the younger generations, an apportion of younger respondents were likely to be obtained. Being aware of this, we still argue that our sampling method was reliable as similar convenience samples of younger populations, such as students, has been used when investigating levels of involvement with products and services previously (see Zaichowsky 1985; Celsi & Olson 1988; Dholakia 2001).

For data collection, we chose to use an online survey-maker, SurveyMonkey.net. Through the web tool, we emailed a link to a webpage where the respondents could fill in their answers. Information such as age, gender and usage rate was also obtained through the survey tool. Analyzing the answers was done through SPSS, were means was compared to sort out what products and services were perceived as high and low involvement.

## 3.6 Main study

The main study was aimed at investigating the relationships between different antecedents and outcomes; also measuring what types of outcomes is important pertaining to different levels of service and product involvement. Based on our literature review, we chose to study five outcomes mentioned in previous research. To manage the validity and reliability of the results, we only used measurements that had been previously used for studying the concepts in different settings. We opted to translate all questions to Swedish and measure the attitudes on a 7-point Likert scale.

### 3.6.1 Involvement measure

The above-mentioned antecedents were used to track what dimensions of involvement that are connected or not connected to the different outcomes of involvement that we chose to test. The CIP scale was originally created in the mid 80's, as has been previously explained. The original scale was based on a sample of 207 housewives, as Kapferer and Laurent (1993) state, while the 1993 study was aimed at testing the reliability of the scale with a larger, international sample of real consumers. In total just over 5000 French consumers were asked on their attitudes regarding 5 product categories. Performing a factor analysis of the items on the scale, three loaded individually as expected (sign value, risk probability and risk importance), while two (pleasure and interest) loaded together on some occasions and separately on other. The authors however still argue that the two later facets should be viewed and measured as separate because they regard the conceptual definitions of the dimensions as interesting and different.

The involvement measure that is included in the CIP scale is as follows:

| Dimension | Questions |
|---|---|
| Interest | 1. What …….. I buy is extremely important to me. |
| | 2. I'm really interested in ……… |
| | 3. I couldn't care less about …….. |
| | |
| Pleasure | 1. I really enjoy buying ……… |
| | 2. Whenever I buy ……., it's like giving myself a present. |
| | 3. To me, ……… is quite a pleasure. |
| | |
| Sign | 1. You can tell a lot about a person from the …….. he or she buys. |
| | 2.  The ……. a person buys, says something about who they are. |
| | 3. The ……. I buy says something about the sort of person I am. |
| | |
| Risk importance | 1. It doesn't matter too much if one makes a mistake buying …….. |
| | 2. It's very irritating to buy …….. which isn't right. |
| | 3. I should be annoyed with myself, if it turned out I'd made the wrong choice when buying. |
| | |
| Probability of error | 1. When I'm in front of the ….. section, I always feel rather unsure about what to pick. |
| | 2. When you buy ………, you can never be quite sure it was the right choice or not. |
| | 3. Choosing a ….. is rather difficult. |
| | 4. When you buy ……., you can never be quite certain about your choice. |

Table 3: Dimensions and questions in the CIP scale (Kapferer and Laurent, 1993).


### 3.6.2 Outcomes measure

For increased information search, one of the most commonly mentioned outcomes, a measurement scale developed by Heaney and Goldsmith (1999) for measuring financial services was used. The authors based their development of measurement scales on previous studies done on goods, continuously drawing comparisons between goods and products to be able to apply the scale on services. Included in the previous studies were among others one pertaining to involvement and leisure services, indicating that the scales developed previously also took into consideration the concept of involvement. The authors distributed the complete survey, consisting of 13 constructs, to a convenience sample, collecting around 660 full answers. Using a Likert scale, the respondents were asked about their attitudes on each construct. Regarding validity and reliability, several methods were used to strengthen the results; using exploratory factor analysis for validity, calculating coefficient alphas for reliability. The findings of the study showed that measurements for services are very much alike those for goods, indicating that the developed scale is useful for both services and products in this study.

For the purpose of this study, we chose to only use the construct on *general search*, as the other 12 constructs measured variables that were not relevant to the main study and our suggested hypothesis. The questions used from Heaney and Goldsmith (1999) are:

1. *When I was looking for a ……, I searched for a lot of information*
2. *When I was selecting a ……, I used many information sources.*
3. *When I was searching for a …., I could not be bothered to look for any information.*

An increased level of knowledge is suggested to correspond with higher involvement and in this study we chose to measure the level of subjective knowledge. As Flynn and Goldsmith (1999) state; subjective knowledge is more consistent with the purchase decisions. The development of the measurement scale was performed in several steps; the first being a formulation of 12 statements based on the chosen definition of subjective knowledge that was tested on a group of respondents and then reduced to 9 statements. The first study was then performed on about 390 students to evaluate internal consistency and validity of the 9 statements. Responses were factor analyzed, resulting in that four items was dropped from the scale. A second test with the remaining five items was performed to test the test-retest reliability as well as establishing the construct validity of the scale, all-resulting in good measures. A fourth and fifth round was tested, proving a kept high level of validity and reliability of the chosen items. Limitations to the study suggested by the authors are the choice of a student respondent base, but later studies using the construct has shown its applicability to other populations (see O'Cass, 2004 and Senecal, et al. 2005). For the purpose of this study, and to shorten the scale to only the most focused questions, we chose do decrease the original five items to only three based on the lower values in the factor analysis performed by Flynn and Goldsmith (1999) themselves. The three questions that remain are:

1. *I know pretty much about ……..*
2. *Compared to most other people, I know less about …….*
3. *Among my circle of friends, I'm one of the "experts" on …..*

On measuring the hypothesis related to willingness to pay a premium price, two concepts are in essence collapsed into one construct. A study performed by Netemeyer et al. (2004) offered measurement on several areas, including the willingness to pay a premium price in a comprised format of one construct and 4 items. The main studies were preceded by 4 different tests, among other things with the purpose of creating the items used for the main study. Two studies were performed to execute the final form of measurement, resulting in retaining a four item willingness-to-pay scale. When reviewing the sampling practice performed by Netemeyer et al. (2004), we do question the procedure as a student base where students had to ask one adult each to fill in the form was used as sample. Bias questions and the actual spread of the respondents may be questioned as well, indicating limitations of generalization of the results. However, as several reliability and validity tests show acceptable results we feel confident that the items were correlated with the measurement scale We are however still aware of the possible limitations, adapting our constructs to the variables chosen. Continuing with two more studies, the fourth study was especially used to test willingness-to-pay and brand purchase. Once again, the test found good measures of validity and reliability, proving that it really measured the willingness-to-pay attitude related to brands among the respondents. We chose to only use three of the four items in the suggested construct, as the fourth one was not a Likert-scale based attitude question but rather an exact value measurement. The following questions were thus retained:

1. *The price of (brand name) would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another brand of (product).*
2. *I am willing to pay a higher price for (brand name) brand of (product) than for other brands of (product).*
3. *I am willing to pay a lot more for (brand name) than other brands of (product category).*

A scale that measures WOM was developed by Harrison-Walker (2001), as the author saw the need for a structured and more multifaceted scale instead of the ones in use at that time. As with the above measurements scale, this is an original scale developed from a definition where items in constructs are suggested based on that definition; 13 items were concluded in the original scale. The scale was distributed to just below 500 respondents, resulting in scale purification after processing of the results had been performed. 5 items were kept after the purification, measuring two different dimensions of WOM suggested by the author. In our study, we further decreased the scale to only 3 items, reflecting both positive and negative questions about spreading WOM. The author acknowledge that the reliability and validity of the scale when tested was acceptable, but that further research may benefit from testing these dimensions again, something that should be kept in mind when forming future questionnaires. Lastly, the scale is according to the author outlined to fit the service industry; some adjustments were thus necessary to questions regarding WOM and products. Based on this, the question we chose from Harrison-Walker (2001) for our main study was:

1. *I mention this ……. to others quite frequently*
2. *I've told more people about ….. than I've told about most other ……..*
3. *I am proud to tell others that I use …..*

Many scales to measure brand loyalty exist, and our main problem was to simply decide on what scale would be most appropriate to measure brand loyalty and the construct of involvement in conjunction to each other. We settled on a scale developed by Fischer et al. (2010) for a study on brand importance on a cross-country basis where brand loyalty was one of the measured items. The study was performed on products, but the items are as the authors' states, also applicable to services if slightly adjusted. The scale items were developed based on previous literature on each area, distributed to a focus group that resulted in 19 items to include in the scale that was later distributed to a sample of almost 600 students. 4 constructs and 12 items were left distributed over 5 countries with the help of a survey research company, and just over 6000 respondents answered. Several tests were performed on validity and reliability, once again showing good results. To test-retest, a second round of surveys was administered to a representative sample, showing similar results to the first study. Based on the thorough process to ensure validity and reliability, we feel confident that the scale measures brand loyalty on a general level and that its pairing with involvement will show the actual associations. As only one of the 4 constructs measured brand loyalty specifically, we chose to only use those three items. These were:

1. *I prefer a particular brand.*
2. *I am willing to invest additional time and/or effort, just to be able to buy my favorite brand.*
3. *When purchasing, it is usually important to me which brand I purchase.*

### 3.6.3 Sampling and data collection

All constructs in the main study was, as previously mentioned, tested on a 7-point Likert scale where the respondents were asked to disagree or agree with the items suggested. A "don't know"/ no opinion reply was added to not force an answer from respondents. For the main study, we were through our supervisor offered to use the population base from the research firm Nepa (Nepa.se, 2012). Active since 2006 and certified by the research quality organization of ESOMAR, they offer products such as online brand surveys and tracks products and services in approximately 100 categories each week. Using our own sampling procedure, we would have been faced with a lengthy, and possibly biased, procedure online, once again using our social network to form a possible quota sample. The population base of Nepa offers variance in the sample, meeting the set criteria in terms of age, gender and geographical spread we aim at in order to cover as many consumer types as possible that are still users or have been users of the suggested products and services (Nepa, 2012). The respondent base is made up of online access panels and Nepa infers clear rules on how these panels are to be managed, thus minimizing possible bias and sampling error. The panels are only used for market research, and formed partly with targeted recruitment in order to reach respondents usually hard to obtain over the web. For our study, the sampling procedure was done through set criteria's of:

- Age 15-85
- Both male and female
- Users of products or services
- 75 minimum numbers of respondents per survey

Nepa has an automated system that ensures that the set quotas are met, which was also the case for our main study.

The data collection process was completely performed by Nepa, in line with our set criteria (Nepa, 2012). Respondents were invited to take part in the survey through an e-mail with a link to the survey, as explained is very often done for online questionnaires. The respondents receive credit, or similar reward, for taking place in the survey. The number of respondents in total for our main study amount to 303, and have a vast spread in age and gender, roughly making up 50/50 in terms of age groups and generations.

## 3.7 Reliability, validity and generalizability

The internal reliability in this thesis is assured by employing the test of Cronbach's alpha coefficient on all aggregated measures in both the pre-study and the main study. After calculating the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients, where the value of 0,6 is most often used as a rule and with all items scoring higher, we conclude that internal reliability is established. According to Bryman and Bell (2007:162) the concept of reliability is concerned with the consistency of a measure of a concept, and according to Saunders et al. (2009:156): "the extent to which your data collection techniques and analysis procedures will yield consistent findings". However, as pointed out by Easterby-Smith et al. (2008:109), the epistemological position affects the meaning of the concept itself; where constructionist view reliability as the concern about transparency regarding the interpretation of raw data, the positivist see it as the concern regarding if the measures will achieve the same result on other times.

The aspect of credibility and reducing the possibility to getting the wrong answer is also related to the concept of validity (Saunders et al., 2009:156). Validity is the concept concerning if the measure of a concept really measures that concept, in other words: if the measures corresponds closely to reality (Bryman & Bell, 2007:164; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008:109). According to Bryman and Bell (2007:41) there are different types of validity to consider; where the measurement validity (also referred to as construct validity) relates to the reliability of the construct measurements, the internal validity deals with the causal relationship between two or more variables. There is also the issue regarding the generalizability of the results beyond its specific research context, called external validity (ibid).

To assure sufficient measurement validity in this study, we have employed variables based on the scaling of previous studies by Kapferer and Laurent (1993) and Zaichkowsky (1994). As previously mentioned, the factor loadings performed in these studies have shown clear evidence of a good fit and the credibility of these measurements have been reported as sufficient in several studies (e.g. Gabott & Hogg, 1999; Te'eni-Harari & Hornik, 2010). The RPII and CIP scale were translated into Swedish and previous studies concludes that the measurements translates well both to other cultures and languages without risking the loss of credibility (Garcia, 1996; Kapferer & Laurent, 1993). Furthermore, the constructs chosen from the literature review was measured by carefully selecting recommended scaling from past research which all has been acknowledged as valid. As we tested our hypotheses with these measurements in terms of independent and dependent variable, we conclude sufficient internal validity.

As stated by Easterby-Smith et al. (2008:21), one should always try to generalize the results within stated limits, in order to extract the understanding from one situation and apply it to other. In conjunction with our research philosophy and selected method, generalizability concern if the sample is of sufficient size and representative in order to be applied to the population. In order to generalize our result beyond the sample, we have employed a representative sample of sufficient size with both products and services ranging from low- to high involvement, which allows us to generalize to a population close to our respondent base and other products and services.

**3.8 Data processing**

In order to evaluate the result of a study in an appropriate and systematic fashion, it is crucial to further present how the data was processed. Hence, since we in this thesis relied heavily on data processing we will display and discuss the approach we have employed in order to increase the ability to replicate the study.

Initially, after we had collected the empirical data for the pre- study of products and services, which we had assigned numeric values to a 7-point scale on each semantic differential item (e.g. important = 7, unimportant = 1). As we had followed the recommendations and reversed some items, we also reversed its values, as we had no need to recode the data later. The platform where the survey had been conducted enabled us to summarize the dataset directly, but in order to assure the validity of the data, as well as store the data in correct manner, we exported the data to SPSS. In SPSS we assigned the variables with its names, correct value labels and the proper scale measurement.  In order to compare the mean values in products and services, we further computed new variables in which we aggregated each items and divided it by the number of items, which thus represented the mean value in the group. This enabled us to clearly compare the involvement score of each product and service, and since further analysis was obsolete we did not proceed with further data processing.

The main study consisted of four different surveys, for two products and two services, all four was aggregated into one SPSS file. Variable names and value labels were also imported with "SPSS create labels" and correct scales were assigned. Data cleaning with a removal of incomplete respondents was performed to assure constituency and reliable data. In order to enable the execution of selected statistical analysis, each construct was computed after being tested with reliability analysis.

**3.9 Limitations**

The methodical choices result in certain limitations in regards of the method used. The selected method will always have its specific advantages but it is also important to address the limitations of the method. In this thesis we employed a quantitative approach with data collection based on self-completion surveys, which limitations are discussed below.

According to Bryman and Bell (2007:174) there are some criticism of the quantitative research, where constructionist may say that the quantitative research fail to distinguish the true individual meaning in its social reality. Another area of critique is the supposedly artificial sense of precision and accuracy, which the assurance of validity cannot control, for instance the respondents may not interpret the concept in a questionnaire in equal fashion (ibid). However, one could argue that these limitations are minor compared to the limitations of the qualitative research with problems regarding subjectivity, generalizations and difficulties to replicate (Bryman & Bell, 2007:423).

The limitations of the method regarding surveys are related also to the possibility to make errors in the process, which can be due to sampling, data collection or data processing (Bryman & Bell, 2007:204). The sampling error arises since it is highly unlikely that one will use a truly representative sampling, or that the sample related errors as non-response, which might threat the validity or generalizability (ibid). The implementation of the process might be limited by question wording and flaws in the administration on the survey platform, where this can be reduced to some extent, the errors can never be completely be controlled for since it is administered by an external source.

Finally, the collected data from the survey must the transformed or transported to a computing program which demands coding; in that process it is possible to make errors which might alter the result of the study if not corrected (ibid).

As previously mentioned in the philosophical considerations, according to the positivistic stance the aim is to infer causality (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). The meaning of causality is when the occurrence of X increases the probability of the occurrence of Y, which means that it is never possible to prove that X is a cause of Y (Malholtra, 2010). This implies that all methods, including ours, are limited in the sense that causality never can be fully proven. However, we can infer a cause and effect relationships and demonstrate that the occurrence of X makes the occurrence of Y more probable (ibid).

# 4 Results

*In this chapter we present the results from the two different quantitative studies performed for this research project. It starts off with presenting the pre-study, examining the results for the investigated products and services, summarizing the results in a table. In the second part the results from the main study is presented, with a thorough review of the sample and the constructs employed in the study. Testing each of the hypotheses follows this and the chapter is concluded with a table to summarize all findings.*

## 4.1 Pre-Study to identify low and high involvement categories

The pre-study was divided in two surveys, one examining five products and one examining five services. As was mentioned above, the aim of the pre-study was to determine what products and services scored high and low on the Zaichkowsky RPII- construct in order to use as an example of *high and low* involvement categories in the main study. The study was performed online, compiling a respondent base of *n= 90* where *84* respondents finished the whole survey. The respondent base was not the same for the two types of questionnaires that was administered.

### 4.1.1 Products

Starting with the products, the total number of respondents was 49 and the demographic factors were as follows:

| Age | 18-25 | 26-30 | 31-35 | 36-40 | 41-45 | 61-65 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Male | 4 | 16 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 23 |
| | 8,2% | 32,7% | 2,0% | 0,0% | 2,0% | 2,0% | 46,9% |
| Number of Female | 15 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 26 |
| | 30,6% | 14,3% | 2,0% | 2,0% | 2,0% | 2,0% | 53,1% |
| Total | 19 | 23 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 49 |
| | 38,8% | 46,9% | 4,1% | 2,0% | 4,1% | 4,1% | 100,0% |

Table 4: Pre-study demographics for products

The gender distribution was fairly even with a slight majority of female respondents, with 46,9 % males and 53,1 % females. As displayed, and previously elaborated in the methodology, the vast majority of respondents are in the age-range of 18-30 (85.7 %), which corresponds with the expected rate.

The table below summarizes the result of the involvement scores over the different products with the mean value of the score assigned to the differential scale, e.g. important - unimportant where 7 was the highest value as in "completely agree". In order to compare the involvement between the different products, the mean value of each product is calculated based on its scores in all dimensions.

|  | Salt | Coffee | Laptop | Jeans | Ketchup |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Important | 6,04 | 5,57 | 6,66 | 5,51 | 3,94 |
| Interesting | 3,51 | 5,03 | 5,74 | 4,91 | 3,00 |
| Relevant | 5,32 | 5,27 | 6,13 | 5,13 | 3,79 |
| Exciting | 2,81 | 4,03 | 5,09 | 4,43 | 2,32 |
| Means a lot to me | 5,45 | 5,54 | 6,43 | 5,11 | 3,72 |
| Appealing | 4,19 | 5,68 | 5,74 | 5,43 | 3,51 |
| Fascinating | 2,96 | 4,05 | 4,79 | 3,96 | 2,28 |
| Worthless | 5,43 | 5,62 | 6,53 | 5,02 | 3,83 |
| Involving | 3,09 | 4,46 | 5,23 | 4,17 | 2,70 |
| Needed | 5,74 | 5,00 | 6,34 | 5,02 | 3,57 |
| Total mean | 4,53 | 5,02 | 5,87 | 4,87 | 3,56 |
| Valid respondents | 47 | 37 | 47 | 47 | 41 |
| Cronbach's alpha | 0,80 | 0,90 | 0,83 | 0,90 | 0,93 |

Table 5: Pre-study results for products

*The Laptop scores the highest mean value (5,87) and Ketchup scores the lowest (3,56)*. Noticeable is that the Laptops are rated as highest in all items where Ketchup are rated as the lowest on all items between our investigated products.

In order to increase the reliability of this pre-study and to follow the previous research, we argued that it is important that the respondents, which rate the products, have experience of the same. Respondents who answered no to the question of usage of the product was thereby considered as invalid and removed from the analysis, the number of valid responses are displayed in the second row, which is of sufficient size in all products.

To assure the internal consistency reliability we used the measurement of Cronbach's alpha (also known as coefficient alpha) which can be explain as: "the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items" (Malholtra, 2010:319). This measure varies from 0 to 1, where a value below 0,6 suggests an unsatisfactory consistency (ibid). *With the result of all coefficients exceeding 0,8 we conclude sufficient reliability.*

### 4.1.2 Services

For services, the respondent base outlined as summarized below.

| Age | 18-25 | 26-30 | 31-35 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Male | 6 | 11 | 1 | 23 |
| | 33,3% | 61.1% | 5,60% | 46,90% |
| Number of Female | 12 | 10 | 1 | 26 |
| | 52,20% | 43,50% | 4,30% | 53,10% |
| Total | 18 | 21 | 2 | 49 |
| | 43,90% | 51,20% | 4,90% | 100,00% |

Table 6: Pre-study demographics for services

As can be seen, we only have respondents from the younger generations with ages ranging from 18 to 35. This was expected also for this survey, as mentioned in the method chapter. The gender divide is somewhat biased for women as they represent 56 % against 44 % males.

The results of the involvement measurement are summarized below in table 7.

| | Bank services | Mobile operator | Charter Vacation | Public Transport | Insurance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Important | 6,25 | 6,64 | 3,24 | 6,66 | 6,53 |
| Interesting | 3,68 | 5,59 | 4,42 | 3,08 | 2,41 |
| Relevant | 6,18 | 6,26 | 3,84 | 6,42 | 6,5 |
| Exciting | 3,4 | 5,08 | 4,21 | 2,66 | 2,24 |
| Means a lot to me | 5,88 | 5,77 | 4,37 | 6,26 | 6,35 |
| Appealing | 4,2 | 5,31 | 4,24 | 3,87 | 4,21 |
| Fascinating | 3,45 | 4,85 | 3,32 | 2,89 | 2,35 |
| Worthless | 5,78 | 5,97 | 4,58 | 6,03 | 6,32 |
| Involving | 4,3 | 5,1 | 3,76 | 3,76 | 3,21 |
| Needed | 6,13 | 5,85 | 2,42 | 5,87 | 6,56 |
| Total mean | 4,93 | 5,64 | 3,84 | 4,75 | 4,67 |
| Valid respondents | 40 | 39 | 8 | 38 | 34 |
| Cronbach's alpha | 0,85 | 0,87 | 0,94 | 0,75 | 0,83 |

Table 7: Pre-study results for services

The findings show that four of the tested services; Bank, Mobile phone operators, Public transport and Insurances, score quite a like on the scale, all ranging in the higher middle. The low score of Charter vacation is interesting, clearly showing that consumers feel less involved in a charter vacation. However, as one demand of Zaichowsky's (1994) RPII-scale is that the respondents has to use or has used the goods or service tested, the results are void as only 8 of the respondents fit the criteria. As the result still shows an overall general picture of how Charter vacation scores on an involvement level we chose to test all respondents that answered the questions, but we will not analyze or use the variable any further.

Although the scores were similar between the other four items tested, some variances still exist and are worth highlighting; Insurance scores as the most uninteresting item while being viewed as both the most needed and the most valuable item by our respondents. Public transport is viewed as the most important item, just in front of Mobile phone operators. All four items score in the range of each other when asking about involvement, Insurances lowest at 3,21 and Mobile phone operators at 5,1 the highest. The overall means show that *involvement is the overall lowest in Insurances* (4,67) and clearly *highest (5,64) in Mobile phone operators.*

As stated above we chose to use Cronbach's alpha when testing for reliability. As can be seen in the table, *all four categories show good reliability with scores above 0,7*. The ones chosen even have scores over 0,8. Regarding validity, we opted to use the Zaichowsky (1994) RPII-scale partly because of its proved reliability and validity when measuring involvement with products and services.

As Bryman and Bell (2008:58) points out, the issue of measurement or construct validity, is often reliant on the chosen measurement tool and its qualities.

### 4.1.3 Categories chosen

As a summary, the chosen products and services are:

|  | Products | Services |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Higher Involvement score | Laptop computer | Mobile Phone Operators |
| Lower Involvement score | Ketchup | Insurances |

Table 8: Selected products and services for main study

The aim with using these categories is to encourage consumer to think about their attitudes around the main study questionnaire as they would when buying something that is involving or not as involving respectively. As a measure on the involvement on these items, Laurent and Kapferer's CIP scale can be used again, but breaks the involvement level down in the suggested dimensions as is done in the main study.

## 4.2 Main study

### 4.2.1 Respondents

The main study was, as mentioned before, distributed with the help of market research company Nepa, and reached a total sample of *n = 303,* which was submitted to the authors for analysis. In order to provide reliable and valid results, the usage or buying criteria we imposed decreased the respondent base as we removed all respondents that answered "I have never bought" on the questions regarding when the respondent bought or chose the product or service last. Furthermore, Nepa also performed a data cleanse of the respondents, removing surveys where answers' were seemingly not representative (i.e. all 1's, 4's or 7's on the scale). As we reversed several questions, we were able to note some respondents that had answered inconsistently and thus also removed those from the sample base. The total number of respondents used in the analysis denote to *n = 286*, allocated quite evenly between men and women as can be seen in the sample summary below. For comparison between groups and for the testing of hypothesis, the minimum number is 30 respondents, as mentioned in the methodology. The total number well exceeds that limit, and so does the sample size for each of the four different surveys' that was performed;

- 83 respondents for the survey on Laptop Computer
- 80 respondents for the survey on Ketchup
- 78 respondents for the survey on Insurances
- 77 respondents for the survey on Mobile Phone Operators

The sample size (i.e. over 120 respondents) also insures that when testing the hypothesis, the *t*-test is as definite as for hypothesis testing with samples and populations with normal distribution.

| Age | 15-25 | 26-30 | 31-35 | 36-40 | 41-45 | 46-60 | 61- | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Male | 20 | 8 | 23 | 10 | 13 | 40 | 35 | 149 |
| | 7,0% | 2,8% | 8,0% | 3,5% | 4,5% | 14,0% | 12,2% | 52,1% |
| Number of Female | 27 | 13 | 9 | 13 | 9 | 38 | 28 | 137 |
| | 9,4% | 4,5% | 3,1% | 4,5% | 3,1% | 13,3% | 9,8% | 47,9% |
| Total | 47 | 21 | 32 | 23 | 22 | 78 | 63 | 286 |
| | 16,4% | 7,3% | 11,2% | 8,0% | 7,7% | 27,3% | 22,0% | 100,0% |

Table 9: Main study demographics

The age and gender distribution of the sample are shown in the summary table above. As can be seen, the distribution between genders is fairly equal, somewhat fewer women than men but the difference is nominal and should not have affected the results. The age distribution is also fairly even, with the youngest respondents being 15 and oldest 74 years. The group 46-60 years is the largest, followed by the older generations of 61 and over. The two largest groups make up a good weight against the younger generations rest of 50,7 % of the total respondent sample.

### 4.2.2 CIP scale scores

The use of Kapferer and Laurent's (1986) scale of dimensions of involvement also require further confirmation when it is used for this study. Although proven reliable before, we used Cronbach's alpha as well as looking at the mean values for each question to make sure that the reliability was still intact. The test resulted in the following values:

| Construct | Question | Mean Value | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|---|
| Interest | What ... I buy is extremely important to me | 4,61 | 0,703 |
| | I'm really interested in … | 3,69 | |
| | I couldn't care less about … | 4,89 | |
| | | | |
| Pleasure | I really enjoy buying … | 1,97 | 0,901 |
| | Whenever I buy …, it's like giving myself a present | 2,03 | |
| | To me, … is quite a pleasure | 2,3 | |
| | | | |
| Sign | You can tell a lot about a person from the ... he or she buys | 2,39 | 0,931 |
| | The ... a person buys, says something about who they are | 2,58 | |
| | The ... I buy says something about the sort of person I am | 2,5 | |
| | | | |
| Risk Importance | It doesn't matter too much if one makes a mistake buying … | 4,98 | 0,738 |
| | It's very irritating to buy ... which isn't right | 4,52 | |
| | I should be annoyed with myself, if it turned out I'd made the wrong choice when buying …. | 4,38 | |
| | | | |
| Risk Probability | When I'm in front of the … section, I always feel rather unsure about what to pick | 3,47 | 0,926 |
| | When you buy …, you can never be quite sure it was the right choice or not | 3,75 | |
| | Choosing a ... is rather difficult | 3,85 | |
| | When you buy ..., you can never be quite certain about your choice | 3,64 | |

Table 10: CIP-scale scores

As can be seen in the table, all constructs for the CIP-scale by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) was in this study acceptable over the limit of 0,7. Furthermore, the mean scores of all questions in the constructs are in the vicinity of each other, indicating that the questions and responses are measuring what they are aimed at measuring. The only exception, where means differ some, is for the interest construct. But, as the Cronbach's alpha value is 0,703, still over 0,6 we find it acceptable.

## 4.2.3 Outcomes scores

A reliability analysis was also performed on the outcome constructs. As presented below, the constructs alpha values range between 0,75 to high as 0,92. We thereby conclude sufficient reliability for all outcome constructs.

| Construct | Question | Mean Value | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|---|
| Information search | 1. When I was looking for a ……, I searched for a lot of information | 4,52 | 0,917 |
| | 2. When I was selecting a ……, I used many information sources. | 4,37 | |
| | 3. When I was searching for a …., I could not be bothered to look for any information. | 5,45 | |
| | | | |
| Knowledge | 1. I know pretty much about …….. | 3,24 | 0,753 |
| | 2. Compared to most other people, I know less about ……. | 4,86 | |
| | 3. Among my circle of friends, I'm one of the "experts" on ….. | 2,49 | |
| | | | |
| Willingness to pay | 1. The price of (brand name) would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another brand of (product). | 3,35 | 0,857 |
| | 2. I am willing to pay a higher price for (brand name) brand of (product) than for other brands of (product). | 3,09 | |
| | 3. I am willing to pay a lot more for (brand name) than other brands of (product category). | 2,59 | |
| | | | |
| Word of mouth | 1. I mention this ……. to others quite frequently | 2,57 | 0,918 |
| | 2. I've told more people about ….. than I've told about most other …….. | 2,8 | |
| | 3. I should be annoyed with myself, if it turned out I'd made the wrong choice when buying …. | 2,54 | |
| | | | |
| Loyalty | 1. I prefer a particular brand. | 4,07 | 0,876 |
| | 2. I am willing to invest additional time and/or effort, just to be able to buy my favorite brand. | 3,54 | |
| | 3. When purchasing, it is usually important to me which brand I purchase. | 4,06 | |

Table 11: Outcomes scores

### 4.2.4 Global Involvement scores

In order to execute the chosen linear regression analysis on the main hypotheses, the dimensions of the CIP scale were merged into the construct of Global Involvement. As presented below, the reliability analysis results in a Cronbach's alpha of 0,62, which according to Malholtra (2010:319) provides a *sufficient reliability* of the construct.

| Construct | Dimension | Mean Value | Cronbach's alpha |
|-----------|-----------|------------|------------------|
| Global Involvement | Interest | 4,43 | 0,62 |
| | Pleasure | 2,13 | |
| | Sign | 2,50 | |
| | Risk importance | 4,60 | |
| | Probability of error | 3,68 | |

Table 12: Global involvement scores.

## 4.3 Hypotheses test

In order to test the theoretical framework, we opted to use a linear regression analysis, as we are interested in knowing how the different dimensions test against each other on a detail level. As stated by Malhotra (2010:568), "regression analysis is a powerful and flexible procedure for analyzing associative relationships between a metric dependent variable and one or more independent variables". The use of terms such as independent and dependent variable is to denote the mathematical relationship between them, As we in this study test several independent variables against one dependable, we are in fact also performing a multiple linear regression analysis as suggested by the author; outcomes are tested as the dependent variable against the independent involvement, both involvement as a whole and the individual dimensions of involvement against the outcomes chosen.

To provide background for the hypothesis testing and the values we give in conjunction with the stated hypothesis, we here offer explanations to the given variable values. Since we are aiming at testing the relationships between the dependent and independent variables in order to confirm or reject our suggested hypothesis, we need to know if there exists a relationship. This relationship is denoted by the correlation coefficient of $R^2$, which determines the strength of association between variables. It varies between 0 and 1, where 0 denotes no relationship and 1 a strong relationship between the variables, either positively or negatively as, explained by Körner and Wahlgren (2002:165). The $r^2$ value denotes how many percent of the variances in the dependent variable is explained by the independents variable, also important for this study since we want to know how involvement affects the outcomes. Important to keep in mind, as explained by Körner and Wahlgren (2002:165), if the $r^2$ value is close to 0, it still does not definitively indicate that no linear relationship exist among the variables as it can be a non-linear relationship.

To finally test the hypothesis formulated regarding outcome and dimensions of involvement in conjunction with outcomes, an *F*-test is performed automatically in SPSS. The *F*-test looks both at the overall regression equation, as well as specific coefficients, in this case the standardized beta-coefficient that implies the individual and collected involvement dimensions, as described by Malhotra (2010:580). We are looking for a positive beta value in our hypothesis, since we are testing if

increased involvement is associated with increased outcome. The use of the beta values allows us to further explore what variables, here which dimensions, are significant and shows a relationship to the outcome. The beta coefficient also enables us to rank which dimensions are more or less important for that specified outcome. The *p*-value should be below 0,05 to reject the null hypothesis of there not existing a relationship between the variables and thus confirming the relationship between variables.

Below we present the results when testing the main and sub hypotheses against the construct of involvement in the same order as in the theoretical chapter. Note; independent variables are always tested as Global Involvement or the dimensions of involvement while the dependent variable is always tested as the outcome.

## H1: Information search

The first hypothesis we tested aimed at uncoiling if there exists a relationship between involvement and increased knowledge, which is formulated as the following;

*H1. Involvement is positively associated with increased information search.*

| | **Dependent Variable** | **Independent variable** |
|---|---|---|
| | Information search | Global Involvement |
| Standardized beta coefficient | | 0,529 |
| $R^2$ | | 0,280 |
| Sig. | | 0,000* |

*\* p < 0,05*                                                          Table 13: *H1* results

Based on the above table and the low significance level, the main hypothesis of *H1* is <u>accepted</u> and proves a positive relationship between the general notion of global involvement and information search, as has been suggested in previous literature. However, going into the dimensions of involvement, we get a more nuanced picture and note several interesting findings.

| Independent Variables | Dependent variable | Standardized Beta coefficient | t-value | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Information search | | | |
| Interest | | 0,211 | 3,899 | 0,000* |
| Pleasure | | 0,086 | 1,565 | 0,119 |
| Sign | | -0,118 | -2,173 | 0,031* |
| Risk importance | | 0,282 | 5,171 | 0,000* |
| Probability of error | | 0,448 | 8,959 | 0,000* |
| Model: | | | | |
| $r^2$ | 0,446 | | | |
| Regression sig. | 0,000* | | | |

*$p < 0,05$                                                                    Table 14: *H1*a-e results

Still, the overall regression model of the main hypothesis is <u>accepted</u>, as indicated by the main regression significance score. But, as can be seen by the beta coefficients, the level of involvement in the different dimension varies greatly, and there is even a negative relationship between sign and information search, indicating that the dimension affects the outcome negatively. Several of the hypotheses are accepted, as indicated by their *p*-value of below 0,05. What is more interesting is that the risk of choosing wrong is the most important dimension with highest beta value. This is followed by the other risk dimension of risk importance, and lastly interest, indicating that risk is an important aspect for involvement and increased information search. More specifically, all sub hypotheses panned out as follows:

*H1a. Interest is positively associated with increased information search.*

With a *p*-value of 0,000 (*p*<0,05), and as the beta coefficient is positive with 0,211, the relationship is seen as positive and the hypothesis is <u>accepted</u>.

*H1b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased information search.*

The *p*-value of 0,119 (*p*> 0,05), indicating that the hypothesis of pleasure being related to information search is <u>rejected.</u>

*H1c. Sign is positively associated with increased information search.*

The *p*-value of 0,031 (*p*<0,05) is below the accepted, indicating that the relationship exist between sign and information search. However, as the beta coefficient is negative, indicating a decrease rather than increase, the relationship is negative, which means that the hypothesis of a positive relationship is <u>rejected.</u>

*H1d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased information search.*

Also risk importance displays a perfect *p*-value of 0,000 (*p*<0,05) and as the beta coefficient is displaying a positive relationship, the hypothesis of risk importance being related to involvement is <u>accepted</u>.

*H1e. Probability of error is positively associated with increased information search*

Lastly, also probability of error is displaying a 0,000 ($p<$ 0,05) significance and as the beta coefficient is positive, it is indicated that the hypothesis is <u>accepted.</u>

Furthermore, we can see that 44,6 % of the variances in increased knowledge is explained by involvement when testing the relation on a dimension level. To test the general regression model we also examined the residuals and collinearity levels, as can be seen in the appendices they all show a sufficient level.

## H2: Knowledge

The second hypothesis tested the relationship between involvement and increased knowledge and resulted in the following hypothesis:

*H2. Involvement is positively associated with increased knowledge*

| | Dependent variable | Independent variable |
|---|---|---|
| | Knowledge | Global Involvement |
| Standardized beta coefficient | | 0,308 |
| R² | | 0,091 |
| Sig. | | 0,000* |

* $p < 0,05$        Table 15: *H2* results

As can be seen in the table above, also the second hypothesis of an existing positive relationship between involvement as a whole and increased knowledge is significant and thus <u>accepted</u>. However, as with increased information search it is possible to distinguish even more interesting results when analyzing the data on a dimension level:

| Independent Variable | Dependent variable | Standardized Beta coefficient | *t*-value | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Knowledge | | | |
| Interest | | 0,384 | 6,364 | 0,000* |
| Pleasure | | 0,099 | 1,613 | 0,108 |
| Sign | | 0,010 | 0,161 | 0,873 |
| Risk importance | | 0,190 | 3,117 | 0.002* |
| Probability of error | | -0,240 | - 4,300 | 0,000* |
| Model: | | | | |
| r² | 0,307 | | | |
| Regression sig. | 0,000* | | | |

* $p < 0,05$        Table 16: *H2*a-e results

The main hypothesis regression is still significant, but not all dimensions have a statistically proven relation to increased knowledge. As can be seen, only three dimensions are significant, whereas one is also negative, thus contributing deceptively to the main idea that involvement in general contributes to increased knowledge. Also, there exists an asquint relationship among the dimensions, resulting in

different level of effect on the tested outcome. Here, interest is the stronger dimension before risk importance, indicating a stronger influence of interest on involvement than the risk importance.

More specifically, the sub hypothesis resulted in:

*H2a. Interest is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

A significance level of 0,000 ($p<0,05$), means that the relationship is statistically proven. As the beta value is positive with 0,384, the hypothesis is <u>accepted</u>.

*H2b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

The significance level of 0,108 ($p>0,05$) indicates that the suggested hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

*H2c. Sign is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

The significance level of 0,873 ($p>0,05$) indicates that the suggested hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

*H2d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

A significance value of 0,002 ($p<0,05$) together with a beta value of 0,190 indicates that the suggested hypothesis is <u>accepted</u>.

*H2e. Probability of error is positively associated with increased knowledge.*

Also risk importance holds a significance value of 0,000 ($p>0,05$), but as the beta value is – 0.240 the relationship is negative and thus the hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

Furthermore, the regression model's $r^2$ value of 30,7 % indicates that 30,7 % of the variances in knowledge can be explained by involvement. Also here the collinearity and residual analysis shows acceptable values, as can be seen in the appendices.

## H3: Willingness to pay

The next hypothesis suggested a relationship between involvement and willingness to pay, which resulted in the formulation below:

*H3. Involvement is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

|  | **Dependent variable** | **Independent variable** |
|---|---|---|
|  | Information search | Global Involvement |
| Standardized beta coefficient |  | 0,190 |
| R² |  | 0,036 |
| Sig. |  | 0,001* |

  *$p < 0,05$                                           Table 17: *H3* results

As can be seen, also this hypothesis show significant values of 0,001 ($p<0,05$), indicating that there in fact exists a relationship between involvement and willingness to pay, thus <u>accepting</u> the main hypothesis. Further to note is that the $r^2$ value is low, indicating that other factors that involvement better explains the outcome of willingness to pay. On a detail level of involvement dimensions, this is further supported:

| Independent Variable | Dependent variable | Standardized Beta coefficient | *t*-value | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Willingness to Pay | | | |
| Interest | | 0,087 | 1,352 | 0,178 |
| Pleasure | | 0,080 | 1,209 | 0,228 |
| Sign | | 0,326 | 5,009 | 0,000* |
| Risk importance | | 0,075 | 1,139 | 0,256 |
| Probability of error | | - 0,304 | - 5,031 | 0,000* |
| Model: | | | | |
| $r^2$ | 0,224 | | | |
| Regression sig. | 0,000* | | | |

   * $p < 0,05$                                                           Table 18: *H3*a-e results

The table presents that only one out of five suggested dimensions of involvement has a positive impact on the outcome of willingness to pay, once again probability of error being significant but negative, indicating that there is a need to nuance the picture as the main hypothesis is affected by the negative relationship. The full test panned out as follows:

*H3a. Interest is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

The significance value of 0,178 ($p>0,05$) is higher than the accepted and thus our suggested hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

*H3b. Pleasure is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

The significance value of 0,228 ($p>0,05$) is higher than the accepted and the hypothesis is therefore <u>rejected</u>.

*H3c. Sign is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

The significance value of 0,000 ($p<0,05$) is below and with a positive beta of 0,326 the hypothesis or a relationship between sign and willingness to pay price premiums is <u>accepted</u>.

*H3d. Risk importance is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

With a significance of 0,256 ($p>0,05$) the hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

*H3e. Probability of error is positively associated with increased willingness to pay price premiums.*

The significance level of 0,000 ($p<0,05$) is good, but as the beta value is negative again with a - 0,304 value, the hypothesis is <u>rejected</u>.

Furthermore, the variances in willingness to pay are explained to 22,4 % by involvement in the main regression model. Also the residual and collinearity test showed significant values for the hypotheses tested.

## H4: Word of mouth

The fourth main hypothesis was formulated as:

*H4. Involvement is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

| | Dependent variable | Independent variable |
|---|---|---|
| | Information search | Global Involvement |
| Standardized beta coefficient | | 0,386 |
| R² | | 0,149 |
| Sig. | | 0,000* |

* p < 0,05          Table 19: *H4* results

To test the hypothesis we examine the *p*-value, which is significant at 0,000 (*p*<0,05). We thereby accept *H4* and conclude that product involvement is positively associated with word of mouth. In the nuanced picture, we also learn that not all dimension actually impact the outcome of word of mouth.

| Independent Variable | Dependent variable | Standardized Beta coefficient | *t*-value | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Word of mouth | | | |
| Interest | | 0,209 | 3,233 | 0,001* |
| Pleasure | | 0,088 | 1,337 | 0,182 |
| Sign | | 0,191 | 2,943 | 0,004* |
| Risk importance | | 0,183 | 2,814 | 0,005* |
| Probability of error | | -0,099 | -1,664 | 0,097 |
| Model: | | | | |
| r² | 0,214 | | | |
| Regression sig. | 0,000* | | | |

* p < 0,05          Table 20: *H4*a-e results

The overall regression model is significant, but as can be seen also here, a negative beta coefficient is evident. Three outcomes are positively related to the outcome of word of mouth, where interest shows the strongest relationship, followed by sign and risk importance at close values. All sub hypotheses tested as follows:

*H4a. Interest is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

With a beta value of 0,209, which indicate a positive relationship, and a significance level of 0,001 (*p*<0,05) we accept the hypothesis and conclude that interest is positively associated with word of mouth.

*H4b. Pleasure is positively associated with word-of-mouth.*

The beta value of 0,088 and a significance value of 0,182 (*p*>0,05) we <u>reject</u> the hypothesis and conclude that pleasure is *not* positively associated with brand loyalty.

*H4c. Sign is positively associated with word-of-mouth*

The beta value of 0,191 and with a significance value of 0,004 (*p*<0,05) we <u>accept</u> the hypothesis and conclude that sign is positively associated with brand loyalty.

*H4d. Risk importance is positively associated with word of mouth*

With a beta value of 0,183 and with a significance value of 0,005 (*p*<0,05) we <u>accept</u> the hypothesis and conclude that risk importance is positively associated with word of mouth.

*H4e. Probability of error is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

The beta value of -0,299 and with a significance value of 0,097 (*p*>0,05) we <u>reject</u> the hypothesis and conclude that sign is *not* positively associated with brand loyalty.

The strength of association is measured by the coefficient of multiple determination which shows: $r^2 = 0,214$. The results indicate that 21,4 % of the variance in word of mouth can be explained by involvement.

To meet the conditions of the regression model we examine the residuals and collinearity diagnostics; with all assumptions being fulfilled (see appendix) we conclude the sufficiency of the regression

## H5: Loyalty

The fifth main hypothesis was formulated as:

 *H5. Involvement is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

| | Dependent variable | Independent variable |
|---|---|---|
| | Loyalty | Global Involvement |
| Standardized beta coefficient | | 0,276 |
| R² | | 0,076 |
| Sig. | | 0,000* |

* *p* < 0,05                                    Table 21: *H5* results

To test the hypothesis we examine the significance value of 0,000 (*p*<0,05). We thereby <u>accept</u> *H5* and conclude that product involvement is positively associated with brand loyalty. For a more nuanced picture of what dimensions holds largest effect, the following values appeared:

| Independent Variable | Dependent variable | Standardized Beta coefficient | *t*-value | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Loyalty | | | |
| Interest | | 0,291 | 4,508 | 0,000* |
| Pleasure | | -0,051 | -0,447 | 0,440 |
| Sign | | 0,193 | 2,953 | 0,003* |
| Risk importance | | 0,183 | 2,804 | 0,005* |
| Probability of error | | -0,220 | -3,661 | 0,000* |
| Model: | | | | |
| $r^2$ | 0,220 | | | |
| Regression sig. | 0,000* | | | |

* $p < 0,05$                                                                 Table 22: *H5*a-e results

As can be seen, once again we have a negative significant relationship between the outcome and probability of error. Three other dimensions show significant positive relationships, with interest once again scoring highest and sign and risk importance closely following each other. More specifically,

*H5a. Interest is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

With a beta value of 0,291 that indicates a positive relationship and significance value of 0,000 ($p<0,05$) we <u>accept</u> the hypothesis and conclude that interest is positively associated with brand loyalty.

*H5b. Pleasure is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

With the beta value of -0,051 and significance value of 0,440 ($p>0,05$) we <u>reject</u> the hypothesis and conclude that pleasure is *not* positively associated with brand loyalty.

*H5c. Sign is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

With a beta value of 0,193 and with a significance value of 0,003 ($p<0,05$) we <u>accept</u> the hypothesis and conclude that sign is positively associated with brand loyalty.

*H5d. Risk importance is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

With the beta value of 0,183 and a significance value of 0,005 ($p<0,05$) we <u>accept</u> the hypothesis and conclude that risk importance is positively associated with brand loyalty.

*$H_5$e. Probability of error is positively associated with brand loyalty.*

The beta value of -0,220 and with significance value of ($p<0,05$) we <u>reject</u> the hypothesis due to negative relationship and conclude that sign is *not* positively associated with brand loyalty.

The strength of association is measured by the coefficient of multiple determination which shows: $r^2 = 0,220$. The results indicate that 22 % of the variance in loyalty can be explained by involvement.
To meet the conditions of the regression model we examine the residuals and collinearity diagnostics; with all assumptions being fulfilled (see appendix) we conclude the sufficiency of the regression.

## 4.4 Summary of results

As a summary, we outline all hypotheses and their results in the table below. As can be seen, all main hypotheses were accepted as relationship between the dimensions could be found. The most interesting result is the fact that not all dimensions were accepted when testing on a dimensional spreading the dimensional impact on the outcomes. Furthermore, willingness to pay was the dimension with lowest results, only accepting the hypothesis that sign can affect a consumer's willingness to pay more for a product or service. All other outcomes were affected by between 2 and 3 dimensions of involvement, some even more but then to a negative degree, something that will be discussed in the analysis and discussion section of this paper.

| | Dependents | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Independents | **Information search** | | **Knowledge** | | **Willingness to Pay** | | **Word of mouth** | | **Loyalty** | |
| | Beta value | Hypothesis | Beta value | Hypothesis | Beta value | Hypothesis | Beta value | Hypothesis | Beta value | Hypothesis |
| **Interest** | 0,211 | *Accepted* | 0,384 | *Accepted* | 0,087 | Rejected | 0,209 | *Accepted* | 0,291 | *Accepted* |
| **Pleasure** | 0,086 | Rejected | 0,099 | Rejected | 0,08 | Rejected | 0,088 | Rejected | -0,051 | Rejected |
| **Sign** | -0,118 | Rejected | 0,01 | Rejected | 0,326 | *Accepted* | 0,191 | *Accepted* | 0,193 | *Accepted* |
| **Risk Importance** | 0,282 | *Accepted* | 0,19 | *Accepted* | 0,075 | Rejected | 0,183 | *Accepted* | 0,183 | *Accepted* |
| **Probability of error** | 0,448 | *Accepted* | -0,24 | Rejected | -0,304 | Rejected | -0,099 | Rejected | -0,220 | Rejected |
| **Global Involvement** | 0,529 | *Accepted* | 0,308 | *Accepted* | 0,190 | *Accepted* | 0,386 | *Accepted* | 0,276 | *Accepted* |

Table 23: Summary of results.

# 5 Discussion

*In this chapter we analyze, discuss and reason around the results presented in the previous chapter. The chapter begins by presenting the ideas behind the global involvement variable used, and is followed by discussions regarding each tested outcome. The chapter is concluded with a discussion of the third research question in specific, where the dimensions and outcomes of involvement are examined in aspects of the brand.*

## 5.1 The Global Involvement scale

In order to answer the main hypotheses, and the main research question of what outcomes and consumer responses that are connected to consumer involvement, we aggregated the involvement scores into one joint variable for involvement: the global involvement scale. This choice allowed us to measure involvement on a one-dimensional scale as has been done previously by authors such as Zaichowsky (1986, 1994). As has been discussed in previous literature, such as in conjunction with testing the involvement on specified products and services, involvement is often also mentioned as just being one-dimensional, as can be viewed in the article compilation. This course allowed us to test the main hypothesis with a standard regression analysis test, proving to all being significantly positive and thus accepted. When looking deeper into the data, we noticed that the explanation rate ($r^2$-value) varied among the hypotheses, ranging from 3,6 % in willingness to pay, 7,6 % in loyalty and 9,1 % in knowledge up to 14,9 % in word of mouth and 28 % in increased information search when testing them as an aggregated variable. Testing the separate dimensions in order to try the sub hypotheses, the $r^2$ values immediately increased, now ranging from 21,4 % to 44,6 %. One indication of these results are that, just as Kapferer and Laurent (1986) started off by stating almost 30 years ago, in order to truly use and understand involvement for consumer products and services, it is important to see involvement as several dimensions working together in order to create possible outcomes. This also becomes evidently clear for dimensions where some beta-values resulted in negative relations to the outcome, thus counteracting the positive relationships that were indicated by the Global Involvement variable.

Below, we thoroughly present, analyze and discuss our results and accept or reject the theories that have been put forward in the theoretical framework.

## 5.2 Involvement effects on information search

As presented in the results, the main hypothesis that was tested through regression test shows a significant relationship between involvement and the outcome of information search, thus confirming what authors such as Zaichowsky (1985), Charters and Pettigrew (2006), Te'eni and Harrari (2010), Andrews et al. (1990) and suggests. The $r^2$-value of 28 % shows that involvement can offer much explanation of why consumers engage in an increased information search. However, more interesting in this context is what dimensions of involvement has the most influence when involving consumers. The beta-value of probability or error, 0,448, is the highest in any of the tested dimensions and outcomes, indicating *a strong* positive relationship between how unsure a consumer is about the choices available and how much the product or service mean to them. This dimension is followed by risk importance ($b$=0,282) and interest ($b$=0,211). This means that only three out of five dimensions actually had a positive impact, thus supporting the idea that not all dimensions will have an impact on consumer responses. The dimensions of risk includes that the consumer is afraid of possible losses, as

defined in the theoretical frame, and when dealing with product or service choices that are high involving, they are calculating a high probability of choosing wrong. This is confirmed by previous studies, as Mitchell (1999) suggests; when showing high involvement for a product or service class, meaning that the consumers care what the outcome of the purchase becomes, it often leads to high perceived risk elements. Although the high value of the relation between probability of error and increased information search is surprising, the connection in itself is not, as a natural outcome of being insecure about a possible purchase for most consumers would be to search for information. How that search is performed is suggested by Peterson and Merino (2003), who divides it between internal and external elements of information sources. The high levels of risk uncertainty leading to information search could indicate that internal search is not enough and that external sources are required to fulfill the need of more information, which in turn could have several implications in the practical field of marketing.

Furthermore, as Bloch et al. (1986) state, risk (here including both probability of error and importance) also affects what type of search behavior a consumer uses when searching for information. Risk is especially connected to the pre-purchase search behavior as it leads to short-term involvement (ibid.). This could indicate that the pre-purchase behavior is highly represented in high involvement product and service categories. On the other hand, the least positively significant dimension, interest, is also a dimension that has strong connections to the ongoing search behavior type as determined by Bloch et al. (1986). The authors' point out that ongoing search is engaged in because of the want of acquiring knowledge as well as engaging in the search because of the satisfaction of it. This is concurrent with the idea of the interest dimension as displaying traits of long-term involvement and arousal with a product or service, as suggested by Guthrie and Kim (2008) when discussing enduring involvement. This implies that part of the information search process for higher level of involvement is initiated simply because of the consumer's hedonic interest in the product or service category. Based on these reasoning, it is rather surprising that pleasure did not score as significant in this dimension, as ongoing searchers, showing high involvement, is suggested to take pleasure in their search.

Lastly, although not being positively proven, there also exist a significant relationship between the dimension sign and the outcome of increased information search, indicating that low sign values in turn increases the information search for the product or service category. This is interesting and implies several findings, as sign value is the ability for expressing identity, and viewing the social communication of products and services. One finds that is indicated is the idea of if there are no sign expressions among the searching consumers, say no representation of the product or service category among the social network, the need for information search increases.

## 5.3 Involvement effects on knowledge

As argued by Charters and Pettigrew (2006), when consumers display high involvement in product and service categories, they can even become experts because of their involvement, indicating that the consumer then hold vast amount of knowledge of the product or service category. Naturally closely related to the idea of information search, also the main relationship between increased knowledge and involvement is positively proven and to 9,1 % explained by involvement ($r^2$- value of 0,091). But, as with information search, not all dimensions have a proven impact on the outcome of increased information. Interest, being positively significant, scores the highest with a beta-value of 0,384, in fact the highest interest value of all tested outcomes. Once again, not very surprising as it stands to reason that when having a high level of interest in something, you as a consumer also care about gaining

knowledge about that product or service category. It could also be seen on a brand level, where experts talk about their brands just because of their high involvement with them.

As with increased information search, also risk importance is an imperative dimension in gaining increased knowledge as an outcome of involvement. In terms of fearing losses, a consumer is more likely to feel the need of gaining more knowledge, thus also creating a stable base of knowledge and being able to better judge the possible losses of the product or service category. This is confirmed in previous studies; as suggested by Laroche et al. (2003), one of the most important moderators for risk is involvement, and the greater knowledge a consumer has of a product or service, the more risk perception is reduced. Although it is suggested to increase involvement as whole, increasing negative dimensions may not induce the right type of involvement. Rather, meeting demands of information about possible losses and thus increasing other dimensions may be a more efficient method of gaining involvement. Also probability of error is significant, but on the negative scale. This indicates that when consumers perceive a lower probability of choosing the wrong product or service, they are also more interested in gaining increased knowledge.

Interesting to notice is that neither pleasure nor sign has any impact on the increased knowledge outcome, indicating that there is no proof of existing relationship between pleasure or sign values with knowledge. Rather, it is suggested that expressive or hedonic reasons are not plausible dimension to focus on for creating knowledge in conjunction with involvement.

## 5.4 Involvement effects on willingness to pay

Also the hypothesis of increased involvement having a positive connection to the consumers' willingness to pay more for their favorite brand, brands they are likely more involved in, was confirmed. This endorses what authors such as Charters and Pettigrew (2006) state; that consumers who are more involved are also likely to spend freely in the product or service category of choice. The outcome of willingness to pay is the one with largest dimension level analysis difference, which is proven by the 3,6 % explanation rate for the main hypothesis, which increased to 22,4 % when tested on dimension-level. It is thus still positively connected to only one dimension of involvement, sign with a beta value of 0,326. This means that neither interest, pleasure or risk importance in terms of weighing possible losses shows any impact on the idea of getting customers to pay more for a brand within an important product category. Also, probability of error is significant, but negatively with a beta-value of -0,304 indicating that the lower the probability, the more a consumer is willing to pay. As it has been stated by Hsu and Shiue (2007), risk concerns are positively connected to involvement in terms of that the larger the risk concerns that exist, the more the consumer is supposedly willing to pay. This because the consumer perceives high price as indicative for high quality. In this study, the connection of high risk and willingness to pay is proven to not be accurate. Rather, although not being positively connected, also probability of error is significant but on a negative direction. This indicate that the lower the probability of making a mispurchase is, the more a consumer is willing to pay.

Several authors claim that the sign dimensions characteristics and its connection to social branding is important when it comes to high involvement. Kotler and Keller (2009) argue that it is more likely possible to charge a higher price if the consumer perceives the value gained from the product is high. In the perceived value, consumer image is an important aspect, one that is often connected to the expressive qualities of a brand as stated by Salzer-Möerling (2010). The ideas of social brand expressiveness are closely linked to the dimension of sign according to Kapferer and Laurent (1986),

who also state that it is more common for highly involved consumers to use their purchases in order to communicate their identity. The connection is proven by this study since it shows that sign is significantly related to increased willingness to pay, in fact, it has the highest sign beta-value of all tested outcomes. This also implies that the idea suggested by Allsop (2005) and Goldsmith et al. (2010) of high spending as a status symbol when being involved in the process of creating our identity, is confirmed. Another aspect of the idea of expressive values being able to raise prices is the indication that if used correctly, advertisements as communication tools in order to raise the perceived value of the product, in terms of brand image as suggested by McCracken (1986), is a useful tool to steer acceptable price premiums.

## 5.5 Involvement effects on word of mouth

The results of the regression analysis also infer some interesting results. Corresponding with previous outcomes, the five dimensions clearly have a higher rate of explanation in word of mouth ($r^2 = 0,214$). Examining the beta coefficients it is evident that there are three of the dimensions that affects the involvement outcome of word of mouth, which is interest ($b=0,209$), sign ($b=0,191$ and risk importance ($b=0,183$). Brown et al. (2005) suggest that the WOM is related to the customer commitment as an enduring desire to preserve a connection with a specific entity. This corresponds with the involvement dimension of interest, as Guthrie and Kim (2008) declare that the interest dimension carries similarities with enduring involvement as a stable and long term interest. It is thus not surprising that interest has the greatest effect on WOM, and it is sensible that the individuals' engagement in WOM is founded in an individual interest. It is noticeable that the dimension of pleasure was insignificant which conflicts Engel et al. (1969) view with involvement as a reason to share their excitement and pleasure from the purchase. However, it does conform to the authors' argument with involvement as an antecedent for WOM in regards of an ego enhancer to impress other by their expertise; this is confirmed by the significant role of the dimension of sign in WOM.

As previously mentioned, the dimension of sign reflects the consumers' interest concerning how the brand choice has the ability to express a person's identity. The impact of sign in WOM uniforms with the suggestion of Mittal and Lee (1985) as consumers evaluate and observe their environment based on the brands and the goods because individuals thus also signalize their identity thru engaging in WOM. As Brown et al. (2005) argue, saying positive things to others can function as a mean of expressing their own self-identity and when we apply Wattanasuwans (1998) argument that consumers learn about symbols thru socialization, we speculate that the sign dimension of involvement affect WOM due to the ability to express ones identity but also to construct it in the social environment. As also mentioned earlier, the dimension of interest can to some extent explain the enduring involvement and in regards of the suggestion of Bloch et al. (2009) that high enduring involvement is related to awareness of products and likely to generate positive reactions in their social network, we find it reasonable that both sign and interest in involvement affects WOM. This might also relate to the accumulated knowledge of one's expertise, where the sharing the knowledge of a product also signal a certain level of status (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004).

We can also conclude that the third significant dimension, risk importance, which represent the perceived importance of the mispurchase, also affect WOM. This confirms the suggestion by Lin and Fang (2006) which found a positive relation between perceived risk and the WOM intentions and as the authors emphasize, even if this assumption is common in literature there is a lack of empirical studies. Our results indicate that the risk importance do effect WOM, but why this is the case is

unclear. One possible explanation in regards of previous mentioned findings is that if a consumer is involved, as being interested and has high perception of sign value in a product, it is likely that the importance of risk also will be evident, and if so the consumer may engage in WOM to ventilate thoughts and opinions. As Ling and Fang (2006) also identify social and psychological risk as the only significant variables in WOM spread, this might strengthen this argument even more.

## 5.6 Involvement effects on loyalty

The result of loyalty comply with the previous outcomes with the positive with low value of the coefficient of determination of the aggregated measure ($R^2$ =0,076). The result of our study shows that involvement is positively associated with brand loyalty which concurs with the previous result of LeClerc and Little (1997) and with all the variables explaining 22 % of the variance in brand loyalty, involvement seems to play a significant role.

Interestingly the results of brand loyalty bear some similarities with the result of the word of mouth outcome. For instance, interest (*b*=0,291), sign (*b*=0,193) and risk importance (0,183) are also here all significant. However, in this result it is also evident that the dimension of probability of error (*b*= -0,22) has a significant negative effect on brand loyalty. Even though the negative relationship caused us to reject hypothesis (*H5e*); we find it illuminating to make a brief comment due to its significant impact. The probability of error imply the subjective evaluation of making a mispurchase, and by this result we can conclude that the degree of brand loyalty diminish if the degree of this risk increases. Where this might be fairly obvious, we emphasize that this is further evidence that not all dimensions of involvement have desirable outcomes, which suggest that the concept of involvement with its outcomes has to be treated with forethought.

As in the outcome of word of mouth, interest scores the highest beta-value and the explanation of Guthrie and Kim (2008) that interest carries similarities with enduring involvement and its effect on brand loyalty, seems likely even here. It is reasonable if a consumer with high interest in a category also have enduring affections and feelings with the brand, which could be described as mental loyalty. However, this would conflict with the argument of Richins and Bloch (1991) that enduring consumers find the products highly pleasurable since the dimension of pleasure was insignificant in this outcome as well; but as Kapferer and Laurent (1993) stress, one can be highly interested in products without any perceived pleasure.

The significant result of the dimension of sign in brand loyalty is certainly sensible and it corresponds with Quester and Lim's (2003) suggestion that the more a product relates with the individual ego, the greater attachment will be exhibited to the brand. In other words, if brand have the ability to express the consumer's identity and desired status, the consumer will be more loyal towards the brand.

Risk importance was also a significant dimension in brand loyalty which at first might seem peculiar, as the brand loyalty partly would be explained by the degree of the perceived importance of the negative outcomes of a mispurchase; but it is fairly rational that if the product or category carries a high degree of uncertainty or risk, such as complicated or complex products or services, the consumer might use brand loyalty as a risk reducer where the individual are committed to a brand which is tested.

## 5.7 Involvement effects and brands

As emphasized in the literature review, brands are one of the most important strategic assets for companies and of high relevance also for consumers. In conjunction with McWilliam's (1997) argument, we provide evidence that involvement affect the brands in several aspects. As we display, involvement is associated with brand loyalty, willingness to pay for a brand and the degree of word of mouth about a brand. Furthermore, we also provide evidence for the consumer's information search and knowledge about the product category, which also is related to a specific brand.

We previously elucidated the influence of interest and sign together with risk importance in brand loyalty and word of mouth, and sign as the unaided influence on willingness to pay. This would imply that these three dimensions is a great mediator of the performance of the brand and thus, brand equity. Kapferer (2008:23) propose that the power of (manufacturing) brands may be very weak in low involvement categories and even if it is unclear what power in this argument refers to, we state that it is not due to low involvement as such, but low value of the dimensions which constitutes involvement. For instance, the power of a brand in terms of willingness to pay cannot be explained by simply being in a low involved category because pleasure, interest and risk importance have no effect. Instead it is more accurate to explain the low power in a low category by either the low sign value or the high risk of probability of error, which can counter the effect of the sign dimension. It is also interesting that Kapferer (2008:11) suggest that brands exist wherever customers perceive a high risk in the purchase and in concurrence with our results, either one or both dimensions of risk is significant in all outcomes. Furthermore when dealing with risk and branding, as brands often are used as a signal for quality and thus eliciting a higher price, the result of lower perceived probability of risk equaling a higher willingness to pay indicates that there is narrow use for risk dimensions for price premiums, it is no longer sure that perfect functionality as suggested by Allsop (2005) will drive consumer to pay more.

The dimensions of information search and knowledge also has impact on the brands in product and service categories. As Keller (2008) suggests, brand equity is mainly affected by what the consumer holds in their minds in reference to knowledge about the brands. Interestingly, sign is not a significant variable for the knowledge outcome, indicating that brands and the self-expressiveness they hold has little impact on the process of gaining knowledge. On the other hand, the lack of self-expressiveness can lure a consumer into information search, as was indicated by the negative sign-value for information search, then suggestively using brands as clear communication signals of information. Here, brands could be of much use as they can be readily recognized. Additionally, the dimension of pleasure has no effect on any of the outcomes, but as Radder and Huang (2008) suggest, one of the function of the brand can strictly be to provide pleasure. However, our results does not conflict this argument since our study does not concern the different functions of the brand but what the dimension of involvement leads to. It is clearly implied that pleasure does not affect the outcomes as such, but we cannot conclude that the brand does not provide pleasure in itself.

# 6. Conclusions

*In this final chapter we conclude our findings and answer the research questions thoroughly. In order to fulfill the purpose of this study and to answer the research questions, we will not make any distinctions between high and low involvement categories and the effect on these. We will instead offer general conclusions on how involvement and its outcomes can be affected in line with our stated purpose. We also present theoretical contributions and managerial implications that our study resulted in and we conclude this study with future research proposals and possible limitations.*

## 6.1 Concluding the asymmetrical dimensions of involvement outcomes

The model below summarizes our findings where the asymmetric relationships to the tested outcomes become clear. The boxes on the left side presents the involvement dimensions that were found to have a positive relationship with the outcomes listed in the boxes on the right side. As can be noted, not all dimensions have an effect on the outcomes, which will be further explained and concluded below were we outline the conclusions for each research question.
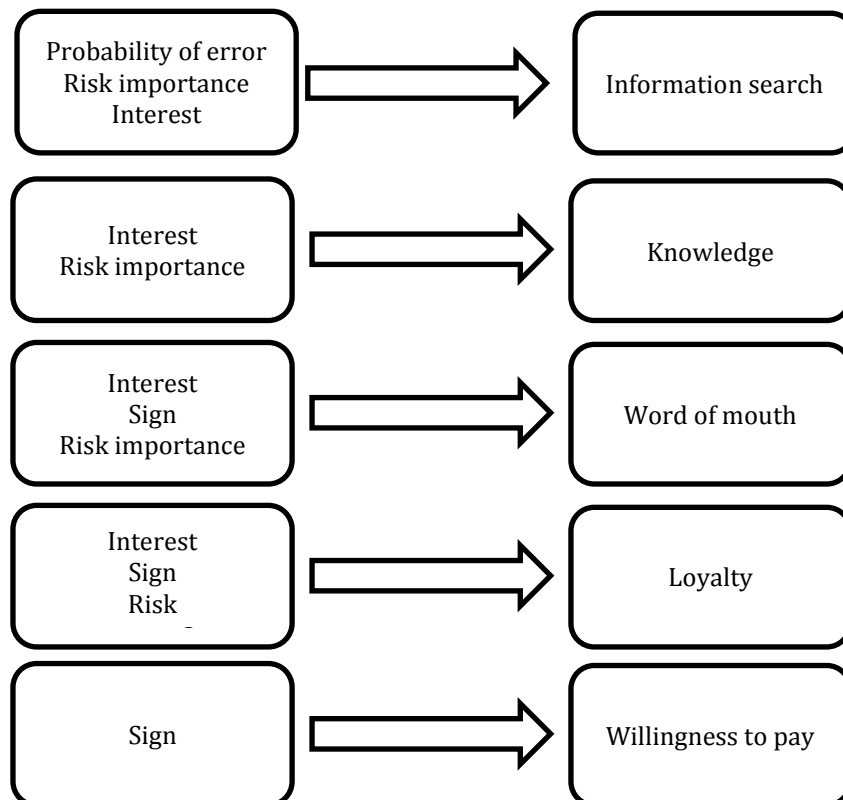


Figure 4: The asymmetrical influence of involvement on consumer responses (own illustration).

In terms of answering the main questions for this study: *What are the consumer response outcomes to involvement in products and services?*; we uncovered several important findings. As opposed to the vast majority of previous studies conducted on involvement where the outcomes are merely suggested in a theoretical manner, we can conclude that many of these outcomes indeed are correct. As we in this study focused on the most interesting and relevant consumer responses we cannot reveal all possible outcomes in regards of involvement, but we can make conclusions on five of the most essential responses. *It is evident that there is a relationship between involvement and brand loyalty, willingness to pay, word of mouth, information search and knowledge.*

### 6.1.1 Defining the asymmetrical involvement distribution between consumer response outcomes

As was evident in the discussion, all tested outcomes in terms of consumer responses: inreased information search, increased knowledge, willingness to pay price premiums, word of mouth and loyalty, was affected by different dimensions of the involvement concept. From this we can firstly conclude as an overall statement that: *not all dimensions of involvement will have affect on consumer responses, and the division of them between outcomes is assymetrical.* Furthermore, all five dimensions of involvement: interest, pleasure, sign value, risk importance and probability of errror, but one proved to be significant for at least one outcome, the exception was pleasure. This will enable us to answer the the subquestion: which dimensions of involvment are most important for the different outcomes?

For increased informations search, three dimension showed a positive relationship with the idea that consumers search more as a response to caring more about the product or service. The elements of risk scored highest, showing that they are the most relevant for an increased information search response of involvement among consumers. This conclusion is concurrent with previous research, but now also empirically proven with both products and services that are up to date with the modern consumption society. Sign value, although not being positive, was also proven to have a relationship with increased information search. In our conlcusion, we draw parallels to the area of risk as low sign value could indicate that since not expressing the brands or goods, thus having no social visibillity of the product, also means that consumers learn less about the chosen good and thus needs to search more for information when the category is involving. In conclusion; *risk is the most important involvement dimension for increased information search.*

Strongly connected to increased information search is the consumer repsonse outcome of increased knowledge; sharing two of the strong dimensions of risk importance and interest as a catalyst for gaining more knowledge about the specified area. Negatively, probability of error is a catalyst for gaining knowledge, resulting in that the less risk is connected to the purchase, the less insecurity the consumer feels about it and creates more knowledge. We can conclude that both risk and interest are important involvement dimensions for knowledge, but *interest is the most important dimension for knowledge.*

Willingness to pay is a consumer repsonse that has much practical impact and high effect on consumer communication and marketing decisions, one af the main resasons why this outcome was tested. Previous research suggested that high risk elements was an antecedent for consumers to pay more as more expensive supposedly symbolized high quality and functionality. As can be concluded, this is not true for involvement, as lower risk was a significant effect on consumers willingness to pay more for their favorite brands. Only the charecteristics connected to sign value, meaning the expressive and social dimensions of a purchase, gives consumers reasons and rationalisation to pay more for a product or service when increasingly involved in the decisions and purchase. Thus, the conclusion follows that *only the involvement dimension of sign is positively connected to consumers willingnes to pay more, and thus, the most important involvement dimension for willingness to pay.*

For word of mouth, an unpredictable communication channel, three out of the five dimensions proved to have effect through involvement. Interest, logically, showed the most effect on increasing word of mouth, concluding what is suggested in previous research; we talk about things and events that we take an interest in. Also sign was positive, also concuring with previous research in both consumer

behavior and branding, that expressing identity is done partly through what we wear and purchase, but also through what consumers talks about with their social network. Lastly, also risk has an impact on willingness to pay, concluding that when consumers perceive risks with the purchase or decision, they talk about it and listens to what other say. In conclusion; interest, sign and risk importance are all important in order to generate word of mouth through increased involvement but we conclude that *interest is the most important involvement dimension to word of mouth.*

Lastly, loyalty was tested in terms of loyalty towards a brand and company, an important aspect when creating and sustaining strong brands and products or services. Here, the results was almost identical with the results for word of mouth. Interest, risk importance and sign are all significant dimensions for loyalty towards a brand, product/service and company. The conclusions that can be drawn from the the discussions are several; a product that is perceived close in expression to the consumers own interests, attitude and where losses with products and services are deemed high will through these three involvement dimensions gain high loyalty. We can thus conclude that interest, sign and risk importance are all important dimensions of involvement for loyalty, *and interest is the most important dimension of brand loyalty.*

## 6.1.2 Involvements effect on brands

As presented in the conclusions above, involvement is associated with information search, knowledge, willingness to pay, word of mouth and willingness to pay and in those responses we concluded that the relation between the involvement dimensions and the outcomes are asymmetrical. It is thus evident that involvement affect the brand in several perspectives. Firstly, since we provide evidence that involvement indeed is associated with brand loyalty, willingness to pay and word of mouth, we can conclude that involvement affects the brand in these crucial aspects. And secondly, different dimensions of involvement affect the brand in diverse ways. Since brands have been recognized as an important asset due to its ability to affect consumer responses, the construct of brands and the construct of involvement does indeed seems to relate. A higher degree of willingness to pay, brand loyalty and word of mouth is obviously very desirable treats for a brand since it may reduce the cost and increase revenue; our findings may hence provide evidence for the suggestion of *involvement as a moderator of brand performance and brand equity.*

## 6.2 Managerial implications

Firstly, we address the discussion about whether or not involvement is possible to affect and thus used to create consumer responses. As has been proven by our study, consumers do react to different categories with different outcomes and in those reactions, only certain dimensions will have any affect. We therefore argue that it is possible to affect involvement and outcomes by addressing characteristics of the different consumer responses, but it is not easily done. We also argue that used correctly, these dimensions can benefit the brand as such and may be used as a tool for marketing managers.

*Implications on marketing communication channels*

One of the suggested areas that were affected by the level of involvement was the consumer's ability to receive and cognitively process advertisements, brands and all the information these communication channels can hold. For advertisements, and higher level of involvement categories, the results suggest that it is plausible to make use of the advertising space and inform with facts and figures to a higher extent since the consumers are more likely to have an interest in and wants to educate themselves if the risk of a mispurchase is high in order to make the right decision. This because product or service complexity not necessarily is seen as something negative. However, it is still crucial to keep in mind that consumers are emotional in their decision making, and that elements of the information should have an emotional touch in order to connect to the consumer. This because the emotional aspects are very much part of what nurtures a consumers interest in a category or single brand. We also suggest that different types of advertisements can be used, for the really interested person, searching online in an ongoing or prepurchase search capacity, information videos posted on social media sites reaches the consumers. These videos would be a god compliment to the other external sources that are suggested in the theoretical framework. It also supports the general notion that is widely discussed by today's practitioners: engaging more in social network sites such as Facebook and Twitter enables companies to reach the interested existing and potential consumers when they want to find information, allwoing them to subscribe to live updates from their favorite brands. On the other hand, for categories, which are not high involving and where consumers are less likely to perceive high risk, advertisements should be outlined on a lighter note. We also note that for increasing the interest leading to inolvement outcomes, several similarities can be found in what we discussed earlier about enduring involvement. The key aspect for a person's interest is that it is born very early and can be a life-long commitment to a category or brand. Although we do not advocate for advertisements aimed at children, one should be aware that the interest may many times be generated in a young age.

As was suggested previously, it is also important that sales staff have expertise knowledge about high involving product- and service categories, not serving customers as sellers alone, but also engaging with them in interesting discussions about the category in order to create a bond. It also stands to reason that offering more information, maybe of what actually goes into making the product, in turn can fuel the interest in the consumers and thus create a positive spiral. As was also suggested, it is preferable to use personal sources when communicating the brand and product or service as is done thru word of mouth. This as consumers to a higher extent trusts the personal sources found in their vicinity. Word of mouth thus has much effect on purchase decisions, indicating that generating good word of mouth is an effective marketing channel. This could for example be done through the suggested social meda sites above, or by engaging more in finding brand ambassadeurs. In terms of involvement, we know that word of mouth is mainly generated by interest and sign and it is therefore advisable that marketing practitioners' nurtures an interest for the brand and enable customers to

express their identity and status in the brand. It might also be informative for practitioners to realize that if their brand exists in a nature of high risk, it is likely that involved consumers are eager to engage in word of mouth activities, even more highlighting the potential of using brand ambassadeurs.

*Implications for pricing*

When dealing with the pricing of products and services, price sensitivity is one main dimension to consider. For high involving products, making sure that they are represented by an expressive brand, a brand that consumers connect to high sign value and worthy of expressing is important, and according to our results the only positive association a marketer can make in order to ratify a price premium for high involving categories. Therefore knowing what the consumer segments values and what their social attitudes rank as high and low are vital information for creating the correct image. Furthermore, as has been suggested in the theoretical framework, enduring involvement is highly connected to design and aesthetics, which in turn is highly connected to sign. Managers should thereby not neglect the importance of aesthetics in a product's or services' design process.

*Implications for branding*

Continuing with image and brand characteristics, some implications based on the involvement constructs can be found. It is our suggestion that the information from the involvement dimensions could be very useful when designing the brand identity for a product or service. By aiming at personality traits that match the desired outcomes higher-ranking dimensions, it would be possible to obtain consumers attention and thus involvement through the brand design. This could be used by managers in turn to create loyalty, word of mouth and lastly charge price premiums since the product or service image in itself actually rationalizes it. These findings are of course also useful for managers looking to rebrand a product or service, especially when wanting to move the brand between different levels of involvement, price or quality.

*Implications for involvement as a whole and negative dimensions*

On the area of creating and sustaining involvement, all dimensions showed that at least one of the risk variables of involvement, when increasing also increased the outcome. Furthermore, some dimensions tested significantly negative, such as sign in information search, indicating that the lower the sign, the higher the involvement. However, it would not be suggested to increase the insecurity created by risk, but rather focus on what one can do to meet the uncertainty and thus fuel the other type of dimension, such as sign or interst, that will have an impact on the consumer repsone. It would be sugegsted to define what types of losses are possibly perceived for the category and then place focus on meeting those risks and communicate trustworthiness and functionality to lower risk levels and rather increase other dimensions. Since several types of uncertainties and losses are defined in the litterature, it could be summarized in a model where it is easy to create communication that is aimed at lowering the negative elements and increase the positive.

## 6.3 Theoretical contributions

The theory of involvement is most often treated as something abstract and complex, where the focus lay in the discussion of high and low involving products. While this indeed is interesting, the fundamental reason to discuss involvement to begin with might be somewhat forgotten. The reason involvement is intriguing is because it affects consumer responses and thus also the performance of companies and it is by this means surprising that extraordinarily few studies are concerned with the outcomes of involvement where the lack of empirical studies is remarkable. One important contribution of this study is the input of substantial evidence that involvement definitely is related to specific outcomes; where this assumption often is made, as in studies such as Zaichowsky (1985) and Andrews et al. (1990) we can confirm that this assumption is true. However, the main contribution is not just the ratification of existing theory, that assumed consequences of involvement is true, but the main contribution is the conclusion that certain outcomes of involvement is dependent on specific dimensions of it. By this means, we do not simply rewrite the theory of involvement, but we challenge and extend existing theory by both describing and explaining the outcomes and its influencers. Thus, we have contributed proof to *what* the outcomes are, but foremost, *how* these outcomes are affected.

The contribution of linking dimensions to the specific outcomes also results in a theoretical contribution in itself, where scholars often use the concept of involvement to explain certain behavior such as brand loyalty; we demonstrate that this is to oversimplify the concept. For instance, Traylor (1981) and LeClerc and Little (1997) suggest that involvement is related to brand loyalty using solely one dimension measurement as a global construct, and while the conclusion in general is true, we show that it is not all dimensions that have any effect. Some of the dimensions of involvement do lead to brand loyalty, but as some dimensions have no significant effect or even a negative influence; we thereby reveal that involvement has been treated with clarity and caution. The literature disagrees on whether involvement should be treated as a one-dimensional or multi-dimensional construct, and our results clearly shows that in terms of the outcomes, a one-dimensional construct is insufficient. By this means, we have proven the validity of the CIP-scale proposed by Kapferer and Laurent (1986) and although a one-dimensional scale might provide insights on the degree of involvement, using involvement as a global measurement is not accurate and may even be misleading. We would like to highlight this implication since it might substantially alter the logic of some existing theory arguing the one dimensionality of involvement, such as Traylor and Joseph (1984), Zaichkowsky (1985) and Ratchford (1987).

## 6.4 Future research propositions and limitations

As with all research, there is always more to do and more to find. When performing this study, we also observed other interesting areas beyond what we had the time and funding to pursue. In summary, we propose the following future research areas:

- A deeper look into how involvement and consumer responses differ between services and products. Although we used both types of categories for this study, there was neither material nor time to investigate possible differences and how the dimensions may have differed between the types.
- A larger selection of services and products from both high and low categories in order to compile a more versatile example could be used.

- A similar study where different multi-dimensional tools are used to determine which tool is the more accurate. Although some studies have been performed on this area before, an updated version would be interesting when put into light with our findings.

In terms of limitations, some are important to notice. Firstly, this study was performed with only Swedish-speaking respondents, meaning that the results are somewhat dependent on the Swedish cultural approach to involvement and purchasing decisions. In order to generalize findings to a more international level, we would suggest that for cultures similar to the Swedish type, the results are more general. For cultures different from the Swedish type, other or new studies should be used as complement to our study. Secondly, although this study contained an acceptable amount of respondents, a higher level of reliability could be achieved through a larger respondent base. The same goes for the suggestion above with a larger selection of services and products. Thirdly, a qualitative approach could offer a deeper knowledge through qualitative interviews where respondents would be able to further explain the relationship they feel between involvement and consumer response outcomes. Fourthly, we are aware that causal relationships are hard to prove, and when formulating our conclusions we observed caution and relied on the theory in order to formulate valid, reliable conclusions. To further strengthen and prove the causality, other tests such as longitudinal could be performed, and is also a suggestion for researchers continuing to explore the area of involvement connected to consumer response outcomes.

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# 8. Appendix

## Appendix A: Pre-study questionnaire
One pre-study questionnaire is included as an example. The other (services) is available upon request.

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### Instruktion
I denna undersökning vill vi veta vad du tycker om olika typer av produkter. Försök svara även om du är osäker, det finns inga svar som är rätt eller fel.

### Bakgrundsfrågor
1. **Kön**
   - o   Man
   - o   Kvinna

2. **Ålder**
   - o   18-25
   - o   26-30
   - o   31-35
   - o   36-40
   - o   41-45
   - o   46-50
   - o   51-55
   - o   56-60
   - o   61-65

### Engagemangsfrågor
**3a. Har du använt <u>salt</u> under de 12 senaste månaderna?**
   - o   Ja
   - o   Nej

**3b. Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om salt. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.**

*För mig är salt:*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Viktigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oviktigt |
| Tråkigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Intressant |
| Relevant | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Irrelevant |
| Spännande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte spännande |
| Betydelselöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Betydelsefullt |
| Tilltalande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte tilltalande |
| Fascinerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte fascinerande |
| Värdelöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Värdefullt |
| Engagerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oengagerande |
| Inte ett måste | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Ett måste |

**4a. Har du druckit <u>kaffe</u> under de 12 senaste månaderna?**
- o Ja
- o Nej

**4b. Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om <u>kaffe</u>. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.**

*För mig är **kaffe**:*

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Viktigt | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Oviktigt |
| Tråkigt | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Intressant |
| Relevant | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Irrelevant |
| Spännande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte spännande |
| Betydelselöst | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Betydelsefullt |
| Tilltalande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte tilltalande |
| Fascinerande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte fascinerande |
| Värdelöst | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Värdefullt |
| Engagerande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Oengagerande |
| Inte ett måste | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Ett måste |

**5a. Har du använt en <u>bärbar dator</u> under de 12 senaste månaderna?**
- o Ja
- o Nej

**5b. Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om <u>bärbara datorer</u>. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.**

*För mig är **bärbara datorer**:*

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Viktigt | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Oviktigt |
| Tråkigt | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Intressant |
| Relevant | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Irrelevant |
| Spännande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte spännande |
| Betydelselöst | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Betydelsefullt |
| Tilltalande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte tilltalande |
| Fascinerande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Inte fascinerande |
| Värdelöst | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Värdefullt |
| Engagerande | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Oengagerande |
| Inte ett måste | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | Ett måste |

**6a. Har du använt <u>jeans</u> under de 12 senaste månaderna?**
- o Ja
- o Nej

**6b. Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om <u>jeans</u>. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.**
*För mig är **jeans**:*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Viktigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oviktigt |
| Tråkigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Intressant |
| Relevant | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Irrelevant |
| Spännande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte spännande |
| Betydelselöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Betydelsefullt |
| Tilltalande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte tilltalande |
| Fascinerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte fascinerande |
| Värdelöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Värdefullt |
| Engagerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oengagerande |
| Inte ett måste | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Ett måste |

**8a. Har du använt <u>ketchup</u> under de 12 senaste månaderna?**
- o Ja
- o Nej

**8b. Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om <u>ketchup</u>. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.**
*För mig är **ketchup**:*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Viktigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oviktigt |
| Tråkigt | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Intressant |
| Relevant | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Irrelevant |
| Spännande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte spännande |
| Betydelselöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Betydelsefullt |
| Tilltalande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte tilltalande |
| Fascinerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Inte fascinerande |
| Värdelöst | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Värdefullt |
| Engagerande | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Oengagerande |
| Inte ett måste | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | Ett måste |

# Appendix B: Main study questionnaire

One main study questionnaire is included as example, since only the product or service differs. The other three are available upon request.

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Instruktion

I denna undersökning vill vi veta vad du tycker om bärbara datorer. Försök svara även om du är osäker, det finns inga svar som är rätt eller fel.

---

**Bakgrundsfrågor**

1. Kön

        ☐ Man

        ☐ Kvinna

Vilket årtal är du född?  \_\_\_\_

---

**Introduktion:**      Bärbara datorer

3. När köpte du senast en bärbar dator (eller valde en bärbar dator som du använder men någon annan betalar)?

        ☐ Mindre än 1 månad sedan

        ☐ 1 månad - 6 månader sedan

        ☐ 6 månader - 1 år sedan

        ☐ 1-3 år sedan

        ☐ 3-5 år sedan

        ☐ 5-10 år sedan

        ☐ Mer än 10 år sedan

        ☐ Har aldrig köpt en bärbar dator

---

Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om bärbara datorer. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q4. Vilken bärbar dator jag köper är extremt viktigt för mig. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q5. Jag är mycket intresserad av bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q6. Jag kunde inte bry mig mindre om bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q7. Jag njuter verkligen av att köpa bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q8. När jag köper en bärbar dator är det som att belöna mig själv. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q9.För mig är bärbara datorer ett nöje. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q10. Man kan säga mycket om en person baserat på vilken bärbar dator hon eller han köper. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q11. Vilken bärbar dator en person köper säger något om vem den är. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q12. Den bärbara dator jag köper säger något om vem jag är som person. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q13. Det betyder inte speciellt mycket om man gör ett misstag när man köper en bärbar dator. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q14. Det är väldigt irriterande att köpa fel bärbar dator. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q15. Jag skulle bli irriterad på mig själv om det visade sig att jag gjorde fel val när jag köpte en bärbar dator. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q16. När jag ska välja bärbar dator känner jag mig ganska osäker på vad jag ska välja. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q17. När man köper bärbara datorer kan man aldrig vara riktigt säker på om det var rätt val eller inte. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q18. Att välja bärbar dator är ganska svårt. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q19. När man köper bärbar dator kan man aldrig vara säker på sina val. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

Vänligen ange nedan hur pass väl respektive påstående stämmer överens med din uppfattning om bärbara datorer. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q20. Jag kan ganska mycket om bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q21. Jämfört med de flesta andra människor så har jag mindre kunskap om bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q22. Bland mina vänner är jag en av experterna på bärbara datorer. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q23. Om jag skulle köpa en bärbar dator idag, skulle jag söka efter mycket information. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q24. Om jag skulle köpa en bärbar dator idag, skulle jag använda många informationskällor. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q25. Om jag skulle köpa en bärbar dator idag, skulle jag inte bry mig om att leta efter någon information. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q26. När det gäller bärbara datorer föredrar jag ett specifikt varumärke. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q27. När det gäller bärbara datorer är jag beredd att lägga ner mer tid och ansträning för att kunna köpa mitt favoritvarumärke. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q28. När jag köper en bärbar dator är det vanligtvis viktigt för mig vilket varumärke jag köper. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

I följande frågor vill vi att du tänker på det varumärke av bärbara datorer som du föredrar, det vill säga det du helst köper. Ju mer påståendet överensstämmer med din uppfattning, desto längre ut på skalan vill vi att du placerar ditt kryss.

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q29. Priset på det datormärke jag föredrar måste stiga en hel del innan jag byter till ett annat varumärke | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q30. Jag är villig att betala ett högre pris för det datormärke jag föredrar än för andra datormärken. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q31. Jag är villig att betala mycket mer för det datormärke jag föredrar än andra datormärken. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

| | Instämmer inte alls | | | | | | Instämmer helt och hållet | Vet ej |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q32. Det händer ofta att jag nämner det datormärke jag föredrar för andra. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q33. Jag pratar oftare om det datormärke jag föredrar, än om andra datormärken. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Q34. Jag berättar stolt för andra om vilket datormärke jag föredrar. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

# Appendix C: Data output

## C1. Involvement - information search

### Model Summary[b]

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,529[a] | ,280 | ,277 | 1,69241 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

b. Dependent Variable: Information_search

### ANOVA[a]

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 313,355 | 1 | 313,355 | 109,403 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 807,714 | 282 | 2,864 | | |
| | Total | 1121,069 | 283 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

b. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1,087 | ,364 | | 2,988 | ,003 | | |
| | Involvement | 1,057 | ,101 | ,529 | 10,460 | ,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Involvement |
| 1 | 1 | 1,961 | 1,000 | ,02 | ,02 |
| | 2 | ,039 | 7,102 | ,98 | ,98 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 2,1437 | 7,3577 | 4,7430 | 1,05226 | 284 |
| Residual | -4,73714 | 4,85629 | ,00000 | 1,68941 | 284 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,470 | 2,485 | ,000 | 1,000 | 284 |
| Std. Residual | -2,799 | 2,869 | ,000 | ,998 | 284 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search



Histogram
Dependent Variable: Information_search

Mean = -1,56E-
Std. Dev. = 0,99
N = 284
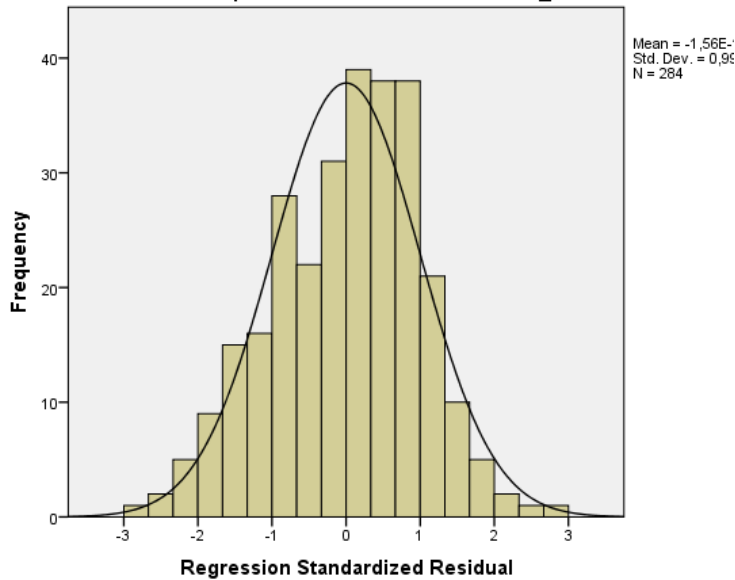


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Information_search
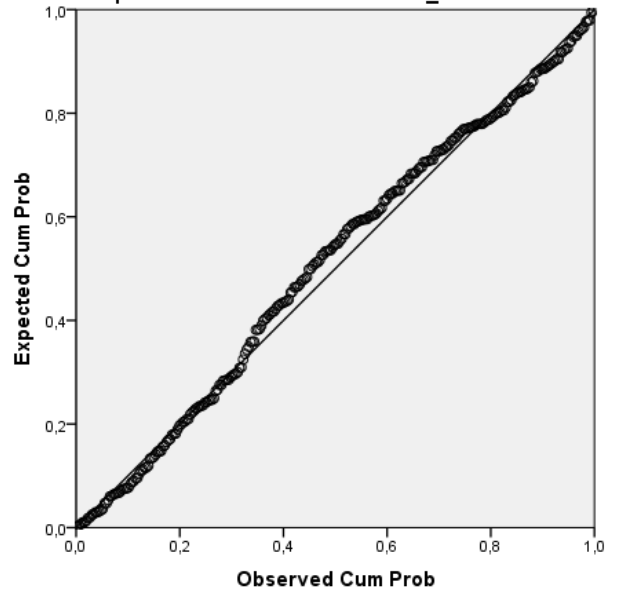
## C1.2 Dimensions - information search

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,668[a] | ,446 | ,435 | 1,48518 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

b. Dependent Variable: Information_search

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 471,524 | 5 | 94,305 | 42,754 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 586,733 | 266 | 2,206 | | |
| | Total | 1058,258 | 271 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

b. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | ,171 | ,356 | | ,480 | ,631 | | |
| | Interest | ,289 | ,074 | ,211 | 3,899 | ,000 | ,713 | 1,402 |
| | Pleasure | ,128 | ,082 | ,086 | 1,565 | ,119 | ,689 | 1,452 |
| | Sign | -,153 | ,070 | -,118 | -2,173 | ,031 | ,709 | 1,410 |
| | Risk_importence | ,346 | ,067 | ,282 | 5,171 | ,000 | ,702 | 1,423 |
| | Probability_error | ,481 | ,054 | ,448 | 8,959 | ,000 | ,835 | 1,197 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Interest | Pleasure | Sign | Risk_importence | Probability_error |
| 1 | 1 | 5,346 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,01 | ,01 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | ,273 | 4,424 | ,01 | ,00 | ,33 | ,08 | ,02 | ,19 |
| | 3 | ,171 | 5,596 | ,03 | ,07 | ,07 | ,65 | ,01 | ,10 |
| | 4 | ,112 | 6,901 | ,01 | ,05 | ,48 | ,22 | ,06 | ,57 |
| | 5 | ,055 | 9,892 | ,32 | ,09 | ,09 | ,04 | ,86 | ,01 |
| | 6 | ,043 | 11,121 | ,63 | ,79 | ,03 | ,00 | ,05 | ,12 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 1,4749 | 7,9640 | 4,7169 | 1,31907 | 272 |
| Residual | -4,33755 | 3,66106 | ,00000 | 1,47142 | 272 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,458 | 2,462 | ,000 | 1,000 | 272 |
| Std. Residual | -2,921 | 2,465 | ,000 | ,991 | 272 |

a. Dependent Variable: Information_search

Histogram
Dependent Variable: Information_search

Mean = 2,66E-16
Std. Dev. = 0,991
N = 272
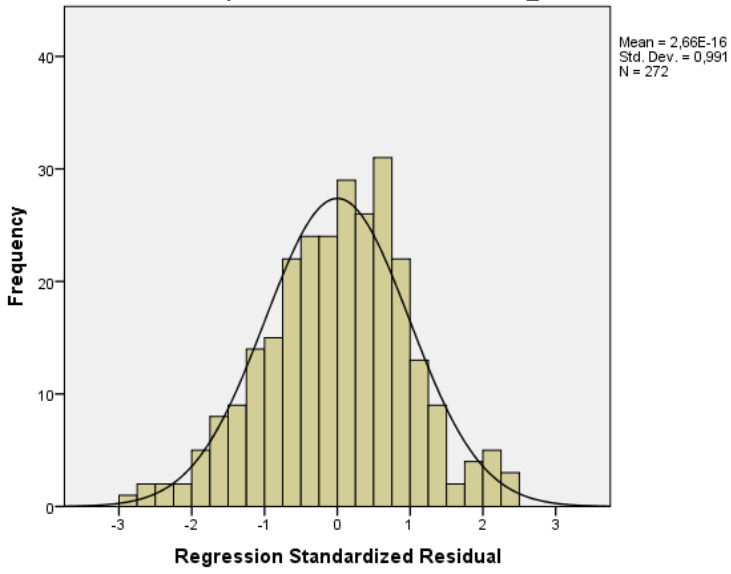


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Information_search
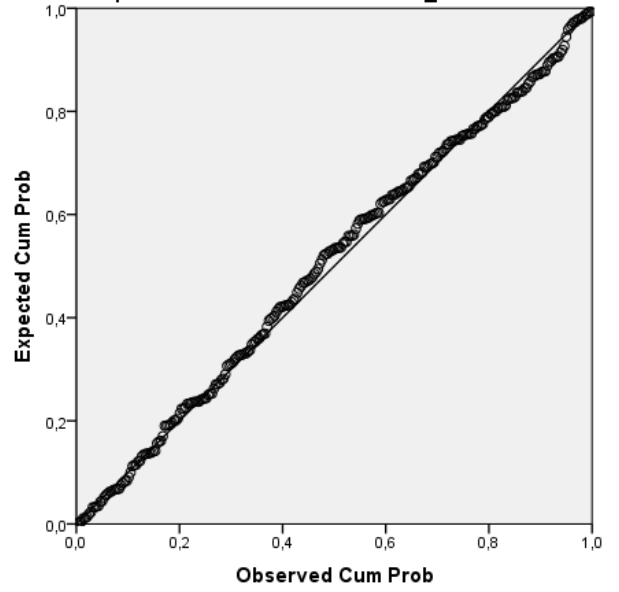
## C2. Involvement - knowledge

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,308[a] | ,095 | ,091 | 1,36314 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

b. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 54,997 | 1 | 54,997 | 29,598 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 525,858 | 283 | 1,858 | | |
| | Total | 580,855 | 284 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

b. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1,907 | ,292 | | 6,539 | ,000 | | |
| | Involvement | ,441 | ,081 | ,308 | 5,440 | ,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Involvement |
| 1 | 1 | 1,961 | 1,000 | ,02 | ,02 |
| | 2 | ,039 | 7,084 | ,98 | ,98 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 2,3487 | 4,5262 | 3,4322 | ,44006 | 285 |
| Residual | -2,77402 | 3,65818 | ,00000 | 1,36074 | 285 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,462 | 2,486 | ,000 | 1,000 | 285 |
| Std. Residual | -2,035 | 2,684 | ,000 | ,998 | 285 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

Histogram
Dependent Variable: Knowledge

Mean = -2,73E-16
Std. Dev. = 0,998
N = 285



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Knowledge
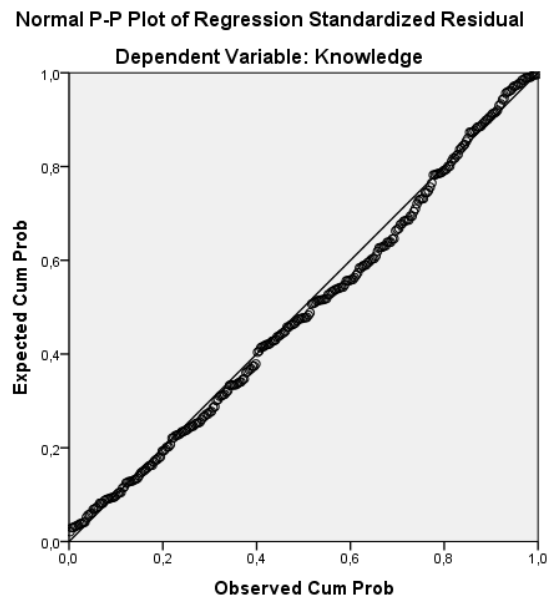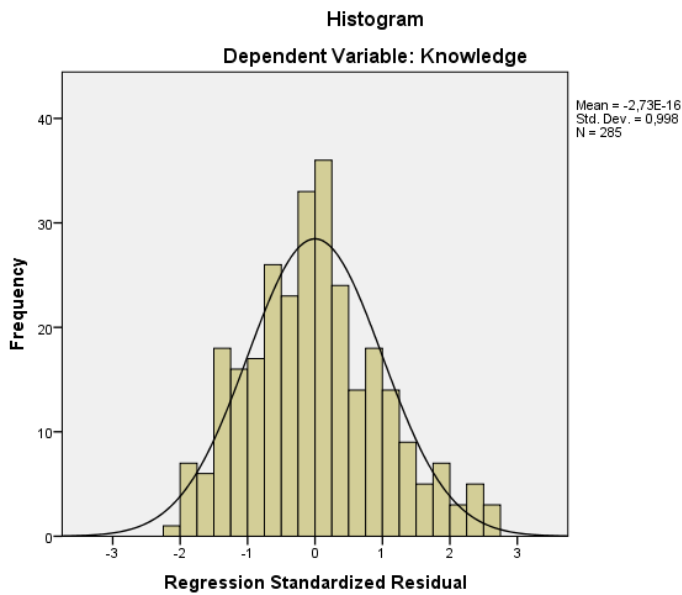
## C2.2 Dimensions - knowledge

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,554[a] | ,307 | ,294 | 1,17281 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

b. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 162,407 | 5 | 32,481 | 23,615 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 367,252 | 267 | 1,375 | | |
| | Total | 529,659 | 272 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

b. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1,469 | ,281 | | 5,236 | ,000 | | |
| | Interest | ,373 | ,059 | ,384 | 6,364 | ,000 | ,715 | 1,399 |
| | Pleasure | ,104 | ,064 | ,099 | 1,613 | ,108 | ,689 | 1,452 |
| | Sign | ,009 | ,056 | ,010 | ,161 | ,873 | ,707 | 1,415 |
| | Risk_importence | ,165 | ,053 | ,190 | 3,117 | ,002 | ,701 | 1,427 |
| | Probability_error | -,182 | ,042 | -,240 | -4,300 | ,000 | ,832 | 1,201 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Interest | Pleasure | Sign | Risk_importe nce | Probability_er ror |
| 1 | 1 | 5,345 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,01 | ,01 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | ,273 | 4,425 | ,01 | ,00 | ,33 | ,08 | ,02 | ,19 |
| | 3 | ,172 | 5,583 | ,03 | ,07 | ,06 | ,64 | ,01 | ,11 |
| | 4 | ,113 | 6,886 | ,01 | ,05 | ,48 | ,23 | ,06 | ,57 |
| | 5 | ,055 | 9,875 | ,32 | ,08 | ,08 | ,04 | ,86 | ,01 |
| | 6 | ,043 | 11,139 | ,64 | ,80 | ,03 | ,00 | ,05 | ,12 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 1,2168 | 5,2736 | 3,4524 | ,77271 | 273 |
| Residual | -2,90328 | 3,28602 | ,00000 | 1,16198 | 273 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,893 | 2,357 | ,000 | 1,000 | 273 |
| Std. Residual | -2,475 | 2,802 | ,000 | ,991 | 273 |

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge

**Histogram**

**Dependent Variable: Knowledge**



Mean = 6,02E-16
Std. Dev. = 0,991
N = 273
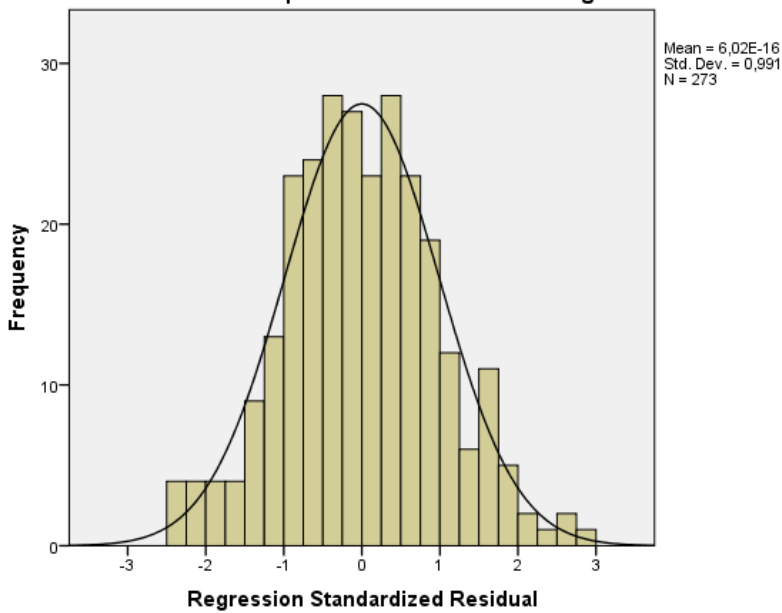
**Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual**

**Dependent Variable: Knowledge**
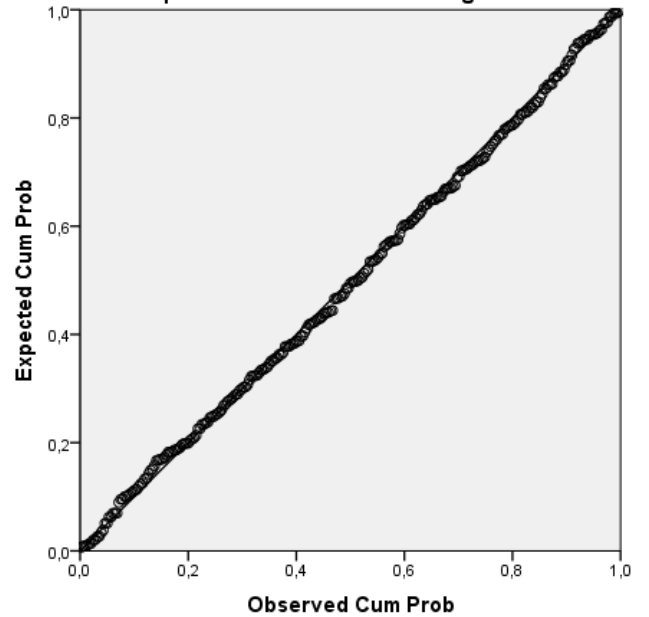
## C3. Involvement - willingness to pay

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,190[a] | ,036 | ,033 | 1,69182 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

b. Dependent Variable: WTP

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 29,510 | 1 | 29,510 | 10,310 | ,001[b] |
| | Residual | 784,258 | 274 | 2,862 | | |
| | Total | 813,768 | 275 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

b. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1,896 | ,367 | | 5,161 | ,000 | | |
| | Involvement | ,329 | ,102 | ,190 | 3,211 | ,001 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Involvement |
| 1 | 1 | 1,961 | 1,000 | ,02 | ,02 |
| | 2 | ,039 | 7,073 | ,98 | ,98 |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 2,2245 | 3,8465 | 3,0290 | ,32758 | 276 |
| Residual | -2,67116 | 4,42481 | ,00000 | 1,68874 | 276 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,456 | 2,496 | ,000 | 1,000 | 276 |
| Std. Residual | -1,579 | 2,615 | ,000 | ,998 | 276 |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

Histogram
Dependent Variable: WTP

Mean = -9,24E-
Std. Dev. = 0,9
N = 276



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: WTP
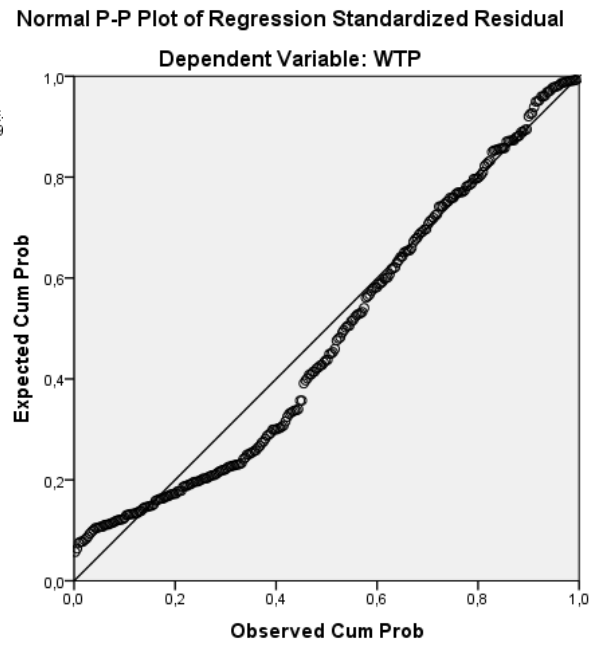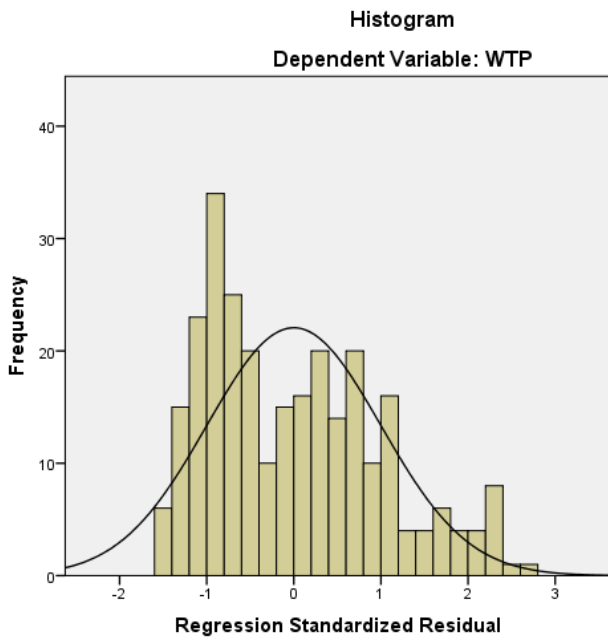
## C3.2 Dimensions - willingness to pay

### Model Summary[b]

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,474[a] | ,224 | ,209 | 1,51480 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Interest, Sign, Risk_importence

b. Dependent Variable: WTP

### ANOVA[a]

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 172,000 | 5 | 34,400 | 14,992 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 594,308 | 259 | 2,295 | | |
| | Total | 766,309 | 264 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

b. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Interest, Sign, Risk_importence

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Interest | Pleasure | Sign | Risk_importe nce | Probability_er ror |
| 1 | 1 | 5,341 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,01 | ,01 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | ,282 | 4,351 | ,01 | ,00 | ,32 | ,08 | ,02 | ,18 |
| | 3 | ,169 | 5,619 | ,03 | ,07 | ,07 | ,66 | ,01 | ,10 |
| | 4 | ,110 | 6,964 | ,01 | ,06 | ,50 | ,22 | ,06 | ,57 |
| | 5 | ,055 | 9,840 | ,33 | ,07 | ,07 | ,03 | ,86 | ,01 |
| | 6 | ,043 | 11,209 | ,62 | ,81 | ,03 | ,00 | ,06 | ,13 |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2,104 | ,368 | | 5,715 | ,000 | | |
| | Interest | ,104 | ,077 | ,087 | 1,352 | ,178 | ,715 | 1,399 |
| | Pleasure | ,102 | ,085 | ,080 | 1,209 | ,228 | ,684 | 1,461 |
| | Sign | ,365 | ,073 | ,326 | 5,009 | ,000 | ,706 | 1,417 |
| | Risk_importence | ,079 | ,070 | ,075 | 1,139 | ,256 | ,690 | 1,449 |
| | Probability_error | -,283 | ,056 | -,304 | -5,031 | ,000 | ,819 | 1,221 |

a. Dependent Variable: WTP



Histogram

Dependent Variable: WTP
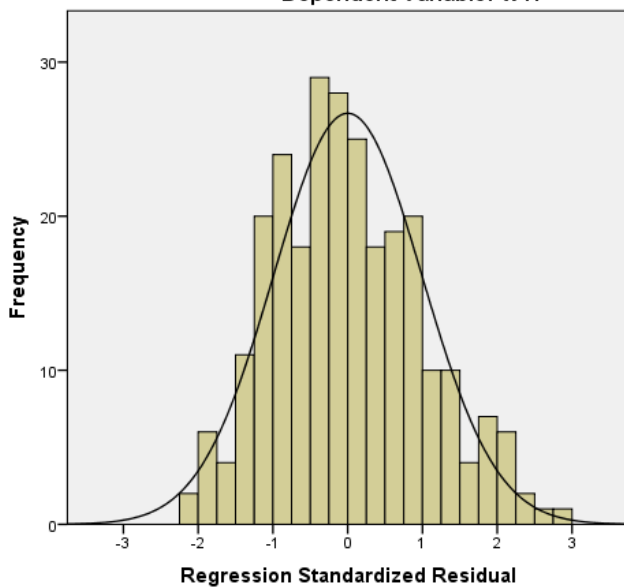


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: WTP

## C4. Involvement - word of mouth

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,386[a] | ,149 | ,146 | 1,67692 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

b. Dependent Variable: WOM

**ANOVA[a]**

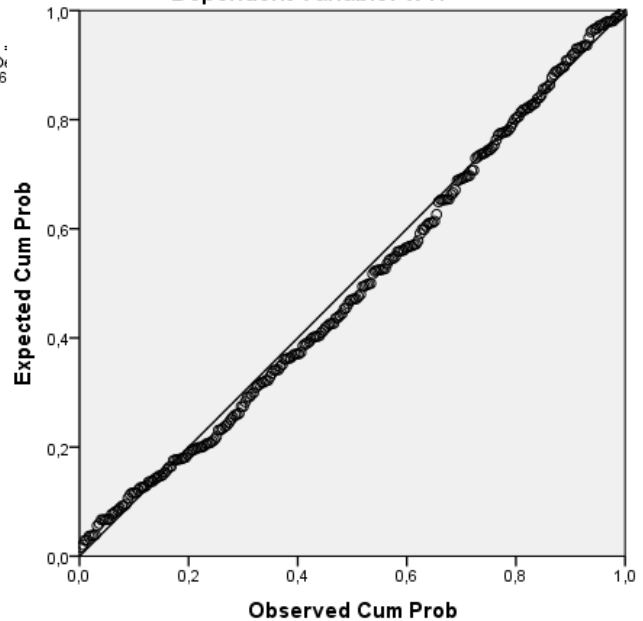| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 136,148 | 1 | 136,148 | 48,415 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 778,944 | 277 | 2,812 | | |
| | Total | 915,092 | 278 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | ,217 | ,361 | | ,603 | ,547 | | |
| | Involvement | ,698 | ,100 | ,386 | 6,958 | ,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Involvement |
| 1 | 1 | 1,960 | 1,000 | ,02 | ,02 |
| | 2 | ,040 | 7,045 | ,98 | ,98 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | ,9153 | 4,3582 | 2,6284 | ,69981 | 279 |
| Residual | -2,73591 | 5,34026 | ,00000 | 1,67391 | 279 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,448 | 2,472 | ,000 | 1,000 | 279 |
| Std. Residual | -1,632 | 3,185 | ,000 | ,998 | 279 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

Histogram
Dependent Variable: WOM

Mean = -3,23E-16
Std. Dev. = 0,998
N = 279



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: WOM
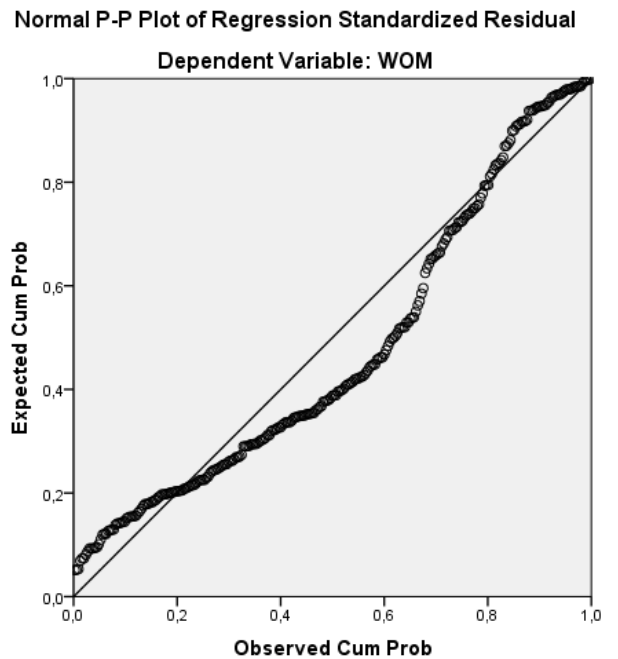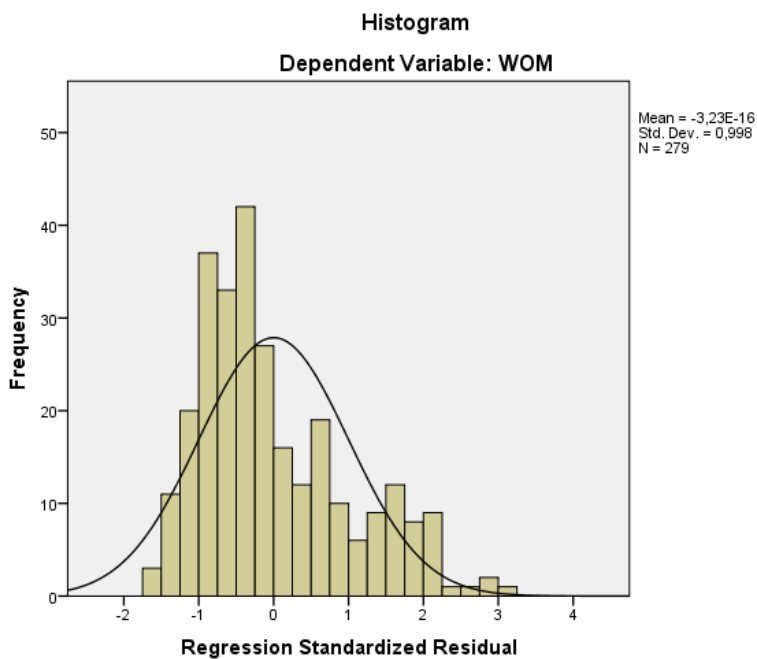
## C4.2 Dimensions - word of mouth

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,463[a] | ,214 | ,199 | 1,62381 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

b. Dependent Variable: WOM

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 189,579 | 5 | 37,916 | 14,380 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 696,105 | 264 | 2,637 | | |
| | Total | 885,685 | 269 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | ,061 | ,389 | | ,156 | ,876 | | |
| | Interest | ,263 | ,081 | ,209 | 3,233 | ,001 | ,713 | 1,402 |
| | Pleasure | ,120 | ,090 | ,088 | 1,337 | ,182 | ,690 | 1,450 |
| | Sign | ,227 | ,077 | ,191 | 2,943 | ,004 | ,708 | 1,412 |
| | Risk_importence | ,206 | ,073 | ,183 | 2,814 | ,005 | ,701 | 1,427 |
| | Probability_error | -,099 | ,059 | -,099 | -1,664 | ,097 | ,834 | 1,200 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Interest | Pleasure | Sign | Risk_importence | Probability_error |
| 1 | 1 | 5,347 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,01 | ,01 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | ,272 | 4,434 | ,01 | ,00 | ,34 | ,08 | ,02 | ,19 |
| | 3 | ,172 | 5,583 | ,03 | ,06 | ,07 | ,65 | ,01 | ,10 |
| | 4 | ,112 | 6,923 | ,01 | ,05 | ,47 | ,22 | ,07 | ,59 |
| | 5 | ,055 | 9,870 | ,33 | ,08 | ,08 | ,04 | ,85 | ,01 |
| | 6 | ,043 | 11,101 | ,62 | ,80 | ,03 | ,00 | ,05 | ,11 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | ,6035 | 5,1996 | 2,6432 | ,83950 | 270 |
| Residual | -3,19965 | 4,93432 | ,00000 | 1,60865 | 270 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,430 | 3,045 | ,000 | 1,000 | 270 |
| Std. Residual | -1,970 | 3,039 | ,000 | ,991 | 270 |

a. Dependent Variable: WOM



Histogram
Dependent Variable: WOM

Mean = -1,82E-17
Std. Dev. = 0,991
N = 270



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: WOM
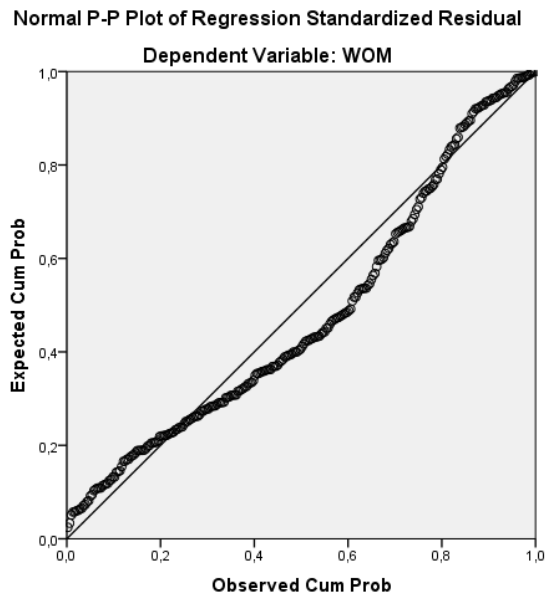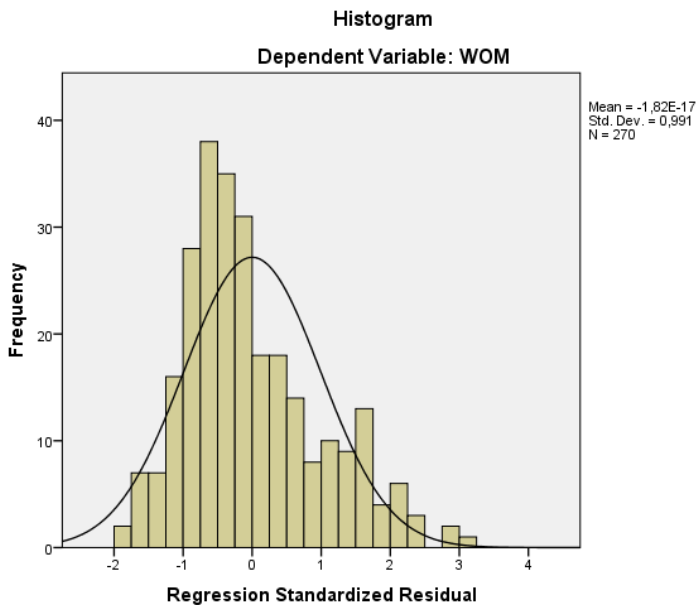
### C5. Involvement - loyalty

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,276[a] | ,076 | ,073 | 1,81386 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

b. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 75,582 | 1 | 75,582 | 22,973 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 914,640 | 278 | 3,290 | | |
| | Total | 990,222 | 279 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

b. Predictors: (Constant), Involvement

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2,126 | ,389 | | 5,464 | ,000 | | |
| | Involvement | ,520 | ,108 | ,276 | 4,793 | ,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Involvement |
| 1 | 1 | 1,960 | 1,000 | ,02 | ,02 |
| | 2 | ,040 | 7,036 | ,98 | ,98 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 2,6454 | 5,2093 | 3,9167 | ,52048 | 280 |
| Residual | -3,93209 | 3,86954 | ,00000 | 1,81060 | 280 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,442 | 2,483 | ,000 | 1,000 | 280 |
| Std. Residual | -2,168 | 2,133 | ,000 | ,998 | 280 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

Histogram
Dependent Variable: Loyalty

Mean = 4,64E-1(
Std. Dev. = 0,99
N = 280



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Loyalty
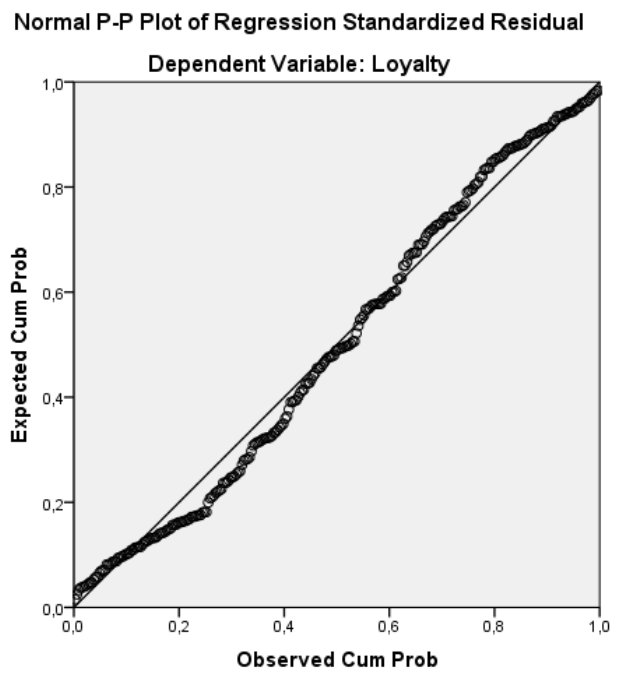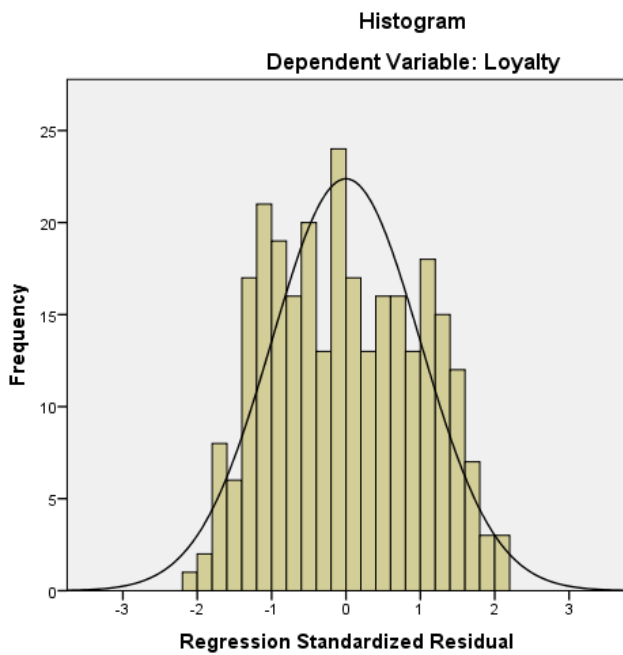
## C5.2 Dimensions - loyalty

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,469[a] | ,220 | ,205 | 1,68119 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

b. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**ANOVA[a]**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 209,728 | 5 | 41,946 | 14,841 | ,000[b] |
| | Residual | 743,343 | 263 | 2,826 | | |
| | Total | 953,071 | 268 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

b. Predictors: (Constant), Probability_error, Pleasure, Risk_importence, Interest, Sign

**Coefficients[a]**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1,624 | ,403 | | 4,030 | ,000 | | |
| | Interest | ,379 | ,084 | ,291 | 4,508 | ,000 | ,712 | 1,405 |
| | Pleasure | -,073 | ,095 | -,051 | -,774 | ,440 | ,674 | 1,485 |
| | Sign | ,238 | ,080 | ,193 | 2,953 | ,003 | ,693 | 1,442 |
| | Risk_importence | ,214 | ,076 | ,183 | 2,804 | ,005 | ,698 | 1,434 |
| | Probability_error | -,225 | ,061 | -,220 | -3,661 | ,000 | ,824 | 1,213 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**Collinearity Diagnostics[a]**

| Model | Dimension | Eigenvalue | Condition Index | Variance Proportions | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (Constant) | Interest | Pleasure | Sign | Risk_importence | Probability_error |
| 1 | 1 | 5,340 | 1,000 | ,00 | ,00 | ,01 | ,01 | ,00 | ,00 |
| | 2 | ,279 | 4,372 | ,01 | ,00 | ,32 | ,08 | ,02 | ,19 |
| | 3 | ,173 | 5,558 | ,03 | ,07 | ,05 | ,62 | ,01 | ,11 |
| | 4 | ,110 | 6,982 | ,01 | ,05 | ,50 | ,25 | ,07 | ,57 |
| | 5 | ,055 | 9,890 | ,33 | ,08 | ,09 | ,04 | ,85 | ,01 |
| | 6 | ,044 | 11,056 | ,62 | ,80 | ,03 | ,00 | ,05 | ,12 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 1,5266 | 6,4260 | 3,9083 | ,88463 | 269 |
| Residual | -5,02493 | 4,71616 | ,00000 | 1,66543 | 269 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2,692 | 2,846 | ,000 | 1,000 | 269 |
| Std. Residual | -2,989 | 2,805 | ,000 | ,991 | 269 |

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty

### Histogram
#### Dependent Variable: Loyalty

### Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
#### Dependent Variable: Loyalty

Mean = 8,29E-16
Std. Dev. = 0,991
N = 269