
Marketing Communications

The Effect of Product Sampling and Product Publicity on Consumers' Intention to Purchase and Engage in Word of Mouth Activity

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Resumé

Effekten af 'product sampling' og 'product publicity' på forbrugeres intention om at købe og snakke med andre forbrugere om et produkt.

Formålet med afhandlingen var at undersøge hvilket af to markedsføringsværktøjer (product sampling og product publicity), der ville have den største effekt på forbrugernes intentioner om at købe (purchase intention) og at snakke med andre forbrugere om et produkt (word of mouth intention).

For en kommerciel virksomhed er en af de vigtigste målsætninger med markedsføring normalt at stimulere købet af produkter eller services, hvorfor 'purchase intention' er et meget vigtigt begreb indenfor marketing.

Nutidens forbrugere lever dog i et samfund, hvor støj og overeksponering fra konkurrerende virksomheders budskaber har gjort dem mere følsomme og skeptiske over for traditionel markedsføring af produkter. Dette presser virksomheder til at finde på nye måder at kommunikere på.

Det har længe været anerkendt, at 'word of mouth' spiller en vigtig rolle, og undersøgelser viser, at 'word of mouth' i dag er en af de vigtigste informationskilder mellem forbrugere, når de skal tage beslutningen om at købe et produkt. Det kunne derfor være nyttigt for virksomheder at inkorporere 'word of mouth' som en del af deres markedsføring.

Forskning indenfor marketing tyder på, at forbrugernes 'purchase intention' så vel som 'word of mouth intention' kan være påvirket af forbrugernes værdiopfattelse af et produkt (perceived value).

Når forbrugere danner 'perceived value', kan det enten være baseret på egne erfaringer med et produkt eller alene på baggrund af information omkring produktet.

Dette var en af årsagerne til, at netop 'product sampling' og 'product publicity' blev valgt som stimuli til afhandlingens undersøgelse.

'Product sampling' indebærer at give et produkt væk gratis, hvor 'product publicity' indebærer at få et produkt nævnt i eksempelvis et magasin.

Forbrugere har en tendens til at købe produkter, de opfatter som havende en høj værdi, hvilket indikerer, at forbrugernes 'purchase intention' vil være højere jo mere værdi de opfatter ved produktet. Forbrugernes 'word of mouth intention' påvirkes på samme måde af deres opfattelse af produktets værdi.

I denne undersøgelse blev de engelske begreber; 'product sampling', 'product publicity', 'perceived value', 'purchase intention', samt 'word of mouth intention' derved fokuspunkter.

På baggrund af teori omkring disse begreber blev der dannet fire hypoteser.

De to første hypoteser var konkurrerende hypoteser, som gik på hvilket af de to markedsføringsværktøjer, 'product sampling' og 'product publicity', der ville have den største effekt på forbrugernes 'perceived value'.

Den tredje hypotese gik på effekten af forbrugernes 'perceived value' på 'purchase intention', og endelig gik den fjerde hypotese på effekten af forbrugernes 'perceived value' på 'word of mouth intention'.

I forsøget på enten at be- eller afkræfte ovenstående hypoteser, er der i denne afhandling blevet foretaget en kvantitativ undersøgelse i to forskellige kontekster. Undersøgelsen bestod af i alt 300 (2x150) respondenter, som efterfølgende modtog et spørgeskema over e-mail.

I den første kontekst modtog respondenterne en prøve på et produkt, og i den anden blev det samme produkt omtalt af en ekspert i et magasin. På baggrund af disse to kontekster var det muligt at foretage en analyse af respondenternes svar.

Data blev analyseret gennem lineær regression, og den første regression viste, at 'product publicity' havde den største indflydelse på forbrugernes 'perceived value'.

Den anden regression viste, at forbrugernes 'perceived value' havde en betydelig indflydelse på deres 'purchase intention'.

Den tredje regression viste, at forbrugernes 'perceived value' havde en betydelig indflydelse på deres 'word of mouth intention'.

Formålet med afhandlingen var som sagt at undersøge hvilket markedsføringsværktøj, 'product sampling' eller 'product publicity', der ville have den største effekt på henholdsvis 'purchase intention' og 'word of mouth intention'.

'Product publicity' havde den største effekt på 'perceived value' og 'perceived value' havde en betydelig indflydelse på henholdsvis 'purchase intention' og 'word of mouth intention'. Det kunne derfor tænkes, at det ligeledes burde være 'product publicity', der skulle have den største effekt på forbrugernes 'purchase intention' samt 'word of mouth intention'.

Reading instructions

>> Important keywords in the text are written in Italics, and include; *product sampling, product publicity, perceived value, purchase intention and word of mouth intention*.

>> References in the text are presented in the following format; authors last name, year of publication, for example (Palmer, 2012).

Where there are 2 or more authors, et al. is used, for example (Dodds et al, 1991).

>> A bibliography containing all of the references can be found in the back of the research study, references are listed in alphabetic order.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This section of the research study includes the reasoning behind the choice of subject, and the research questions to be answered. It also includes the methodology, which introduces the research strategy, the purpose and type of research, the methods used to collect data, and finally the quality of the research.

1.1 Motivation

For a profit oriented company one of the key objectives of marketing communication is usually to stimulate purchase of products or services. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Shimp, 2003) Marketers have regularly used consumers *purchase intention* as a predictor of subsequent purchase (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Schlosser, 2003), and so within marketing *purchase intention* is a very important concept (Morrison, 1979).

According to Dodds et al. (1991) *purchase intention* can be defined as:

“the likelihood of a consumer purchasing a product.”

Today’s consumers are living in an intensively communicating society, where noise and overexposure from competing messages has made the consumers increasingly sensitive and sceptical of traditional marketing communication.

Traditional marketing methods are losing their effectiveness in reaching target audiences. (Hinz et al., 2011; Plummer, 2007; Trusov et al., 2009) Thus when marketers communicate with consumers, trying to gain their attention, they might face a number of challenges.

Due to these communicative challenges, companies need to reassess how they can communicate effectively with consumers when marketing their products. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Wilke, 2012)

Several marketing studies have demonstrated that word of mouth is more persuasive than traditional information sources, and that it is one of the main information sources used by

consumers when forming intentions to purchase. (Godes and Mayzlin, 2004; Herr, et al., 1991; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

Word of mouth can break through the 'noise' of the massive amount of information presented to the consumers everyday (Bughin et al., 2010), and it can play a significant role in influencing consumers' purchase behaviour (Arndt 1967; Brown and Reingen 1987; Chakravarty et al., 2010).

Word of mouth has existed for many years, ever since people began to exchange information (Buttle, 1998; Trusov et al., 2009), and various definitions of the concept have been made.

The definition applied for this thesis is the one by Liu (2006), who characterizes word of mouth as being:

“informal communication among consumers about products and services.”

As times have changed word of mouth has evolved from an unconscious process to something that businesses can try to influence. (Hinz et al., 2011; Plummer, 2007; Trusov et al., 2009) Word of mouth has become of interest to marketers and the term word of mouth marketing has started to appear.

Word of mouth marketing can be described as a term used in the marketing industry relating to the activities that companies undertake, to generate favourable word of mouth about products and services (Webster's Dictionary, 2012) or it can simply be described as, when marketers give consumers a reason to talk about their products or services (Word of Mouth Marketing Association, 2012).

The important role that word of mouth plays has long been recognized and it has been acknowledged as the most important communication source between consumers. (Derbaix and Vanhamme, 2003; Herr, et al., 1991; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012) In fact marketing research has shown that the more favourable information a potential product adopter has received from peers the more likely that individual is to adopt a new product. (Belch and Belch, 2004; Blackwell et al. 2001; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

This is why companies could benefit from increasing their reliance on word of mouth, as a way

of transmitting information about their products and services (Cheema and Kaitaki, 2010; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012).

Marketing research suggests that both *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention* can be influenced by *perceived value* (Dodds et al., 1991; Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Grewal et al., 1998; Sundaram et al., 1998).

Perceived value is an essential result of marketing activities (Patterson and Spreng, 1997), and according to Zeithaml (1988) it can be defined as:

“the consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product, based on perceptions of what is received and what is given.”

When determining the value of a product the marketing literature suggests that consumers can base their perceptions on information gained from experience with a product. However the marketing literature also suggests that perceptions of value can be developed based on information alone without actual experience. (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988)

In attempting to influence the *purchase intention* as well as *word of mouth intention* of consumers, traditional marketing communication efforts are crucial. (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Duhan et al., 1997; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012) As mentioned previously, consumers are becoming sceptical of such communication efforts from companies, however they still need to be informed about the potential value of a product in order for them to either want to purchase a product or engage in word of mouth activity about it. (Hinz et al., 2011; Plummer, 2007; Trusov et al., 2009)

Product sampling and *product publicity* are two promotional tools that are perceived as being more credible information sources of consumers than for instance, advertising. (Lindberg, 2010; McGuinness et al., 1992; Shimp, 2003; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

Product sampling can be defined as:

“a consumer sales promotion technique in which a regular or specially sized quantity of the product is given away without cost to prospective purchasers”.

(American Marketing Association, 2012)

Product publicity can be defined as:

“favourable publicity for new, improved, or existing products through such means as news stories, pictures and captions in newspapers and magazines”.

(American Marketing Association, 2012)

Both *product sampling* and *product publicity* can be very effective in influencing consumers' perception of a product (Belch and Belch, 2012; Palmer, 2012; Shimp, 2003).

However to the best of our knowledge no previous research has investigated the effect of these two promotional tools on *perceived value* and the intention to purchase and engage in word of mouth activity. That is the intention of this research study.

1.2 Research question

In this research study both *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention* will be investigated, as behaviours resulting from marketing communication.

Product sampling and *product publicity* were the promotional tools chosen to stimulate these behavioural intentions.

Therefore the overall research question proposed is:

Which of the two promotional tools has the greatest effect on consumers' behavioural intentions? Specifically word of mouth intention and purchase intention.

To guide the route of the research three sub-questions have been formulated as a framework for answering the overall research question.

When consumers interpret communication about products or services, they are likely to form certain perceptions of value based on information transmitted from marketers. These perceptions can help determine the future behaviours of the consumers. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

When attempting to stimulate consumers' intentions it can thus be very beneficial for marketers to know what a consumer relies on within marketing communication and through which promotional tools *perceived value* is most successfully influenced.

Thus the first sub-question proposed, is:

- 1. Which of the two promotional tools, product sampling and product publicity, has the greatest effect on consumers' perceived value?*

Purchase intention is usually the primary behaviour sought from marketing communication. That is the reason it is one of the behavioural intentions investigated in this research study. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Shimp, 2003)

Perceived value is known to influence *purchase intention*. (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998)

Thus the second sub-question proposed, is:

- 2. What effect does perceived value have on consumers' purchase intention?*

In unifying the framework for answering the overall research question the last area to be examined is word of mouth.

Perceived value has been suggested to have an influence on *word of mouth intention*. (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Sundaram et al., 1998)

Thus the third sub-question proposed, is:

3. What effect does perceived value have on consumers' word of mouth intention?

This research study will attempt to answer the questions listed above by the use of theory as well as empirical data.

1.3 Methodology

This section gives an overview of the chosen structure of this research study.

The structure should be seen as a process. The information acquired at each step is then used to inform the next step in the process.

The structure has been divided into 8 different phases:



Figure 1. The structure of the research study. Developed by the authors.

1. Introduction: The approaches made for the study are defined and research questions formulated.

2. Theoretical framework: The relevant theory is defined and explained.

3. Hypotheses development: Hypotheses are formulated based on the theoretical framework.
4. Research design: The chosen research method is described.
5. Results: Data is processed and analyzed.
6. Discussion: Results are discussed and explanations sought.
7. Conclusions and managerial implications: Conclusions are drawn in response to the research questions and hypotheses, and implications for marketers in general are considered.
8. Perspectives: Perspectives on the research study are given.

1.3.1 Research strategy

This section of the research study aims to explain the choice of research strategy employed. It considers the possible approaches and gives reasons why they have either been accepted or rejected.

For this study the positivist paradigm was selected. This paradigm is characterized by a 'scientific' study that establishes 'causal laws' which enables the prediction and explanation of certain marketing phenomena. These 'causal laws' demand reliable information or 'facts', leading to a focus on objectivity, rigour and measurement.

The interpretivist paradigm was rejected as it is deemed too subjective and biased for this study and more appropriate for qualitative research (Malhotra and Birks, 2012).

As positivist researchers we seek legitimacy through the deductive approach to reasoning. This approach is based on an established theoretical framework and the identification of specific constructs. First hypotheses are proposed and tested. Then either verification or modification

of existing theory is made if necessary. (Andersen, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2012)

The inductive approach was not selected, as it is more appropriate for an interpretivist research approach. (Anderson, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2012).

When developing hypotheses you can distinguish between a directional hypothesis and a non-directional hypothesis.

A directional hypothesis indicates the specific direction (such as higher, lower, more, less) that a researcher expects to find in a relationship. The particular direction expected is based on what the researcher has found in the literature, from personal experience, or from the experience of others.

For this research study directional hypotheses have been developed.

The use of non-directional hypotheses was not selected, as they do not offer a specific prediction of which direction the outcome of a study will take. Such hypotheses are more appropriate if a researcher merely suspects that a relationship exists, without a basis for predicting the direction of the relationship. (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2006)

1.3.2 Research purpose

According to Malhotra and Birks (2012) the overall research can be categorized as being either exploratory or conclusive.

The objective of conclusive research is to describe specific phenomena, to test specific hypotheses and to examine specific relationships.

This research study seeks to test hypotheses by attempting to stimulate certain consumer behaviour. Conclusive research has therefore been employed, and the exploratory rejected, as it is more appropriate for providing insights into and understanding of certain marketing phenomena.

Conclusive design can be further sub-categorized into either a descriptive or causal process.

The causal process is used to obtain evidence of cause-and-effect relationships.

As mentioned previously, this study seeks to test different hypotheses. Within these hypotheses, an understanding of the relationship between and effect of certain constructs is sought. Consequently the causal research process was chosen, the descriptive process was rejected, as its main objective is merely to describe something. (Malhotra and Birks, 2012)

1.3.3 Research type

This section covers the research type chosen for this study.

There are two different types of research; quantitative and qualitative.

According to Rasmussen et al. (2006) the main aim of quantitative study is generalization, which allows the researcher to draw conclusions from a small part of a larger group that will apply to the whole group. While quantitative research is mostly based on numerical data, qualitative research is characterized by being non-numerical. This means that instead of focusing on quantities and the counting of data the focus is on the meaning behind the data (Rasmussen et al., 2006).

The purpose of this research study is conclusive/causal in nature and to be able to draw conclusions it requires numerical data. Therefore the quantitative research type has been selected. In addition this complements the positivist paradigm of research.

As qualitative research is mostly appropriate for exploratory studies, or for studies where going into depth is important (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Malhotra and Birks, 2012), we consider this type of research as being less appropriate for this study.

1.3.4 Data collection

The empirical collection can be categorized into either primary data or secondary data.

Primary data is data collected by the researcher specifically for the purpose of addressing the research problem at hand.

Secondary data on the other hand is data that have already been collected for other reasons. (Andersen, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2012)

For this research study a questionnaire survey has been chosen. This is the most frequently used method within quantitative research.

Primary data was collected by means of a structured and standardized questionnaire.

According to Andersen (2005) the degree of structure refers to; the extent to which the topics of the questionnaire are dependent on the situation, as well as the order of the questions.

The degree of standardization refers to; the extent to which the respondents are all subjected to the same situation, i.e. the same order of questions under the same circumstances. It also refers to whether the questions asked are open or closed questions. (Andersen, 2005),

The questionnaire was equipped with a 7-points Likert scale, for the respondents to answer. (Malhotra and Birks, 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2006)

The quantitative questionnaire method has several advantages. First of all the questionnaire is relatively simple to administer. The data obtained is consistent because the responses are limited to an answering scale, reducing the chances of unusable answers. And the coding, analysis and interpretation is also relatively simple.

A disadvantage might be that when using e-mail as the distributing method, there is no control over the environment in which the respondents chose to answer the questions. They might be distracted by something while answering, possibly affecting their response. Also they may be either unwilling or unable to answer some of the questions. (Malhotra and Birks, 2012)

Secondary data is also used for this study in the form of peer reviewed articles, books, as well as websites and contributions from an expert within the word of mouth concept.

By using a range of different journals and different authors, this study has strived to avoid the danger of being subject to one particular viewpoint.

1.3.5 Quality of research

When conducting research it is crucial to ensure that the data outcome is both valid and reliable. This section aims to prove the validity and reliability of this research study.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2012) validity refers to; the extent to which a measurement represents characteristics that exists in the topic under investigation.

This is in agreement with Andersen (2005), who notes that it is important to have an overall coherence between the theoretical constructs and the empirical variables of the research. He also notes the importance of ensuring that these constructs and variables are relevant to the chosen research questions.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2012) reliability refers to; the extent to which a measurement reproduces consistent results if the process of measurement was to be repeated.

This is also supported by Andersen (2005) who refers to reliability as how secure and precise the measurements are, and to which extent they are due to chance.

The main source of theory used for this research study has been peer reviewed, scientific articles.

The theoretical constructs, as well as the empirical variables chosen for the questionnaire have all been defined by means of these articles, in order to ensure the overall validity of the research study. The choice of variables is elaborated further in the research design section.

To ensure the reliability of the questionnaire content, the items of the questionnaire were all derived from previous studies, and adopted or adapted to this study.

In addition the questionnaire was tested within private networks, prior to the main research which according to Malhotra and Birks (2012), Andersen (2005) and Rasmussen (2006), can help to reveal any errors in formulation as well as to show if the questionnaire is working as intended.

The goal is to keep errors and bias at a minimum, by constructing the questionnaire by using previously tested questions, the subjectivity and bias of the researcher was minimized.

In addition the respondents were not subject to interference from the interviewer, as they were answering the questionnaires by email. (Malhotra and Birks, 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2006)

The respondents' answers were collected by means of a 7-point Likert scale, mainly anchored by 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The 7-point Likert scale could be criticised for allowing the respondents a neutral choice, which could lead to an answering of the questionnaire without really assessing the statement. However, assuming that the respondents may actually have a neutral attitude, requiring a 'no – opinion' category and that a 'forced' scale might influence the accuracy of the data collected, the 7-point Likert scale was adopted. (Malhotra and Birks, 2012)

In addition a benefit of using this scale could be that the multiplicity of the 7 choices of attitudes limits the occurrence of imprecise answers, as the participants are allowed to answer more specifically, and are not forced to choose sides.

Having the research results reviewed by a person of authority has further ensured the reliability of this study. (Appendix B)

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section of the research study offers an overview of the theoretical framework upon which the hypotheses were formulated. The framework starts with an overview of marketing communication and the importance of influencing the consumer in the right way. It also presents a review of the constructs; Product sampling, product publicity, perceived value, purchase intention and word of mouth intention.

2.1 Marketing communications

Marketing communications can be defined as:

“the promotional tools that communicate information about a company and its products to a certain target market.” (Shimp, 2003; Odunlami and Ofoegbu, 2011)

In earlier years, companies primarily marketed their products by using mass communication, TV, print and radio, dominated marketing communication. (Belch and Belch, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Marketing communications has traditionally focused on capturing the attention of consumers in order to influence them in the direction of a given behaviour. (Vasudeva, 2000)

Initially companies believed communication messages were totally controlled by marketers, but gradually most companies come to realise that this is not necessarily the case, as the receivers of the messages actually play a great part in communication as well.

This realization of communication not being entirely one way oriented, led to the identification of the so-called opinion leaders who could influence other consumers on behalf of the companies.

Today however communication is not just limited to the opinion leaders. Companies are trying to create communication of such an interest to the receivers that they will actually engage other consumers in that same communication. Companies are still considering opinion leaders in their communication strategies, but they have also realized that everybody else

communicates as well.

Today the receivers of marketing messages are not just seen as someone to communicate with but also someone to communicate through. (Kotler and Armstrong; 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Marketing communications has therefore developed from being a one-way communication from companies to a two-way dialogue between companies and consumers.

In addition with the evolution of the Internet the opportunity for companies to engage in dialogues with their target audience has increased. (Dongyoung, 2009; Sun et. al., 2006)

2.1.1 The communication process

Within marketing, the communication process is often a very complex issue. Its effectiveness depends on such factors as the nature of the message, the receivers' interpretation of the message and the environment in which the message is received. How the receiver perceives the sender of the message, and which channel is used to transmit the message may also affect the outcome of communication. (Belch and Belch, 2012)

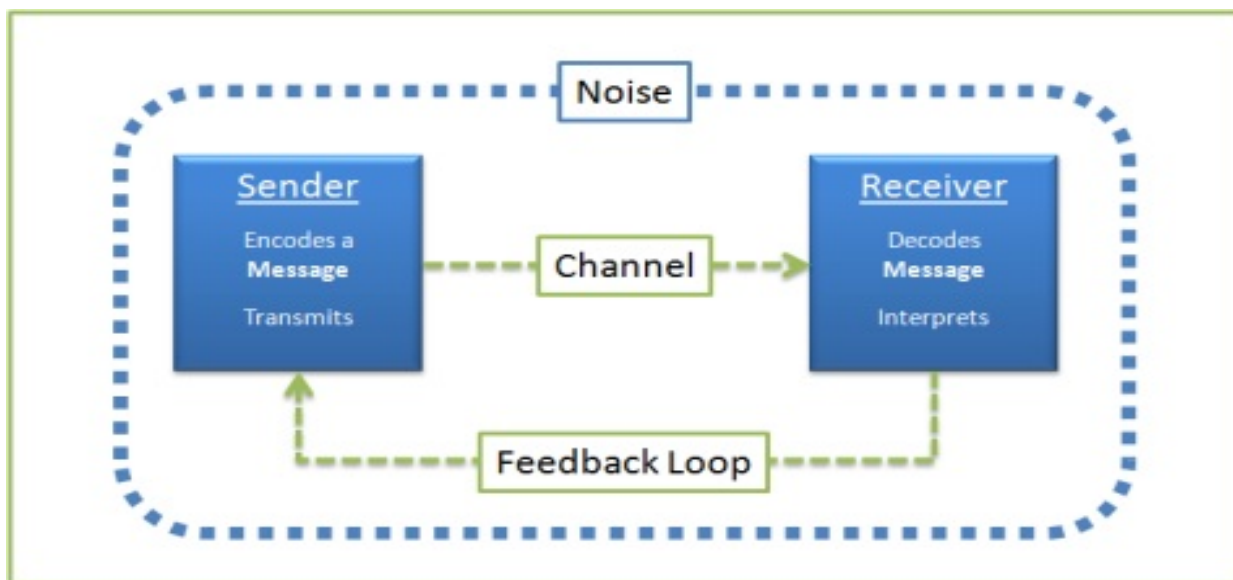


Figure 2. A Model of the Communication Process. Adopted from Belch and Belch, 2012.

All communication has a source from which information gets sent. Within marketing this is usually the marketer of a product. From this source an encoded message is sent out into the market, trying to reach certain targets via a selected channel.

The diffusion of information about products constitutes an important part of the overall marketing communication strategy. Once a company knows and understands their target market they need to select the appropriate promotional tools to be used in communicating with it, in order to achieve certain marketing objectives. (Belch and Belch, 2012)

Usually the main objective of any marketing communication strategy is to increase sales. Whether it is when introducing a new product or trying to increase consumption of an existing one, awareness is crucial. Awareness is the starting point of any interaction between consumers and a company, consequently a significant amount of marketing efforts is aimed at making the consumers aware. (Shimp, 2003; Odunlami and Ofoegbu, 2011)

When attempting to spread information about a product to consumers, marketers have a large arsenal of promotional tools from which to draw. (Odunlami and Ofoegbu, 2011; Shimp, 2003) They all seek to do one thing, which is to place information for decoding in the minds of the receivers, hopefully influencing purchase behaviour. However the messages sent could be interrupted by 'noise' in the environment, which might influence the interpretation, initially intended. (Belch and Belch, 2012)

Marketing communications is only effective when the meaning a marketing communicator intends to convey matches what the receivers actually extract from the message, and when they are able to comprehend the certain stimuli.

Comprehension is often used interchangeably with perception. Because people respond to their perceptions of the world and not to the world as it actually is, perception is one of the most important areas in marketing communications. (Belch and Belch, 2012; Shimp, 2003)

2.1.2 Consumer scepticism

The overall purpose of any marketing effort is to communicate with consumers and to influence them in their decision-making. It involves reaching consumers in order to provide them with

information on a product's existence, its attributes and which needs it satisfies (Vasudeva, 2000).

However due to the enormous amount of information accessible today, consumers feel so overloaded that they are becoming sceptical of, and insensible to, traditional advertising and marketing generated by the companies.

They actively avoid traditional marketing instruments (Hinz et al., 2011; Plummer, 2007; Trusov et al., 2009), and the decision-making process is now more and more controlled by consumers themselves and people they trust. In fact much of the information consumers take into account when making decisions is not controlled directly by marketers. Marketers do everything they can to try to influence consumers, but more often they make their purchasing decisions without the influence of what companies tell them (Belch and Belch, 2012; Bughin et al., 2010; Varey, 2002).

Many marketers have begun a shift in strategy from expensive above-the-line mass media to below-the-line marketing activities (Hinz et al. 2011). They have noticed that advertising alone does not seem to be enough to get consumers to take action, and the scepticism of the consumer has added to the pressure on the marketers to find other ways of gaining competitive advantage, when marketing their products (Keller, 2007; Mazzerol et al., 2007).

Considering the reduction in consumer trust of traditional marketing activities and the fact that consumers have always valued opinions expressed directly to them (Bughin et al., 2010; Wilke, 2012), word of mouth could represent such an advantage.

Word of mouth has a great influence on consumers' behaviour (Mazzerol et al., 2007), and they rely more and more on the opinion of others, when seeking information (Hinz et al., 2011).

Word of mouth is considered a more credible mean of persuasion, as the communicator is not seen as having a vested interest in selling whatever is being communicated (Arndt, 1967), and it can break through the 'noise' of the massive amount of information presented to the consumer everyday (Bughin et al., 2010).

As traditional marketing has become less effective, social interaction between consumers has gained an important part in the flow of information about products. However, as consumers

need information before they can share it, traditional marketing methods still have a part to play in the spread of information. (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Duhan et al., 1997; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

2.2 Promotional tools

When marketers communicate information about products, they have to choose a promotion mix. The promotion mix comprises those activities and channels that a company uses to promote its products and its corporate image to customers, potential customers, and key stakeholder groups. (Palmer, 2012)

Marketers have five main tools to draw on when promoting their products; namely advertising, personal selling, direct marketing, sales promotion and public relations (Palmer, 2012; Shimp, 2003).



Figure 3. The main promotional tools. Developed by the authors.

Advertising: it can be described as the placement of persuasive messages in time or space purchased in any of the mass media. Advertising can be used by companies, non-profit

organizations, or government agencies that seeks to persuade a particular audience about their products, services or ideas. (American Marketing Association, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Personal selling: it can be described as communication that involves face-to-face interaction with customers, with a view to achieving sale. (American Marketing Association, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Direct marketing: it can be described as direct communication between a seller and individual customers using a promotion method other than face-to-face selling. (American Marketing Association, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Sales promotion: it can be described as marketing pressure applied for a predetermined period of time at the level of consumer, retailer or wholesaler in order to stimulate purchase, increase consumer demand or improve product availability. (American Marketing Association, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Public relations: it can be described as an organizational activity involved with fostering goodwill between a company and its various publics such as consumers, suppliers or other stakeholders. (American Marketing Association, 2012; Palmer, 2012)

Consumer sales promotion and consumer public relations have been chosen as the promotional tools to be investigated in this research study.

Consumer sales promotion has been chosen in the form of *product sampling*, and consumer public relations in the form of *product publicity*.

Product sampling involves giving away standard or trial-sized samples of a product for free.

Product publicity involves having a product or brand mentioned in an editorial setting in for example a magazine. (Lindberg, 2010; Shimp, 2003; Palmer, 2012)

Product sampling and *product publicity* have been chosen for this research study, as they are perceived as credible sources of information gathering. (Lindberg, 2010; McGuinness et al.,

1992; Shimp, 2003; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

Information learned from *product sampling* does not generally arouse the scepticism that accompanies the information assembled from other sources, because it offers product experience. (Kempf and Smith, 1998) Public relations messages, such as *product publicity*, are usually regarded as coming from an impartial source with no commercial motive (Palmer, 2012). Consumers are thus more likely to be influenced by these tools.

2.2.1 Consumer sales promotion

Consumer sales promotion is one of the most important aspects of marketing (Vasudeva, 2000), and it involves activities that stimulate consumer purchase. Marketing strategies offering direct experience with a product have a positive effect on increasing sales (Ozer, 2005), and throughout the years emphasis on consumer sales promotion has increased (Palmer, 2012; Belch and Belch, 2012).

2.2.1.1 Product sampling

According the American Marketing Association (2012), *product sampling* is defined as:

“a consumer sales promotion technique in which a regular or specially sized quantity of the product is given away without cost to prospective purchasers.”

Product sampling is used to gain attention for a product, the purpose of which is to acquaint the consumers with a product so that they are able to try it before purchasing it. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Palmer, 2004; Shimp, 2003)

The effect of *product sampling* can either be immediate in the form of sales or it can be a long-term effect in the form of goodwill as the consumer learns about the certain product. (Kotler and Armstrong; 2012; Shimp, 2003; Vasudeva, 2000). Even if consumers exposed to *product sampling* do not immediately purchase the product they can be influenced in such a way that it will have an influence on their long-term behaviour. (Heiman et al., 2001)

Product sampling is very effective when introducing or relaunching a product, and it is generally preferred over advertising. However using this tool can be very expensive on a cost per capita reached (Smith and Swinyard, 1983), and the losses can be large if consumers are not targeted accurately (Jain et al. 1995; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012), as the message sent might not be received by the intended audience (Vasudeva, 2000).

In fact the ability of *product sampling* to reach a specific audience has been questioned due to problems with the wastage of products, making it a very expensive tool. However *product sampling* is still a very powerful tool, because consumers are directly exposed to the product (Belch and Belch, 2012). It can be used to persuade consumers to try a new product, and it can be effective in enabling consumers to directly experience in a way that would not be possible via advertising alone. This could for instance be relevant if the product is cheaper than competitors but still has the same quality. (Shimp, 2003)

Consumers find *product sampling* a credible source of information, and it can improve awareness and help define perception of a product.

In addition *product sampling* offers personal experience with a product, which should have more impact on evaluation than if no product experience exists. (Wright and Lynch, 1995)

2.2.1.2 Personal experience

Studies show that consumers evaluate an object more favourably merely because they have experienced it. (Beggen, 1992; Mantel and Kardes , 1999)

When information is obtained from direct experience it has a greater impact on consumers than when obtained from indirect sources (Smith and Swinyard, 1983; Wright and Lynch, 1995). Studies show that consumers respond differently to *product sampling* than they do to advertising. This is because consumers are aware of the fact that advertisers do all they can to present their brands and products in the most positive way. (Kempf and Smith, 1998; Smith and Swinyard, 1983) With *product sampling* however information will be available to the consumer before a given purchase, and consumers are given the opportunity to learn about the product before making the choice of purchasing it (Ozer, 2005).

Generally, when consumers themselves have experienced the product they form stronger beliefs and attitudes about the product and brand. (Kempf and Smith, 1998; Smith and Swinyard, 1983) Therefore past experience with products can play an important role in determining consumer perception (Shimp, 2003).

Personal experience with products, unlike information delivered by other parties, has a fresh, vivid, straightforward realism that draws the consumer in. However product experience often provides only ambiguous information from which to make a good decision (Brown and Carpenter, 2000; Hoch, 2002).

According to Hoch (2002) most experiences bring a certain level of ambiguity. He believes that personal experience is overrated, and that people are not adept at recognizing the diagnosticity of their consumption experiences.

2.2.2 Consumer public relations

Consumer public relations are growing in importance as a promotional tool, and the tool is an essential component for helping marketers meet their objectives. However public relations are also the least understood of all the promotional options available. (Shimp, 2003)

Consumer public relations are often just thought of as dealing with press releases and responding to questions from the news media. In reality though they can be a powerful method of cutting through all the clutter of the countless promotional messages flooding the consumers every day. (Palmer, 2012)

2.2.2.1 Product publicity

According to the American Marketing Association (2012), *product publicity* is defined as:

“favourable publicity for new, improved, or existing products through such means as news stories, pictures and captions in newspapers and magazines”.

Publicity is communication to a mass audience, but unlike with advertising the company does not pay for time or space in the media. The most important role of publicity is within the area of product introductions or product revisions. (Shimp, 2003; Palmer, 2012; Watson, 2012)

Product publicity usually takes the form of news items or editorial comments about a product. This publicity receives free print space because media representatives consider the information pertinent and newsworthy for their audiences. (Odunlami and Ofoegbu, 2011; Shimp, 2003)

Compared to other types of promotion publicity allows for a much cheaper cost per capita reached, which is one of the great advantages of using this tool. (Palmer, 2012; Watson, 2012)

Another advantage is that besides giving a product additional exposure, *product publicity* can also give credibility.

Consumers are less likely to question the motivation underlying an editorial-type endorsement. (Shimp, 2003) Thus relying on *product publicity* rather than commercial publicity can enhance the relationship between companies and their target audience, which allows the messages to rise above other promotional methods (Lindberg, 2010).

However, a lot of time may be spent trying to get a product mentioned by an editor in a magazine, without success. Marketers do not have direct control over whether the message is delivered or if it is delivered as envisaged, which is a serious disadvantage of using this tool.

In addition, when relying on this tool there will always be the interference from other products, the so-called 'noise' from competing companies also having their products mentioned. (Palmer, 2012) Aside from this, if the right media vehicle is used and if the right message is sent, this type of promotion can be very effective in allowing for a specialized audience to be targeted (Lindberg, 2010; Palmer, 2012).

One of the primary objectives marketers can fulfil using *product publicity* is to build awareness of a product or brand. Either when introducing a new product or re-launching an existing one. For instance a lot of product reviews for magazines start with a suggestion from a company's public relations department, trying to get an editor to include a product within an industry-focused article. It is a way of generating consumer attention and awareness through a media placement. Whether the placement is a product article or included with other products in a

'round up' article, it can help entice the target audience to try the product. An increase in sales is thus often the result of such articles. (Palmer, 2012; Shimp, 2003)

2.2.2.2 Expert opinion

The opinion of an expert has an important influence within *product publicity*.

Generally people can be divided into two groups; the ones who need advice and the ones capable of giving it. The latter ones are those who possess some kind of expertise within a certain product area. (Wilke, 2012)

Expertise refers to the degree to which an audience feels that the source is an 'expert' who is capable of making correct and valid assertions. The degree of expertise can be evaluated through multiple aspects such as knowledge, experience or skills of the source (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987).

For journalists the main source of expertise is being familiar with the products in question (Chakravarty et al., 2010; West and Broniarczyk, 1998), thus product related experiences are necessary in order to develop an expertise within a certain product area (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Such expertise allows for a person to categorize and judge new products more easily making them more qualified to evaluate products and advise others, via objective product assessments (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007).

Because of their expertise, experts are perceived as more likely to present information that is valid, compelling, or otherwise correct, which is why they should elicit more persuasive messages. Message recipients should be more motivated to attend to, and ultimately be persuaded by, messages from an expert (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Clark et al., 2012).

Before purchasing new products consumers commonly seek quality information (Zhu and Zhang, 2010), and consumers making a decision often turn to experts for advice (Budescu and Rantilla, 2000).

The influence of experts on consumer judgments and product evaluation is substantial because their access to product previews typically makes them one of the first links in the spreading of information about new products (West and Broniarczyk, 1998).

This information from expert sources has also been shown to have an effect on consumers' expectations of products, and the correlation between popular appeal and expert judgments has been proven positive (Holbrook, 1999; Reinstein and Snyder, 2005).

The material presented by experts is not recognized as paid advertising per-se because it usually appears in an editorial setting that makes it seem to have been generated by approval of an editor (Lindberg, 2010; Vasudeva, 2000).

Whereas advertising is always positive about the products they portray, a product review can be critical as well. This is because the source, for instance a magazine, is independent from the given product and the consumers regard such product reviews as more credible.

Whereas consumers may presume that advertisements are biased, they tend to be less critical in the way they perceive information and messages presented as news (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Palmer, 2012). This means that citations of a product in an editorial context, rather than a paid advertisement, give the reader more confidence in the message. (Shiffman and Kanuk, 2007)

The degree to which individuals adopt product reviews can be influenced by the credibility of the source. (Cheung et al., 2009) The characteristics of a communicator can thus enhance the value of information in a message, which has an impact on the receiver's acceptance of a message. (Ohanian, 1990; Pornpitakpan, 2004)

Trustworthiness is seen as one of the major source characteristics that can influence persuasiveness of the information (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Ohanian, 1990; Pornpitakpan, 2004). Rather than being influenced by advertisements the consumers rely on the product information provided by someone they trust, and trustworthiness refers to the audience's confidence that the source provides objective and honest information (Ohanian, 1990; Pornpitakpan, 2004). Thus a product review written by a trustable reviewer normally has a higher impact on the consumers (Li et al., 2010).

2.3 Perceived value

Creating value in the eyes of the consumers has always been the fundamental basis for all marketing activity and marketing researchers are continuously trying to study the concept of *perceived value* in greater depth (Dumond, 2000; Oh, 2003).

2.3.1 Definition of the perceived value construct

Within marketing, value is assessed from a consumer's perspective. It is a subjectively perceived construct, as different consumer segments perceive different values within the same product. (Patterson and Spreng, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988)

According to Zeithaml (1988) *perceived value* is defined as:

“the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given.”

Perceived value can thus be understood as a construct based on the trade off between two parts. One of benefits received by the consumer and another of sacrifices made (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Oh, 2003).

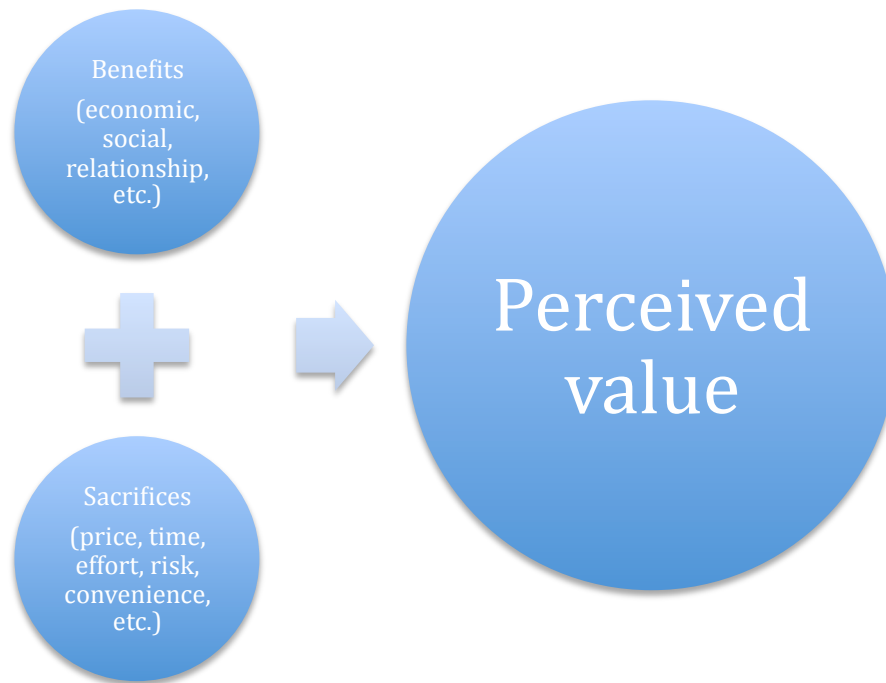


Figure 4. A model of perceived value. Developed by the authors.

Perceived value is said to have its roots in the equity theory, which refers to a consumer's evaluation of what is fair, right or deserved for the perceived cost of the offering.

The perceived costs may include monetary sacrifices as well as nonmonetary sacrifices such as time consumption, energy consumption and stress experienced by consumers.

Perceived value is thus the result of an evaluation of the relative rewards and sacrifices associated with the offering, which the consumers will often compare to the offering of the competitors.

Sacrifices are of prime importance to individuals in forming value perceptions and they value a reduction in sacrifices more than an increase in benefits. (Grewal et al., 1998; Oh, 2003; Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988)

2.3.2 The importance of perceived value

Consumers frequently develop an attitude based on previous experience, which can be described as the development of a like or dislike of a product. However a consumer can also develop an attitude solely based on information without actual experience. (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988)

Within marketing, perception is the individual consumers process of interpreting information about specific products, which has been successful in attaining a level of significance in the consumers mind.

It is impossible for consumers to take in all of the information they are exposed to everyday. Therefore consumers use their selective attention, which tends to screen out most of this information. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

Consumers take the information provided and combine it with other experiences and their existing store of information to evaluate and make judgments regarding this information.

Individuals mainly focuses on information relevant to the task at hand, which means that marketers have to work especially hard to attract consumers' attention. If the receiver of the communication is not in the market for the certain product being promoted, the message of the marketers might be lost. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

In general the more interested the receiver is in the category being presented, the more attention the message will get.

This means that individual consumers might interpret the same message quite differently, and not all marketing communications will be significant for individuals. (Blackwell et al. 2006; Belch and Belch, 2012)

Perception thus entails which stimuli the consumers understand and is a fundamental factor in influencing behaviour. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

When consumers evaluate information about a product they might use a variety of cues referring to specific attributes of the product (Zeithaml, 1988).

Some consumers may be influenced entirely on an overall assessment of value, whereas others base value on a specific cue, such as price. (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Zeithaml, 1988)

According to Zeithaml (1988) these attributes can be divided into two groups, namely intrinsic cues and extrinsic cues.

Intrinsic cues are attributes consumed along with the product, which cannot be changed without changing the nature of the product. Extrinsic cues are attributes related to the product, but not part of the product itself. Where intrinsic cues include such attributes as size, colour, style, etc., extrinsic cues include such attributes as price, brand name, advertising, etc. (Olshavsky, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988)

The attributes of a product clearly play an important role in the consumers forming of value perceptions, however the relative importance of the two groups of cues is dependant on the specific situation.

Intrinsic cues have been shown to be important during consumption of a product or in the pre-purchase stage where consumers actively search for intrinsic attributes. Extrinsic cues have been shown important in pre-purchase situations when intrinsic cues are not available or when the evaluation of intrinsic cues is difficult or time-consuming, because of limited experience with the product. (Zeithaml, 1988)

Perceived value is an essential result of marketing communication and it makes it possible for consumers to compare different values of product opportunities. It allows consumers to compare the ability of different products to satisfy their needs.

Perceived value can thus assist in creating a competitive advantage, as consumers will only purchase products they value. Thus suppliers capable of offering the consumers great value will be stronger in competition with other suppliers. (Groth, 2001; Patterson and Spreng, 1997; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Zeithaml, 1988).

2.4 Purchase intention

Marketers of consumer goods have an understandably strong interest in predicting the purchase behaviour of consumers.

Predicting purchases rests on the stage earlier than actual purchase, and is referred to as 'intention to purchase' (Howard and Sheth, 1969, Kotler and Armstrong, 2012).

2.4.1 Definition of the purchase intention construct

Purchase intention is an important concept in marketing (Morrison, 1979), and according to Dodds et al., (1991) *purchase intention* is defined as:

“the likelihood of a consumer purchasing a product”.

This definition is in agreement with Dodds and Monroe (1985) who argue that *purchase intention* is characterized as a behavioural tendency that the consumer will purchase the product.

According to Ajzen (1991) and the theory of planned behaviour, the main factor predicting an individual's behaviour is the individual's intention to perform a given behaviour.

Intention can be seen as an antecedent of an actual behaviour and an indicator of how hard individuals are willing to try, and an indicator of how much effort individuals are planning to exert in order to engage in a given behaviour. Ajzen (1991) found, the greater the intention to participate in a given behaviour, the greater the probability that the given behaviour will be performed.

The theory of planned behaviour proposes three independent determinants of intention which are; attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

Attitude refers to the extent to which an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a given behaviour. Thus, if an individual expects that a behaviour would result in positive outcomes, the attitude toward performing the behaviour is likely to be favourable.

Subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressure an individual has in performing or not performing the given behaviour, and perceived behavioural control refers to how easy or how difficult it is to perform the behaviour.

The more favourable an individual's attitude and subjective norm, and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger the individual's intention to perform the behaviour. (Ajzen, 1991).

Marketers have regularly used consumers' *purchase intention* to make strategic decisions, both for new products as well as for existing products. Measurements on *purchase intention* are used to pre-test advertising campaigns and evaluate proposed promotions. (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Grewal et al., 1998; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Schlosser, 2003).

When constructing an intention to purchase consumers will usually follow their experience and/or preference, and external environment to collect information, and evaluate alternatives (Dodds et al., 1991; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007; Zeithaml, 1988).

Purchase intention has been proven a critical factor in predicting consumer behaviour and it has been widely used as a predictor of subsequent purchase. (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Hansen, 2005; Thompson and Yon Ding Yeong, 2003).

2.4.2 Consumer decision-making process

An understanding of the elements that impact on a consumer's decision making and the overall process through which consumers behave and ultimately make purchase decisions, is an important stage in any marketing communication plan. (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011)

Several studies have been carried out in the attempt to capture the complexity of the consumer decision-making process. Various explanations of consumer decision-making have been proposed which include the consideration of i.e. emotion, cue utilisation and value perception, among others. Although wide ranging, consumers often use a combination of these elements to inform their decisions.

For instance consumers might want to buy a product simply because of the positive emotion they elicit from the product (emotional perspective), or they may rule out a product simply because of its country of origin (cue utilisation theory). Other consumers might use trade offs to evaluate product alternatives and make a decision (value perspective).

(Hansen, 2005; Thompson and Yon Ding Yeong, 2003)

One of the frequently cited models of consumer decision-making is the ‘five step consumer decision process model’, which views the consumer decision process from a problem solving perspective (Hansen, 2005).

The five steps show the general process whereby consumers make purchase decisions and implement them. Through marketing communication an impact can be made upon any or all of these steps, with varying levels of potential effectiveness.

The five steps of the model are; need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post purchase evaluation (Blackwell et al., 2006; Hansen, 2005; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007; Thompson and Yon Ding Yeong, 2003)

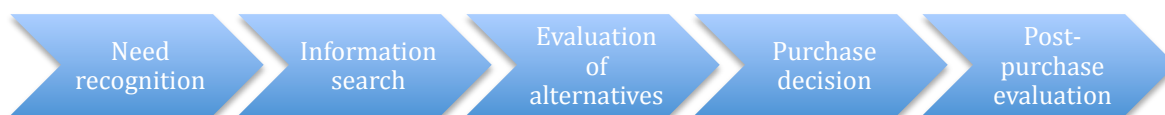


Figure 5. A model of consumer decision-making. Developed by the authors.

Need recognition occurs when there is a perceived difference between an individual’s actual state and some ideal state. Having identified a problem the consumer becomes a prospective buyer who will start to search for information in an attempt to resolve it. (Belch and Belch, 2012; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

When searching for information the consumer usually relies on two major sources of

information: the impersonal sources and the personal sources.

The impersonal sources include information received from television, magazines, the Internet and other mass-media sources, whereas the personal sources include word of mouth influence from family, friends and acquaintances. (Belch and Belch, 2012; Blackwell et al, 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

Generally the consumer receives most information about products from the impersonal sources, those controlled by the marketers, however the most effective and cost efficient sources tend to be the personal ones (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012).

In addition, information from personal sources may be perceived as less biased than communication from impersonal sources (Gatignon and Robertson, 1986).

After searching for information the consumer moves to the evaluation of potential solutions in order to make the optimal choice. This involves matching motives with product attributes, after which they may develop a predisposition to making a purchase. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)



Figure 6. A model of consumer purchase intention. Developed by the authors.

Before the consumer reaches the actual purchase decision though, an intention to purchase will usually be formed from the evaluation of alternatives.

Two factors can intervene between the purchase intention and the actual purchase decision, and these factors include the attitudes of others and unexpected situational factors.

The extent to which another person's attitude reduces/increases one's preferred choice depends on two things; the intensity of the other person's negative/positive attitude toward

the consumer's preferred choice and the consumer's motivation to comply with the other person's wishes. The more intense the other person's negativism/positivism and the closer the other person is to the consumer, the more the consumer will adjust his or her *purchase intention*.

In addition unexpected situational factors can arise to change the *purchase intention*, so preference and even *purchase intention* do not always result in actual purchase. (Chandon et al., 2005; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

After intentions have been formed, the 'five step consumer decision process model' indicates an actual purchase decision after which a post-purchase evaluation will occur, where the consumer assesses whether or not expectations have been met. Beyond influencing consumers' future purchase behaviours, post-purchase evaluations affect other behaviours as well, because discussing ones consumption experiences with others is a common activity. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Hansen, 2005; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

The 'five step consumer decision process model' is thus seen as a process where one step leads to another. However often consumers are likely to make decisions and perform certain behaviours without actually following the exact process of the model. For instance consumers might not engage in a comprehensive search for information, before deciding on a product. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007)

The model has therefore been criticised for being too cognitive in nature, as it has a strong emphasis on the cognitive phenomena, particularly information processing. (Hansen, 2005)

In this research study, *perceived value* has been chosen as the construct to influence purchase intention. *Perceived value* is cognitive in nature, as it is the overall assessment of the utility of a product (Zeithaml, 1988). That is why the model has been found relevant in explaining how consumers are likely to form intentions of purchasing, as consumers might use information to determine the value of a product, and compare it with alternatives.

2.4.3 The effect of perceived value on purchase intention

Perceived value has been found positively associated with *purchase intention*, as consumer *purchase intention* comes from the consumers' perception of benefits and values acquisition. (Doods et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Groth, 2001; Zeithaml, 1988)

Consumers tend to buy products with high *perceived value*, which indicates that the consumers *purchase intention* will be higher the more value they perceive within a product. (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Zeithaml, 1988)

In order to receive something, consumers must expect to use certain resources, economic, time, etc. However because such resources are limited, consumers will try to direct their use to the product they perceive to offer the greatest quality for resources spent. This is the basis of customer preference for high quality for a low price.

However, which value package consumers choose are likely to differ, as some consumers emphasize price over quality, while others will emphasize quality over price. (Zeithaml, 1988)

According to Monroe (2003) the relationship between *perceived value* and choice can be explained in part by the acceptable price range concept. This is a set of prices acceptable to the consumers for a considered purchase. The idea is that some consumers may refrain from purchasing a certain product if they find the given price too high. However they are also likely to be suspicious if the price is too low, as it might make them question the quality of the product. (Cooper, 1996)

Szybillo and Jacoby (1974) also argue that the perception of a product's value will increase as the price increases from below the lower acceptable price limit to some acceptable price within the consumers acceptable price range. But if the price increases beyond the acceptable price range, the perception of the products value would decline.

As such the perception of value directly influences *purchase intention*, as a product with a price considered unacceptable to pay will be perceived as having little or no value, and will not be bought.

2.5 Word of mouth intention

The marketing literature suggests that word of mouth can play a significant role in influencing consumers' purchase behaviour. It also suggests that it may have the most influence among all the sources of information that consumers turn to before making a purchase decision. (Arndt, 1967; Brown and Reingen, 1987; Chakravarty et al., 2010; Derbaix and Vanhamme, 2003).

2.5.1 Definition of the word of mouth construct

One of the earliest researchers into the influence of word of mouth on consumer behaviour was Arndt (1967).

Arndt (1967) defines word of mouth as:

“oral, person-to-person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, regarding a brand, product or service.”

Arndt (1967) characterizes the nature of word of mouth communication as being oral. However this characterisation seems limited to the time period in which the definition was made.

Today word of mouth in written form is increasing in importance, as consumers share their views, preferences and experiences with other consumers on the Internet. (Trusov et al., 2009)

Liu (2006) defines word of mouth as:

“informal communication among consumers about products and services.”

This definition is more neutral to the nature of word of mouth. It does not differentiate between word of mouth as being traditional oral communication or written online communication. It merely states that word of mouth is informal communication. The word of mouth concept as defined by Liu (2006) is applied for this research study.

In addition to the discussion of word of mouth as being oral or written communication, word of

mouth can also be discussed in regards to how narrow a classification of the construct should be.

In the marketing literature there has been debate about whether word of mouth includes an active recommendation or whether it is simply a positive or negative discussion about a product. Some marketing researchers include both aspects in their studies (Brown et al., 2005; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002), others view word of mouth as product-related conversation (Bayus, 1985; Still et al., 1984); while others measure word of mouth through recommendation (Gremler and Brown, 1999; Hartline and Jones, 1996).

In this research study the measurements of the word of mouth construct includes both the intention of giving an actual recommendation, as well as the intention of having a product-related conversation.

According to Anderson (1998) and Herr et al. (1991), word of mouth is typically extremely positive or negative. It can relate to vivid, novel or memorable experiences, and in the case of negative word of mouth, can include complaining behaviour, rumour and product denigration. Word of mouth can be given to one person once, one person several times, to several different people once or several people several times (Mazzerol et al., 2007). This refers to the frequency of word of mouth, which is another important topic in the marketing literature.

Harrison-Walker (2001) developed the two-dimensional construct, which focus on word of mouth activity and word of mouth praise components.

Word of mouth activity refers to the pre-mentioned frequency with which people engage in word of mouth and the number of people with whom they engage.

Word of mouth praise refers to the valence of the word of mouth comments people make to others, whether it is positive or negative.

According to Harrison-Walker (2001), marketers do not only want to promote positive word of mouth, they also want word of mouth communication to take place often, to be informative and to be detailed. The findings by Harrison-Walker (2001) are basically in agreement with other investigations about word of mouth. (Anderson, 1998)

2.5.2 Traditional word of mouth and online word of mouth

Today, word of mouth is no longer restricted to traditional face-to-face communication, and the online environment offers countless new opportunities for companies to influence the behaviour and opinions of consumers. (Dongyoung, 2009)

Figure 7 gives an overview of some of the main differences between traditional and online word of mouth.

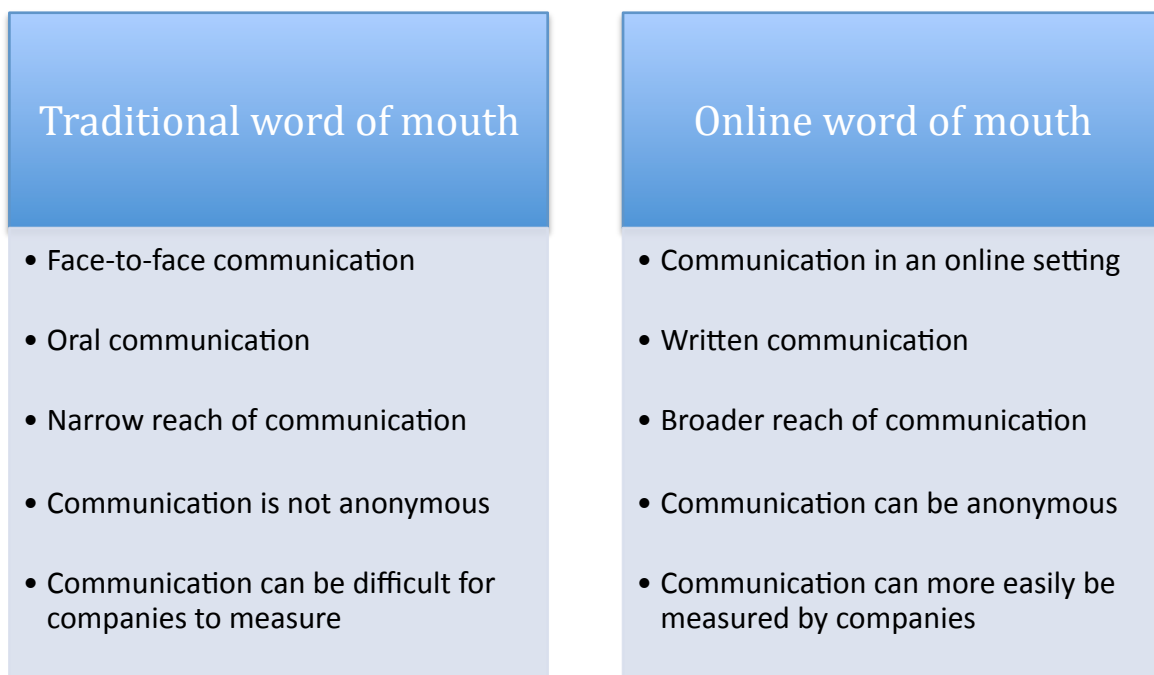


Figure 7. Differences between traditional and online word of mouth. Developed by the authors.

Traditional word of mouth is seen as a process of personal influence, in which interpersonal communications between a sender and a receiver can change the behaviour or attitudes of the receiver. (Merton, 1968)

However this form of interpersonal communication has seen a dramatic increase, because of the vast emerging role of the Internet and online word of mouth.

Whereas traditional word of mouth involves spoken words exchanged with friends, family or acquaintances in a face-to-face situation, online word of mouth involves written words that can

be easily shared with everyone in an online setting and not just friends and family. (Sun et al., 2006)

A widely accepted notion in diffusion literature is the existence of social influence in an attempt to explain why individuals are more likely to engage in word of mouth activity under certain circumstances. (Dongyoung, 2009)

One of the more influential studies within traditional word of mouth has been the strength of ties between sender and receiver in a communication situation.

The idea is that all consumers are connected in networks of interpersonal relationships, which can range from very strong ties to weak ties. Where strong ties refer to frequent and often intimate communication between friends, weak ties refers to rare interactions between casual acquaintances. (Brown and Reingen, 1987)

Both the weak and strong interpersonal relationships have been shown to play key roles in motivating individuals to give word of mouth. (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Duhan et al., 1997)

However in the age of the Internet, word of mouth communication has seen its changes in terms of who individuals communicate with. (Chen and Kirmani, 2011; Kosinetz et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2006)

Because traditional word of mouth involves face-to-face communication between individuals (Arndt, 1967), the message of such communication has a relatively narrow reach. It can potentially reach several receivers, but mostly by passing through other communicators.

Online word of mouth however is likely to diffuse information faster and with a broader reach as a message might be received by a countless amount of individuals. When individuals are communicating on the Internet the message, as originally communicated by the sender, can be forwarded or transmitted by additional individuals. (Kosinetz et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2006)

Today individuals are able to communicate with numerous others through social medias, chat rooms, e-mails, blogs, websites, etc., and it is generally acknowledged, that the Internet allows individuals to be involved in more diverse settings than before. Including both close groups of

family and friends as well as a massive amount of communities consisting of countless anonymous participants. (Dongyoung, 2009)

Accordingly it has become increasingly important to understand how individuals intention to communicate information has changed with the various social settings available online.

Unlike traditional communication the online setting allows individuals to share information about their opinions and preferences, while maintaining a certain degree of anonymity.

Individuals communicating online exhibit less inhibitions and less social anxiety, so they are more likely to reveal honest information about their thoughts.

This is because when consumers are sharing word of mouth, they not only communicate information, but also something about themselves. Individuals communicating face-to-face with someone they know, are thus more exposed to the risk of losing face if making a poor recommendation, so the honesty linked to the online setting is possibly due to the greater amount of anonymity. (Sun et al., 2006)

As Internet usage continues to grow, online word of mouth is becoming a fundamental element of marketing practice, and for marketers a great difference between traditional word of mouth and online word of mouth is the measurability.

Traditional word of mouth has been difficult to observe because of the private nature of the communication. Online word of mouth however is transmitted in written words on the Internet, which makes it easier for companies to observe and measure the communication between consumers. (Godes and Mayzlin, 2004)

It is thus safe to assume that companies' interest in online word of mouth will increase along side the evolution of the Internet, and companies will try to develop a deeper understanding of online word of mouth as well as acquire insights into how to use it. (Dongyoung, 2009)

2.5.3 The importance of word of mouth

The role of individuals in information diffusion has been studied extensively, and marketers

have recognized the importance of word of mouth for more than half a century. However recent developments in word of mouth communication have revived interest in the process of online word of mouth. (Dichter, 1966; Dongyoung, 2009; Kozinets et al., 2010)

Word of mouth has a strong influence on product perception, which has lead to changes in judgments, value ratings and the likelihood of purchase. (Arndt, 1967)

Word of mouth can therefore be of great importance when consumers are buying a product for the first time, and in fact word of mouth has now been identified as the primary reason behind 20 to 50 percent of all purchase decisions. (Bughin et al., 2010)

In addition, with the evolution of the Internet and new informal communication channels it has become more easy to share and obtain information about products, which means that word of mouth has now become more powerful than ever before. (Allsop et al., 2007)

The potential power of word of mouth as a form of promotion has generally been accepted. (Arndt, 1967; Buttle, 1998; Dye, 2000)

However as generally agreed, word of mouth can be a dual-edged sword, as consumers use word of mouth to express both their satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction in products.

While positive word of mouth about products can be a very powerful form of promotion, negative word of mouth can be devastating for a company.

Consumers tend to talk more about the positive aspects of products than the negative, which offers a good opportunity for marketers to influence the *word of mouth intention* of consumers. (Dongyoung, 2009) However it is important to understand that the generation of positive word of mouth does not necessarily result in good communication. Word of mouth is not a homogeneous construct as people differ in how they react to word of mouth, thus in order for the communication to be effective, the recipient also needs to react positively towards it. (Allsop et al., 2007; Dongyoung, 2009)

2.5.4 The effect of perceived value on word of mouth intention

The *perceived value* of a product has been shown to influence consumers' intention to give word of mouth. (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Sundaram et al., 1998)

Sundaram et al. (1998) showed value to trigger *word of mouth intention* through the extrinsic cue, price. They found positive *word of mouth intention* to be the result of for instance purchases of products that were perceived to be reasonably low priced or purchases considered good buys for the money paid. Accordingly, purchases perceived to be priced too high and purchases perceived poor value for the money paid were some of the reasons for the negative *word of mouth intention*.

According to the behavioural model by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) however, cognitive variables should influence the affective, which in turn should influence the conative outcomes.



Figure 8. A model of consumer behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Developed by the authors.

Perceived value is cognitive in nature, as it is the overall assessment of the utility of a product (Zeithaml, 1988).

As such, many researchers have seen *perceived value* to be an important antecedent of satisfaction, which has been shown to affect *word of mouth intention* (Cronin et al., 2000; Dodds et al., 1991).

Satisfaction is more affective in nature, as it represents the overall feeling about a product. (Woodruff, 1997) Thus *perceived value* is often seen as being mediated through satisfaction, creating an indirect effect rather than a direct effect on behaviour.

Eggert and Ulaga (2002) studied both the direct and mediated effect of *perceived value* on *word of mouth intention*, as they proposed two types of conceptual models.

They also conceptualised *perceived value* as a cognitive variable and satisfaction as an affective one, thus expecting them to influence the conative outcomes.

Their first model suggested a mediated relationship between *perceived value*, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Their second model suggested a direct relationship between *perceived value* and behavioural intentions, without satisfaction.

The results for both models indicated that *perceived value* has a strongly positive and significant impact on *word of mouth intention*.

2.6 Additional constructs

The questionnaire allowed for data to be gained on additional constructs, including familiarity and involvement.

As the constructs are not part of the hypotheses developed for this study, they are merely serving as an addition to the general discussion.

2.6.1 Familiarity

Familiarity has long been an important subject in consumer research, and the role of familiarity has been investigated in different contexts, such as processing of information (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987), choice and judgments (Coupey et al., 1998), and in post-purchase responses (Söderlund, 2002).

2.6.1.1 Definition of the familiarity construct

According to Alba and Hutchinson (1987) familiarity is defined as:

“the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer.”

Such product-related experiences may include exposure to advertising, information search, and interactions with salespersons, choice and decision-making, product purchasing and usage in various situations. (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987)

Past research has recognized the importance of familiarity in affecting consumer behaviour (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Coupey et al. 1998; Söderlund, 2002).

Most consumer behaviours can be seen as a series of mental and physical tasks, involving cognitive demands. Such cognitive demands can be referred to as factual knowledge or beliefs that consumers have about products and how that knowledge is organized. The primary reason for such knowledge is for consumers to be able to differentiate various products in ways that are useful for decision-making.

Seeing that knowledge should increase with experience, the amount of cognitive effort required to achieve any particular level of comprehension is likely to be lower for consumers with a high degree of familiarity than for the ones with a lower degree of familiarity. Thus one of the major advantages of product familiarity is a reduction in the cognitive effort spent during consumer decision-making (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987).

Familiar consumers should have an improved ability to remember product information of existing brands and thus a decreased need for information search of alternatives. (Bettman and Park, 1980; Johnson and Russo, 1984) They should also have the ability to elaborate on given information generating accurate knowledge that goes beyond what is given (Johnson and Russo, 1984).

Consumers who are familiar with a certain product category possess superior knowledge about products within this category, including the brands available on the market, the attributes of different products available and how these attributes affect performance. This allows them to easily comprehend, and process information, as well as to categorize the given information with less effort (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Johnson and Russo, 1984).

Thus familiarity should have an effect on consumers' behavioural intentions because consumers with a high degree of familiarity are provided with a different frame of reference for

evaluations compared to consumers with a low degree of familiarity, making them better able to distinguish between respectively good and poor performance of a product. (Bettman and Park, 1980; Söderlund, 2002)

2.6.2 Involvement

Involvement has been extensively researched as a construct used to explain consumer behaviour. Involvement has been measured in different contexts such as product involvement, involvement with advertising and involvement with purchase decision. (Dichter, 1966; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Zaichkowsky, 1985)

2.6.2.1 Definition of the involvement construct

In this research study product involvement is measured and according to Zaichkowsky (1985) product involvement is defined as:

“a person’s perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests.”

The construct of involvement represents personal relevancy and importance to the consumer. Product involvement is the relationship between a consumer and a product and can thus be seen as a consumer’s enduring perceptions of the importance of the product category. (Zaichkowsky, 1986)

The antecedents of involvement are commonly known as three factors; personal factors, product and stimulus related factors, and situational factors. They are all likely to influence an individual’s level of involvement with products, as well as subsequent behaviour. (Zaichkowsky, 1986)

According to Zaichkowsky (1986) the personal factors have to do with an individual’s inherent value system, as well as his or her experiences. These factors are likely to be unique and can

determine whether or not the individual is involved with a certain product.

The product and stimulus related factors have to do with the characteristics of the given stimulus. It can thus relate to differences within media and content of the communication or to differences found in the product categories being promoted.

Finally the situational factors are related to the situation an individual is in, for instance if he or she is in the market for a certain product.

Thus product involvement should have an effect on consumers' behavioural intentions because different consumers might perceive the same product differently and have inherently different levels of involvement with the same product.

3. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This section of the research study presents the hypotheses developed from the given theory of the constructs discussed in the theoretical framework.

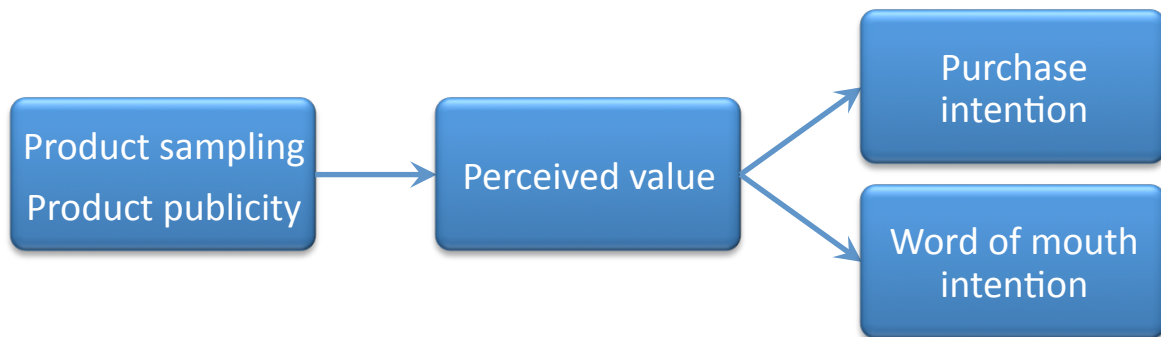


Figure 9. A model of the formulated hypotheses. Developed by the authors.

As the model indicates, the starting point for developing the hypotheses is the relationship between the two promotional tools and the behavioural intentions as mediated by *perceived value*.

To the best of our knowledge no apparent research has studied the impact of either *product sampling* or *product publicity* on *perceived value*. Therefore the overall impression of this relationship has been formed based on marketing theory of influence and perception of messages, as well as consumers' evaluations and judgements of products. (Mantel and Kardes, 1999; Palmer, 2004; Shimp, 2003; West and Broniarczyk, 1998; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

This gathering of theory indicates that both *product sampling* and *product publicity* should influence the consumer and have an impact on how they perceive products, so the following competing hypotheses are proposed:

H₁: The effect of marketing practice on perceived value is greater for product sampling than for product publicity

and

H₂: The effect of marketing practice on perceived value is greater for product publicity than for product sampling

Several researchers have studied the concept of *perceived value*, and it has been deemed an important indicator of behavioural intentions (Cronin et al., 2000; Dodds, et al., 1991) A positive relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention* has been proven (Doods et al., 1991; Grewal et al. 1998; Groth, 2001) and the marketing theory suggests that in the presence of high *perceived value* a higher intention to purchase will also be found, so the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₃: Consumers with a higher perceived value will be more likely to purchase a product than consumers who perceive a product as having a lower perceived value.

Perceived value has been linked positively to *purchase intention*, but only limited research has focused on *perceived value* as a direct mediator of *word of mouth intention* (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002). However the existing marketing theory suggests that there is a link between positive perceptions of products, and intentions to engage in word of mouth activity (Sundaram et al., 1998), therefore the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₄: Consumers with a higher perceived value will be more likely to engage in positive word of mouth activity than consumers who perceive a product as having a lower perceived value.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample products from the company E.L.F. Cosmetics were used to conduct this research study. This section provides information about E.L.F. Cosmetics and the sample product, as well as information about the participants, procedures and measurements of the research.

4.1 Company information

For this research study the role of the case company was to provide products used to carry out the research.

The company being E.L.F. Cosmetics.

E.L.F. Cosmetics is an American brand originally launched in New York City in 2004. E.L.F. Cosmetics produces and sells cosmetic products, and they have a series of categories to choose from. The company targets women between the ages of 19-48. (E.L.F. Cosmetics, 2012)

The mission of the company is to provide their customers with quality products at low prices.

The company produces and sells its products, which are offered at lower cost, but are of similar quality to its competitors.

E.L.F Cosmetics do not have intermediaries. Their products are produced in their own factory, and shipped directly to their storage facility. By purchasing ingredients at competitive prices as well as producing large quantities, they are also able to achieve economies of scale.

E.L.F Cosmetics keep their costs down by only selling their products online, which eliminates the costs of running a physical store. In addition they have a limited communication budget, and they have chosen to disregard advertising in promoting their products. Instead they primarily rely on social media such as Facebook, which allows them to avoid what is usually a very heavy marketing cost. As such they separate themselves from the competition by minimizing their costs, in order to pass on the savings to their customers. (www.elfdanmark.dk)

4.2 Sample product and response stimuli

The sample product chosen for this study was a mineral powder from the mineral makeup category. Within this category E.L.F Cosmetics produces products that are 100% mineral based, with no parabens, no preservatives and no chemical dyes.

The mineral powder is of similar quality and similar design to other offerings on the market.

Penetration pricing is the price strategy employed by E.L.F Cosmetics for this makeup category.

Within the penetration strategy the price set for a product is usually lower than the intended established price. This means that E.L.F Cosmetics have slightly increased their prices since the actual introduction of the products to the market. (E.L.F. Cosmetics, 2012; www.elfdanmark.dk)

However the price charged by E.L.F Cosmetics for a mineral powder is still about 7 times lower than the average market price of such a product.

(www.elfdanmark.dk; www.bareminerals.co.uk; www.janeiredale.dk; www.nilensjord.dk; www.tromborg.com; www.ybskin.dk)

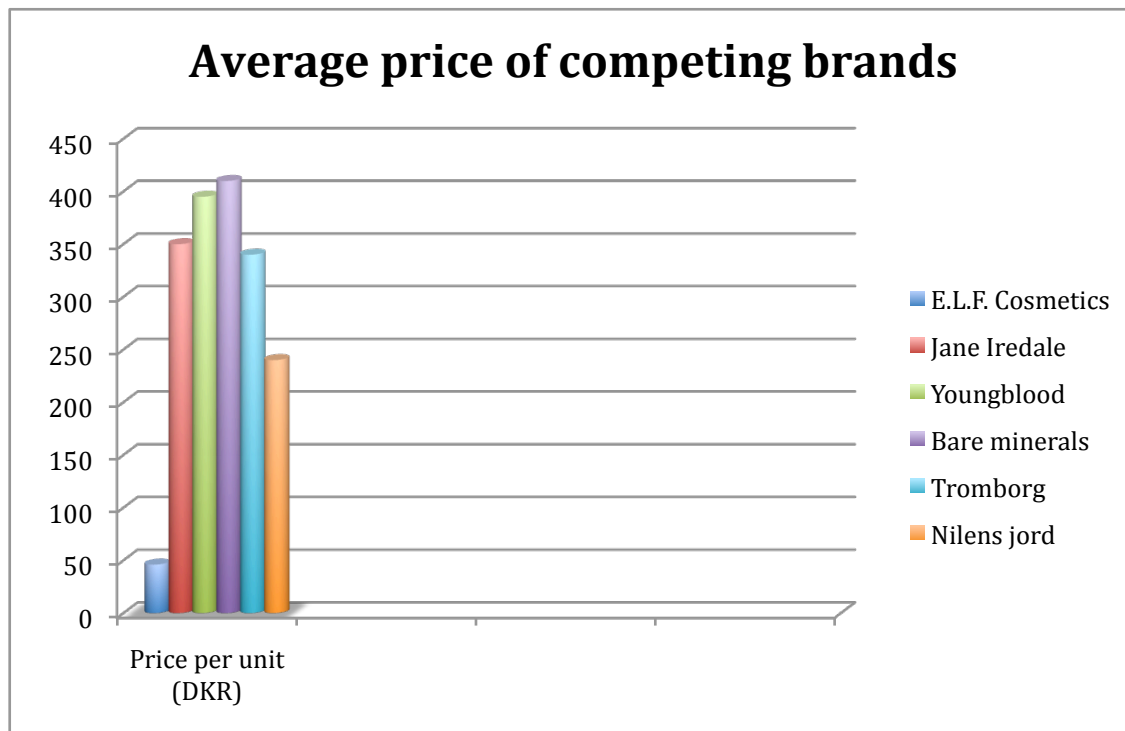


Figure 10. Average price of competing brands. Developed by the authors.

The response stimuli used for this research study was *product sampling* and *product publicity*.

The first context of stimulus was based on the promotional tool *product sampling*.

In this case sample products were handed out along with a flyer containing information about E.L.F. Cosmetics, their website and the mineral powder.

The second context of stimulus was based on the promotional tool *product publicity*. By sending products to a publisher at Aller Media, a mention of the sample product was given in Elle Magazine. Copies of the magazine were then given to the respective participants.

The purpose of these measures was to create the basis for completing a questionnaire.

The participants received the questionnaire one week after being exposed to the stimuli. This allowed them the time needed to read the magazine as well as sample the product.

4.3 Participants and procedures

The pre-tested questionnaire was distributed by email to a total of 300 (2x150) respondents participating in this research.

The respondents were all women between the ages of 20 and 52. This group of participants was selected so that it mirrored the gender and age of the target market of E.L.F. Cosmetics.

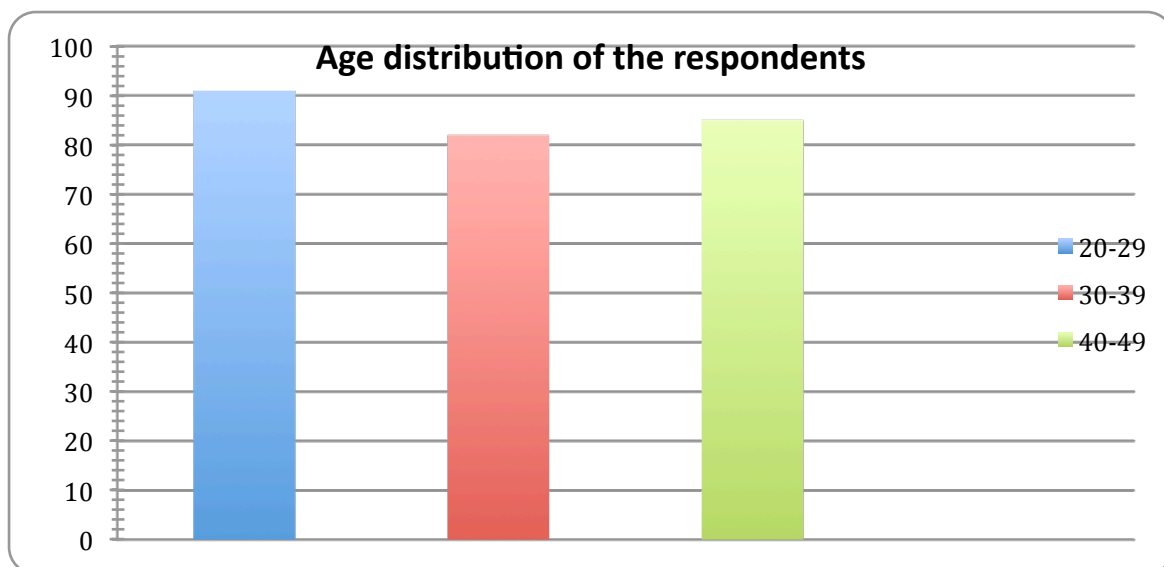


Figure 11. Age distribution of the respondents. Developed by the authors.

To illustrate the age distribution of the respondents, they have been divided into 3 groups. The first group includes the women between the ages of 20-29, they accounted for 35% of the respondents. The second group includes the women between the ages of 30-39, they accounted for 32% of the respondents. The last group includes the women between the ages of 40-49, they accounted for 33% of the respondents.

The participants of this study were found in two different contexts. These contexts were both chosen in order to maximize the chance of gaining participants who mirrored the target market of E.L.F. Cosmetics.

The first context was 'Designer Forum', hosted by 'Forum Copenhagen', twice a year. This event is a fashion event, and displays some of the biggest brands within clothing, shoes, jewellery and beauty products. This event was the context for *product sampling*.

The second context was a 'Girls Only' event, hosted by 'LivsstilsGuiden'. 'LivsstilsGuiden' is an online guide providing ideas and inspiration on such issues as health, beauty, living, etc.

At this event women could get beauty treatments, attend lectures and classes, as well as sample beauty products. This event was the context for *product publicity*.

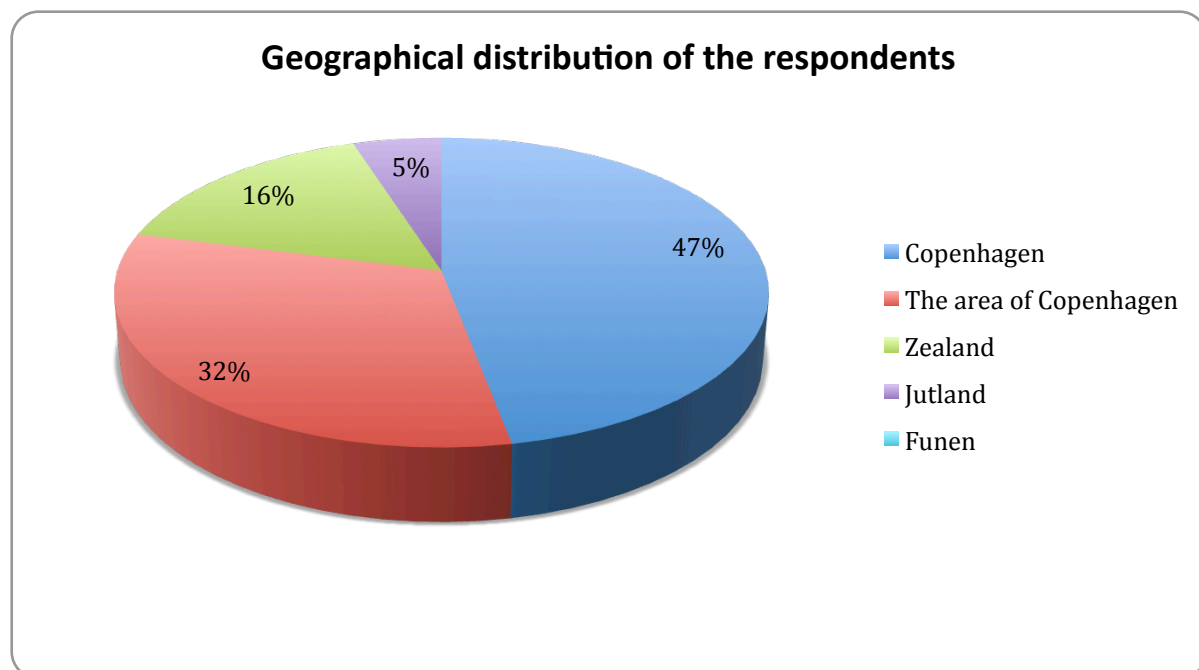


Figure 12. Geographical distribution of the respondents by percentage. Developed by the authors.

To illustrate the geographical distribution of the respondents, participants gathered from the two contexts, has been divided into 5 groups.

The largest group of respondents was from Copenhagen and accounted for 47%. The second largest group was from the area of Copenhagen and accounted for 32% of the respondents. The remaining respondents were from Zealand and Jutland and accounted for respectively 16% and 5% of the respondents. There were no respondents from Funen.

All of the participants were given a questionnaire containing 20 statements. (Appendix A)

A total of 263 respondents filled out the questionnaire (134 answers from the first context and 129 from the second).

Out of the total of filled out questionnaires 5 were found to be incomplete (3 from the first context and 2 from the second). This leads to a response rate of 86% in total.

All of the responses were received within 21 days.

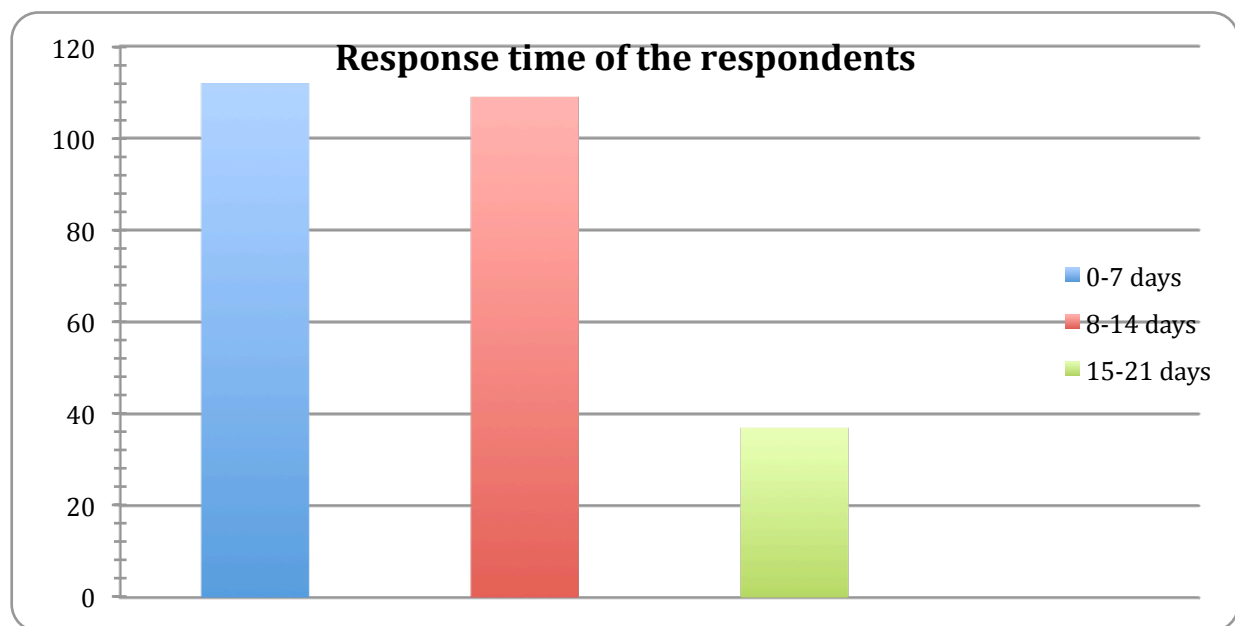


Figure 13. Response time of the respondents. Developed by the authors.

To illustrate the response time of the respondents, the responses have been divided into three groups.

A total of 43% of the responses were received within the first week. The respondents who did not reply within the first week were sent an additional e-mail, containing the questionnaire, reminding them to answer. The remaining responses were received during the next two weeks. Thus more than half of the respondents did not return the questionnaire on their own initiative within the first week, but actually needed a reminder before answering.

However comparing the responses from the early respondents to the responses from the later respondents, allowed for assessment of non-response bias. This procedure of comparison ensured the reliability of the responses, as no great differences were found between the responses of the early respondents and the later ones. This eliminated the possibility of the later respondents only answering because of the additional e-mail, possibly not answering truthfully. (Armstrong and Overton, 1977)

4.4 Measurements

The questionnaire consisted of 20 statements. All of the statements were based on a 7- point Likert scale, which was mainly measured by 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. A few of the statements though had different answering categories.

The 7-point Likert scale was chosen in order to discover the respondents' attitudes to pre-formulated statements i.e. the level of agreement with the statements.

The questionnaire for this study was originally developed in English, translated into Danish and then translated back to English to ensure accuracy. The translation into Danish was made to facilitate the answering process of the respondents in order to avoid misunderstandings due to language barriers.

The questionnaire contained statements based on the following variables; *perceived value*, *purchase intention*, *word of mouth intention*, *familiarity* and *involvement*. (Appendix A)

The *perceived value* scale consists of five items all adapted from Dodds et al. (1991).

The items include; 'This product is' (very good value for the money vs. very poor value for the money), 'At the given price the product is' (very uneconomical vs. very economical), 'The product is considered to be a good buy', 'The price-point for the product is' (very unacceptable vs. very acceptable), and 'This product appears to be a bargain'.

The *purchase intention* scale was measured using three items all adapted from Grewal et al. (1998).

The items include; 'I would purchase this product', 'I would consider buying at this price', and 'The probability that I would consider buying' (very low vs. very high).

The *word of mouth intention* scale consists of five items all adopted from Cheema and Kaikati (2010).

The items include; 'I will talk to many people about the product', 'I will provide as many details as I can about the product', 'I have good things to say about the product', 'I will recommend that others buy the product', and 'I am likely to tell family, friends and acquaintances positive things about the product'.

The *Product familiarity* scale consists of two items adapted from Wu et al. (2008).

The items include; 'I am knowledgeable about mineral makeup', and 'I am familiar with mineral makeup'.

The *Involvement* scale consists of five items all adapted from Zaichkowsky (1985).

The items include; 'I would be interested in more information about the product', 'I would be interested in more information about this product category', 'I have compared product characteristics among brands of this product', 'I think there is a great deal of differences among brands of this product', and 'I have a most preferred brand of this product'.

(Appendix A)

4.5 Data analysis

The analysis of data relies on the theoretical framework, which led to our hypotheses and the variables being tested.

The quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire was analyzed through linear regression which is a statistical methodology widely used in for instance business and the social and behavioural sciences.

With linear regression an attempt is made to model the relationship between two or more quantitative variables by fitting a linear equation to observed data. In other words it is a formal means of expressing the two essential ingredients of a statistical relation and it is most often used to predict the values of a dependent variable (y) based upon the values of an independent variable (x).

When testing any hypothesis it is desirable to keep the chances of an error occurring as small as possible. Establishing a significance level (α) show you how likely a result is due to chance. The most common level of significance used is 0.05, meaning that the results has as 5% (0,05) chance of not being true.

The regression coefficients (β) are another focus in linear regression. The interpretation of β is the expected change in y for a one-unit change in x , and can also be referred to as the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. (Kutner et al., 2004; Mendenhall and Sincich, 2012)

5. RESULTS

This section of the research study examines the results retrieved from the questionnaire.

5.1 Regression results

In accordance with the developed hypotheses, regression was conducted on the chosen variables: *perceived value*, *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention*.

The first regression demonstrates the influence of the two promotional tools (1 = *product sampling*, 2 = *product publicity*) on *perceived value*.

As shown in table 1, the level of the Beta coefficient is almost 0,16 ($\beta=0,155$), thus out of the two promotional tools *product publicity* has the greatest influence on *perceived value*. And with a significance level well under the accepted level of 0,05 ($\alpha<0,012$) the results are not rejected, as they are deemed reliable.

The competing hypotheses upon which the first regression is based (H_1 and H_2) implies that the influence of marketing practice on *perceived value* should be dependent on the given tool. As a difference between the two tools was found, proving one is more influential than the other; H_2 is supported while H_1 is rejected.

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4,956	,169		29,283	,000
PT	,270	,107	,155	2,518	,012

a. Dependent Variable: PV

Table 1. The relationship between the two promotional tools and perceived value. Developed by the authors.

The second regression demonstrated the influence of *perceived value* on *purchase intention*.

As shown in table 2, the level of the Beta coefficient is approximately 0,74 ($\beta=0,741$) indicating that *perceived value* has a significant and positive influence on *purchase intention*.

As this regression shows a very acceptable level of significance ($\alpha<0,000$), the results are trusted.

The hypothesis upon which the second regression is based (H_3) states that the influence of *perceived value* on *purchase intention* should be high, so this hypothesis is also supported.

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-1,592	,383		-4,157	,000
PV	1,250	,070	,741	17,733	,000

a. Dependent Variable: PI

Table 2. The relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention*. Developed by the authors.

Finally, the third regression demonstrated the influence of *perceived value* on *word of mouth intention*.

As shown in table 3, the level of the Beta coefficient is almost 0,56 ($\beta=0,558$), indicating that *perceived value* has a significant and positive influence on *word of mouth intention*.

This regression also showed a very acceptable level of significance ($\alpha<0,000$), so the results are trusted.

The hypothesis upon which the third regression is based (H_4) states that the influence of *perceived value* on *word of mouth intention* should be high, so this final hypothesis is also supported.

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-1,274	,468		-2,723	,007
PV	,931	,086	,558	10,808	,000

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

Table 3. The relationship between perceived value and word of mouth intention. Developed by the authors.

5.2 Post hoc results

As mentioned previously, additional constructs have been known to influence the consumers' formation of behavioural intentions and here familiarity and involvement were chosen.

The two constructs are not a part of the hypotheses developed for this thesis, however data on familiarity and involvement has been collected from the participants in this study.

The results could be interesting addition to the discussion, so percentages have been calculated to use as arguments, in explaining the above-mentioned results.

The first percentage that might be of interest is that 59% of the respondents were actually familiar with the product category in question, secondly 50% of the respondents were actually involved with another brand within the product category, and lastly 70% of the respondents did not find brands within the product category to be very different.

These percentages account for the respondents who rated the statements 5 or higher on the 7-point Likert scale.

All of the results of this research study have been subjected to the opinion of an authority.
(Appendix B)

6. DISCUSSION

This section of the research study discusses the results, as outlined above, on the basis of the developed research questions and hypotheses.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of the two promotional tools, *product sampling* and *product publicity*, on *perceived value* and the behavioural intentions, *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention*.

6.1 The influence of the two promotional tools on perceived value

Marketing communication provides information about different products and attempts to influence the behaviour of consumers (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012; Vasudeva, 2000). However it is up to consumers themselves to interpret this information, and so communication is only successful if consumers comprehend the message as it was intended by the marketers.

Thus, within communication, perception is one of the most important areas, as the consumers' usually respond to their perceptions of the world and not to the world as it actually is. (Belch and Belch, 2012; Shimp, 2003)

To the best of our knowledge there is a lack of formal research on the direct influence of the two promotional tools, *product sampling* and *product publicity*, on *perceived value*.

Therefore, in determining the effect of the two tools on *perceived value*, the marketing theory used was that of influence and perception of messages, as well as how consumers judge and evaluate products. (Mantel and Kardes, 1999; Palmer, 2012; Shimp, 2003; West and Broniarczyk, 1998; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

This marketing theory led to two competing hypotheses, each proclaiming one of the two promotional tools, more effective on *perceived value* than the other.

Perceived value can be influenced by a lot of things. However in the context of the chosen promotional tools, in particular credibility and trustworthiness play a significant role in influencing perception of messages. (Shimp, 2003; Smith and Swinyard, 1983)

Today's consumers are becoming sceptical of traditional marketing, and their purchasing decisions are now influenced more by the consumers themselves and people they trust than of what companies tell them (Bughin et al., 2010; Plummer, 2007).

In addition, consumers have a limited capacity to process information, so they are forced to select from the inputs they receive from marketers. Consumers are exposed to a lot of stimuli everyday so they select the information most relevant to them and they combine this information with other experiences and existing information in their minds. (Blackwell et al., 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

Because consumers are becoming more selective in their information processing, and emphasize credibility and trustworthiness, the source from which the information is transmitted has become increasingly important.

Both information retrieved from *product sampling* as well as from *product publicity*, is perceived to have a high degree of credibility and trustworthiness, resulting respectively from consumers' own experiences and the opinion of an expert. (Shimp, 2003; Smith and Swinyard, 1983)

In figure 14 the effect of the two promotional tools, *product sampling* and *product publicity*, on *perceived value* is illustrated.

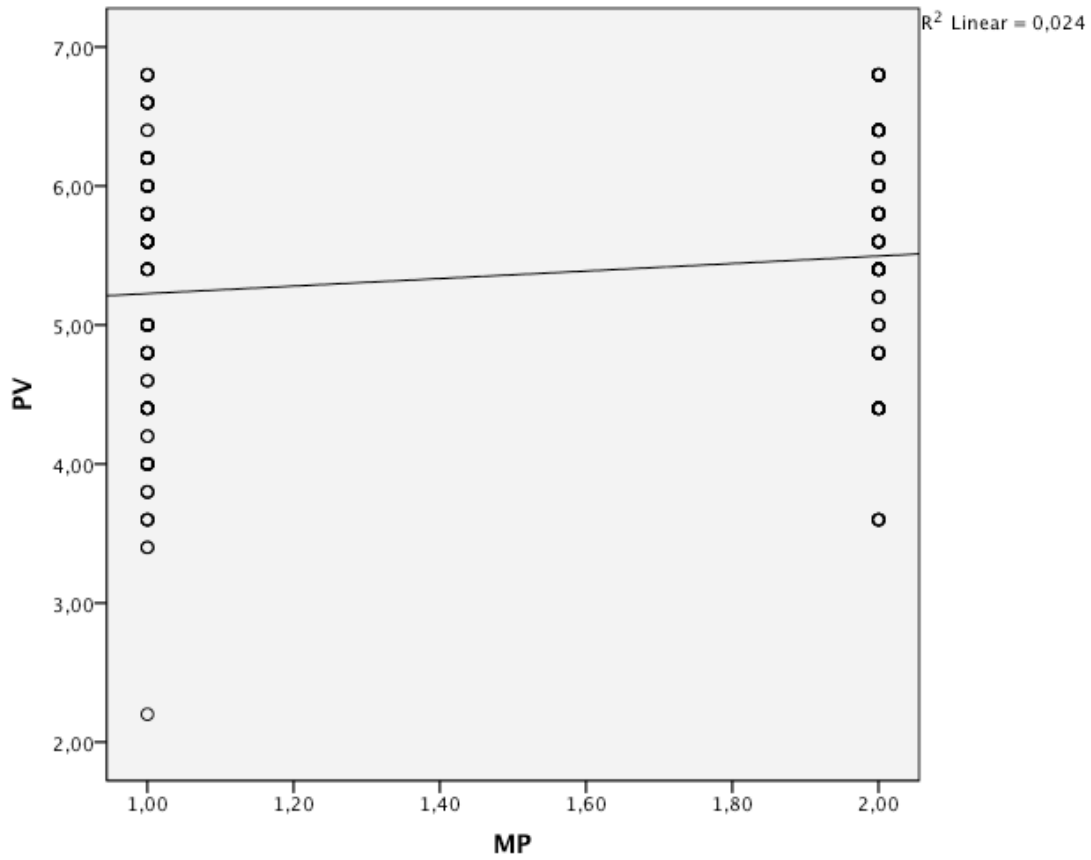


Figure 14. The effect of the two promotional tools on perceived value. Developed by the authors.

As illustrated above the majority of the respondents are concentrated in the area of high *perceived value*. The *perceived value* of the respondents in the *product publicity* (2) context however was slightly higher than the one of the respondents in the *product sampling* (1) context.

Accordingly the results of these studies indicate that *product publicity* is most effective in influencing the *perceived value* of the consumer ($\beta=0,16$).

Before consumers can form the *perceived value* necessary in order to make a decision they commonly seek information about products. (Zhu and Zhang, 2010) As a result consumers often turn to experts (Budescu and Rantilla, 2000), because experts are usually one of the first links in the sharing of information about new products, which is why they have a great influence on consumers (West and Broniarczyk, 1998).

Consumers are less likely to question the information transmitted by an expert in an editorial setting (Shimp, 2003), because of the fact that they regard such experts as being non-commercial and impartial sources making them seem more credible (Palmer, 2012).

In general, information perceived as news rather than as an advertisement tend to be interpreted with less criticism, thus a mentioning of a product in an editorial setting can help build the consumers' confidence in the message. (Shiffman and Kanuk, 2007)

If credibility and trustworthiness of the information source is key, it is peculiar that the results of the studies favour *product publicity* rather than *product sampling*.

Product sampling offers personal experience with a product (Belch and Belch, 2012), which in particular should deemphasize the scepticism usually accompanying information assembled from other sources of information (Kempf and Smith, 1998).

Experience with a product plays an important role in creating consumer perception (Shimp, 2003), as consumers can actively interact with the product (Ozer, 2005). Experience has been shown to have a greater impact on evaluation than if no product experience exists. (Wright and Lynch, 1995)

However the marketing literature also suggests that most experiences bring a certain level of ambiguity and that personal encounters with a product are therefore overrated. (Brown and Carpenter, 2000; Hoch, 2002) It has been claimed that consumers are not really able to assess their consumption experiences, except for when they have encountered a really bad experience. It is therefore questionable whether consumers are able to evaluate a product properly, perceiving the right amount of value it possesses. (Hoch, 2002)

One of the reasons that consumers evaluate products with a certain amount of ambiguity could be the lack of familiarity and actual knowledge of the product category. In the presence of an expert however a certain degree of expertise is expected, based on their extensive knowledge and familiarity in certain product areas. (Chakravarty et al., 2010; West and Broniarczyk, 1998) This makes them more qualified to evaluate products, as their expertise allows them to categorize and judge new products more easily. (Shiffman and Kanuk, 2007)

This might help explain why this study revealed *product publicity* as having a slightly greater effect on *perceived value* than *product sampling*.

6.2 The relationship between perceived value and purchase intention

Consumers are able to form attitudes based solely on information processing, without actual interaction with a product (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988), and the degree of value consumers elicit from products can thus be determined by the source chosen to transmit the messages. (Pornpitakpan, 2004)

This is an important fact for marketers to know when they are promoting products, because the degree of *perceived value* attached to the product could have a direct impact on the consumer's intention to purchase the product in question. (Patterson and Spreng, 1997)

Several researchers have proven the relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention* to be positive. (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Groth, 2001)

Accordingly the next hypothesis developed for this research study states that a positive relationship exists between consumers *perceived value* and the intention to purchase.

Figure 15 illustrates the relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention*.

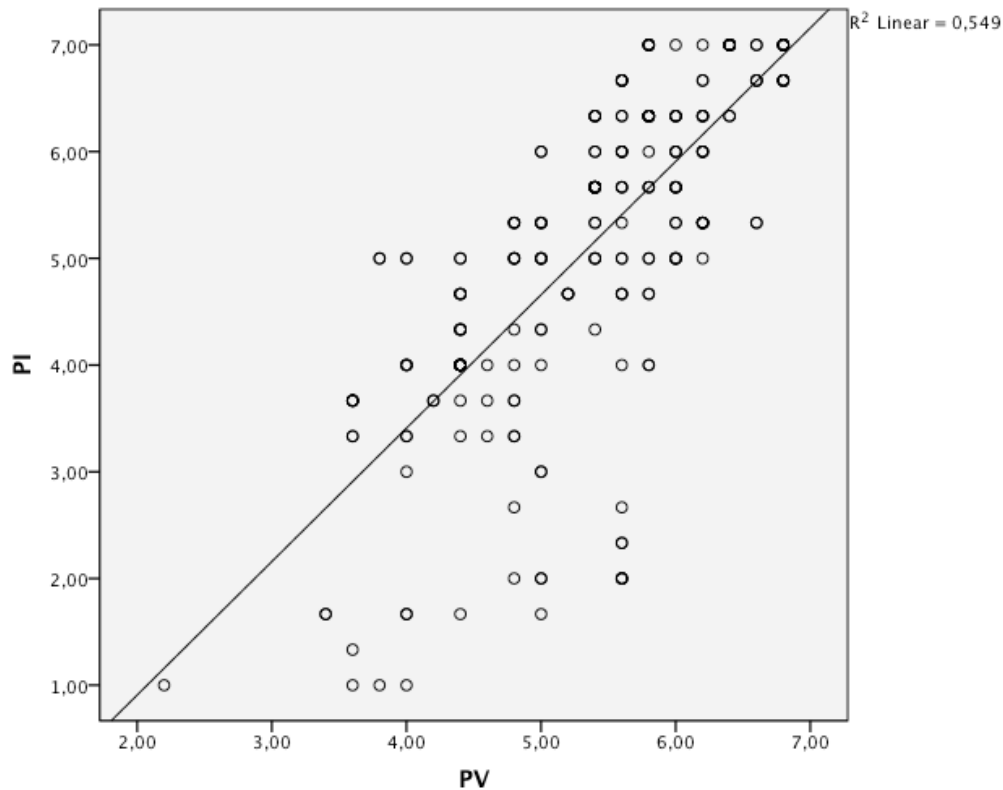


Figure 15. The relationship between perceived value and purchase intention. Developed by the authors.

As illustrated above the majority of the respondents are concentrated in the area of high *perceived value*/high *purchase intention*, and the results of this study demonstrated that *perceived value* had a significant impact on consumer's intention to purchase a product ($\beta=0,74$). Thus supporting the hypothesis.

Perceived value allows the consumer to compare different products in order to estimate which one will satisfy their needs. (Teas and Agarwal, 2000)

As mentioned in the theoretical framework the consumer can pass through several steps in reaching the final purchase decision, and the evaluation stage is the third step of the process. An evaluation can be made based on the individual's recognition of a need as well as the search for information about different products. It is in this stage that consumers can use their perceptions of product information in order to determine the value of different products as compared to their needs.

This is why it is very important for marketers to know how consumers perceive value, as it can help to predict the intentions and final purchase decision of consumers. (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Groth, 2001; Zeithaml, 1988)

How consumers perceive value is subjective, because it is the evaluation of the trade off between what is received and what is given, and consumers are thus likely to value different things. (Hansen, 2005; Zeithaml, 1988)

However in forming value perceptions consumers generally emphasize sacrifices, as studies have shown that they prefer a reduction in those rather than an increase in benefits. (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988) This focus on sacrifices could be due to the fact that resources, monetary and other, are limited, thus consumers are trying to direct them at products perceived to offer the greatest quality for the resources spent. (Zeithaml, 1988)

As mentioned in the theoretical framework the relationship between *perceived value* and those products consumers have the intention of buying can be explained in part by the acceptable price range. (Monroe, 2003)

This means that consumers have a range of prices they find acceptable for a certain product, so if a product is priced too high they might refrain from buying it. On the other hand, if a product is priced too low, the consumers could be suspicious, as they might question the quality of the product. (Cooper, 1996)

Price was the measure chosen to indicate value in this study. Because the price of the sample product was much lower than the one of competing products, the respondents in the *product publicity* context might be suspicious of the product's quality. However the majority of the respondents did seem to have the intention of buying the product.

6.3 The relationship between perceived value and word of mouth intention

The consumers' intention of giving word of mouth about products was the other behavioural intention suggested to be influenced by *perceived value*.

Various distinctions of the word of mouth concept can be found in the marketing literature, and especially the distinction between word of mouth as a product-related conversation vs. an actual recommendation, were important topics in the literature. (Bayus, 1985; Gremler and Brown, 1999; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Still et al., 1984)

As mentioned previously, in this research study the definition by Liu (2006) was applied. This definition characterizes word of mouth as being informal communication, so it does not distinguish between word of mouth as being an actual recommendation or just a conversation. This definition is fitting for this study as an attempt to measure the overall intention of the respondents to give word of mouth, and not just recommendation, has been made.

As mentioned in the theoretical framework only a few studies have actually investigated the direct influence of *perceived value* on *word of mouth intentions*. (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Hartline and Jones, 1996) However these studies have shown *perceived value* to be an important part in influencing the word of mouth behaviours of the consumers.

Accordingly the final hypothesis of this research study states *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention* to be positively related.

Figure 16 illustrates the relationship between *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention*.

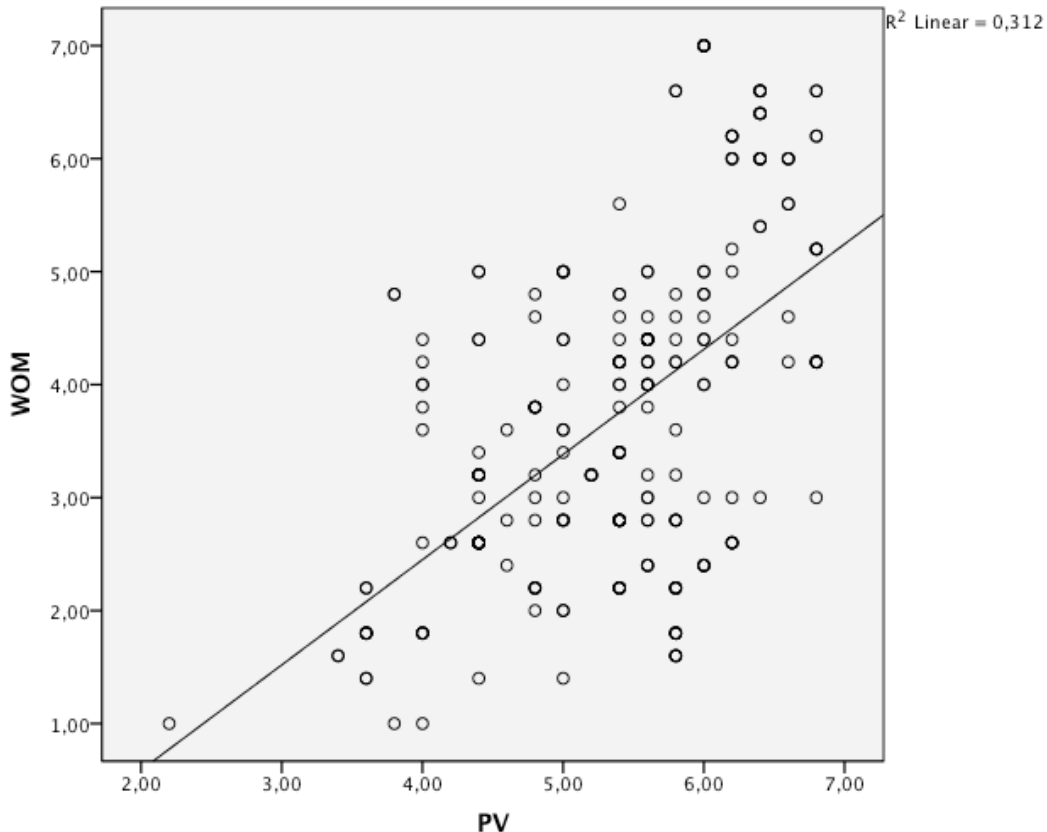


Figure 16. The relationship between perceived value and word of mouth intention. Developed by the authors.

As illustrated above, the majority of the respondents are concentrated in the area of high *perceived value/moderate word of mouth intention*, and the results of our studies demonstrated a positive relationship between *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention* ($\beta=0,56$). Thus supporting the hypothesis.

When consumers evaluate a product, trying to determine the value it possesses, they can use different cues referring to specific attributes of the product, the so-called intrinsic and extrinsic cues. (Olshavsky, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988)

The consumers can form an intention to give word of mouth either by an overall assessment of the product and its values or by a specific cue such as price. (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Boulding et al., 1993; Zeithaml, 1988)

The *perceived value* of the respondents participating in this study was measured by price, and a positive relationship between *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention* was found. These

findings are in accordance with the ones by Sundaram et al. (1998) who also showed *perceived value* and price to trigger *word of mouth intention*. They found positive *word of mouth intention* to arrive from for instance purchases of products that were perceived to be reasonably low priced or purchases considered good buys for the money paid.

Thus for marketers it is very important to keep in mind which values the consumers perceive as most important to them in evaluating products.

6.4 Additional discussion

As illustrated above in figure 14 the majority of the respondents in the *product publicity* context actually perceived the product as having a high value (figure 14). Accordingly it is noticeable that fewer of the respondents had the intention of giving word of mouth (figure 16), than of buying the product (figure 15).

To explain these results the percentages calculated from familiarity and involvement could be of help, seeing that the literature suggests that the two constructs can have an influence on consumers' development of behavioural intentions. (Bettman and Park, 1980; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Söderlund, 2002)

A total of 59% of the respondents in the *product publicity* context were familiar with the product category, which means that they should have known the general standards set within mineral makeup, as well as the fairly small difference in quality between brands in this area. (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Johnson and Russo, 1984)

These respondents were able to see the value within the product, as they perceived it to be high, and they were also likely to buy it.

However the familiar respondents are also the ones who would then know that the price of the sample product was much lower than the price of competing products in the market, which might play a part in them not wanting to offer word of mouth.

The fact that they know that there is little difference between brands in this category, and the fact that the product is actually recommended by an expert in the area, means that the price

might not make them refrain from actually buying the product without having tried it.

However there could be a social risk involved in telling someone about products, before actually having tried them, which might be the reason for the lack of *word of mouth intention*. (Sun et al., 2006)

In addition, 50% of the respondents had a preferred brand within the product category, so they would not be expected to recommend another brand. However the sample product of this study was very affordable, so the respondents might actually be persuaded to buy it even though they are involved with another brand.

A total of 70% of the respondents did not find a great deal of differences among brands in this product category, so there was no apparent risk involved in buying the product. In order for the respondents to recommend the product however or engage in any word of mouth activity about it, they actually have to prefer this new brand to the one they already favour.

6.5 Limitations

Using a quantitative research method can produce good results but there are also limitations.

It is acknowledged that the hypotheses of this research study were tested in scenario-based experiments, which might present some limitations as to whether the results would actually prove the same in a natural setting.

By employing a questionnaire a good representative sample is acquired, however it does not produce in depth data.

The questionnaire generated usable responses to the different variables and helped define the relationship between them, however the present study could benefit from a supplement of qualitative data, as more elaborated responses could be helpful in discussing the reasons behind the answers.

In addition a limitation can be found in the respondents from whom the data was collected. The sample group was mostly restricted to a certain geographical area, so the results could be limited by the opinions of a particular type of social group. As such the results should be used

with respect to differences within other social groups.

Also the chosen sample product limits the results of our studies, as our analysis is restricted to products of a certain category. Thus if more general results are sought a replication of the present study conducted within a range of other product categories, could be a beneficial contribution to marketers.

In addition, in this research study an option could have been setting up a control group as a comparison to the results gained from the original participants. This group of participants would have to be similar in characteristics to the target of the original study, but presented with a different brand within the same product category. With such a control group the results of the relationship between the different constructs could be further compared.

However due to limited product donations this procedure was not an available option.

7. CONCLUSIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This section of the research study offers an overview of the conclusions drawn about the overall research question and the developed hypotheses. It also considers some of the implications of the present study to marketers in general.

The overall research question of this study was which of the promotional tools, *product sampling* and *product publicity*, should most effectively influence consumers' intention to purchase and engage in word of mouth activity.

In order to answer the overall research question a set of sub-questions were posed, and hypotheses developed. These included considerations regarding the effect of the two promotional tools on consumers' *perceived value* and the effect of *perceived value* on the behavioural intentions.

Marketing communication is crucial for creating intentions within the consumers, but as past marketing research has shown, there has been a decrease in consumer trust in advertising and traditional marketing. (Hinz et al., 2011; Plummer, 2007; Trusov et al., 2009)

This fact led to the choice of *product sampling* and *product publicity* as the promotional tools to be investigated in influencing the behavioural intentions, *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention*, through *perceived value*.

These promotional tools possess a certain amount of credibility and trustworthiness, which is important to the consumers' perception of messages. (Lindberg, 2010; McGuinness et al., 1992; Shimp, 2003; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

In investigating the effect of the two tools on *perceived value* a selection of research on consumer evaluation and judgements of products were reviewed. (Mantel and Kardes, 1999; Palmer, 2004; Shimp, 2003; West and Broniarczyk, 1998; Wright and Lynch, 1995)

Based on this research competing hypotheses were developed (H^1 , H^2).

Product publicity proved slightly more effective out of the two promotional tools in influencing *perceived value* ($\beta=0,16$), and the second of the competing hypotheses was supported (H^2), rejecting the first one (H^1).

The next relationships hypothesized in answering the overall research question were the ones between *perceived value* and *purchase intention* and *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention*.

Various marketing researchers have investigated *perceived value* linking the concept to both *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention*. (Doods et al., 1991; Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Grewal et al., 1998; Groth, 2001; Sundaram et al., 1998; Zeithaml, 1988)

Based on a consideration of this theory two hypotheses were developed (H^3 , H^4), stating *perceived value* important to both of the behavioural intentions.

A positive relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention* was proven ($\beta=0,74$), as well as a positive relationship between *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention* ($\beta=0,56$), supporting the two hypotheses (H^3 , H^4).

Both relationships were significant however the relationship between *perceived value* and *purchase intention* was more positive than the one between *perceived value* and *word of mouth intention*.

In summary, a conclusion to the overall research question, of which promotional tool should be most effective in influencing the behavioural intentions, can be attempted.

In this research study *product publicity* was shown to have the greatest effect on *perceived value*, and relationships between *perceived value* and the consumers' intention to purchase as well as to engage in word of mouth activity were established.

As *perceived value* is the determining variable in the relationship between *perceived value* and the behavioural intentions it can thus be speculated that, because *product publicity* had the greatest effect on *perceived value* it is also likely to have the greatest effect on the behavioural intentions.

The results of this research study support the findings of existing research on the concept of *perceived value*. It highlights the importance of *perceived value* in forming intentions of future behaviours.

Thus for marketers in general it is important to keep investigating the construct of *perceived value* intensively, emphasizing it in their communication strategies, if *purchase intention* as well as *word of mouth intention* is sought.

Consumers are becoming increasingly sceptical of the traditional marketing of products, and the communication process has become more complex for marketers. Thus marketers need consumers to associate marketing communication with some kind of credibility and trustworthiness.

This research study demonstrates the importance of having a product mentioned in an editorial setting, as it can highly influence the value of a product as perceived by the consumers. Consumers seem to trust the opinion of an expert, allowing information from such a source to influence their intentions of future behaviours.

Marketers should thus be able to influence both *purchase intention* and *word of mouth intention* by using *product publicity* in influencing the *perceived value* of a product.

However as the influence of *product publicity* seemed to be greater on *purchase intention* than on *word of mouth intention* the need for some individuals to try a product before engaging in word of mouth activity about it cannot be denied.

8. PERSPECTIVES

This section of the research study offers an additional perspective on the construct of word of mouth.

This research study demonstrates that it is possible for marketers not only to stimulate consumers' *purchase intention* but also consumers' *word of mouth intention*.

If companies want to increase their reliance on using word of mouth as an information source about their products, the increasing number of people using the Internet could represent a new potential market for companies to target.

Consumers more and more often share their opinions, experiences, advice and commentary about for instance products, online. This can be referred to as the consumer-generated media, which describes word of mouth behaviour existing on the Internet. (Blackshaw and Nazarro, 2006; Wilke, 2012)

Consumer-generated media is of specific interest to marketers, brand managers as well as market researchers, because online conversations leave a digital trace on the Internet, making it possible to measure and analyze the conversations.

The insights gained from such observations on the Internet makes it easy for companies to find out what consumers are saying about for instance their products (Blackshaw and Nazarro, 2006; Godes & Mayzlin, 2004), and companies have a great opportunity for using this for their own advantages (Trusov et al, 2009).

However this evolution of online word of mouth between consumers raises an ethical discussion, as some companies might try to influence consumers in an inappropriate manner by offering incentives to engage in word of mouth conversations.

Product experiences posted on the Internet are likely to be perceived as reliable because the information providers are fellow consumers, who are seen as more objective information sources than the companies, and who apparently have no interest in marketing the product. (Kozinets et al.; 2010; Sun et al., 2006)

But this is not always the case, because companies are actually trying to influence consumers via other consumers. Some consumers are paid or rewarded by companies if they for instance mention the name of a product in their blog, or if they simply refer a friend to sign up for for instance a membership to a website etc. Some companies offer consumers the chance to earn cash, others to save money on a bill and others again give consumers coupons to spend. This type of paid word of mouth has occurred because of the possibilities of the Internet. (Godes and Mayzlin, 2004; Lunn, 2012; Wilke, 2012)

Marketers know the great power of word of mouth conversations, so they are willing to pay large sums to get consumers to promote their products or brand.

The benefits in online word of mouth thus bring about a change in behaviour within marketers borderlining on unethical behaviour.

Consumers should have the right to know when they are exposed to advertising of products. However this changed behaviour in planning marketing strategies is slowly transforming advertising to some sort of hybrid between an actual recommendation of for instance a product, and a recommendation brought about by some sort of payment from the company.

This development within marketing strategies seems inevitable because word of mouth communication is a very persuasive information source. Word of mouth can significantly influence consumers, so it is natural for marketers to want to try to control this process. (Chakravarty et al., 2010; Godes and Mayzlin, 2004; Kotler and Armstrong, 2012)

In response, consumers might have to adjust to such developments, by learning to screen information more effectively, to help them in their effective choice of products.

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11. APPENDIX

Appendix A.

Questionnaire for product sampling and product publicity

Alder:						
By:						
1.						
Produktet er						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget ringe værdi for pengene				Meget god værdi for pengene		
2.						
Til den givne pris er produktet						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uøkonomisk				Meget økonomisk		
3.						
Produktet må betragtes som værende et godt køb						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig				Meget enig		
4.						
Prisniveauet for produktet er						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uacceptabelt				Meget acceptabelt		

5.

Køb af produktet lader til at være en god handel

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

6.

Jeg ville købe produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

7.

Til den pris produktet har, ville jeg overveje at købe det

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

8.

Det er sandsynligt, at jeg ville overveje at købe produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

9.

Jeg vil fortælle mange om produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

10.

Jeg vil fortælle så mange detaljer om produktet som muligt

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

11.

Jeg har positive ting at fortælle om produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

12.

Jeg vil anbefale andre at købe produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

13.

Det er sandsynligt, at jeg vil fortælle familie, venner og bekendte positive ting om produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

14.

Jeg kender meget til mineral makeup

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

15.

Jeg er bekendt med mineral makeup

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

16.

Jeg ville være interesseret i mere information omkring produktet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

17.

Jeg ville være interesseret i mere information omkring produktkategorien

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

18.

Jeg har sammenlignet produktet med andre mærker indenfor samme produktkategori

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

19.

Jeg synes, at der er stor forskel på mærker indenfor denne produktkategori

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

20.

Jeg har et foretrukket mærke indenfor denne produktkategori

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meget uenig						Meget enig

Appendix B.

Authoritative opinion

I hereby declare that I have examined the data from the two studies. I can confirm that my results are consistent with the results of the authors.

The results were confirmed in the period between the 12th of November 2012 to the 17th of December 2012.

Accountant

Signature