

School of Management and Marketing

Drivers, Measures and Outcomes of Luxury Flagship Store Experience

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Doctor of Philosophy

of

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DECLARATION

To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published by anyone except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated in March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number # HRE2020-0145

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DEDICATION

To

My childhood teacher, **Mrs Karima Khanom**

ABSTRACT

The luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) involve multi-faceted aspects that have received relatively less attention in the extant literature. This thesis is an attempt to dive deep into the topic of the ‘luxury flagship store experience’, extending the concept in terms of three key research questions: (a) how can we conceptualise the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA? (b) how can we extend and develop measures for the LFSE and LFSA? and (c) what are the drivers and outcomes of the LFSE? Guided by the research questions, the objectives of this study comprise: (i) conceptual extension of the dimensions for the ‘LFSE’ and the ‘LFSA’; (ii) extension of scale items to measure the LFSE; (iii) development and validation of the scales to measure LFSA; (iv) investigation of the drivers and outcomes of the LFSE; and (v) examining the effects of LFSE and LFSA on their outcomes (i.e., CSMP and RPIN).

The research comprises mixed-methods studies: qualitative (Study 1) and quantitative (Study 2), to attain the research objectives. The qualitative approach adopted in Study 1 followed a thematic analysis using a deductive coding process that identified themes for the LFSE and LFSA dimensions and their behavioural consequences. A pool of items (i.e., 33 for the LFSE and 52 for the LFSA) was generated from the extant literature review, insights from the in-depth interviews of shoppers and social media content (i.e., expressions of the luxury flagship stores’ fans) analysis. The content validity of the items was checked by two judges having expertise in luxury branding. As a result, Study 1 revealed three dimensions of the LFSE construct: contextual, intellectual and social, and four dimensions of the LFSA: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. Overall, the qualitative study (Study 1) identified valuable findings on the contextual extension of the LFSE and LFSA and their relationships. Finally, this study has shown links between the LFSE, LFSA and the two outcome variables (i.e., CSMP and RPIN).

Using Study 1 findings, Study 2 was conducted to purify, refine and validate the scale items through two separate self-administered surveys on customers of luxury clothing brands. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to purify the items, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used for scale refinement and validation. A final online survey was conducted using Qualtrics among Australian Consumer Panel

members (across Australia) to test the proposed model. The relationships between the constructs were tested in the final survey to ensure the nomological validity of the developed measures. This study employed the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach using AMOS v.25 to test the measurement and structural models. Study 2 validated the three dimensions of the LFSE: situational, intellectual and enduring; and four for the LFSA: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. These results extended wisdom on the LFSE by differing from the traditional store, shopping and brand experiences. Again, these results supported the qualitative study, offering the luxegovern as an additional LFSA dimension. This study also assessed the model constructs' relationships and tested 22 hypotheses. The results supported the ten fundamental hypotheses (H1–H6, H7b, H7c, H8b and H8c) of the main effects model and eight mediating hypotheses (H9a–H9d and H10a–H10d) and four hypotheses (H7a, H7d, H8a and H8d) of the main model not supported. Overall, this study validated the hypothesised relationships between the constructs by applying predictive relevance and the Goodness-of-Fit (GoF) Index. Guided by the means-end chain (MEC) and interpersonal relationship theories, this study examined the hypotheses, developing a structural model after assessing the constructs' dimensionality, reliability and validity. In summary, these research findings offer a better understanding of consumer responses during shopping at, or visiting a luxury flagship store.

Overall, the research model developed and tested in this study contributes to the extant body of knowledge in several ways. This research contributes to the luxury brand research domain by extending three primary LFSE dimensions, developing and validating four LFSA dimensions and their associated measurement instruments. This study identified that the set of LFSA dimensions help to predict the experience quality of a luxury flagship store and their impacts on CSMP and RPIN. Methodologically, this study added value by using in-depth interviews and social media content analysis simultaneously to generate and verify scale items. In addition, it contributes to the emerging complex modelling paradigm by using both congeneric models to form the first-order dimensions and second-order measurement models to confirm the second-order constructs. Finally, these findings will improve brand managers' understanding of the luxury flagship store experience and the stimuli that evoke the customers' experience in a luxury flagship store. These novel insights provide conceptual clarity to luxury brand managers and generate practical solutions to the challenges of luxury retailing.

PUBLICATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH THIS THESIS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

α	Cronbach's alpha
ABC	attitude–behaviour–context (theory)
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
AHP	analytical hierarchy process
AMOS	analysis of a moment structures (software)
AVE	average variance extracted
β	standardised beta
BExp	brand experience
CB-SEM	covariance-based SEM (approach)
CCT	consumer culture theory
CExp	customer experience
CFA	confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	composite reliability
CSMP	customer social media participation
<i>df</i>	degrees of freedom
€	euro/s
ECT	expectation confirmation theory
EFA	exploratory factor analysis
ENDU	enduring
GoF	goodness-of-fit
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
HTML	Hypertext Markup Language
INTL	intellectual
IPR	interpersonal relationship (theory)
KMO	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (measure)
LFSA	luxury flagship store attributes
LFSE	luxury flagship store experience
LuxBExp	luxury brand experience
LXGN	luxegovern
LXMS	luxemosphere
LXSC	luxescape
LXTC	luxetecture

LVs	latent variables
MEC	means-end chain (theory)
MVs	manifest variables
N	sample number
NFI	Normed Fit Index
p	Probability
PCA	principal component analysis
PExp	product experience
r^2	R squared
RGT	repertory grid technique
RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
RO	research objective
RPIN	repeat purchase intention
RQ	research question
SD	standard deviation
SDL	service-dominant logic (theory)
SEM	structural equation modelling
SEMs	strategic experiential modules
ServExp	shopping and service experience
SITU	situational
SMC	social media content
S–O–R	stimulus–organism–response (framework)
SRMR	standardised root mean square residual
TLI	Tucker–Lewis Index
US/USA	United States/United States of America
USD	United States dollar/s
WTP	willingness to pay
χ^2	Chi-squared

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

The personal luxury goods market thrives to beat its pre-pandemic (COVID-19) record. The size of the market reached euros (€) 283 billion or US dollars (USD) 384 billion in terms of sales in 2021 (D’Arpizio et al., 2021). This market is also estimated to reach an average of €370 billion or USD502 billion by 2025 at a constant 6–8% annual growth. However, the latest yearly sales of personal luxury goods ended with only 1% above their 2019 record (D’Arpizio & Levato, 2021). It is further observed that this increasing trend is most likely the outcome of the fourth-quarter sales in 2021. The continuation of local consumption from flagship stores has powered this revived luxury goods market (see Figure 1.1). While e-commerce is increasingly commonplace in many industries, this does not necessarily ring the death knell for luxury flagship stores (Lake, 2017). Typical luxury goods shoppers may follow online sites, seek advice from social media or look for suggestions from trusted bloggers. However, ultimately most of them purchase from a luxury flagship store (Achille et al., 2018) as luxury goods customers want to experience essential human interaction in real life. A recent survey of 41,000 shoppers found that 74% of luxury consumers explicitly value in-store shopping trips (Klarna, 2021). Therefore, physical outposts of a luxury flagship store remain crucial in delivering experience and building a connection between customers and brands.

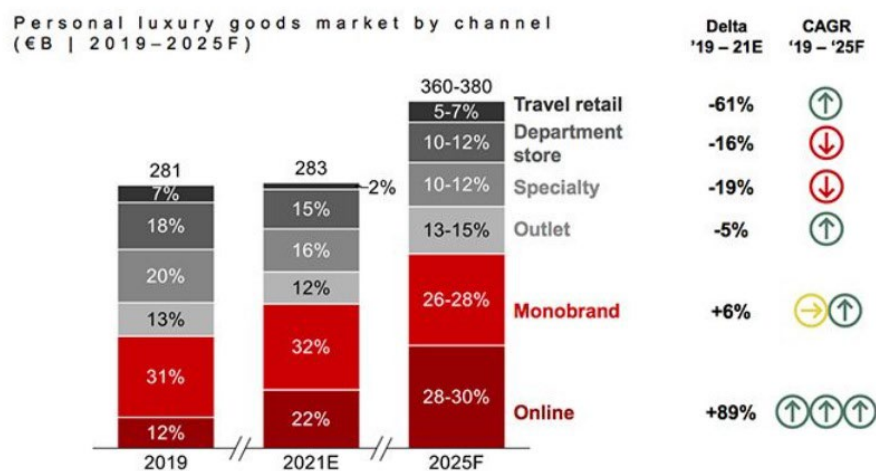


Figure 1.1 Sales trends by channels (Source: Bain & Company)

Luxury products are often available in non-brand or multi-brand stores with better accessibility. However, these stores fail to provide the authentic luxury flagship store experience (Gistri et al., 2009) that customers often desire during their purchase or visit. A luxury flagship store is designed to deliver more powerful brand experiences (Borghini et al., 2009) than a multi-brand or non-brand store. Therefore, the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) can be interpreted as a more substantial or more intense experience (Brakus et al., 2009) than traditional brand experiences due to the hedonic customer value (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) of a luxury flagship store. Thus, establishing a sustainable intensive experience through customer–luxury store interactions is an enormous concern for a luxury flagship store; hence, this is an issue of significant academic interest.

The luxury flagship retail stores differentiate themselves from conventional brand stores through artistic projections of crafted goods and aesthetic appeal (Okonkwo, 2016). The stores' designs are focused on promoting luxury brands. Thus, luxury flagship stores facilitate customers' dreams of owning and experiencing the brand (Martineau, 1958) from its deluxe-designed store utilising luxury flagship store attributes. Luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) include assortment, design and layout (De Lassus & Freire, 2014); a prestigious and splendid universe (Joy et al., 2014); and impeccable employee services (Okonkwo, 2007). Through an ethnographic study, Joy et al. (2014) categorised the critical dimensions of LFSA as luxetecture, luxemosphere, deluxe, luxeservices, luxeart foundation and luxedesigners. Therefore, determining the appropriate vital dimensions and developing their corresponding scale items to measure LFSA has become another issue of significant academic interest.

LFSA inspire customers to be connected to the brand (Ko et al., 2019) and immensely boosts value generation (Lin, 2015) through participation in favouring the mono-brand (Brakus et al., 2009) or flagship store. LFSA deliver hedonic shopping value that stimulates customers to generate consumer-to-consumer communications (Klein et al., 2016) and consumer-to-brand communications (Brakus et al., 2019). Luxury goods customers also reflect their behaviours on social media sites by creating user-generated content (Koivisto & Mattila, 2020). The increase in digital technology trends facilitates the high engagement of luxury customers on social media sites and the move from show observers to actors on the stage.

On the other hand, the LFSE inspires customers to make a deep connection (Ko et al., 2019) and create a more significant commitment to repeat purchases (Shukla et al., 2016). Through the LFSE, a more substantial commitment is made to purchase luxury items repeatedly or to visit the flagship store frequently. Consequently, the power and intensity of the LFSE transform the relationship between the brand and consumers (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). This consumer-brand relationship is extended through consumers' interactions on social media (Achille et al., 2018; Childers et al., 2001) to express their experiences (Tynan et al., 2010) and their repeat purchase intention (RPIN) (Shukla et al., 2016).

Despite the diversity of the LFSE and its significant impact on customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN), a comprehensive model addressing the LFSE, its drivers and consequences has not yet been explored. Therefore, this study addresses the existing void in the literature and presents an integrated model of the LFSE, its drivers and consequences. The proposed model endeavours to illuminate CSMP and RPIN as two critical outcomes, with LFSA the key LFSE driver. Therefore, the current research seeks to extend the theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the dimensions of the LFSE and LFSA and the structural relationships between the constructs: (i) the LFSE; (ii) LFSA; (iii) CSMP; and (iv) RPIN.

1.2 Research Problem

Luxury experiences represent the fastest-growing part of the luxury industry (Müller-Stewens & Berghaus, 2014). Therefore, the experiential tactic is attaining ground in luxury services research, such as tourism (Kim et al., 2012); designer boutiques (Atwal & Williams, 2009); lifestyles (Hosany & Witham, 2010); and hospitality services (Arnould & Price, 1993; Pullman & Gross, 2003). In this vein, considerable research has also been undertaken on product experience (e.g., Hoch, 2002; Mano & Oliver, 1993); brand experience (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009) or luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019); and shopping or service experience (e.g., Puccinelli et al., 2009). However, these experiences may differ based on the brand or non-brand service provider. Thus, Brakus et al. (2009) conducted research on customers of 29 brand stores and conceptualised brand experience along with four key dimensions: affective, sensory, intellectual and behavioural. According to Brakus et al. (2009), "brand experience is the internal and subjective consumer response through sensations,

feelings, cognitions and behavioural responses toward a brand influenced by brand-related stimuli, including the brand's design, identity, packaging and environment". Later, brand researchers investigated differences in dimensions between a luxury brand and a non-luxury brand product. For example, de Kerviler & Rodriguez (2019) extended the conventional (non-luxury) brand experience in the luxury brand context and found differences in dimensions between brand experience and luxury brand experience. They found that three dimensions: affective sensory and, intellectual are considered similar for the non-luxury and luxury brand experience. However, the behavioural dimension did not apply to the luxury brand experience. The social aspect is more transitory and context-dependent for the luxury brand experience.

Luxury brands' products are often offered in non-brand or multi-brand stores, but these stores miscarry the authentic luxury flagship store experience (Gistri et al., 2009). Past research on the luxury industry indicated that luxury brands face challenges in delivering in-store experiences (Debenedetti, 2021) that customers often desire during their purchase or visit. Recently, luxury brand experience researchers pointed out that consumers' experience in a luxury flagship store differs significantly from a traditional luxury store (i.e., Debenedetti, 2021; Holmqvist et al., 2020a), albeit using a qualitative approach. A luxury flagship store is designed to provide more powerful brand experiences (Borghini et al., 2009) than a multi-brand or non-brand store. Therefore, the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) refers to a more substantial and intense experience than the traditional brand experience or the experience of a non-brand or multi-brand store. Therefore, the existing customer experience domains (i.e., product experience, brand experience, consumption experience, and service or shopping experience) are neither readily applicable nor encompass the key experiential characteristics derived from a luxury flagship store. In addition, existing research focuses on different LFSE dimensions such as feelings, fantasies and fun (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982); the sensory elements of surprising playfulness, pleasure, authenticity and an exultant feeling (Joy et al., 2014); as well as the educational aspect, entertainment, aesthetic element and escapism (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). However, no research combines all the above dimensions to measure the LFSE appropriately.

The LFSE is driven by luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) (De Lassus & Freire, 2014; Joy et al., 2014). The luxury flagship stores create uniqueness through

their in-store design, exclusive atmosphere (Kozinets et al., 2002), reverence (Klein et al., 2016) and restricted access (Dion & Arnold, 2011) to provide an experience (Klein et al., 2016) to their customers. The extant luxury brand literature also reveals that luxury store attributes include atmosphere (Okonkwo, 2010); layout, design and product assortment (De Lassus & Freire, 2014); service interface (Truong & McColl, 2011); personal care (Dion & Arnould, 2011); and orchestral performance of skilled employees (Joy et al., 2014). The seminal research on the luxury store experience conducted by Joy et al. (2014) identified six dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes through a qualitative study. Through an ethnographic study, Joy et al. (2014) categorised these six dimensions of LFSA as luxetecture, luxemosphere, deluxe, luxeservices, luxearth foundation and luxedesigners. However, the extant research focusing on the LFSA (e.g., De Lassus & Freire, 2014; Joy et al., 2014) is either conceptual or qualitative in nature, with no scale to measure the LFSA (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016) and their dimensions.

Store attributes are fundamental for creating customer admiration (De Lassus & Freire, 2014; Dion & Arnould, 2011) in a luxury flagship store. The main features of LFSA comprise an atmospheric presentation (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014); architectural settings (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014); impeccable employee services (Joy et al., 2014; Okonkwo, 2016); and customer-related policies and practices (Kerin et al., 1992). These different dimensions of LFSA affect the LFSE to various degrees (Borghini et al., 2009; Kirby & Kent, 2010; Verhoef et al., 2009). However, no research to date has studied the effects of the LFSA on the LFSE. Furthermore, the relative impacts of LFSA on the LFSE are still unknown.

The physical attributes of luxury flagship stores positively influence consumer intentions to revisit (Loiacono et al., 2007) or their repeat purchase intention (RPIN) (Cole & Chancellor, 2009; Ettis, 2017). Correspondingly, customers' positive interactions in the store enhance their attitude toward the store, leading to a favourable attitude toward the luxury brand (Tynan et al., 2010) and influencing them to communicate and share their experiences on social networking platforms (Yu et al., 2021). Luxury flagship stores are designed not only to promote sales of their products but also to endorse their brand through selling 'the dream' and 'the experience' (Joy et al., 2014), enduring responses kept in customers' memories (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Furthermore, LFSA converges in a 'feel-good' experience that may infer a positive

attitude by customers (Pham, 2004). Consequently, the power and intensity of the LFSE transform the relationship between the brand and consumers (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). This consumer-brand relationship is extended through consumers' interactions on social media (Achille et al., 2018; Childers et al., 2001), where they express their experiences (Tynan et al., 2010) and their repeat purchase intention (RPIN) (Shukla et al., 2016). However, no research has been conducted to investigate the effects of the different LFSA (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) on their consequences (i.e., CSMP and RPIN and the LFSE-derived effects).

Overall, theoretically supported and empirically validated models are lacking for LFSE, LFSA and the relationships between these two constructs. Therefore, a mixed-methods study is required to identify, extend and validate scale items to measure LFSE and the LFSA, and investigate effects on their behavioural outcomes: CSMP and RPIN.

1.3 Research Questions and Objectives

This study aims to address the above-mentioned four research gaps. Consequently, the overarching research questions (RQs) of the study are:

RQ1: How can we conceptualise the dimensions of LFSE and LFSA?

RQ2: How can we extend measures for the LFSE and develop a new scale for the LFSA?

RQ3: What are the drivers and outcomes of the LFSE?

These research questions are addressed by attaining the following five research objectives (ROs):

RO1: To conceptually extend the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA.

RO2: To extend the scale items to measure the LFSE.

RO3: To develop and validate a scale to measure the LFSA.

RO4: To examine the impact of the LFSA dimensions on the LFSE.

RO5: To investigate the effects of LFSA and LFSE on CSMP and RPIN.

1.4 Research Scope

The scope of this research involves the development of a model for the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE), its drivers and corresponding consequences to overcome the challenges faced in building the customer–flagship brand relationship to provide an appropriate luxury experience in luxury flagship retail in Australia. The current study aims to conceptualise luxury store attributes (LFSA) and their relationship with the LFSE and the LFSE and LFSA behavioural consequences. This research also investigates the theories related to the attributes–values relationship and consequences from a luxury clothing store’s viewpoint. Furthermore, this study reviews the research gap and objectives and develops a set of hypotheses. Finally, a conceptual research model (see [Figure 5.1](#)) is proposed, based on the discussion of the critical theories, to address the research gaps and attain the study’s objectives. Therefore, the present study aims to extend these lines of argument by addressing the current limitations and future research scope identified in the research background and problem sections (sections 1.1 and 1.2).

1.5 Theoretical Foundation

The key construct of the research model is the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). Furthermore, the LFSE is recognised as a perceived reaction to LFSA, with customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPI) considered as LFSA and the LFSE’s behavioural consequences. In addition, this study argues that the types of luxury brands influence the relationship between LFSA and the LFSE and the impact of the LFSE on CSMP and RPI as a moderating construct. Therefore, this research is supported by six predominant theories, namely, experience categorisation (Dewey, 1922); the theory of mind modularity (Fodor, 1983; Pinker, 1997); staged experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999); the servicescape framework (Bitner, 1992); means-end chain (MEC) theory (Gutman, 1982); and interpersonal relationship theory (Fournier, 1998), as well as by one supporting theory entitled social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974). This study relates the selected theories to the research objectives and finds the essence of these theories in addressing the gaps from the luxury brands’ perspective.

1.6 Research Methodology

The current study used a mixed-methods strategy (i.e., a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches) to address the pre-determined research questions and objectives. The qualitative research method was used to address Objective 1 (i.e., conceptually extend the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA) and Objective 2 (i.e., the conceptualisation of scales to measure LFSA) based on RQ1. This study concurrently conducted in-depth interviews and social media content analysis as part of the qualitative research process. The research data were collected from 20 in-depth interviews and more than 12,000 social media content items from Twitter. A thematic analysis was conducted to generate an initial items pool that identified key terms and quotations related to the LFSE and LFSA constructs. A cross-case analysis was also performed to see keywords' frequency and corresponding dimensions. A comparative exploration of scale items was undertaken through a triangulation of the literature review, in-depth interviews and social media content analysis. These results revealed three dimensions for the LFSE construct: contextual, intellectual and social; and four dimensions: luxemoshphere, luxetecture, luxescape, and luxegovern for the LFSA construct. This process has generated a total of 33 scale items to consider for measuring LFSE construct and 52 scale items for the LFSA construct

Overall, the qualitative study (Study 1) provided crucial findings on the contextual extension of the LFSE and LFSA and the relationships between the constructs. Finally, this study has shown the links between the LFSE, LFSA and two outcome variables (i.e., customer social media participation [CSMP] and repeat purchase intention [RPIN]).

Consequently, a series of quantitative surveys were conducted to address Objective 2 (i.e., the extension of scales to measure the LFSE); Objective 3 (i.e., development and validation of the scales to measure LFSA); Objective 4 (i.e., identification of the drivers and outcomes of the LFSE); and Objective 5 (i.e., examination of the effects of the LFSE on CSMP and RPIN). The quantitative study was then conducted for the extension of the scale items measuring the LFSE and the new scale items development for LFSA, with testing of the comprehensive research model undertaken, following Churchill's (1979) scale development process. The scale development process resulted in three dimensions for the LFSE: situational, intellectual and enduring. This result extended the extant wisdom on the LFSE and its

differences from the traditional brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). Furthermore, this study proposed four dimensions for LFSA: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. This result supported the qualitative research of Joy et al. (2014), while offering luxegovern as an additional dimension. The study also aimed to assess the relationships between the model constructs and to test six principal hypotheses. Furthermore, the study aimed to examine the effect of the mediator (LFSE) on the research model. This study successfully applied covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) to estimate the parameters of the research model, using AMOS software (v.25).

1.7 Schematic View of the Study

Previous discussions have proposed a schematic view of this study that shows the phenomenon of ‘luxury flagship store experience (LFSE)’ is an extended concept of brand experience. Hence, this study intended to conduct an exploratory study to investigate the phenomenon of ‘luxury flagship store experience (LFSE)’ in terms of its dimensions, drivers and consequences. This was to gain a comprehensive view of the phenomenon and to propose substantial managerial implications. RQ1 is more exploratory than conclusive in nature. In contrast, RQ2 and RQ3 are more conclusive. Hence, two sequential studies, one qualitative (Study 1) and the other quantitative (Study 2) were developed to answer the three research questions. Figure 1.2 shows a detailed schematic view of the study.

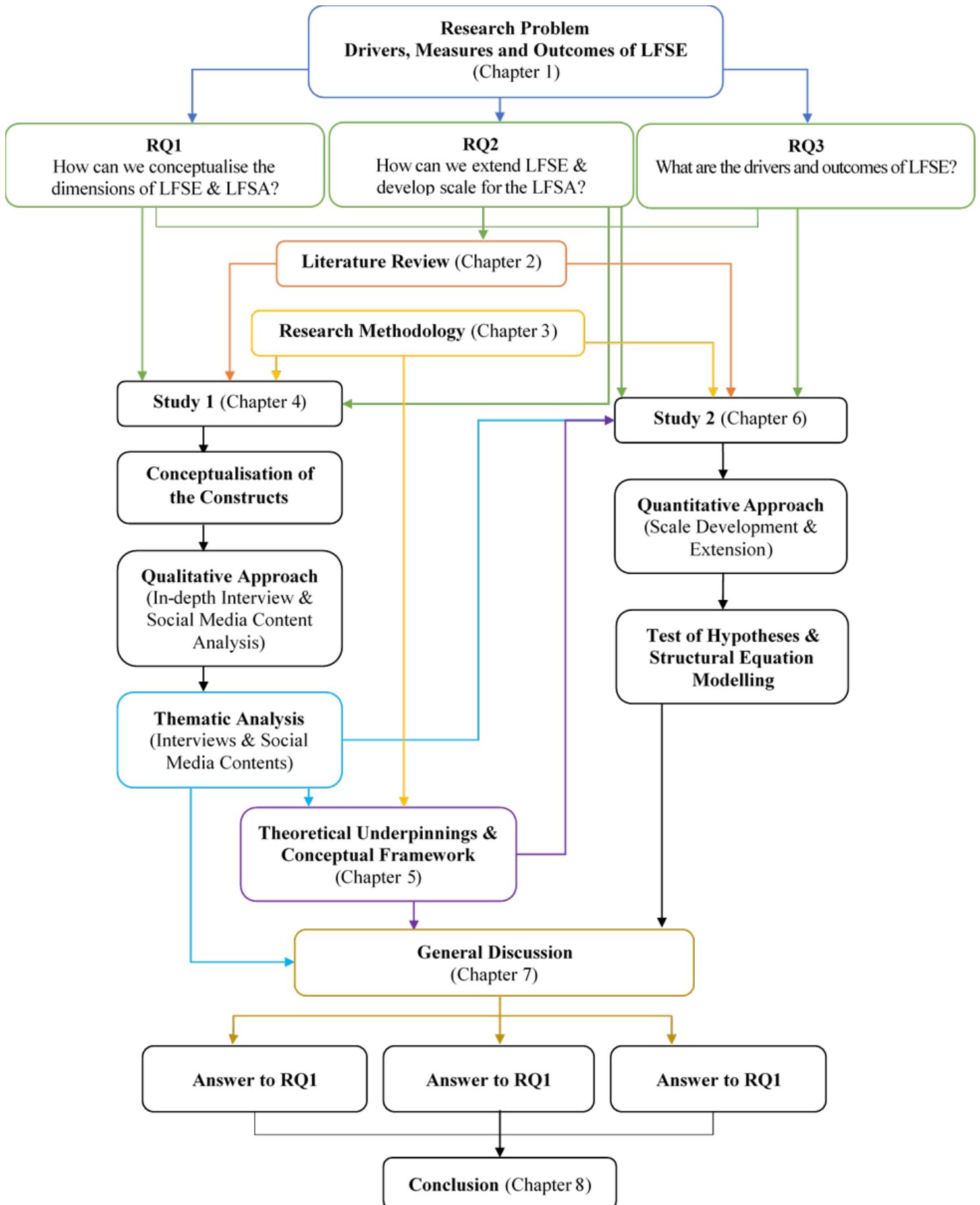


Figure 1.2 Schematic view of the study

1.8 Research Contributions

This study contributes to the existing literature in the areas of theory, methodology and practice. Theoretically, the study extends the brand experience and luxury brand experience research by reframing the concepts of the LFSE and LFSA as reflective second-order constructs. This study extends the concepts of customer experience (e.g., Hollebeek & Andreassen, 2019; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016), brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Das et al., 2019; Dwivedi et al., 2018), and luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) by adding the LFSE concept, thereby proposing an early empirical study. This study also addresses the future research call of Kuppelwieser & Klaus (2021) by establishing customer experience as a higher-order construct. This research also identifies LFSA as the key driver of the LFSE and models the impacts of the LFSE and LFSA constructs on customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN) in the luxury clothing industry context. In addition, this research develops and validates new scale items for the four dimensions of the LFSA construct. It extends the ‘servicescape’ of Bitner (1992) and ‘experienscape’ of Pizam & Tasci (2019) toward luxury flagship experienscape. Finally, this study extends the means-end chain (MEC) theory of Gutman (1982) by incorporating the interpersonal relationship (IPR) theory of Fournier (1998) toward the means-end relationship (MER) model in the context of the luxury brand domain.

Methodologically, the study provides evidence of using covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and AMOS path modelling. This method can be used to estimate the parameters of a second-order construct and its association with significant latent variables in a nomological network. Practically, the study offers managers a LFSE model for conducting integrated analysis and design of luxury flagship stores. Overall, the study contributes to achieving increased patronage of luxury flagship clothing stores, better customer experiences in a luxury flagship store and, above all, improved customer participation in favour of the luxury flagship store on social media sites and through repeat purchase intention (RPIN).

1.9 Research Limitations and Future Research

All research methods and designs have flaws and limitations (McGrath, 1982), as does the current research, with several limitations worth noting. Firstly, this study could not

access absolute luxury customers within a limited period, this being a methodological limitation. Therefore, this study focused only on affordable and aspirational categories of luxury customers. Secondly, this study used several demographic markers such as the gender split, age bracket, income level and purchase channel. However, the study did not analyse any moderating effects on the relationships between the constructs based on these demographic markers. Finally, this study's respondents were from Australia only, and their views on the LFSE might differ from those held by individuals of other nationalities. Consequently, this study's outcomes may not apply for generalisation to every country or cultural perspective. Therefore, this research engenders several prospects for further research, which are summarised as follows:

- Luxury flagship stores may not always communicate positive content and may be interpreted as negative content in consumers' perceptions. Future research could focus on negative responses evoked by luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) to counterbalance this impact.
- Experiences may occur during in-store and online interactions (Holmqvist et al., 2020b). Therefore, future research could focus on the impact of LFSA on the LFSE, examining the moderating effect of channel types (i.e., physical store vs. online) and differentiation in omnichannel interactions.
- Future research could examine how consumers of various generations process a LFSE, leading to customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN).
- A better understanding is needed of how the LFSE develops. It possibly differs across a broader range of product categories (i.e., clothing vs. accessories), product types (i.e., goods vs. services) and cultures (i.e., Australian vs. Asian or American vs. European).
- Finally, the respondents used in the first round survey of study 2 were academic professionals and postgraduate students. It could be more practical if the participants were utterly luxury consumers like the round two and three surveys.

1.10 Key Terms and Definitions

The definition of each fundamental construct is provided in the literature review in Chapter 2. The definition and conceptualisation of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) are discussed with the scale

development procedure in Chapter 6. Conceptual definitions of the other constructs in the empirical model are derived and adapted from existing literature and outlined in Chapter 2. Conceptual definitions of the constructs are summarised below:

Affordable brand: affordable brands have a robust fashion approach, a renowned brand image and an accessible ratio between product and quality (Brun & Moretto, 2012).

Aspirational brand: aspirational brands have exclusive product quality, a strong brand reputation and recognised design quality (Brun & Moretto, 2012).

Absolute brand: absolute luxury brands demonstrate a high level of brand heritage, excellence and charming appeal quality (Brun & Moretto, 2012).

Brand Experience: Brand experience comprises internal and subjective consumer responses, such as sensation, feeling, cognition and behavioural responses, toward a brand influenced by brand-related stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009).

Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM): Covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM), especially with a reflective measurement where hypothetical constructs are estimated as common factors that are assumed to cause their indicators (i.e., observed or manifest variables), is a flexible and compelling data analysis method (Hair et al., 2017).

Customer Experience: Customer experience is the internal and subjective response of customers to any direct or indirect contact with a company's products, services or brands. (Meyer & Schwager, 2007).

Experiential Marketing: Experiential marketing refers to the use of five strategic experiential aspects: sense, feel, think, act and relate to create different types of experiences for the customers (Schmitt, 1999a).

Hierarchical construct or model: a construct with several dimensions in which each dimension captures some portion of the overall latent variable (Jarvis et al., 2003; Petter et al., 2007).

Luxury consumers: consumers who buy and use luxury branded products (Kapferer & Michaut-Denizeau, 2017).

- **Luxemosphere:** Luxemosphere is the mishmash of luxe (luxury) and atmosphere, which refers to the respected atmospheric presentation of a luxury brand's website to create a multi-sensory online experience (Okonkwo, 2010).
- **Luxetecture:** Luxetecture is the arrangement of tangible symbolic brand's resilience creating glamour in elegant appearance and prestigious scene (Joy et al., 2014).
- **Luxescape:** Luxescape refers to the symbolized luxury devotion and attentiveness, consciously respect, expression of grandeur and luxury facet to the customers through delivering impeccable service by employees (Joy et al., 2014).
- **Luxegovern:** Luxegovern focuses on the customer governing policies and practices of a luxury flagship store that guide customers' experience when visiting or shopping from a luxury flagship store (Kerin et al., 1992).

Mono-brand store: a shop that exclusively sells clothing, accessories and products of a specific brand. For example, Chanel, Dior, Prada or H&M stores.

Multi-brand store: a shop that sells different brands of clothing, accessories and products. For example, Mayer or David Jones.

Reflective construct: the indicators are the manifestation of a construct, and the direction of causality is from construct to indicators (Jarvis et al., 2003; Petter et al., 2007).

Reflective model: a structural model comprised of all the reflective constructs (Jarvis et al., 2003; Petter et al., 2007).

1.11 Structure of the Thesis

This dissertation comprises eight chapters, starting with this introductory chapter, which portrays the entire study. A short overview of the following chapters is depicted in Table 1.1 and discussed in the following sections.

Table 1.1 Structure of the thesis

Chapters	Descriptions	Output
Chapter 1: Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Overview of the research ⇒ Developing research problem ⇒ Research questions and objectives ⇒ Scope and theory ⇒ Methodology and contribution ⇒ Structure of the thesis 	Presents four research problems, three research questions and five research objectives
Chapter 2: Literature Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Review research on customer experience, product and brand experience, consumption and shopping or service experience ⇒ Developing concept of luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) ⇒ Research gap 	Proposes preliminary research model (Figure 2.2)
Chapter 3: Research Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Research paradigm ⇒ Instrument development and validation process ⇒ Data analysis technique 	Justifies a mixed-methods approach for conducting this research
Chapter 4: Conceptual Extension of LFSE and LFSA Constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Piloting a qualitative study with a combination of in-depth interviews and social media content ⇒ Provides content analysis 	Generates extended and new scale items
Chapter 5: Theoretical Underpinnings and Conceptual Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Developing the theoretical background ⇒ Identifying relevant theories ⇒ Developing hypothetical relationships between constructs 	Proposes comprehensive research model (Figure 5.1)
Chapter 6: Development and Extension of LFSE and LFSA Scales	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Constructs and measurement ⇒ Reliability and validity ⇒ Tests of hypotheses ⇒ Overall findings 	Finalises extended and new developed scale items and validates the research model
Chapter 7: General Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Discussions on research findings 	Interprets the results and analysis
Chapter 8: Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ Overview of the study ⇒ Theoretical contributions ⇒ Methodological contributions ⇒ Managerial contributions ⇒ Challenges and limitations ⇒ Future research directions ⇒ Conclusions 	Summarises the research and its contributions to future research directions

1.11.1 Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 addresses the five objectives of the study. This chapter reviews the literature on the experiential aspects of the luxury flagship store and their drivers and consequences. Firstly, it reviews the experiential marketing literature to gain fundamental insights into experience marketing. The chapter then reviews the literature on customer experience, product experience, brand experience, consumption experience, and shopping or service experience to develop a conceptual extension of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). Finally, the literature review discussion assists in the development of the research questions and objectives.

1.11.2 Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 3 presents the study's methodological framework by developing a research design, methods, analytical tools and techniques are undertaken to achieve this study's objectives. This methodological framework relates the nature of the business research model developed in Chapter 5 to epistemological views to validate the conceptual propositions. This study used a mixed-methods approach that combined a qualitative field study with quantitative survey techniques and procedures (Saunders et al., 2009) to enhance the study's overall strength (Creswell, 2009). Overall, this chapter presents the elements of the methodological framework used to explore the research paradigm, answer research questions, test hypotheses and apply the research design. These include the research philosophy, research method, research process, qualitative study design and execution, quantitative study design, and quantitative data collection and analysis. This chapter creates a consistent research design by its justification for the application of relevant research techniques, using adequate rationale and support from the literature.

1.11.3 Chapter 4: Conceptual Extension of LFSE and LFSA Constructs

Chapter 4 addresses Objective 1 (i.e., conceptual extension of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and the luxury flagship store attributes), Objective 2 (i.e., extending the scale items to measure the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and the luxury flagship store attributes) based on RQ1. The focus areas of this chapter are under three broad perspectives. These comprise the conceptualisation of the LFSE, identification of the dimensions of the LFSE drivers (i.e., luxury flagship store attributes [LFSA]) and their corresponding scale items, and investigation of the impacts of the LFSE on

its behavioural consequences. This chapter is divided into four parts to fulfil the research objectives mentioned above. Firstly, the chapter develops a theoretical background to draw the relationships between the LFSE, LFSA and the outcome variables. Secondly, this chapter describes the research methodology used to accomplish the qualitative study (i.e., Study 1). This qualitative study simultaneously undertook in-depth interviews and social media content analysis. Thirdly, the qualitative study findings are compared with the literature review outcomes. Finally, this research specifies the extended and contextualised scale items for the LFSE, identifies the new scale items for LFSA and explores the LFSE's behavioural consequences.

1.11.4 Chapter 5: Theoretical Underpinnings and Conceptual Framework

Chapter 5 presents the investigation into the theories related to the attributes–values relationship and their consequences from the viewpoint of luxury clothing stores. Furthermore, this chapter reviews Objectives 4 and 5 (i.e., identifying the drivers and outcomes of the LFSE and examining the effects of the LFSE on CSMP and RPIN, respectively) to develop a set of hypotheses. A conceptual research model (Figure 4.1) is then proposed based on the discussion of the critical theories to address the research gaps and attain the objectives. Thus, this chapter deliberates on the store attributes concept using theories from the marketing, retailing, flagship or branding, tourism and luxury brand literature. The key construct of the research model is LFSA, with the LFSE recognised as a perceived reaction to LFSA, and customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN) are considered to be the behavioural consequences of LFSA and the LFSE. This chapter also argues that the types of luxury brands and generation influence the relationship between LFSA and LFSE and the impact of the LFSE on the CSMP and RPIN as a moderating construct.

1.11.5 Chapter 6: Development and Extension of LFSE and LFSA Scales

Chapter 6 depicts the process of development, extension and validation of scales for the luxury store experience (LFSE) and the four dimensions of luxury store attributes (LFSA). In doing so, the chapter addresses Objective 2 (i.e., an extension of scales to measure the LFSE and the LFSA); Objective 3 (i.e., development and validation of the scales to measure LFSA); Objective 4 (i.e., identification of the drivers and outcomes

of the LFSE); and Objective 5 (i.e., examination of the effects of the LFSE on CSMP and RPIN).

The chapter focuses on the scale development process framework adopted by Churchill (1979) to extend the LFSE scales and develop new LFSA scales. For the scale extension, this study proposed and refined a multidimensional LFSE scale by replicating and extending the previous work of Brakus et al. (2009), in their examination of the broad brand experience, in the context of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). Moreover, the study proposed a multidimensional scale for the LFSA constructs. The key steps for the scale development process comprised specification of the domain and dimensionality of constructs, development of the initial scale items, and purification, refinement, validation and generalisation of the scales.

1.11.6 Chapter 7: General Discussion

Chapter 7 discusses the data analysis and results of the conceptual extension of the LFSE and LFSA constructs (Study 1) and the extension and development of scale items to measure the constructs (Study 2). The chapter covers the general discussion of the findings of these two studies. Notably, the chapter discusses the empirical findings to answer the research questions and address the objectives that acknowledge the research gaps in the literature. The discussion also focuses on interpreting the data analysis to extend the meaning of the hypothetical relationships between the independent, mediating and dependent variables.

1.11.7: Chapter 8 Conclusion

Chapter 8 provides an overview of the study and offers the theoretical, methodological and managerial contributions. The chapter also discusses the challenges and limitations of this study and concludes with a brief discussion of the promising future research directions in this study's subject area.

1.12 Chapter Summary

Chapter 1's objective was to provide an overview of the current study. The chapter initially discussed the research problem, its rationale and objectives, followed by the specification of the research questions as they apply to the luxury flagship clothing industry. The chapter then presented the research methodology regarding the research

paradigm, research method, sampling, scaling, and data analysis techniques. The chapter also outlined the study's contributions in terms of theory, methodology and practice. Finally, the chapter presented the structure of the thesis by briefly outlining the eight chapters and defining the key terms used. The following chapter (Chapter 2: Literature Review) reviews the literature and synthesises the findings and gaps in the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter 1) described the overview of the research, its scope, the research questions and objectives. This chapter addresses the five objectives of the study. These objectives were developed based on the three research questions (i.e., how can we conceptualise the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA, develop measures for the LFSE and LFSA, and identify drivers and outcomes of the LFSE). This chapter reviews the literature on the experiential aspects of the luxury flagship store and their drivers and consequences.

This chapter comprises a literature review of the experiential marketing literature. Firstly, it reviews the experiential marketing literature to gain fundamental insights into experience marketing (Section 2.2). Notably, this section focuses on the concept of experience, its corresponding components and its application in the marketing literature. The following sections review the literature on customer experience (Section 2.3), product experience (Section 2.4), brand experience (Section 2.5), consumption experience (Section 2.6), shopping and service experience (Section 2.7) to develop a conceptual extension of luxury flagship store experience (Section 2.8). A review of pertinent concepts, theories, methods, drivers, consequences and moderators of the constructs have been made in each section. Finally, the discussion of the literature review aided in developing the research questions and objectives of the study presented in Chapter 1. The extant literature discusses the experiential aspects of the consumers from a product, brand, service, consumption or store viewpoint and often overlaps these concepts with each other. This thesis covers them under their respective headings, shown in Figure 2.1.

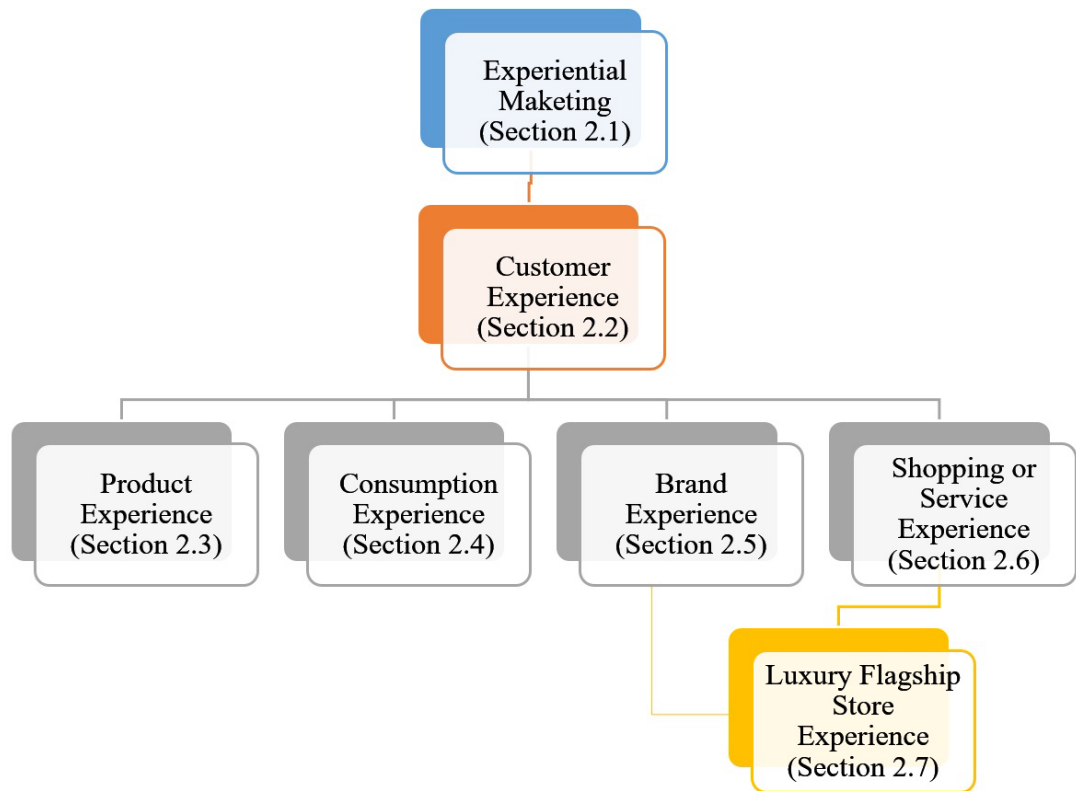


Figure 2.1 Overview of literature review

2.2 Experiential Marketing

The progression of economic value has diverted the customer perception of consumption value beyond that of commodities, goods and services. Customers today want more than features, quality and benefits from marketers, seeking that which can dazzle their senses, touch their hearts, stir their minds and relate to their lifestyle (Schmitt, 1999a). Therefore, experiential marketing refers to the use of five strategic experiential aspects: sense, feel, think, act and relate to create different types of experiences for the customers (Schmitt, 1999a). Consumption has begun to be perceived as connecting a balanced flow of fantasies, feelings and fun (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). The new socio-economic environment and modern retail stimuli (i.e., omnipresence, brand supremacy, universal communication and entertainment) have shifted traditional marketing toward experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999b). Customers have become guests (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) to receive a memorable experience from their purchase journey. In these circumstances, most industries move from traditional marketing to experiential marketing.

Recently, marketers are redefining the value proposition of their brands to exceed competitive advantages by delivering memorable, pleasurable and meaningful

experiences to their customers (Grewal et al., 2009). Again, marketing academics and practitioners have recognised the need to deeply understand the experiential aspects in tourism (Le et al., 2019; Rather, 2020), the retail context (Carmo et al., 2022; Tynan & McKechnie, 2009). Experiences are measured as providing new economic value to customers over and above products and services (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Hence, experience marketing has been a topical issue in the past four decades.

2.2.1 Characteristics of Experiential Marketing

Experience marketing concentrates on consumption situations that facilitate customer engagement in an emotion-driven rational choice, connecting to the customer (Schmitt, 2010) through drivers and multi-faceted tools (Schmitt, 1999a). Experience is firmly individual and causes the customer to be involved at different levels; sensory, emotional, physical, rational and spiritual (Schmitt, 2010). According to Schmitt (1999a, 1999b), experiential marketing contrasts in four critical ways with the traditional approach: marketing focus, consumption pattern, customers' views, and methods and tools used.

Focus on customer experiences: experience marketing focuses on customer experiences with a relatively narrow focus on functional benefits and features. It happens through encountering, undergoing or living through things and delivering sensory, cognitive, emotional, behavioural and relational values interchange with functional values.

Consumption as a holistic experience: experiential marketers consider the holistic consumption experience rather than emphasising products. For example, they position the consumption experience as 'grooming in the bathroom', replacing the functional name of products, such as 'shampoo, shaving cream, blow dryer and perfume'.

Methods and tools are heterogeneous: experiential marketers are diverse, multi-faceted and eclectic or heterogeneous, not bound to one methodological ideology. Some methods and tools used to measure the sensory impact are highly quantitative and analytical. Some are more qualitative and intuitive to understand creative thinking. Others are verbal, taking the traditional format of an in-depth interview, a focus group or a questionnaire. Furthermore, some that occur in an artificial lab environment are visual.

Customers are rational and emotional: customers are driven rationally and emotionally as their experiences are frequently directed toward recreation, fantasies, feelings, and fun (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). The physical and mental apparatus generates sensations, feelings and thoughts. The overall characteristics of experiential marketing can be determined by differentiation from traditional marketing, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Differences between traditional and experiential marketing

Area of Difference	Traditional Marketing	Experiential Marketing
Marketing focus	Functional benefits and features	Customer experience
Consumption orientation	Product categories and brand	Holistic experience
Customers' views	Rational decision	Rational and emotional
Methods used	Analytical, quantitative and verbal	Multi-faceted and eclectic

In outlining experiential marketing, Schmitt (1999a, 1999b) developed strategic experiential modules to create “the customer experience” that today’s managers use to attain a competitive advantage beyond the product and services. This evolving marketing concept (i.e., customer experience) and its corresponding dimensions, drivers and consequences are discussed in the following section.

2.3 Customer Experience

The customer experience (CExp) comprises the perceptions, feelings and thoughts that happen through encountering products and brands in the marketplace and engaging in consumption activities and memories of these experiences (Schmitt, 2010). These personal events respond to stimulation (LaSalle & Britton, 2003). Therefore, customer experience is the internal and subjective response of customers to any direct or indirect contact with a company’s products, services or brands. (Meyer & Schwager, 2007). The customer experience is initiated from a set of interactions between a customer and a company, or its product (Hoch, 2002), brands (Brakus et al., 2009) or a section of its organisation, which provokes a reaction (Gentile et al., 2007). Consequently, marketers increasingly utilise the customer experience to build experiential connections with consumers (Homburg et al., 2017; Le et al., 2019) through a set of marketing activities.

An experience arises during the consumption or use of a product (Holbrook & Hirschman 1982) or when shopping or accessing a service (Babin et al., 1994; Kerin et al., 1992). Furthermore, customer experience consists of individual contacts with a product, brand or employees at different touchpoints (Homburg et al., 2017), either in a physical store (Hui & Bateson, 1991) or through an online platform (Novak et al., 2000). However, this experience is strictly private and involves the customer's responses to different dimensions (Schmitt, 2010) evoked by various stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009) and producing behavioural and psychological consequences (Lemon et al., 2016). The existing customer experience research has followed different consumer behaviour and psychological theories to measure the dimensions, investigate causal relationships and draw research models. Therefore, the theoretical background used in the customer experience literature is discussed in the next section.

2.3.1 Theoretical Background of Customer Experience

This study explored several theories used in the customer experience literature. Prior research on customer experiences, such as Lemke et al. (2011) and Waqas et al. (2021) and other empirical studies (e.g., (Abbott, 1955; Hauser & Urban, 1979) were used attribution theory. In addition, there are different theories, such as the attitude–behaviour–context (ABC) theory (e.g., Anshu et al., 2022; Higham et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2021); the stimulus–organism–response (S–O–R) framework (e.g., Rose et al., 2012; Won Jeong et al., 2009); the means-end chain (MEC) theory (Gutman, 1982); and expectation confirmation theory (Oliver, 1977) were also found in customer experience research literature.

One of the critical theories in customer experience research is the **attitude–behaviour–context (ABC) theory**. The ABC theory proposes that consumers' behaviour is interlinked with the results of contextual/situational factors and attitudes (Guagnano et al., 1955). Consumers develop a positive attitude toward a product, a service or a company by the powerful influence of contextual factors (Zhang et al., 2018) and demonstrate behaviour that achieves specific anticipated benefits (Feldmann & Hamm, 2015). Contextual factors create a particular situation by enhancing the probability of a customer's behavioural action (Yadav et al., 2019). Scholars have used this theory to investigate the relationships between environmental attitudes and target behaviour (e.g., Goh & Balaji, 2016) and to examine the role of contextual factors in the relationships between consumers' attitudes and behaviour to

influence consumers' buying decisions (e.g., Anshu et al., 2022; Grimmer et al., 2016; Ertz et al., 2016; Rose et al., 2012).

Another popular theory used in the customer experience research literature is the **attribution theory**. Attribution theory applies to the process of the individual's interpretation of events in their subjective environment and how these interpretations or attributions impact their perceptions and ultimate satisfaction (Heider, 1958) or experiences (Jackson, 2019). This process helps to identify the causes of the attribution of an event and the gathering of information and its combination (Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelly, 1987). The attribution process suggests that customers behave as spontaneous scientists and that unanticipated events initiate their attributional thinking (Hastie, 1984). The customer experience literature has also used the **stimulus–organism–response (S–O–R) framework** to draw the relationships between experiential states, their drivers and corresponding consequences. In this stream, many studies (e.g., Rose et al., 2012; Won Jeong et al., 2009) have used the S–O–R framework to conceptualise customer experience as a mental state that leads to specific behaviours influenced by particular stimuli (Jacoby, 2002).

Correspondingly, the **means-end chain (MEC) theory** is another popular theory in customer experience research (e.g., Klaus et al., 2013; Olson & Reynolds, 1983; Young & Feigin, 1975; Zeithaml, 1988). The MEC theory comprises attributes, consequences and values, with attributes perceived as the means to attain a particular set of benefits, thereby helping to spread the consumer's values (Gutman, 1982). Some researchers have used the **expectation confirmation theory (ECT)** (Oliver, 1977) to explain the formation of customer experience due to prior expectation levels (e.g., Sivakumar et al., 2014). This theory is extensively used in consumer behaviour research to investigate continuous consequences driven by previous experience (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Oliver, 1980, 1993; Tse & Wilton, 1988).

According to ECT, consumers first formulate an initial expectation of a particular product or service before purchase. The anticipation of its level of performance varies after consumption or use of the product or service. Therefore, customers determine the degree of expectation confirmation or disconfirmation by measuring the perceived performance against prior expectations. Based on

confirmation or disconfirmation, customers set a level of satisfaction or effect and proceed to repurchase or discontinue using the product or service.

Overall, the theories used in the customer experience literature guide the determination of the dimensions, drivers and consequences of customer experience. The various dimensions of customer experience, drivers and consequences are described in the following sections.

2.3.2 Dimensions of Customer Experience

Customer experience is multidimensional, with its different dimensions considered in the various streams of the experiential marketing literature. The psychological concept of mind modularity (Pinker, 1997) initiated the notion of experience. Many psychological and behavioural studies (e.g., Anderson, 1995; Brakus, 2001; Simonson & Schmitt, 1997; Tavassoli, 1998) have considered three fundamental dimensions: affect, cognition and sensation. The multidimensionality of experience is likewise recognised extensively in the medical literature. A neurophysiologic study (i.e., Fulbright et al., 2001) reinforced the dimensions of experience as cognitive, emotional and sensory. Other studies in the medical literature (e.g., Coghill et al., 1994; Derbyshire & Jones, 1998; Jones et al., 1991; Paulson et al., 1998; Talbot et al., 1991) have consistently supported these dimensions with their findings on the human brain imagination system. Schmitt (1999a, 1999b) later introduced five dimensions of experiential marketing approaches, with these dominated by philosopher Dewey (1922). This paper called these dimensions “strategic experiential modules” and named them sense, feel, think, act, and relate. According to Schmitt,

- **Sense marketing** demands five senses (i.e., sight, smell, sound, touch and taste).
- **Feel marketing** attracts consumers’ inner feelings and emotions (e.g., enjoyment, pride, etc.).
- **Think marketing** fascinates consumers’ brainpower, engaging their creativity by delivering reasoning and problem-solving experiences.
- **Act marketing** is aimed at consumers’ interactions, lifestyles and physical behaviours.

- **Relate marketing** forms experience through considering the consumer's private desires linked to a social context (e.g., self-esteem, self-culture, self-community, etc.).

Similarly, the experience was divided into four dimensions by two marketing scholars, Dubé and LeBel (2003). They referred to the pleasure dimension and renamed it emotional, intellectual, physical and social pleasures. Fornerino et al. (2006) also examined the immersive consumption experience and determined five dimensions: sensory, affective, cognitive, physical-behavioural and social. Finally, Gentile et al. (2007) extended experiential marketing into six dimensions. It was also supported later by many researchers as De Keyser et al. (2015) and Keiningham et al. (2017). These dimensions of customer experience are explained below:

- **Sensory** – a dimension of experiential marketing that shakes the senses by addressing hearing, smell, sight, taste and touch, stimulating aesthetical pleasure, excitement, satisfaction and a sense of beauty.
- **Emotional** – a dimension that involves consumers' affective system, generating emotions, feelings and moods to produce an affective relationship with the company, its products or brand.
- **Cognitive** – a dimension that connects the conscious mental process by engaging consumers in thinking or problem-solving.
- **Pragmatic** – a dimension of experiential marketing that results from a consumer's physical or behavioural action in doing something reflecting usability.
- **Lifestyle** – a dimension that originates from the assertion of values and personal beliefs of a consumer through the acceptance of a lifestyle and behaviours.
- **Relational** – a relational dimension that appears from the social context and relationships with others or a consumer's ideal self. This experience happens during typical consumption to perceive a real or imagined community or to uphold a social identity.

The above dimensions consist of different components that can be measured using different scales developed by customer experience scholars (see Table 2.2).

Drawing from the extant literature, considerable agreement is observed concerning the multiple dimensions of customer experience. One category of the experiential dimension is related to the physical or tangible object, including sensory and emotion or affective. Another category relates to using or consuming a physical or tangible object, delivering cognitive or intellectual dimensions, and pragmatic or behavioural dimensions. Finally, the lifestyle and social or relational dimensions fall into the intangible or personality category of the experiential approach. Therefore, the current study summarised the above six dimensions of experiential marketing into three dimensions of customer experience:

- **Contextual** – contextual experiential aspect shakes the senses by addressing hearing, smell, sight, taste and touch, which stimulate aesthetical pleasure, excitement, satisfaction and a sense of beauty and generate emotions, feelings and moods to produce an affective relationship with the company, its products or brand.
- **Intellectual** – intellectual experiential aspects connect consumers’ conscious mental process, engaging them in thinking or problem solving and creating a consumer’s physical or behavioural action to do something reflecting usability.
- **Social** – social experiential elements originate from the assertion of values and personal beliefs of a consumer through the acceptance of a lifestyle and behaviours as well as connecting the consumer to the social context and relationships with others or with a consumer’s ideal self. This happens during typical consumption to perceive a real or imagined community or uphold a social identity.

Table 2.2 Measures of different dimensions of customer experience

Dimensions	Components/Measures/Scales	Author(s)
Sense/ Sensory	Design	De Keyser et al. 2015; Gentile et al., 2007;
	Elegant and essential style	
	Material and colour	Keiningham et al., 2017
	Aesthetic aspects (shape, colour, design)	
	Sensory experiences through sight, sound, touch, taste and smell	Schmitt, 1999a
Feel/ Emotional	Usage for fun/entertainment	De Keyser et al. 2015; Gentile et al., 2007;

Dimensions	Components/Measures/Scales	Author(s)
		Keiningham et al., 2017
	Affective experiences through moods and emotions of joy and pride	Schmitt, 1999a
Think/ Cognitive	Extra functions	De Keyser et al. 2015; Gentile et al., 2007;
	Existence of a dedicated line of accessories	Keiningham et al., 2017
	Creating cognitive, problem-solving experiences	Schmitt, 1999a
	Thinking through surprise, intrigue and provocation	
Act/ Behavioural/ Pragmatic/ Physical	The interface is user-friendly	Gentile et al., 2007
	It is easy and comfortable to use	
	It is easy to carry and to use even in motion	
Relate/ Relational/ Social	Alternative ways of doing things	Schmitt, 1999a
	Opportunity to be a member of a community	De Keyser et al. 2015; Gentile et al., 2007;
	Opportunity to share musical files with others	Keiningham et al., 2017
	Perceived positively by individual others (e.g., one's peers, girlfriend, boyfriend or spouse; family and colleagues)	Schmitt, 1999a
Lifestyle	Related to a broader social system (e.g., subculture and a country)	
	Specificity and distinctiveness with respect to others	Gentile et al., 2007
	Prestige and fame	

The different experiential aspects are evoked by various environmental cues and social and relational elements acting as antecedents or drivers of experiential marketing. The following section describes the drivers of customer experience.

2.3.3 Drivers of Customer Experience

Customer experience occurs through several drivers that evoke experiences often referred to as experiential stimuli (Schmitt, 2010). Each experiential aspect happens through specific experiential stimuli, such as products or brands, logos, designs, services, store elements, etc. Customer experience arises at different stages of the

experience engagement model (Lasalle & Britton, 2002) and purchase situations (Davis & Longoria, 2003). Therefore, the degree or strength and longevity of experience may vary due to the different dimensions evoked by different drivers or stimuli.

The dimensions of customer experience can be summarised into three levels which happen at the three different stages of the buying process: pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase. Drawing from this view, Davis and Longoria (2003) presented the “touchpoint wheel”, and Lemon and Verhoef (2016) conceptualised three stages of experience. In their studies, they mentioned three phases of experience and their corresponding drivers as experience touchpoints that produce different elements or aspects of experiences. For example, sensory and emotional experiences arise from the interaction between a consumer and physical, tangible or consumable elements (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) of an object, product, store environment and design and structural elements of the product and/or organisation and product offerings those consumers can hear, see, smell, touch, taste and feel (Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt 1999a, 1999b, 2010). These experiential aspects can happen during the pre-purchase, purchase or post-purchase stage of a consumer’s buying process (Davis & Longoria, 2003).

Similarly, the cognitive and pragmatic dimensions of customer experience are produced from physical attributes (e.g., product packaging, price, assortment, displays, etc.) and interactions with service staff (Davis & Longoria, 2003) when consumers purchase or consume a product or services (Gentile et al., 2007). Finally, the lifestyle and relational aspects of customer experience occur at the post-purchase stage. They are sustained for a long-lasting period (Morse & Carter, 1996), evoked by product performance, customer service, communication and gaining respect from the organisation or store (Davis & Longoria, 2003). Therefore, the current study summarised the stimuli or attributes into three dimensions as drivers of customer experience:

- **Pre-purchase drivers** – name, advertising, public relations, websites, new media, direct mail/samples, coupons and incentives, deals and promotions.
- **Purchase drivers** – packaging, assortment, point-of-purchase displays, store practice and policy, store and shelf placements, salespeople and sales environments.

- **Post-purchase drivers** – products and packages, consumption or use performance, customer service, brand community and loyalty programs.

Therefore, this study draws on the view that customer experience occurs due to the drivers, as mentioned above. In turn, different dimensions of customer experience leave impressions that result in consequences. The various consequences of experience are discussed in the following section.

2.3.4 Consequences of Customer Experience

From the viewpoint of the very early research in experiential marketing, the consequences of customer experience (CExp) are the fun that a customer derives from a product or service, enjoyment from the offerings and the feeling of pleasure that is evoked from the consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Klinger, 1971). These components (i.e., fun, enjoyment and pleasure) are considered emotional or affective aspects of customer experience by the experiential marketing researcher (e.g., Schmitt, 1999a, 1999b; Gentile et al., 2007).

In terms of consequences, one of the most contributory outcomes is satisfaction. Many researchers, such as Becker and Jaakkola (2020), Klaus et al. (2013) and Lemon and Verhoef (2016), explored satisfaction as an essential consequence of customer experience. According to these researchers, customer experience is an independent variable leading significantly and positively toward satisfaction in the customer journey model. Customers seek emotional gratification from their consumption to form an affective response that influences their satisfaction (Srivastava & Kaul, 2014). Again, customer experience has a positive influence on product evaluation through its sensory aspects (Cohen & Areni, 1991), favourable judgement of performance through affective responses (Murphy et al., 2011) and, finally, positively influences satisfaction (Srivastava & Kaul, 2014). Many researchers (e.g., Anderson et al., 2004; Grewal et al., 2009; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016) also identified a firm's performance as a consequence of CExp from the organisational viewpoint. According to these researchers, customer experience influences the firm's performance in terms of its financial metrics (e.g., returns on assets and investment) and market metrics (e.g., sales and market share).

Consequently, the customer experience model influences both short-term actions, such as immediate purchase and the share of the customer's wallet (Lemon &

Verhoef, 2016; Srivastava & Kaul, 2016) and long-term loyalty, word of mouth (Court et al., 2009; Klaus et al., 2013) and reputation (Foroudi et al., 2016). According to these researchers, customer experience impacts on the immediate purchase consequences by increasing conversion rates and the long-term connection through positively affecting customer loyalty, happiness (Bhattacharjee & Mogilner, 2014; Schmitt et al., 2015), value-in-use (Becker & Jaakkola, 2020; Lemke et al., 2011) and participation in favour of the company (Klaus et al., 2013). Furthermore, customer experience influences consumer trust through affective and rational bonding (McAllister, 1995). In summary, the current study identified the following consequences of customer experience from the extant literature:

- **Firm performance** (e.g., Anderson et al., 2004; Grewal et al., 2009)
- **Value-in-use** (e.g., Becker & Jaakkola, 2020)
- **Satisfaction** (e.g., Klaus et al., 2013)
- **Happiness** (e.g., Bhattacharjee & Mogilner, 2014; Schmitt et al., 2015)
- **Loyalty** (e.g., Srivastava & Kaul, 2016)
- **Reputation** (e.g., Foroudi et al., 2016)

The existing literature also examined the relative effects of customer experience on consequences based on moderating variables. The intensity of the effects may increase or decrease with the presence or absence of the moderators. The relevant moderating variables are described in the following section, based on the extant literature.

2.3.5 Mediating Role of Customer Experience

Past studies examined the mediating role of customer experience and identified its positive impacts on strengthening the relationship between drivers and consequences in different contexts. Customer experience can mediate the association between product attributes and brand equity (Sheng & Teo, 2012). This mediating view of customer experience suggests that product attributes could affect brand equity more strongly through their effects on customer experience. Similarly, customer experience is found to mediate the relationship between store attributes, loyalty, and actual purchase (e.g., Jeloudarlou et al., 2022; Kuppelwieser et al., 2021; Srivastava & Kaul, 2014). The attributes of touch points or stores, such as atmosphere, technology, services, etc., affect overall customer experience and thereby, customer experience significantly influences loyalty intention and actual purchase (Stein & Ramaseshan,

2019). Studies in retailing also support the mediating role of customer experience. For example, findings of an empirical on departmental store shoppers identified that customer experience mediates the relationship between perceived convenience and customer satisfaction (Srivastava & Kaul, 2014). Perceived convenience leads to a higher customer experience; in turn, customer experience leads to customer satisfaction. Thus the indirect effect of perceived convenience on customer satisfaction via customer experience is more substantial and enduring.

Customer experience is also recognised as a mediator in the tourism literature. Customer experience mediates in the relationships between employee engagement and customer engagement, service innovation and customer engagement, and servicescape and customer engagement value (Manosuthi et al., 2021). Employee engagement (EE) and service innovation (SI) trigger customer engagement (CE) via memorable experience (MExp), where MExp acts as a mediator in the path relationships of EE-MExp-CE and SI-MExp-CE (Manosuthi et al., 2021). Similarly, servicescape positively affects customer experience; then, the relationship chain goes to customer engagement value (Jeloudarlou et al., 2022). Finally, services marketing literature (Kuppelwieser et al., 2021) acknowledged the customer experience as a mediator in the relationship between customer perceived value and word-of-mouth behaviour. The study findings suggest that customer experience plays a crucial role in the customer perceived value and word-of-mouth relationship (Kuppelwieser et al., 2021). Therefore, the current study summarised the mediating role of customer experience in Figure 2.2.



Figure 2.2 Summary of the Mediating Role of Customer Experience

2.3.6 Moderators Used in Customer Experience Literature

Customer experience can differ, or its impacts on consequences can fluctuate through the effects of moderating variables. Individual motivation has received considerable attention in consumer behaviour research as an essential moderating variable. The existing literature indicates two basic motivational orientations. For example, product or service usefulness can create a more substantial customer experience in a utilitarian motivation orientation. In contrast, hedonic motivation orientation demands the customer's enjoyment of the product or service to create an intense experience that affects the consequences (Childers et al., 2001). Therefore, the intensity of the overall customer experience differs when moderated concerning the different motivational orientations (Pons et al., 2016; Roy, 2018; Stein & Ramaseshan, 2019).

Consequently, many studies on retailing (e.g., Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Lamey et al., 2007; Sloot & Verhoef, 2008; Verhoef et al., 2009) have considered buying situations and customer characteristics as another two moderators of customer experience. According to these researchers, buying situations include the location (e.g., mall vs. city centre); season (e.g., regular vs. holiday); type of store (e.g., specialty vs. general or discount vs. full service); social culture (e.g., masculinity, individualism); channel (physical store vs. Internet); economic climate (e.g., recession vs. expansion); and competitive intensity. On the other hand, customer characteristics comprise socio-demographics, attitudes (e.g., price sensitivity, innovativeness, involvement) and goals (i.e., task orientation vs. experiential).

In another study, shopping contexts were used separately to influence consumer trust as a moderator of customer experience (Chan, 2018). According to this study, shopping context (i.e., local vs. foreign) moderates the relationships between customer experience and consumer trust. Furthermore, Meng and Cui (2020) identified that value co-creation moderates the relationships between customer experience and its outcomes, intensifying customer experience's effects on customer attitude. Therefore, the current study summarised the moderating variables of customer experience as follows:

- **Motivational orientation** (e.g., Stein & Ramaseshan, 2016)
- **Buying situation** (e.g., Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006)
- **Customer characteristics** (e.g., Dabholkar & Bagozzi, 2002)

- **Shopping context** (e.g., Chan, 2018)
- **Value co-creation** (e.g., Meng & Cui, 2020)

The extant literature on customer experience identified various dimensions of customer experience (CExp) and examined the relationships between the dimensions, drivers and consequences using different research methods. The following section discusses the methods used in several studies in the customer experience literature.

2.3.7 Methods Used in Customer Experience Research

Studies in the extant literature on customer experience have used several qualitative, quantitative and mixed-methods approaches based on their research objectives. Popular methods in the qualitative approach used in customer experience research include in-depth interviews (e.g., Homburg et al., 2017; Klaus et al., 2013; Lemke et al., 2011); case studies (e.g., Gentile et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998); the analytical hierarchy process (AHP) (Anshu et al., 2022); and grounded theory (Homburg et al., 2017). Seminal studies, such as Pine and Gilmore (1998) and Schmitt (1999a), were conceptual, while others were literature review studies. Customer experience researchers have used face-to-face interviews, online and mobile app surveys, and experimental methods in their quantitative approaches.

Widely used methods for exploring CExp dimensions, drivers and consequences include the **repertory grid technique (RGT)** (e.g., Lemke et al., 2011) and the **laddering technique** (e.g., Klaus et al., 2013), which are two different types of in-depth interviews. The RGT is a form of structured interviewing based on Kelly's (1955, 1963) personal construct theory. This technique helps by breaking customers' complex views into convenient sub-components of meaning to explore topics from the respondents' indirect opinions and tacit knowledge (Burr & Butt, 1992; Goffin, 2002; Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Therefore, the RGT is suitable in customer experience research (Lemke et al., 2011) as experiences are judged and exist at both an unconscious and a conscious level (Joy & Sherry, 2003). Likewise, the **laddering technique** is suitable for exploring the experience's perceptual attributes through the in-depth interview (Klaus et al., 2013). It is a bottom-up interviewing technique to abstract sophisticated meanings that drive customers' perceptions by asking a series of questions (Reynolds & Phillips, 2008). This technique identifies distinctive attributes that drive an individual customer and determines the importance of attributes to a

particular customer by adding a probing technique. The laddering technique is highly used to link the sequence of attributes, consequences and personal values based on the means-end chain (MEC) theory (e.g., Gutman, 1982; Rosenberg, 1956).

Another method of customer experience research found in the extant literature is a case study (e.g., Frow & Payne, 2007; Gentile et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Ponsignon et al., 2017). The **case study** method allows in-depth, multi-faceted explorations of complex and contemporary issues in the real-world context (Yin, 2009). It offers the prospect of generating theoretical intuition into experience through cautiously chosen cases (Siggelkow, 2007). It permits access to rich data about customers and organisations to develop an inclusive picture (Yin, 2003). Researchers collect case study information from company records, desk research and field visits (Frow & Payne, 2007).

Finally, two critical methods, namely, the **analytical hierarchy process (AHP)** and **grounded theory**, are used in the customer experience research literature. The AHP theory develops a hierarchical structure of purpose, criteria and alternatives to solve complex situations (Albayrak, 2004) through monitoring, ranking, highlighting and selecting alternatives (Hwang, 1981). The combination of a literature review and experts' reviews evaluate pairwise constructs, estimate criteria credence and test consistency to initiate final constructs for further calculations (Albayrak, 2004; Anshu et al., 2022). The theoretical origins of customer experience (Section 2.3.1) are outlined in several specialised fields of experience. The following sections discuss the different areas of experience, such as product experience (Section 2.4); brand experience (Section 2.5); consumption experience (Section 2.6); and shopping or service experience (Section 2.7) that specify the concentrated stream of experience. This study then tries to develop a conceptual extension of the luxury flagship store experience (LSFE) (Section 2.8), drawing from the different domains of customer experience. Finally, a preliminary conceptual model (Section 2.9) is drawn, based on the LFSE's conceptual extension.

2.4 Product Experience

Product experience (PExp) is the customer's internal response that occurs by interacting with products while searching for, examining, and evaluating them (Hoch, 2002). This experience may happen either in direct physical interaction with the

product (Hoch & Ha, 1986) or indirectly through a virtual presentation on a digital platform or television advertisement (Kempf & Smith 1998). The existing product experience research has followed different consumer behaviour and psychological theories to measure the dimensions and investigate the causal relationships. Thus, the theoretical background used in the product experience literature is discussed in the following section.

2.4.1 Theoretical Background of Product Experience

Product experience researchers (e.g., Hoch & Ha, 1986; Hoch & Deighton, 1989; Fran et al., 2014) developed their concepts and research models based on the **memory schemata theory** (Bobrow & Norman, 1975), **learning theory models of attitude** (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and **information processing theory of consumer choice** (Bettman, 1979). The initial theory used in the product experience literature to develop ideas and research models is based on the memory schemata theory. Two American researchers, Bobrow and Norman (1975), developed this theory, postulating that an intelligent and extensive memory system stores information and processes for interpretation and further use. This memory schema establishes consumers everyday beliefs from their experience by generating learning from ambiguous and unambiguous environments (Hoch & Ha, 1986). Bobrow and Norman (1975) distinguished memory processing in two ways: concept-driven or top-down processing and data-driven or bottom-up processing. Concept-driven learning or experience is perceived through prior knowledge and expectations. In contrast, the physical characteristics of a stimulus guide data-driven learning or experience. The memory schemata theory plays an essential role in explaining individuals' information process about the stimuli they receive from an object or product and in integrating the information alongside their mental schema (Rodríguez-Molina et al., 2019). Individuals obtain relevant new information, compare it to their prior mental schema and generate memory and cognitive amplification (Lee & Faber, 2007).

The learning or think experience is also conceptualised by relating to the **learning theory of attitudes** of Fishbein & Ajzen (1975). Hoch and Deighton (1989) conceptualised the learning experience as an intuitive hypothesis-testing process through which consumers familiarise their beliefs to make sense of new data (Bower & Hilgard, 1981). According to the learning theory of attitudes (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), consumers' beliefs are developed by understanding information about the kinds

and levels of attributes possessed through products, the relationship between product attributes and outcomes, and the relationship between outcomes and affect (Hoch & Deighton, 1989).

Another vital theory used in product experience research is the **information processing theory of consumer choice** (Bettman, 1979). According to this theory, consumers are motivated to seek any goals based on relevant information acquisition, encoding and choice. Consumers respond to the product based on the simple presence of information that stimulates their inferences about the product (Huffman & Houston, 1993) and then produces outcomes (Frank et al., 2014). Overall, the theories used in the product experience literature suggest determining the dimensions, drivers, consequences and moderators used, with these described in the following sections.

2.4.2 Dimensions of Product Experience

Product experience (PExp) is more likely to be evaluated in an absolute sense (feels good or bad) without the deliberation of applicable standards (Hoch, 2002). It induces cognitive inference between the perceived quality and the expectation (Festinger, 1962). A consumer reacts with **affective responses** toward the product, showing emotional reactions or experiences generated from direct physical contact with the product (e.g., Mano & Oliver, 1993). Again, consumers show **cognitive responses** through evaluating the product's overall quality and functional information (Kempf & Smith, 1998). Therefore, the current study concluded that the following key dimensions were used in the extant product experience research:

- **Sensory responses** (Hoch, 2002)
- **Affective responses** (e.g., Mano & Oliver 1993)
- **Cognitive responses** (Kempf & Smith 1998; Festinger, 1962)

2.4.3 Drivers of Product Experience

Product experience is driven by experiential **attributes**, such as taste, speed, weight, softness (Kempf & Smith, 1998) and the **perceived quality** of the product (Frank et al., 2014). The affective dimension of the product experience is driven by the direct physical contact of the product (Mano & Oliver, 1993). In contrast, cognitive experience is driven by the functionality and quality of the product (Kempf & Smith, 1998). Again, consumers may gain experiences through **product advertising** that enhance their thinking to influence their purchase decisions (Hoch & Ha, 1986).

Consequently, the significant drivers of product experience identified in the extant literature are as follows:

- **Attributes** (Kempf & & Smith, 1998)
- **Perceived quality** (Frank et al., 2014)
- **Product advertising** (Hoch & Ha, 1986)

2.4.4 Consequences of Product Experience

Customers engage in various actions as consequences when they have had a product experience. Consumers develop product beliefs through the function of products' tactile experience that changes brand cognition over time (Olson & Dover, 1979). Product experience creates positive or negative influences on brand attitudes (Elliot & Devine, 1994; Hoch & Deighton, 1989), purchase intention (Kempf & Smith, 1998), product preference and judgements (Huffman & Houston, 1993), and customer loyalty (Frank et al., 2014). The prior research investigated and identified the following key consequences:

- **Brand cognition** (e.g., Olson & Dover, 1979)
- **Brand attitudes** (e.g., Elliot & Devine 1994)
- **Purchase intention** (e.g., Kempf & Smith, 1998)
- **Product preference and judgements** (e.g., Huffman & Houston, 1993)
- **Customer loyalty** (e.g., Frank et al., 2014)

2.4.5 Moderators Used in Product Experience Literature

One of the critical moderating variables of product experience discussed in the extant literature is the customer's prior knowledge. The expected degree of influence on the consequences of product experience may vary based on the customer's **prior knowledge**, especially his/her functional knowledge (Huffman & Houston, 1993) about the product. Another moderator is the **breadth of experience** or the **familiarity with the product**. Customers face difficulties encoding complex elements of product experience due to having less breadth of experience, with the converse applying (Sujan, 1985). Correspondingly, the **time since purchase** and the **relative price** of the product moderate the various dimensions of product experience (Frank et al., 2014). The critical moderators used in the product experience literature are therefore summarised as follows:

- **Prior knowledge** (Huffman & Houston, 1993)
- **Familiarity with the product** (Sujan, 1985)
- **Time since purchase** ((Frank et al., 2014)
- **Relative price** (Frank et al., 2014)

2.4.6 Methods Used in Product Experience Literature

The popular method used in product experience research is the quantitative approach using **experiments** (e.g., Hoch & Ha, 1986; Huffman & Houston, 1993; Kempf & Smith, 1998) and consumer surveys (e.g., Frank et al., 2014). One experiment was designed using product categories that provided ambiguous or unambiguous evidence about product quality to consumers, making their judgments on product quality (Hoch & Ha, 1986). Another experiment was designed by delivering multiple features of products and instructing respondents to acquire information and select a product (Huffman & Houston, 1993). A different experimental method was designed, which allowed respondents to trial products and evaluate their performance to identify products' functional and hedonic elements (Kempf & Smith, 1998).

2.5 Brand Experience

Customer experience can be narrowed down to brand experience (BrandExp) when the customer is exposed to certain brand-related stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experience comprises internal and subjective consumer responses, such as sensation, feeling, cognition and behavioural responses, toward a brand influenced by brand-related stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experience does not cover the functional features and benefits of products and services (Schmitt, 1999b). However, customers are exposed to several brand-related stimuli, such as brand-identifying design elements, typefaces (Mandel & Johnson, 2002), shapes (Veryzer & Hutchinson, 1998), logos, slogans, characters (Keller, 1987) and colours (Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Gorn et al., 1997). These brand-related stimuli may be produced from a brand's identity (e.g., brand name) and design (e.g., logos, signage), marketing communications, packaging and the retail environment (Brakus et al., 2009).

2.5.1 Theoretical Background of Brand Experience

The most popular theories used in the extant brand experience literature are the interpersonal relationship theory (Fournier, 1998); appraisal theory of emotion (Lazarus, 1991); the service-dominant logic (SDL) theory (Vargo & Lusch, 2004);

consumer culture theory (CCT) (Arnould & Thompson, 2005); theory of value creation (Reichheld, 1996); social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974); attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969); and the S–O–R framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The **interpersonal relationship theory**, developed by Fournier (1998), has examined the relationship proposition between customers and the brand. According to this theory, the relationship between consumers and brands is similar to human relationships as brands are somehow personalised or humanised. The brands contribute significantly to the relationship dyad as an active object of marketing transactions. Therefore, consumers can easily assign consistent personality qualities to brand objects (Aaker, 1997) as brands have human characters (Levy, 1985; Plummer, 1985) and articulate their particular relationship views (Blackston, 1993). The experiences and connections between brands and consumers emerge into relationship behaviour over time (Hamzah et al., 2014; Nobre & Simões, 2019). Favourable experiences encourage consumers to purchase the brand repeatedly and influence others to buy that brand (Brakus et al., 2009; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Similarly, consumers put efforts into maintaining solid relationships for obtaining consistent, meaningful experiences (Fournier, 1998). In turn, the experiential aspects of a brand establish a consumer–brand relationship through interactions in favour of the brand (Payne et al., 2009). The extant brand experience literature has used the interpersonal relationship theory to examine brand commitment (Dick & Basu, 1994); brand community (McAlexander et al., 2002); brand personality (Aaker et al., 2004); brand co-creation (Payne et al., 2009); brand attachment (Park et al., 2010); brand love (Batra et al., 2012); and brand loyalty (Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014).

Another theory used in brand experience research is the **appraisal theory of emotion** (Lazarus, 1991). This theory specifies that cognitive appraisal leads to emotions and is similar to the information processing assessment of consumer behaviour (Bagozzi et al., 1999). According to this theory, consumers evaluate the personal meaning of a stimulating event or object using a cognitive appraisal process prior to generating emotional responses (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Lazarus & Lazarus, 1994). The appraisal theory of emotion has been used to examine the relationship between consumption emotions and post-consumption behaviours (Bougie et al., 2003; Nyer, 1997; Soscia, 2007) and the relationship between brand experience and loyalty (e.g., Ding & Tseng, 2015). In the brand experience context, consumers play

an active role in attaining the brand experience evoked by utilitarian and hedonic motivation (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Schmitt, 1999a). Consumers judge a brand, based on the perceived brand experience that forms intrinsic cues (Zeithaml, 1988), through appraising the overall gain in utilitarian values (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) and hedonic emotions (Ding & Tseng, 2015) induced by that brand.

Studies in the extant literature on brand experience have used **service-dominant logic (SDL) theory** (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) and consumer culture theory (CCT) (Arnould & Thompson, 2005) to examine the effects of brand experience on customer involvement, engagement and brand equity (Hepola et al., 2017). The SDL theory focuses on tangible resources, embedded value and transactions (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This theory offers an overarching approach to analyse economic exchanges based on service innovation or competencies (i.e., knowledge and skills) instead of product innovation (Drejer, 2004; Michel et al., 2008). The SDL theory views consumers as active co-creators of value (Hepola et al., 2017). The **consumer culture theory (CCT)** also highlights the experiential features of consumption (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). Similar to SDL theory, CCT recognises the critical role of customers in describing their experiences. Many researchers have used CCT to comprehend the experience concept in various contexts (e.g., Andreini et al., 2019; Tafesse, 2016).

Another vital theory used in brand experience research is the **theory of value creation** (Reichheld, 1996). This theory argues that superior value creation is essential for a business to establish customer brand loyalty, to gain profits and to attain sustainable performance. Therefore, brand loyalty is influenced by the brand experience toward a particular brand (Ong et al., 2018). The brand experience is a crucial differentiation instrument to gain loyalty (Ong et al., 2018) as consumers reach consumption value through brand experience (Holbrook, 1999). Correspondingly, the brand experience literature has used **social identity theory** (Tajfel, 1974). This theory postulates that the individual's intention is to classify people into various social categories, such as organisational membership, gender, age cohort and religious affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), defined by prototypical characteristics abstracted from members (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1985). Based on social identity theory, individuals use brands to express their identity in a social context as brands are imperative to these individuals. Studies in the existing literature on brand experience

have used **attachment theory** (Bowlby, 1969) to examine the relationship between brand experience and brand attachment (Sahin et al., 2011). Researchers describe attachment as the bond between an individual and an object or component (Bowlby, 1979).

Similarly, the brand experience can build and improve customer memories and endorse bonding between the brand and the customer (Borghini et al., 2009). Correspondingly, extraordinary brand experience is linked to affirmative brand memories and leads to customers' brand attachment (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019). Thus, when customers perceive an excellent brand experience, they are likely to cultivate an attachment to a particular brand (Kang et al., 2017).

Finally, the **stimulus–organism–response (S–O–R) framework** (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) has been found in the extant brand experience literature as a fundamental theory. The S–O–R framework suggests that environmental stimuli directly affect organisms (i.e., consumers) and, in turn, influence consumers' behavioural responses. Hence, the S–O–R framework has three dimensions: stimulus, organism and response (Mody et al., 2017). In the brand experience literature, the brand-related stimuli comprise brand identity, name, logo, colour, communication and environment. Brand experience is considered to be the customers' sensory, emotional, intellectual and behavioural responses (Brakus et al., 2009).

2.5.2 Dimensions of Brand Experience

Brand experience refers to customers' internal and subjective responses towards a brand's experiential elements (Kang et al., 2017). This can be formed by the combination of sensations (Brakus et al., 2009); enjoyment and feelings (Biedenbach & Marell, 2010; Brakus et al., 2009); cognition (Brakus et al., 2009); behavioural actions (Brakus et al., 2009); and social aspiration (Dirsehan & Çelik, 2011; Schmitt, 1999). The brand experience framework developed by Brakus et al. (2009) has uncovered four dimensions of brand experience: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural. In addition, another dimension of brand experience, namely, relational or social, has been suggested (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Dirsehan & Çelik, 2011; Nysveen et al., 2013; Schmitt, 1999a) to supplement these four dimensions.

Sensory experiences happen through a brand's appeal to a consumer's senses. This dimension of brand experience is revealed through the reactions of customers'

five human senses that is auditory, visual, tactile, taste and olfactory (Brakus et al., 2009; Kwon & Boger, 2021). The affective dimension refers to consumers' strong feelings and emotions toward the brand. The cognitive or intellectual dimension comprises consumers' knowledge, curiosity, thinking and problem-solving aspects of their responses to a brand. The fourth dimension of brand experience is the act or behavioural action that embraces physical dealings and bodily expression toward the brand (Brakus et al., 2009; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010). Finally, the relational or social dimension of brand experience comprises consumers' private desires linked to a social context (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Dirsehan & Çelik, 2011; Nysveen et al., 2013; Schmitt, 1999a). The relational and social dimensions components include self-esteem, self-culture, and self-community (Schmitt, 1999a). Therefore, the current study summarised the four dimensions of brand experience as follows:

- **Sensory experience** – five human senses that are auditory, visual, tactile, taste and olfactory
- **Affective experience** – feelings and emotions
- **Intellectual experience** – knowledge, curiosity and thinking
- **Behavioural experience** – physical dealings and bodily expression

The above dimensions have different components that can be measured using different scales developed by brand experience scholars (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Measures of brand experience
Source: Brakus et al. (2009)

Dimensions	Components/Measures/Scales
Sensory	This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.
	I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.
	This brand does not appeal to my senses.
Affective	This brand induces feelings and sentiments.
	I do not have strong emotions to this brand.
	This brand is an emotional brand.
Intellectual	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.
	This brand does not make me think.
	This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem-solving.
Behavioural	I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand.
	This brand results in bodily experiences.
	This brand is not action-oriented.

2.5.3 Drivers of Brand Experience

The extant literature on brand experience has revealed various antecedents or drivers that influence its different dimensions. Brand experience occurs when customers interact with the brand when searching and shopping for and consuming or using the brand's products in the physical store or on the website (Arnould et al., 2002; Arnold et al., 2005; Brakus et al., 2008; Holbrook, 2000). Therefore, several brand elements drive the brand experience attached to its products or services, store and website, and intangible aspects, such as its values and employee services. One of the significant drivers found in the extant literature is **service quality** which enhances the brand experience (Hwang & Lee, 2018). A brand's service quality can be perceived through the innovativeness of its products and services (Foroudi et al., 2020) when the **brand innovativeness** itself positively influences the brand experience (Nysveen et al., 2018; Teng & Chen, 2021). A brand can improve its innovativeness by establishing an innovative experiential environment that enriches interactions between customers and frontline employees (Teng & Chan, 2021), thus improving the creative brand experience (Kim et al., 2018).

Multi-sensory brand experiences happen through **multi-sensory elements**, such as interior design, background music, scents, art, sculptures or decoration textures (Hulten, 2011; Kwon & Boger, 2021; Wiedmann et al., 2018) and the atmosphere (Klein et al., 2016) of the brand premises. These **multi-sensory elements** and the **atmosphere** represent the brand identity and image and create a memorable brand experience (Hulten, 2011). Again, the combined effects of the atmosphere, the **merchandise assortment** and the salesperson create the **store image** which directly impacts on the customer experience in the store of a particular brand (e.g., Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Verhoef et al., 2009). Furthermore, studies in the extant literature on consumer behaviour have proposed **perceived value** (e.g., Klein et al., 2016) as another driver of brand experience. The higher the perceived value observed, the better the predicted customer responses (Hwang et al., 2021). The perceived value can be broadly categorised as utilitarian and hedonic (Babin et al., 1994). These two types of the perceived value, namely, the utilitarian value and the hedonic value, of a particular brand help to form a memorable brand experience (Hwang et al., 2021). Therefore, the current study identified the following brand attributes as drivers of brand experience from the extant literature:

- **Service quality** (e.g., Hwang & Lee, 2018)
- **Multi-sensory elements** (e.g., Hulten, 2011; Kwon & Boger, 2021)
- **Brand innovativeness** (e.g., Nysveen et al., 2018)
- **Store atmosphere** (e.g., Hulten, 2011)
- **Store image** (e.g., Dolbec & Chebat, 2013)
- **Perceived value** (e.g., Klein et al., 2016)

Consequently, the current study acknowledged that brand experience is caused by the drivers mentioned above. In turn, brand experience results in several consequences discussed in the following section.

2.5.4 Consequences of Brand Experience

The existing studies in the brand experience literature have used and examined several constructs as consequences or outcomes of brand experience. The extant literature has mainly disclosed the following significant consequences of brand experience: **brand attitude** (e.g., Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010); **brand attachment and equity** (e.g., Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Hulten, 2011); **brand loyalty** (e.g., Iglesias et al., 2011); **brand satisfaction** (e.g., Chahal & Dutta, 2015); and **repurchase or revisit intention** (e.g., Beckman et al., 2013; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010). Several studies in the existing literature have revealed that pleasant brand experiences positively impact brand attitude (Grace & O’Cass, 2004; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013). Brand attitude refers to the general evaluative judgement by a consumer toward a brand (Spears & Singh, 2004). Consumers judge a brand based on their experiences induced by the brand’s clues (Khan & Fatma, 2017). Brand experience research has also indicated that a memorable brand experience establishes a strong brand attachment with customers (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Li & Liu, 2020), as brand experience positively accompanies brand attachment (Hwang & Lee, 2018). It is also evident through attachment theory that consumers develop higher brand attachment when they perceive a higher brand experience (Sahin et al., 2011).

Prior studies on consumer behaviour and branding (e.g., Kim & Ko, 2012; Yu & Yuan, 2019) have recognised brand equity as an outcome of brand experience. Brand equity refers to the subjective evaluation of a set of brand assets and liabilities as generated by customers (Aaker, 1991; Vogel et al., 2008). A solid and memorable brand experience positively influences brand equity (Lin, 2015; Cleff et al., 2014).

Based on the extant literature, it is also argued that consumers develop higher levels of brand loyalty after having a more fabulous brand experience (Iglesias et al., 2011; Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014). Brand loyalty refers to the willingness to be loyal toward a brand and to agree to prioritise the purchase of a particular brand over other brands (Oliver, 2014). This is explained as a long-lasting commitment to the same brand, leading to continually purchasing the same product or service over the period (Hwang et al., 2021). A superior brand experience from a brand can have the ability to build strong brand loyalty over other brands (Brakus et al., 2009). Different industries are continuously striving to increase the competitive advantage of their offerings to build a strong brand experience that improves brand loyalty (Hwang & Lee, 2018; Rajumesh, 2014). Therefore, brand experience is found to positively and significantly influence the brand loyalty of a customer toward a particular brand.

The brand experience literature has added brand satisfaction (e.g., Chahal & Dutta, 2015) as one of the key outcomes. Brand satisfaction denotes a consumer's reaction to evaluating a brand, comparing his/her prior expectations and the actual performance of an offering from a particular brand after its consumption or use (Tse & Wilton, 1988) or after visiting the brand's premises. It is evident from the literature that a stronger brand experience increases brand satisfaction (Nysven et al., 2013). Moreover, the sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural dimensions of brand experience have different ways of influencing to lead to positive brand satisfaction (Ha & Perks, 2005; Iglesias et al., 2019; Ishida & Taylor, 2012; Lin, 2015; White & Yu, 2005). Similarly, prior studies in the brand experience literature found repurchase (e.g., Ebrahim et al., 2016; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010) or revisit intention (e.g., Ahn & Back, 2018a; Beckman et al., 2013; Khan & Rahman, 2017) as other consequences of brand experience. The long-lasting brand experience is more likely memorable, which tends to positively influence repurchase of the brand (Ong et al., 2018) or the intention to revisit (Kim et al., 2012) the brands' premises.

In the branding and tourism literature, recent studies (e.g., Beckman et al., 2013; Khan & Fatma, 2017; Ong et al., 2018) identified 'word of mouth' as another consequence of brand experience. Word of mouth refers to informal, person-to-person communication through a perceived non-commercial platform about a brand (Harrison-Walker, 2001). Consumers talk about their experiences with a particular brand to other individuals associated with formal or informal groups (Westbrook.

1987). A positive brand experience encourages repeated interactions with a particular brand and, ultimately, influences **word of mouth** (Beckman et al., 2013; Brakus et al., 2009; Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2011). Finally, the previous literature recognised that a strong brand experience could make a positive association with consumers' **willingness to pay** (WTP) a premium price (e.g., Dwivedi et al., 2018; Ong et al., 2018), thus having a strong influence on a higher price (e.g., Dewar, 2004) for a brand's product. The consumers' WTP refers to the willingness of a consumer to spend the maximum amount of price for a particular product or service (Dwivedi et al., 2018). Through WTP, consumers become less price-sensitive toward a particular brand and wish to continue a favourable relationship while having a unique and memorable experience (Dwivedi et al., 2018; Thomson et al., 2005). Consumers, therefore, tend to value the prospect of enhancing their enjoyment of the brand experience (Clarkson et al., 2013) and are willing to pay more for their preferred brands, with this corresponding to their brand experience (DelVecchio & Smith, 2005; Rao & Monroe, 1996). Therefore, the current study acknowledged the following constructs as consequences of brand experience from the extant literature:

- **Brand attitude** (e.g., Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010)
- **Brand attachment** (e.g., Dolbec & Chebat, 2013)
- **Brand equity** (e.g., Hulten, 2011)
- **Brand loyalty** (e.g., Iglesias et al., 2011)
- **Brand satisfaction** (e.g., Beckman et al., 2013)
- **Repurchase or revisit intention** (e.g., Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010)
- **Word of mouth** (e.g., Beckman et al., 2013)
- **Willingness to pay (WTP) more** (e.g., Dwivedi et al., 2018)

The existing literature also examined the relative effects of brand experience on the consequences, based on moderating variables. The intensity of the effects may increase or decrease with the presence or absence of moderators. The relevant moderating variables are described in the following section.

2.5.5 Mediating Role of Brand Experience

Brand experience construct has been identified as a mediating variable in several studies on branding, hospitality, luxury fashion, retailing and services research, besides its role as a driver or an outcome. In a study on event marketing (Zarantonello

& Schmitt, 2013), the brand experience construct was found to mediate the relationship between pre-event brand equity and post-event brand equity. Consumers participating in different events indicate that event attendance increases brand equity and brand experience plays a significant role as a mediator in creating post-event brand equity (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013). Similarly, brand experience also mediates the relationship between social media marketing activities and consumer-based brand equity (Zollo et al., 2020).

The effects of customer-brand engagement on brand satisfaction and brand loyalty are also mediated by brand experience (Kuppelwieser et al., 2021). The mediation effect of brand experience produces a more potent influence on the relationship path between customer-brand engagement and brand satisfaction; and customer-brand engagement and brand loyalty than the direct relationships (Khan et al., 2016). In hospitality and tourism research, Ahn & Back (2018b) investigated the effects of brand reputation on brand experience and brand attitude. The study findings show that brand experience affects behavioural intention after being influenced by brand reputation. Thereby, brand experience played a mediating role in the relationship between brand reputation and behavioural intention. These results suggest that customers' perception of an integrated resort brand is likely to generate a favourable brand experience, which, in turn, develops customers' revisit intention (Ahn & Back, 2018b).

In branding research, one study's findings provide insights into understanding the relationship between brand innovativeness, perceived quality and perceived value (i.e., Coelho et al., 2020). This results show that brand quality and innovativeness influence brand experience and perceived value. In turn, brand experience influences the perceived value. Moreover, brand experience mediates the relationship between brand innovativeness, brand quality and perceived value (Coelho et al., 2020). Furthermore, brand experience mediates the relationship between corporate social responsibility and brand loyalty. Corporate social responsibility has no direct impact on brand loyalty, but it can influence brand loyalty through the brand experience (Khan & Fatma, 2019). Finally, brand experience mediates the relationship between individual factors and usage intentions (Pallant et al., 2022). Therefore, the current study summarised the mediating role of brand experience in Figure 2.3.

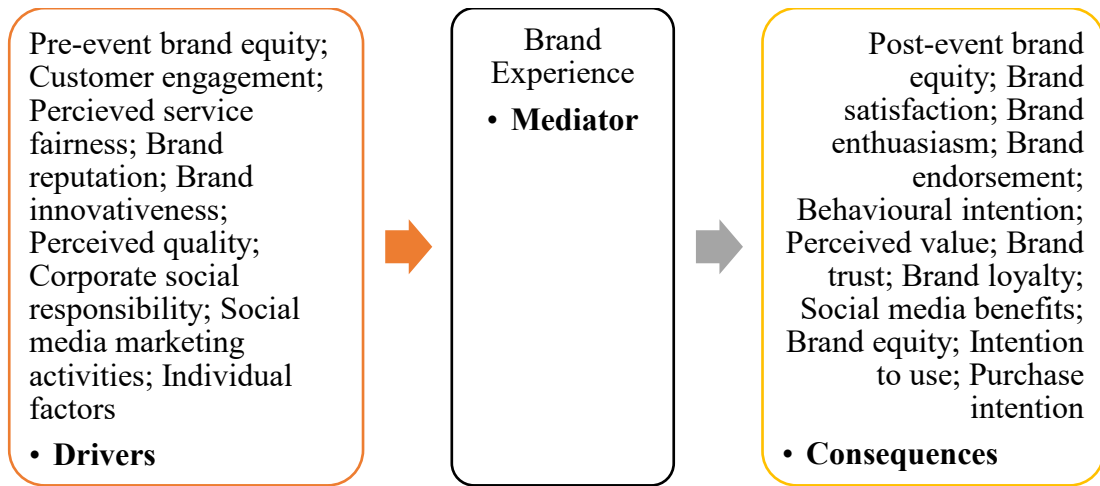


Figure 2.3 Summary of the Mediating Role of Brand Experience

2.5.6 Moderators of Brand Experience

The current brand experience literature identified several moderating variables that affect the relationships between brand experience, its drivers and the consequences. One of the crucial moderating variables of brand experience is the **type of brand store** (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). In comparison to multi-brand stores, a flagship store is designed to deliver a more meaningful brand experience, offering the strong essence of a particular retail brand (Sherry, 1998) by delivering multi-sensory sensual opportunities, playfulness and fun (Kozinets et al., 2004) to produce self-relevant brand meanings (Borghini et al., 2009). Hence, the store types of a brand moderate the relationship between brand experience and its drivers and consequences. Another moderating variable recognised in the current literature is **customer involvement** (e.g., Mathew & Thomas, 2018). The capacity of consumers to evaluate their brand experience might vary based on their level of knowledge and involvement motivation. Consumers with a low level of involvement may not be capable or motivated to evaluate their interactions with a brand (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995). Thus, they may not be interested in the experiential state of the brand. On the other hand, a highly involved consumer is always open-minded and enthusiastic about receiving more information, evaluating every aspect during his/her interaction with the brand (Heath, 2001; Park et al., 2007). Thus, the effects of brand experience on consequences will vary between consumers with a low level of involvement and those who are highly involved (Mathew & Thomas, 2018).

Previous research in the branding literature has shown that **employee empathy** (e.g., Markovic et al., 2018; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Rust & Oliver, 1994) is associated, either directly or indirectly, with the moderation of the relationship between brand experience and its drivers and consequences. When employees in brand premises perform their interactions with customers in an empathic manner (i.e., trying to recognise and address customers' needs and requirements), customers are inclined to evaluate employee performance more positively and have a superior brand experience (Wieseke et al., 2012). Thus, the presence of employee empathy could turn the level of brand experience into an even more significant behavioural consequence (e.g., customer affective commitment and satisfaction) toward a brand (Iglesias et al., 2019). Finally, the **type of employee** also plays a moderating role in the relationship between perceived value (i.e., utilitarian vs. hedonic) and brand experience (Hwang et al., 2021). Many studies have identified differences when assessing service quality in comparisons between human and robot interactions in different service settings (e.g., Belanche et al., 2020; Choi et al., 2019). More customers were visibly attracted to the proactivity of robots, but the human appearance intensified customers' emotional affection (Belanche et al., 2020) to enhance the brand experience. Customers displayed higher compensatory responses when interacting with robots than with human employees (Mende et al., 2019). Thus, it is evident that the type of employee moderates the relationship between perceived value and brand experience (Hwang et al., 2021). Therefore, the current study summarised the moderating variables of brand experience as follows:

- **Store type** (e.g., Dolbec & Chebat, 2013)
- **Customer involvement** (e.g., Mathew & Thomas, 2018)
- **Employee empathy** (e.g., Parasuraman et al., 1985)
- **Type of employee** (e.g., Belanche et al., 2020)

2.5.7 Methods Used in Brand Experience Literature

Most of the existing studies in the brand experience literature used a **quantitative approach** (e.g., Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014; Hwang et al., 2021). However, scale development research (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009; Khan & Fatma, 2017) has used **mixed-methods approaches**, combining qualitative and quantitative research methods. A few studies on brand experience have also used a **qualitative approach**. One seminal

study on brand experience (i.e., Brakus et al., 2009) conducted a **mixed-methods approach** to develop scales for different brand experience dimensions. The mixed-methods approach was constructed with a combination of qualitative and quantitative studies. Firstly, a qualitative study was piloted to explore respondents' insights about brand experience dimensions. The qualitative study was undertaken using interviews with graduate-level business students. Respondents provided responses to open-ended questions and summarised them using a content analysis technique. Secondly, a series of consumer surveys were conducted to develop and validate scales for brand experience dimensions. Similarly, the mixed-methods approach was used by Khan and Fatma (2017) with the combination of a qualitative study (i.e., university student interviews) and a quantitative study (i.e., three sequential consumer surveys) to develop scales for the antecedents and outcomes of brand experience.

Another popular method used in the brand experience literature is the **quantitative approach** (e.g., Beckman et al., 2013; Das et al., 2019; Hwang et al., 2021; Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014). A quantitative method describes trends, attitudes or opinions of a population, studying a sample of respondents and generalising claims about the population from the results from these respondents (Creswell, 2009). The brand experience literature has mainly used consumer surveys to obtain quantitative or numeric results. Consumer surveys have been conducted in different settings, such as the mall intercept (e.g., Das et al., 2019; Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014); the street intercept (e.g., Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013); the store intercept (e.g., Hwang et al., 2021); or the online consumer survey (e.g., Iglesias et al., 2019; Pallant et al., 2022; Wiedmann et al., 2018). In designing a consumer survey, researchers have used a structured questionnaire to obtain responses from individual consumers. Questionnaires include screening, demographic and scale questions based on the research objectives. The scale items (measures) for different constructs were employed based on empirically validated scales from past studies. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 'strongly disagree' (1) and 'strongly agree' (7). Researchers used questionnaires to ask respondents to rate their agreement or disagreement with different statements. Most consumer survey questionnaires were tested in a field study before being employed in the final large-scale survey. Finally, large-scale surveys were conducted in a store, shopping mall, or street or through an online survey tool to obtain responses from consumers.

Several studies in the brand experience literature have used **experimental design** as a quantitative approach (e.g., Jiménez-Barreto et al., 2020; Kim & Song, 2019; Lundqvist et al., 2013). An experimental design tests the impact of an intervention or a treatment on an outcome, controlling for all other factors that might influence that outcome (Creswell, 2009). Researchers randomly assign respondents into two groups in which one group receives ‘treatment’ while the other does not. Results are then measured and compared to assess the difference between the treatment and the non-treatment groups in relation to the outcome variables. Lundqvist et al. (2013) employed experimental design using storytelling, measuring its impact on brand experience and further consequences, that is, brand association and willingness to pay (WTP), with the groups divided based on story versus non-story.

The existing brand experience research also used the **qualitative approach** (e.g., Hamzah et al., 2014; Hulten, 2011). The qualitative approach employs different philosophical assumptions and strategies of inquiry, collecting data by relying on text and images (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative data can be collected from several primary sources (e.g., in-depth, open-ended or semi-structured interviews and by studying focus groups) and secondary sources (e.g., articles, books, business magazines, reports and other sources from libraries, databases or websites). The popular qualitative strategy used in the extant brand experience research (e.g., Hulten, 2011) to collect data was the in-depth interview. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with brand managers and experts using an unstructured questionnaire, with this questionnaire reworked and augmented as the study progressed. Hamza et al. (2014) used a **focus group study** to better understand the corporate brand experience concept by examining the experiences and perceptions of customers in reality. The researchers conducted four focus group discussions in two months. Each focus group contained eight participants as an ideal group size (Fern, 1982), comprising different backgrounds, occupations, educational levels and both genders, with participants having volunteered and agreed to participate (Hamza et al., 2014). The researcher prepared a PowerPoint presentation on the brand’s website to provide stimuli and asked the audiences (i.e., focus group members) their opinions using some unstructured, open-ended questions. Finally, participants’ opinions or responses were analysed using the directed-content analysis technique.

2.6 Consumption Experience

The consumption experience occurs when consumers consume and use any product. Consumption experience is multi-dimensional and focuses on aesthetic, hedonic and symbolic aspects of experience that deliver fantasies, feelings and fun (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This experience occurs in various settings, such as direct interactions during shopping, buying and consuming products or indirectly through marketing communications (Brakus et al., 2009).

Edgell et al. (1997) developed the sociology of consumption theory that highlighted four typologies of consumption experience based on the mode of provision. According to this theory, consumption experience can occur with or without a market relationship. The consumption experience at home or in friends' houses is also linked to a sphere outside the market. Thus, family experiences resulting from family ties, friendship and citizenship experiences occur through reciprocal relationships within a community and the state. Subsequently, the dimensions of consumption experience in the extant literature are summarised as follows:

- **Sensory experience**
- **Affective experience**
- **Relational experience**

The existing explanatory research on consumption experience has recognised that hedonic goals drive the consumption experience, whether during or after consumption (Arnould & Price 1993; Celsi et al., 1993; Joy & Sherry, 2003). The consumption experience usually happens through market offerings during consumption at stores (Carù & Cova, 2003). However, consumption experiences that happen outside the market are driven by a specific social context (Rifkin, 2000). Therefore, the primary drivers of the consumption experience can be summarised as follows:

- **Market offers** (Carù & Cova, 2003)
- **Social factors** (Rifkin, 2000)

The consequences of the consumption experience appear to be the fun that a consumer derives from the enjoyment offered by the product and the resulting feeling of pleasure that is evoked (Klinger, 1971). Finally, the consumption experience

induces satiety, **satisfaction** or dissatisfaction, **flow** or irritation, and **transformation** (Arnould et al., 2002).

2.7 Shopping and Service Experience

The shopping and service experience (ServExp) occurs during the interactions between a consumer and the physical environment, employees and the related systems, processes, policies and practices (Babin et al., 1994; Bitner et al., 1997; Hui & Bateson, 1991; Kerin et al., 1992) of a store, organisation or brand premises. The store environment, especially the atmospheric cues and salespeople, form customers' shopping experience (Arnold et al., 2005; Boulding et al., 1993; Picot-Coupey et al., 2021). Overall, facilities management, atmospherics, entertainment potential and tenant management emerge as significant predictors of the shopping experience (Tandon et al., 2015). Furthermore, the in-store shopping experience produces cognitive and affective responses (Grewal & Roggeveen, 2020; Manthiou et al., 2020; Puccinelli et al., 2009). Finally, a suitably designed shopping experience influences customers' feelings, satisfaction and brand attitude (Grace & O'Cass, 2004) and customer loyalty (Ponsonby-McCabe & Boyle, 2006).

2.8 Customer Experience: A Summary

The experience dimensions, drivers and consequences and the relevant theories used in the different domains of the customer experience literature are summarised in Table 2.4. These indicate that the dimensions of customer experience differ between the various customer experience domains. Some apply to product experience, while others are appropriate to brand or shopping experience. Product experience and consumption experience vary depending on whether products are perceived as non-brand or brand products. A brand product might produce a better experience than a non-brand product. Again, a luxury brand is perceived to provide a more intense experience than a non-luxury brand among the branded products.

Additionally, customers interact spontaneously and directly at a physical store where they have the product, brand and shopping experience than virtually or at other touchpoints. Finally, a flagship store delivers a more meaningful brand experience, offering a particular retail brand (Sherry, 1998) than a multi-brand or franchise store. Thus it is evident that the elements of the luxury flagship store experience and its drivers and consequences are influenced by the existing brand/service/

consumption/product experience, which is also depicted in Figure 2.1 earlier. Thus, the current study has sought to conceptualise the experiential state that a customer perceives from a luxury brand flagship store. Consequently, this study discusses the concept, dimensions, drivers and consequences of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) in the following section.

Table 2.4 Dimensions, drivers and consequences of customer experience

Study	Experience Domain	Method (Industry)	Dimensions	Drivers	Consequences
Frank et al., 2014	Product Experience	Quantitative (Mobile)	Sensory; Affective; Intellectual	Perceived quality	Loyalty
Hoch & Ha, 1986	Product Experience	Experiment (Clothing)	Cognitive	Perceived quality	
Kempf & Smith, 1998	Product Experience	Experiment (Software)	Affective; Cognitive	Attributes; Knowledge	Attitude
Brakus et al., 2009	Brand Experience	Mixed-Methods (21 Brands)	Sensory; Affective; Intellectual; Behavioural		
Nysveen & Pedersen, 2013	Brand Experience	Quantitative (Banks)	Sensory; Affective; Intellectual; Behavioural; Relational		Brand Satisfaction; Brand Loyalty; Brand Personality
Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010	Brand Experience	Quantitative (Automotive; Consumer electronics; Food and beverages)	Sensory; Affective; Intellectual; Behavioural		
Carù & Cova, 2003	Consumption Experience	Qualitative	Sensory; Cognitive;	Market Offers; Social Factors	Satisfaction

			Affective; Relational		
Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982	Consumption Experience	Qualitative	Cognition; Behaviour	Environmental Inputs; Consumer Inputs	Fun; Enjoyment; Leisure
Arnould & Price, 1993	Service Experience	Qualitative	Affective; Narrative; Ritual		
Grewal et al., 2009	Service Experience	Qualitative (Retail)	Retail Customer Experience	Firm-controlled Factors; Macro factors	Marketing and Financial Metrics
Hui & Bateson, 1991	Service Experience	Qualitative (Housing Estate)	Emotional; Behavioural	Perceived Crowding; Perceived Control	

2.9 Luxury Flagship Store Experience

This study reviewed the extant literature on experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999); customer experience (Verhoef et al., 2009); brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009); service experience (Klaus & Maklan, 2012); retail, shopping and store experience (Grewal et al., 2009; Holbrook & Hirschman 1982; Kerin et al., 1992); and luxury experience (Atwal & Williams, 2009; de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) to conceptualise the scale items for the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE).

Studies in the previous literature on branding and retailing have revealed that brand experiences vary in strength and intensity through some delivering more substantial or more intense experience than others (Brakus et al., 2009), based on the level of the customer value of a brand (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Hedonic (luxury) brands provide more experiential elements through generating more hedonic value for customers (Gentile et al., 2007). However, luxury brands are often found in a non-branded or multi-brand store that offers superior quality but fails to provide the flagship store experience (Gistri et al., 2009) often desired by customers during their purchase. A luxury flagship store is designed to deliver more powerful brand experiences (Borghini et al., 2009) compared to a multi-brand or non-brand store. The effect of the retail experience delivered by a flagship store is more recreational than task-oriented, whereas a brand store provides an experience more task-oriented than recreational (Jahn et al., 2018). Therefore, the dimensions, drivers and consequences differ between the brand experience and the luxury retail experience. It is not solely the brand experience or the luxury retail experience. It is a combination of the luxury brand experience and the retail experience that can be named the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) that is only provided by a luxury flagship store. The dimensions, drivers and consequences of the LFSE are discussed in later sections.

2.9.1 Theoretical Underpinnings for LFSE

This research reviewed the relevant experience theories to ascertain the dimensions of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). To help to identify the dimensions of the LFSE, the existing literature revealed some fundamental theories, such as experience categorisation (Dewey, 1922); social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974); theory of mind modularity (Fodor, 1983, 1998); mental modules (Pinker, 1997); experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999); and staged experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). The

experience categorisation theory (Dewey, 1922) defines experience as the interlinking of human beings and their surroundings resulting from knowledge, senses, feeling and doing. The social identity theory postulates the personal views of affiliation with a class of people from various social categories such as organisational membership, gender, age-cohort and religion (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Cognitive scientists Fodor (1983) and Pinker (1997) developed the two theories of mind modularity and mental modules, respectively, that exhibit mental reactions toward a specific environment. According to these authors, mental modules form the sensory, feeling and emotional aspects of experience (Brakus et al., 2009).

Furthermore, the current study reviewed applicable theories to determine the dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). This study considered the concepts of servicescapes by Bitner (1992), store attributes by Erdem et al. (1999) and luxury brand stores by Joy et al. (2014) to develop the scales and dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). Servicescape theory presents the physical surroundings of a store environment consolidating store environmental stimuli into three dimensions: (1) ambient conditions, (2) spatial layout and functionality, and (3) signs, symbols and artefacts. Store attributes theory identifies three aspects of the store: status, merchandise and price. Joy et al. (2014) later developed the concept of luxury brand store attributes using an ethnographic approach. The researchers categorised luxury brand store attributes into six dimensions: luxetecture, luxemosphere, deluxe, luxeservices, luxart foundation and luxedesigners. However, this research focused only on the Luis Vuitton store. The dimensions were not tested empirically and left out the scale development.

2.9.2 Dimensions of LFSE

Luxury flagship stores design their retail channels not only to promote sales but also to endorse their brand through selling “the dream” and “the experience” (Joy et al., 2014) that make customer delight endure (Chitturi et al., 2008) in a multi-sensory way (Kapfere & Bastien, 2012). Luxury flagship stores provide multi-sensory experiences (Park et al., 2013); the desire to be delighted (Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2009); intellectual learning (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim & Chen, 2019); and social identity (Hyun & Han, 2015). These experiences are extensively observed as contextual (Lemke et al., 2011), and are likely to be remarkably sensitive and to fluctuate across the situation (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Hull et al., 1996). Thus, one of the dimensions of the

LFSE can be temporary (Houston & Rothschild, 1978) and situational (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Richins & Bloch, 1986), occurring at a particular time or in a physical or social setting (Havitz & Mannell, 2005; Mannell, 1999). This dimension can be referred to as a contextual or situational experience. The contextual dimensions of the LFSE include mood (Hull et al., 1992); feelings (Kubey & Czikszentmihalyi, 1990; Hull & Michael, 1995); and sensory (Bitner, 1992) and are formed by consumers (Carbone & Haeckel, 1994) as they encounter a multi-sensory physical setting and other situational factors (Bitner, 1992; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Schmitt, 1999a; Schmitt & Simonson, 1997).

Moreover, experience concentrates on a situation that facilitates customer engagement in an emotion-driven rational choice (Schmitt, 2010). This experiential aspect connects the conscious mental process that engages consumers in thinking or problem solving (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999a). Luxury customers aspire toward learning (Chang, 2018) about the product, the brand and its history. Thus, this dimension of the LFSE involves engaging customers' minds, creating the appeal and fascination to learn new knowledge (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). It allows customers to engage in thinking during visits or shopping in a luxury flagship store. For example, Ferrari provides training to shape driving ability to Ferrari's performance capability (Atwal & Williams, 2009). This dimension is named "intellectual experience" by several studies (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009; Dubé & LeBel, 2003; Pallant et al., 2022) and can be measured through learning facilities, the creation of knowledge and the stimulation of curiosity about new things (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim et al., 2012; Triantafyllidou & Siomkos, 2018).

Finally, it is evident from the extant literature that experiences can be positive or negative and short-term or long-lasting (Brakus et al., 2009). Thus, in contrast to the contextual experience, some aspects of experience encompass individual responses to a specific object or thing for a more extended period (Huang et al., 2010). These components create a long-lasting experience expressing a special meaning for customers (McIntyre, 1989). These durable components of experience are treated as an enduring or substantial experience (Morse & Carter, 1996) that refers to energising a person to keep himself or herself together (Morse & Penrod, 1999), relating himself or herself to the object (Zaichkowsky, 1986). This dimension focuses on the social aspects of experiences that relate customers' personality and status to an object or brand to

sustain the experience for a more extended period (Huang, 2006). Therefore, this study proposed the dimensions of the LFSE as follow:

- **Contextual/Situational experience**
- **Intellectual experience**
- **Substantial experience**

The different components of the dimensions of the LFSE are evoked by several attributes such as flagship store settings, environmental cues, and social and relational elements that act as drivers of the LFSE. Based on the extant literature, the following section describes the relevant drivers of the LFSE.

2.9.3 Drivers of LFSE

This study reviewed the extant literature on store attributes (Grosso et al., 2018); channel attributes (Laukkanen, 2007); retailer characteristics (Badrinarayanan & Becerra, 2019); physical store attractiveness (Fang et al., 2020); brand stores (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013); and luxury stores (Dion & Arnold, 2011) to conceptualise the drivers of the LFSE. The luxury flagship stores create uniqueness in their in-store design, exclusive atmosphere (Kozinets et al., 2002), reverence (Klein et al., 2016) and restricted access (Dion & Arnold, 2011) to provide a LFSE (Klein et al., 2016) to their customers. These luxury store attributes can be considered drivers of the LFSE and are named luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). The LFSA comprise atmosphere (Okonkwo, 2010); layout, design and assortment (De Lassus & Freire, 2014); service interface (Truong & McColl, 2011); personal care (Dion & Arnould, 2011); and the orchestral performance of skilled employees (Joy et al., 2014). Thus, the dimensions of the LFSA can be categorised into four aspects: luxury flagship atmosphere, luxury flagship architecture, luxury flagship servicescape and luxury flagship policies and practices. These different dimensions can be renamed as “luxemosphere”, “luxetecture”, “luxescape”, and “luxegovern”, as adopted from the qualitative studies of Joy et al. (2014) and Kerin et al. (1992).

The first dimension of LFSA is luxemosphere which refers to the mixture of luxe (luxury) and atmosphere, which refers to the particular atmospheric presentation used to generate a multi-sensory experience (Okonkwo, 2010). The luxemosphere comprises a vibrant atmosphere, vocal elements and movement (Joy & Sherry, 2003),

creating a prestigious and splendid universe (Gibson & Carmichael, 1966; Okonkwo, 2010). The luxury atmosphere approaches the balanced design of different atmospheric dimensions through visual, music, video and olfactory emanation devices to create an authentic grand universe to display the unique style, signature, codes and identity (Okonkwo, 2009) of a luxury flagship store. The second dimension of LFSA is *luxetecture*, which denotes the arrangement of tangible symbolic resilience that creates glamour through an elegant appearance and prestigious scenes (Joy et al., 2014). The essential values of a luxury store are design and beauty (Dion & Arnould, 2011) that generate temptation through the prestigious scene, elegant presentation and museum view of architecture (Moore et al., 2010). The sense of mystery and technological sophistication is the jewelled effect of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) (Kozinets et al., 2004). Using the 3D presentations of digital technology to portray and display pictures produces essential values and heritage in a luxury flagship store (Hennigs et al., 2012).

The third dimension is *luxescape* which symbolises the devotion and attentiveness to luxury (Chung et al., 2001), conscious respect (Chung et al., 2001; Koolhaas, 2001) and the expression of grandeur and luxury facets (Joy et al., 2014) to customers by store employees delivering impeccable service (Okonkwo, 2016). Luxury flagship store customers appreciate store employees' personalised attention and culturally focused amusements (Dion & Arnould, 2011) while desiring to receive entertainment, appeal and customised communication from store employees (Bjørn-Andersen & Hansen, 2011). The fourth dimension of LFSA is *luxegovern* which designates the customer-related policies and practices of a luxury flagship store (Kerin et al., 1992) that guide customers' experience when visiting or shopping from a luxury flagship store. Guided by the above, the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) can be conceptualised as consumers' subjective and internal reactions through their situational, intellectual and enduring responses toward a luxury brand evoked by its *luxemosphere* (Joy et al., 2014; Okonkwo, 2010), *luxetecture* (De Lassus & Freire, 2014) and *luxescape* (Dion & Arnould, 2011) and the *luxegovern* attributes of a luxury flagship store. Hence, this study proposed the following dimensions of LFSA:

- **Luxemosphere:** Luxemosphere is the mishmash of *luxe* (luxury) and atmosphere, which refers to the respected atmospheric presentation of a luxury brand's website to create a multi-sensory online experience (Okonkwo, 2010).

- **Luxetecture:** Luxetecture is the arrangement of tangible symbolic brand's resilience creating glamour in elegant appearance and prestigious scene (Joy et al., 2014).
- **Luxescape:** Luxescape refers to the symbolized luxury devotion and attentiveness, consciously respect, expression of grandeur and luxury facet to the customers through delivering impeccable service by employees (Joy et al., 2014).
- **Luxegovern:** Luxegovern focuses on the customer governing policies and practices of a luxury flagship store that guide customers' experience when visiting or shopping from a luxury flagship store (Kerin et al., 1992).

This study sought to identify behavioural and psychological consequences of the LFSE from the extant literature. The relevant consequences of the LFSE are discussed in the following section.

2.9.4 Consequences of LFSE

The luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) begins before the actual purchase and continues during the purchase and even through the post-purchase stage (Carù & Cova, 2003). Luxury brands inspire customers to make a deep connection (Ko et al., 2019) and create a greater commitment for repeat purchases (Shukla et al., 2016) and participation in favour of the brand (Brakus et al., 2009). The consequence of the LFSE is to create experiential responses kept in consumers' memories (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). This experience can begin at the pre-purchase stage and endures even after the purchase and into the repeat purchase stage (Carù & Cova, 2003). Luxury flagship stores inspire customers to connect deeply with a luxury brand (Ko et al., 2019) using their brand-related experience (Atwal & Williams, 2009). A luxury flagship store distinguishes itself by acting as a "social maker" (Kapferer & Bastien, 2012). It creates a more significant commitment to repeatedly purchase luxury items (Shukla et al., 2016) or to visit the flagship store.

The extant literature on the brand experience and luxury store experience has focused on brand prestige (Hwang & Hyun, 2012), brand advocacy, consumption satisfaction (Shukla et al., 2016) and purchase intention (Park et al., 2008) as outcomes. However, the dimensions of LFSA converge on a "feel-good experience" that may infer a positive attitude by customers (Pham, 2004). Consequently, the power and intensity of the LFSE transform the relationship between the brand and consumers

(Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). This consumer–brand relationship extends through consumers’ interaction on social media (Achille et al., 2018; Childers et al., 2001) to express their experiences (Tynan et al., 2010) and their repeat purchase intention (RPIN) (Shukla et al., 2016). The more that is evoked by the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE), the greater the consumer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN). Therefore this study considered **repeat purchase intention** (RPIN) and **customer social media participation** (CSMP) as two consequences of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE).

2.9.5 Research Gaps and Current Research Focus

Existing studies in the marketing, retailing, branding, consumer behaviour and tourism literature have revealed considerable research on customer experience, brand experience, shopping experience, service experience, event experience, destination experience and retail experience. However, no studies were found that have directly investigated the experiential states of a luxury flagship store. The overall dimensions of experience identified by the existing research are sensory, affective, cognitive, pragmatic or behavioural, lifestyle, and social or relational. However, all dimensions of experience are not applicable to the different branches of experience, such as customer experience (Schmitt, 1999a); brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009); consumption experience (Carù & Cova, 2003); shopping experience (Babin et al., 1994); service experience (Hui & Bateson, 1991); and retail experience (Grewal et al., 2009). Furthermore, the intensity of the experience for customers also varies for the hedonic or luxury brand or retail experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Terblanche, 2018). Therefore, the existing experiential dimensions may not be readily applicable in a luxury flagship store context as the current conceptual scope focuses on the key experiential characteristics in terms of pleasant sensations (Kozinets et al., 2004), delight (Chitturi et al., 2008), knowledge aspirations (Kim & Chen, 2018), and social stratification (Kapferer & Bastien, 2012) and identification that is derived from a luxury flagship store. However, research investigating the appropriate dimensions of a LFSE is non-existent in the previous literature.

Existing research primarily focuses on the lifestyle category of luxuries such as a hotel, a cruise vacation (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim et al., 2012) or river rafting (Arnould & Price, 1993). The existing research has largely ignored the experiential aspects derived from the luxury flagship store where the brand is purchased. Except

for the qualitative research of Joy et al. (2014), no research has focused on the luxury store attributes that lead to an enduring luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). In addition, existing research has explored, developed and measured the scale of service attributes (Bitner, 1992), store attributes (Lumpkin et al., 1985), luxury brand attributes (Conjo et al., 2020; Kim & Johnson, 2015) and destination attributes (Kim, 2014). However, no research has been conducted that proposes scales to measure luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016).

Moreover, a few studies in the luxury branding literature (e.g., de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Hwang & Hyun, 2012; Shukla et al., 2016) have investigated the consequences of the LFSE and have identified self-expansion, brand prestige, brand advocacy and satisfaction as LFSE outcomes. However, research focusing on the effects of the LFSE on repeat purchase intention (RPIN) and customer social media behaviour is absent in the current literature. Luxury flagship stores are designed to prioritise the endorsement of their brand through selling “the dream” and “the experience” with less emphasis on promoting sales of their products (Joy et al., 2014). However, research focusing on examining the impact of LFSA dimensions on the LFSE is non-existent.

Therefore, this study contributed to the current literature by addressing the research gap from four aspects. Firstly, this study focused on contextualising and extending the appropriate scales to measure the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE). Secondly, this study conducted scale development research to propose new scales to measure luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). This study then investigated the consequences of the LFSE and examined the relationships between the LFSA dimensions, the LFSE and their consequences. Finally, this study contributed to the application and extension of theories that related to the customer–luxury flagship store relationship. This study extends the means-end chain (MEC) theory to a means-end chain (MEC) relationship model by combining the MEC and interpersonal relationship theories to measure the relationships between luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA), the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and their consequences.

2.10 Preliminary Research Model

Guided by the above literature review, this study constructed a preliminary research model (Figure 2.2) to accomplish the research objectives. It is evident in the literature

that store attributes is essential for a luxury flagship store (Amatulli & Guido, 2011; Ko et al., 2017) to induce an experience that creates customers' psychological perceptions and expressions (Das et al., 2019; Oliver, 2014). Therefore, the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) can be induced by the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). The physical attributes of a flagship stores positively influence consumer intentions to revisit (Loiacono et al., 2007) or their repeat purchase intention (RPIN) (Cole & Chancellor, 2009). Correspondingly, customers' positive interactions in the store enhance their attitude toward the store. The positive interactions can be lead to a favourable attitude toward the luxury brand and influence them to communicate and share their experiences on social networking platforms.

Furthermore, the LFSE transforms the relationship between the brand and consumers (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). This consumer-brand relationship is extended through consumers' interactions on social media, where they express their experiences and spread their intention to repeat purchases (Shukla et al., 2016). Therefore, the preliminary research model postulates that luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) act as drivers to influence the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE), customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN). Again, the LFSE mediates the relationships between LFSA and two outcome variables, CSMP and RPIN (see Figure 2.4).

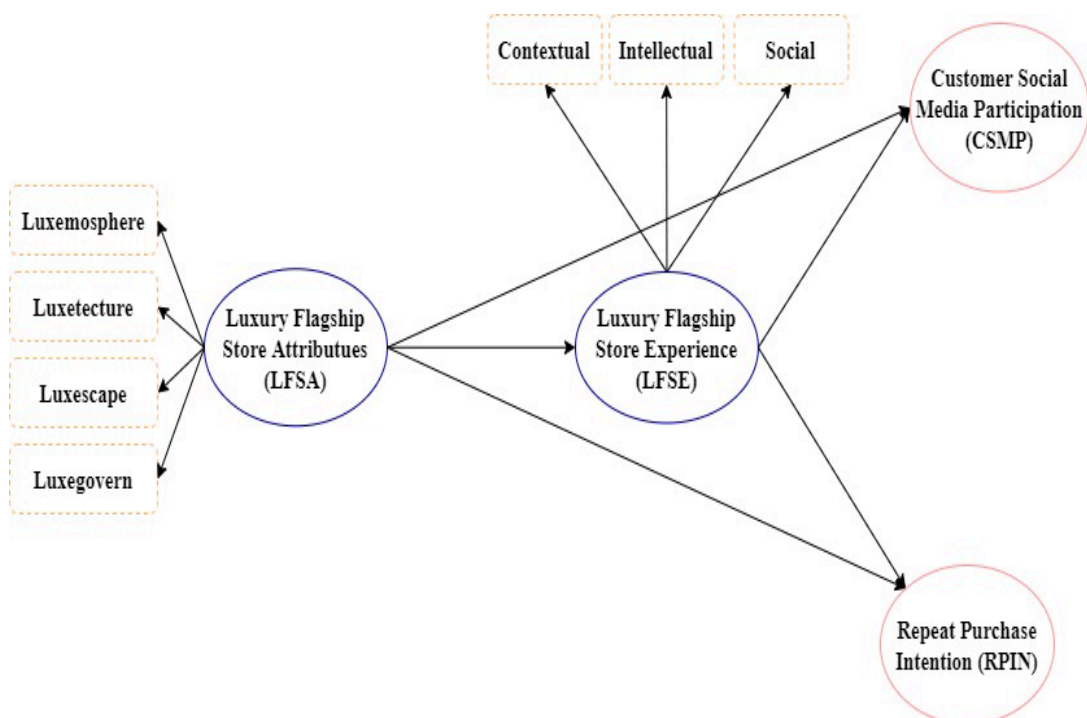


Figure 2.4 Preliminary research model

2.11 Conclusion and Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to revisit the concept, dimensions, drivers and consequences of existing experiential states and to contextualise the concept of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and its drivers and consequences. This chapter has discussed the pertinent literature to develop and extend the scales for the LFSE and luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). The extant literature review revealed that studies on the LFSE domain are mainly subjective and disjointed. Therefore, the different domains of the customer experience literature have been expansively examined to draw a relationship model between the LFSE and its drivers and consequences. The literature review has exposed the links between luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA), the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and their two consequences: customer social media participation (CSMP) and repeat purchase intention (RPIN).

Additionally, this chapter discussed the relevant theories used in the extant customer experience literature and the theoretical underpinnings for the current study. The review of the theories helped to identify the appropriate theories applicable for the development and extension of scales to measure the LFSE and LFSA and to draw a relationship model for these two constructs and their outcomes. Overall, the literature review identified some crucial findings and gaps, which developed the basis for the conceptual extension of the LFSE and LFSA. This study developed the two constructs' conceptual extension by piloting the qualitative study (Study 1) discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological framework of the research through developing the research design and methods conducted to achieve this study's objectives and the analytical tools and techniques used. This methodological framework relates the nature of the business research model developed in Chapter 5 to the epistemological views for validating the conceptual propositions. This study used a mixed-methods approach that combined both a qualitative field study and quantitative survey techniques and procedures (Saunders et al., 2009) that enhanced the overall strength of the study (Creswell, 2009). The following sections of this chapter present the elements of a methodological framework designed to explore the research paradigm, answer the research questions, test the hypotheses and apply the research design. These comprise the research philosophy (Section 3.2), the research method (Section 3.3), the research process (Section 3.4), the qualitative study's design and execution (Section 3.5) and the quantitative data collection and analysis (Section 3.6). Finally, the chapter is summarised in Section 3.7. This chapter creates consistency in the research design by its justification for the application of relevant research techniques using adequate reasoning and literature support.

3.2 Research Philosophy

The research philosophy fortifies the choice of research strategy and the methods that significantly impact the way of research (Saunders et al., 2009). It is also termed as a paradigm that draws a comprehensive framework to guide a particular research project (Willis, 2007). Researchers divided the research paradigm or philosophy into several categories for the construction and development of knowledge. For example, Guba & Lincoln (1994) divided the research philosophy into four categories: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, and constructivism. Similarly, Creswell (2003) specified the research philosophy as post-positivism, constructivism, pragmatic and participatory. Burrell and Morgan (1979) offered a structure of functionalism, intepretivism, radical humanism, and radical structuralism.

Functionalism is aligned with positivism, and the remaining others belong to anti-positivism. Therefore, Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) categorised research philosophy into two border views as positivism and interpretivism. The positivism philosophy uses existing theory to develop hypotheses and test the hypotheses for further theory development in a value-free way (Saunders et al., 2009). Positivism assumes that a phenomenon has an objective reality that can be articulated in causal relationships and measured in a representative and accurate manner (Straub et al., 2004). The research data and the analysis reflect reality and independent results free from subjective interpretation (Krauss, 2005). The data analysis results infer the pre-determined research objective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Finally, the positivism philosophy attempts to develop and test hypotheses using quantitative methods (Cresswell, 2003).

On the other hand, the interpretivism philosophy emphasises an empathetic stance to understand differences between humans' roles in the social context (Saunders et al., 2009). The interpretivism approach attempts to draw inferences through social interpretation (Neuman & Kreuger, 2003). It aims to comprehend any system in its social context relating to how it is surrounded, impacts, and how the context impacts them. This philosophy relies on the researchers' subjective interpretation and allows the researcher to interact and affect the researched issues (Creswell, 2003). Finally, the interpretivism approach uses qualitative methods that emphasise words, observations and meanings rather than facts and numbers (Creswell, 2003). A brief picture of the differences between the positivism and interpretivism research philosophies are presented in Table 3.1.

This study reflects the dominance of the notion of the positivism philosophy by framing the causal networks (Marshall & Rossman 1989). Under this philosophy, this study wants to predict and explain the overall luxury flagship store attributes, its effects on the luxury flagship store experience and their consequences on customer social media participation and repeat purchase intention. The proposed theories: means–end chain (MEC) (Gutman, 1982) and interpersonal relationship (IPR) (Fournier, 1998), are predicted and explained according to the positivistic mindset.

Table 3.1 Positivism vs. interpretivism philosophies

Source: adapted from Creswell (2003)

Assumption	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology: reality or nature	Reality is objective	Subjective orientation
Epistemology: A researcher's view about constituting an acceptable knowledge	Independent and value-free research	Subjective involvement of researcher that affects the issue of research
Axiology: role of values in research	Scientific and unbiased	Scientific, value-laden and biased
Rhetorical: research language	Formal and quantitative terminologies are used	Usually, informal and qualitative terminologies are used
Methodology: A set of guidelines for conducting research	Focus on objective and hypotheses formulation	Focus on obtaining different perceptions of the phenomenon
Methods: The tools for empirical data collection and analysis	Quantitative	Qualitative

3.3 Research Method

The positivism philosophy attempts to develop and test hypotheses using quantitative facts and numbers, whereas the interpretivism approach emphasises words, observations and meanings (Creswell, 2003). Both philosophies have their strengths and are successfully utilised in multidisciplinary fields of study, such as marketing, retailing, social sciences, and behavioural science. However, each qualitative or quantitative method has its limits (Greene et al., 1989). A single method study could lead to erroneous and insufficient results. Therefore, this study applied a combination of the two philosophies, the mixed-method approach proposed as a third paradigm view (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). It helps to bridge between the qualitative and quantitative methods at different phases of the research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2005) and deliver cohesive and coherent outcomes (Hohental, 2006). Due to being the most usable for research in practice, a growing number of researchers are employing the mixed-method research approach in marketing and branding research (e.g., Anshu et al., 2022; Babin et al., 1994; Klaus et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019; Warren et al., 2019).

The mixed-methods approach aims to minimise the weaknesses of each qualitative and quantitative method and draw on their strengths (Johnson et al., 2007). The mixed-method strategies can be designed using four techniques: triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory (Creswell, 2003).

The triangulation design or “multiple operationalism” refers to collecting and comparing data of qualitative and quantitative studies to expand or validate the quantitative estimation using qualitative data (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Creswell, 2003). Consequently, embedded design is a collection process of data from qualitative and quantitative studies where each data type plays a supplementary role within the overall design (Creswell, 2003). The explanatory design leads to the collection and analysis of quantitative data, followed by the subsequent collection and analysis of qualitative findings. In contrast with the explanatory design, the exploratory strategy starts with a qualitative study, followed by quantitative research (Creswell, 2003).

A particular research setting requires the appropriate type of mixed-method strategy. Again, it is essential to link the objectives (see Chapter 1, Section 1.3) to determine the appropriate mixed-method strategy for this current research. The main objective of this research is to conceptual extension and develop scales to measure the LFSE and LFSA and investigate relationships among these constructs and their consequences. A preliminary research model (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.8) was proposed to operationalise the research objectives based on a previous comprehensive literature review. This model needed to be tested for applicability and validity to explain the said relationships sufficiently. Hence, this study performed a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews and social media content analysis simultaneously. Then, a comprehensive model was developed based on the qualitative study results and theoretical underpinnings. Finally, a series of quantitative surveys were conducted for conceptual extension and development of scales and tested the comprehensive model following Churchill’s (1979) scale development process. Thus, triangulation of the qualitative study followed by the quantitative study appeared suitable for this research context.

3.4 Research Process

As discussed earlier in Section 3.3, the study employed a mixed-methods approach. This research executed several tasks in the different phases of qualitative and quantitative studies to execute the mixed-methods approach. In line with the scale development process (Churchill, 1979), the qualitative study was deployed to generate scale items considered an exploratory phase. Then, the quantitative study was executed in the confirmatory phase.

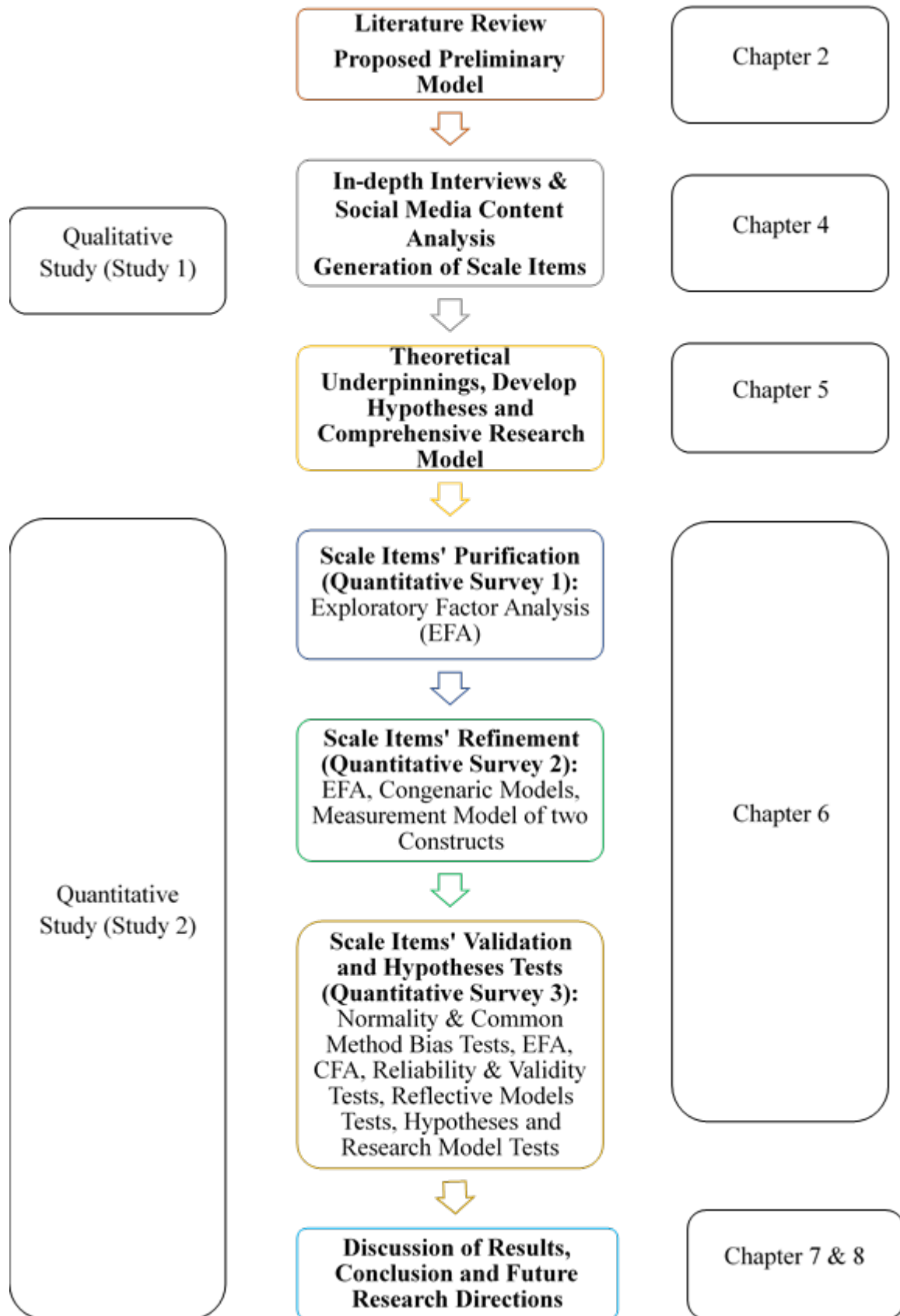


Figure 3.1 Mixed-methods research process

A pool of items was generated from the extant literature review, insights from the in-depth interview of shoppers (Böttger et al., 2017), and content analysis from Twitter as a widespread social media site ((Hennig-Thurau et al., 2015). Two judges with expertise in knowledge and prominently published in the luxury branding area checked the items' content validity (Böttger et al., 2017; Churchill, 1979). The items were then purified and refined through two separate self-administered surveys (So et al., 2014; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004) among the customers of luxury clothing brands. The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to purify the items, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used for scale refinement and validation (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Böttger et al., 2017; Churchill, 1979). A final online survey to test the proposed model was conducted using Qualtrics (Li et al., 2012) among the members of the Australian Consumer Panel (across all states in Australia) (So et al., 2014). In order to ensure the nomological validity (Moschis & Churchill, 1978) of the developed measures, the relationships among the constructs were tested in the final survey. The detailed research execution strategies are discussed in the following section, and a straightforward process is shown above in Figure 3.1.

3.5 Qualitative Study (Study 1)

A business research project initiates through questioning to clarify the subject matter (Cooper & Schindler, 1998) to gain, comprehend, predict and explain an apparent phenomenon (Bagozzi, 1994). The current research project explores the dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) and its effects on the dimensions of luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and further consequences on customer social participation and repeat purchase intention. Exploratory research is qualitative and/or descriptive in nature is suitable (Meredith et al., 1989) for this study. Again, qualitative or exploratory research can also help draw potential causal relations among the constructs that develop the conceptual model and extant literature support (Meredith et al., 1989). Thus, this study carefully designed the qualitative phase that was focused on gleaning deeper insights into customers' cognitive perceptions of luxury stores' attributes, experiential states, and their behavioural consequences toward a luxury clothing flagship store.

Business research involves the inclusive design, careful plan and detailed procedures to investigate the event and gain the necessary information to answer the research questions (Malhotra, 1999). This research design can be categorised as

descriptive, exploratory, and causal or explanatory (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Descriptive research portrays a detailed profile of persons, situations or events (Robson, 2002). Exploratory research offers valuable insights to clarify the researcher's understanding of a problem (Malhotra, 1999; Robson, 2002). Conversely, the research design establishes cause-effect relationships between variables, events, or phenomena termed explanatory or causal research (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). The purpose of the current study is primarily exploratory, and thus this study was followed an exploratory research design. Again, this exploratory research design used a deductive approach to conduct the qualitative study as this research used existing theory to set research objectives and develop a conceptual model (Yin, 2003).

3.5.1 Data Collection

The exploratory research process requires a small sample size to gather information through in-depth interviews with a flexible and unstructured questionnaire (Malhotra, 1999). The purpose of this study is to explore the untapped elements of luxury store attributes and their impact on the relationship aspects between customers and luxury brand stores. The in-depth interviews were initiated as one of the best operational tools for qualitative data collection to explore the consumer-brand relationships (Fournier, 1998; Ji, 2002; Kates, 2000). Therefore, this study was conducted face-to-face and one to one in-depth interviews adopting a semi-structured interview schedule (Kim & Chen 2018; Saunders et al., 2009; Wilson, 2006) as the approach of this study was confirmatory (deductive). The semi-structured interview schedule was used to avoid biases in the interview due to the absence of a standardised data collection method (Colgate et al., 2007). The semi-structured interview schedule was developed based on the detailed review of the extant literature and pre-tested among six respondents before finalising the actual field study (Colgate et al., 2007). The pre-test of the interview schedule was conducted on the 'pen and pencil' method to accommodate the information for making it self-explanatory and easily understandable (Bowling, 2005).

3.5.2 Selection of Interviewees

The interviewees for this study were selected through network acquaintances from the postgraduate students and staff members of a large Western Australian university. Purposive sampling was used to ensure their representation from different age groups, gender and income levels due to the exploratory nature of this research (Miles &

Huberman, 1994). Before scheduling the interview, the respondents received communication through email, with the necessary information provided in a cover letter (see Appendix I) to brief them on the research background and purposes. A participant information form was provided with a detailed overview of the research project, participants' eligibility, information accessibility, voluntary participation, interviewees' anonymity, and a data management plan. It helped the interviewees become aware of the research subject matter, objectives and scope of the interview. Finally, a consent form was also sent with other documents to get voluntary agreement from the interviewees before conducting the interview. This research used non-identifiable code numbers for each interview to ensure the confidentiality and privacy of the interviewees.

The researcher asked interviewees to describe their perceptions about luxury store attributes, different aspects of experience gained from the luxury brand flagship store, and behavioural consequences throughout their shopping experience from a physical flagship store of a luxury clothing brand. The in-depth interviews stopped at the twentieth interviewee after reaching data saturation (Guest et al., 2006), although the researcher did not have any prior sample in mind. All the interviewees were screened based on a memory recall condition as to whether they have purchased the clothing and/or accessories from a flagship store of an affordable or aspirational luxury brand (see Appendix II) during the last six months (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019).

3.5.3 In-depth Interview Schedule

After gaining their consent, a semi-structured interview schedule was sent to interviewees before the interview. This interview schedule was prepared with preliminary questions about the luxury clothing brand, purchasing items, buying store, frequency of purchase, and buying tenure from the flagship store. These questions were aimed to get introductory information from the interviewee and enable them to feel comfort and ease in sharing their experiences in later questions (Arksey & Knight, 1999). The second and third parts of the interview schedule were designed to know the experiential aspects and the dimensions of luxury store attributes, respectively. Then this study aimed to gain attitudinal factors and behavioural consequences in the fourth and fifth sections of the interview schedule. Finally, there were some multiple-choice questions on the demographic profile at the end of the interview schedule (see

Appendix II). The interviews were audio-recorded and finished in an average of 30 minutes duration.

3.5.4 Validity of the Data

This study has ensured the validity of the qualitative data using measures suggested by Colgate et al. (2007). The following four steps were taken into account to validate the collected data from the in-depth interviews:

- Expert (i.e., two supervisors and two other marketing academics) opinion was sought about the words, sentences and sequence of questions to ensure the objective of a particular question.
- A pre-test of the interview schedule was conducted among six interviewees to refine the questions' wording, meaning and sequence.
- The researcher asked a few screening questions to the potential interviewees before selecting them for the final Interview to ensure the correct respondents were suitable for this study.
- The researcher avoided marketing literature jargon (e.g., luxemosphere, luxetecture, situational, enduring, intellectual, customer social participation, repeat purchase intention) during the interviews to eradicate potential contamination in the extracted data.

3.5.5 Recording, Transcribing, Coding and Mapping

The interviews were audio-recorded after obtaining consent from the interviewees. The audio record of the interviews is essential for qualitative studies. It saves all the words and no possibility of modification of conversation (Patton, 1990) and enriches the correctness of transcription. The researcher arranged only one interview each day within an average of 30 minutes duration. It helped the researcher improve data quality and minimise the tiredness to probe the interviewees (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). The transcription of the recorded discussion was accomplished on the same day of the Interview or no later than the next day (see a sample transcript in Appendix V). It helped represent the interviewees' correct expression by performing the task with the fresh mind of the researcher (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). Then the transcripts were read and re-read and then analysed thematically, applying deductive coding (Dagger et al., 2007) using NVivo12 (Stein & Ramaseshan, 2016). Finally, the significant responses of the interviewees were highlighted and identified causal statements

relating to the dimensions of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE), luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) and their behavioural consequences.

3.5.6 Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

The researcher gathered the transcribed data sequentially based on the previous coding for analysis. The transcribed interviews were reviewed several times to determine whether every comment has appropriately transcribed from the records or not. Then the researcher read and re-read each transcription to identify the frequent themes or patterns from the transcribed data. A theme refers to essential subjects concerning the research question that captures through 'thematic analysis'. Thematic analysis is a technique for investigating, examining and reporting themes and patterns within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The themes of the current study were focused on recognising the attributes of the luxury flagship store, aspects of luxury flagship store experience and behavioural consequences of customers toward a luxury flagship store.

The themes were coded with specific labels or names based on the relevance and commonness of the characteristics of different critical issues as a rule to categorise themes. It is a common rule to organise themes from the thematic analysis found in various earlier studies (e.g., Böttger et al., 2017; Brocato et al., 2012; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2012). However, no thumb rule is established for considering any amount of information from the data set required to display the topic's prevalence as a theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A researcher can identify the themes or patterns in one of the two primary ways: deductive or theoretical (e.g., Boyatzis, 1998; Hayes, 1997) and inductive or bottom-up (e.g., Frith & Gleeson, 2004) thematic analysis. A theoretical or deductive thematic analysis is directed by the theoretical or analytical interest in the area of the research question. Hence, it is more obviously analyst driven and tends to deliver a detailed analysis of some aspect of the data than a detailed description of overall data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In contrast, an inductive thematic analysis links the overall data to identify themes instead of relating the specific research question (Patton, 1990). Therefore, it is data-driven where the coding process occurs without fitting into a preconception of a research question or pre-existing coding frame (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The current study followed a deducting thematic analysis for the coding process that identified and coded the themes based on the research questions, as this

study is directed by a theoretical framework and specific research questions. The labels of the themes for the experience, attributes and behavioural consequences were guided by both the previous literature and the qualitative data (Saunders et al., 2009). This process generated different themes and corresponding codes shown in the following section (see Table 3.2). This study steered a cross-case analysis to ascertain the occurrence of recurring themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 1994) revealed from all interviewees' discussions. The cross-case analysis allows any researcher to grab repeated themes or patterns from the in-depth interviews (see Table 3.3). Hence, the cross-case analysis is beneficial to identify the frequency of themes mentioned by the intact sample respondents of a qualitative study.

The transcribed data of the twenty interviews revealed that luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) is a multidimensional construct. Again, luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) dimensions differ from the previous brand experience dimensions. Finally, the customers build and extend their relationship behaviour with the brand through different ways of participation.

3.6 Quantitative Study (Study 2)

Given that the study comprises a scale development process, the quantitative survey involved the required steps of scale development. This study adopted Churchill's recognised scale development process (1979), which marketing scholars have widely applied even in recent times (e.g., Jaakkola & Terho, 2021; Ruel et al., 2021). This process was executed to develop new measures for the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). The study further collated existing scattered measures of LFSE and LFSA dimensions and validated the same to ensure their usability in the luxury flagship store context. The following sections focus on the detailed scale development process and its rationale to be pursued.

3.6.1 Research Context

This section provides the context of the study to the research questions successfully. The luxury clothing industry of Australia was chosen for this study as the research context to test the research model through conducting a survey. In recent times, several luxury brands extended their business in Australia (Arienti, 2018), seeing the higher per capita income of the consumers and an above-average growth of population (Schlesinger, 2017). This industry is contributing expressively to the national economy

of Australia (Diviney & Lillywhite, 2007; Jegethesan et al., 2012). The clothing market earned the Australian Dollar (AUD)19,789 million in 2018 and expected 2.9% growth yearly through 2021 (Statista, 2018). Hence, this study has chosen the luxury clothing industry of Australia as a suitable research context. In this regard, this study acknowledged two delimitations. Firstly, this study was conducted within the affordable and aspirational luxury brands' products. The absolute luxury brands were excluded from the research scope due to limitations on access to customers. Secondly, this study was limited to ready-to-wear clothing and accessories (i.e., bags, coats, jackets, jeans, jewellery, pants, shirts, shoes, sunglasses, tops, undergarments and watches).

3.6.2 Sampling Technique

The various sampling techniques were used at different steps of data collection as the study involves a scale development process. The respondents were screened out based on their purchase of affordable and aspirational luxury brands' clothing and accessories from the flagship stores. A convenience sampling technique was used to recruit the first-round survey respondents. A simple random sampling technique was applied to collect data through online data collection by Qualtrics (So et al., 2014) to develop scales and test the research model.

3.6.3 Research Participants

This study recruited different participants at different levels of data collection, which involved the development of scale items. Study 1 recruited postgraduate students and staff from a large Western Australian university. Respondents were screened based on their clothing and accessory purchases from any of the selected¹ luxury brands' flagship stores within the last six months (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). Student participants were maintained to represent general consumers (DeVecchio 2000; Yavas 1994) and were exceedingly sensitised to brands (Loken et al., 1986). Student participants have been frequently used in earlier luxury brand research (e.g., Bian & Forsythe, 2012; de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Desmichel & Kocher, 2020; Kamal et al., 2013; Mandel et al., 2006; Park et al., 2008).

¹ Calvin Klein, Marc Jacobs, H&M, Ralph Lauren, Tommy Hilfiger, Zara, Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton and Prada

The respondents for the final survey (Study 2 and Study 3) were recruited from the members of the Australian Consumer Panel across all states in Australia, covering different demographic profiles. Respondents were also screened based on their purchase of clothing and accessories from any of the flagship stores of a luxury clothing brand within the last six months. Study 2 was carried out for one month in June 2020, and Study 3 was conducted for another one month during September 2020.

Table 3.2 Overview of sampling process for the final study

Sampling process	Sampling strategy	Remarks
Study population	Affordable and aspirational luxury clothing and accessories shoppers (>7 million).	The complete set of elements has some standard set of characteristics containing the population of this study.
Sampling frame	Seven metropolitan cities in Australia (Adelaide, Brisbane, Canberra, Darwin, Melbourne, Sydney and Perth).	The complete list of all the cases in the population from which a probability sample is drawn.
Unit of sample	Consumers were residing in Australia during the survey.	The unit of the sample comprises the components of the target population.
Elements of sample	18+ full-time employees, weekly earnings A\$1,200, purchased luxury clothing within last six months	These qualifications of a respondent meet the ability to provide information for testing inferences.
Technique of sampling	purposive sampling	Purposive sampling is used to collect data through an online questionnaire from the ACP
Size of sample	686 respondents	312 respondents for Study 2 and 374 for Study 3

The target population represents the elements or objects of a sample relevant to the information needed to draw inferences (Malhotra, 2004). It specifies the frontier between respondents and non-respondents. The target population comprised shoppers with at least six months' experience of buying clothing or accessories from a flagship store of an affordable or aspirational luxury clothing brand located in metropolitan/regional areas in Australia. The seven metropolitan/regional cities or the central business districts (CBDs) (i.e., Adelaide, Brisbane, Canberra, Darwin, Melbourne, Sydney and Perth) were selected as the sampling frames of the population. Recently, luxury consumers are high earners but not yet wealthy (Wintermeier et al., 2020) and buying for prestige (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). These consumers have little savings, a high level of debt and work full-time (Wintermeier et al., 2020). So,

the target population is more than seven million, earning more than AUD1,200 weekly (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS], 2021). An overview of the target population and sampling frame is presented in Table 3.2.

3.6.4 Survey Instrument

This study was developed a structured questionnaire as a survey instrument consisting of all scale items to measure the four dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) and dependent variables to conduct the survey. The survey instrument has five sections. The first section included four items used to screen the non-eligible respondents. The second section of the survey instrument comprised 39 items used to develop the scales for the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). The third and fourth sections of the questionnaire consisted of 23 and 19 items to measure the consequences of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) on the dependent variables. The last section of the questionnaire comprised seven items related to the demography of respondents (see Appendix II).

In survey interactions, respondents were given a brief introduction explaining the purpose of the study, uses of data, assurance of anonymity, and freedom to not agree to participate in the survey or withdraw their opinion from the survey at any stage. Again, it was taken the concern from the respondents whether they agreed or disagreed to participate in the survey before proceeding to answer any item of the questionnaire. The survey instrument also contained a phone number and email address of a faculty member of a reputable university to make the survey instrument authentic and easy to communicate in case of any query. Finally, the survey instrument was developed in Qualtrics and tested for multi-devices (e.g., desktop computer, laptop, tab/notepad, mobile phone) compatibility to efficiently complete a questionnaire to receive a higher usable response (Hair et al., 2010).

3.7 Measurement Instrument

Reliable and valid instruments are scarce to sufficiently capture the dimensions of luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) in this study's context. The earlier literature on LFSA is either conceptual or qualitative, with no scales explored (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). Furthermore, store scales developed in the earlier literature were not precisely established for the use of luxury brand store settings and may not be exclusively applicable. Therefore, this study fills this knowledge gap by

developing and validating a luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) scale for the luxury brand store environment. This study also reshaped the scale items of luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) or luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) through compilation and contextualisation of previous scales due to the inconsistency (Heine, 2012) and differences among the literature (Miller & Mills, 2012). Finally, this study adapted the previously established multi-item scales for dependent variables. The development, compilation, contextualisation and adoption (or adaptation) of measurement instruments are discussed in the following sections.

3.7.1 Contextual Extension of LFSE Scale Items

This study reformed the experiential aspects of the luxury flagship store in the context of the luxury clothing and accessories industry. Because the brand experiences differ in strength and intensity (Brakus et al., 2009) depending on the degree of customer value of a brand (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The hedonic or luxury brands deliver higher experiential elements (Gentile et al., 2007). One element occurs at a particular time (Celsi & Olson, 1988) under a specific purchase situation (Richins & Bloch, 1986), such as multi-sensory (Park et al., 2013) and emotional (Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2009) experience. Another element that energises and empowers customers is the enduring relationship (Morse & Carter, 1996) between them and the object or brand (Zaichkowsky, 1986) and the establishment of their social identity (Hyun & Han, 2015). Another element provides intellectual learning (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim & Chen, 2019) during purchasing goods or visiting the physical store. So, a customer's luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) can be described as the formation of situational, enduring and intellectual responses toward a luxury brand. However, the existing research on the experiential aspects of the luxury industry primarily focuses on the lifestyle category of luxury, such as hotels, cruise vacations (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim et al., 2012), and river rafting (Arnould & Price, 1993). So, this study reshaped the experiential aspects derived from the luxury flagship stores.

This study reviewed extant literature on customer experience, brand experience, lifestyle service experience to generate initial scale items. It also conducted social media content analysis and in-depth interviews with 20 postgraduate students and university staff who had previous shopping experience from a physical flagship store of a luxury clothing brand. Then, this study conducted a field study with 112 postgraduate students and staff to identify preliminary scale items using

exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Finally, this study conducted two separate surveys with 312 and 374 consumers to contextualise the final items through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

3.7.2 Development of LFSA Scale Items

This study developed and validated the measurement scale items for the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) construct by following Churchill's recognised scale development procedure (1979). Marketing scholars (e.g., Aaker, 1997; Sanchez et al., 2006; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Willems et al., 2011) have extensively used this process even in recent times (e.g., Böttger et al., 2017; Jaakkola & Terho, 2021; Ruel et al., 2021). The scale development procedure involved in this study is the generation of scale items, items purification, items refinement, scale items validation and generalisation of scale items. A pool of items was generated through an extant literature review, social media content analysis, and in-depth interviews (Böttger et al., 2017). The academic and industry experts checked the items' content validity. After generating an initial set of items, purification and refinement of the scale items were undertaken using a diverse sample of consumers in three stages of data collection. In order to scale generalisation, the nomological validity (Moschis & Churchill, 1978) were tested on the developed measures and analysed the structural equation model on the proposed relationships between the model constructs (Figure 4.1). A detailed scale development procedure is discussed in Chapter 6.

3.7.3 Adaptation of Scales for Outcome Constructs

This study adopted (or adapted) the established scales for customer social participation and repurchase intention, published in previous literature (see Table 3.3). This study adapted the multi-item scales for customer social media participation directly from Kefi & Maar (2020), who found this construct as a consequence of luxury brand fan page contents. The luxury brand values are gained from the luxury flagship store experiences that affect customers to interact in social media (Childers et al., 2001) to express their experiences in terms of status, social identity, uniqueness (Tynan et al., 2010; Vickers & Renand, 2003). Furthermore, this study adapted the scales for repurchase intention from the research of Han et al. (2018) and Han and Rye (2012), where they had been used in the luxury tourism and hospitality research context. This study adopted these two constructs as the luxury flagship store experience inspires

customers to create greater commitment through repeat purchases (Shukla et al., 2016) and their participation favouring the brand (Brakus et al., 2009).

Table 3.3 Adapted scale items for outcome constructs

Constructs	Definition	Items	Source
CSMP	Voluntarily interactive participation of the customers in social media (Chea & Ko, 2016).	I post content of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites (e.g., Fb, Instagram, and the like)	Chen et al., 2014; Gerson et al., 2017; Kefi & Maar, 2020
		I “like” the content of this store on social networking sites	
		I share posts of this on social networking sites	
		I comment on the contents of this on social networking sites	
		I read posts about this brand on social networking sites	
		I watch photos/videos of this on social networking sites	
		I read comments about this on social networks sites	
RPIN		I will shop at this in the near future	Han et al., 2018; Han & Ryu, 2012
		I intend to shop at in the near future	
		I will expand effort on revisiting this to shop in the near future	

3.8 Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

A total of 112 useable responses were collected (first round) through official email communication to the students and staff of a large Western Australian university for item purification, and 312 useable responses were collected (second round) for item refinement (So et al., 2014). The final survey (third round) was received 374 useable responses (Li et al., 2012) to test the hypotheses of the conceptual model. The optimum number of responses is 300 plus for the primary measurement model with seven latent constructs (Hair et al., 1998). This study followed the data collection technique from the previous research (e.g., de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Kim et al., 2016) conducted on luxury brands’ context.

This study developed scale items for luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA) construct by conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and nomological validity test through three separate studies. Again, this study contextualised the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) construct and

adapted outcome constructs: customer social participation and repeat purchase intention. So, this study conducted the EFA and CFA for the contextualised and adapted constructs to re-confirm their structure, reliability and validity in the luxury brand context. Thus, this study used different statistical tools and techniques for analysing data to establish the acceptability of the theoretical model and measure the depth of relationships between the independent and outcome variables (Coorley, 1978). Again, the data analysis needs some specific refinement such as editing, coding and screening, identifying missing data, normality test, common method bias, and non-response bias as prerequisites for hypotheses testing. The following sub-sections are described the various areas of data analysis.

3.8.1 Data Analysis Tools and Methods

This study used IBM's Statistics SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) v.25 to screen the survey data set to identify missing data, testing normality, common method bias, non-response bias, descriptive statistics, EFA, etc. The SPSS software is well accepted and widely used by researchers for analysing data (Zikmund, 2003). This study also used analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS) version 26 for structural equation modelling (SEM), path analysis, estimating the variances and covariance and confirmatory factor analysis (Jiang et al., 2018; Saunders et al., 2007). It is a group of statistical techniques that investigate relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The AMOS-based SEM used the cut-off points of different fit indices as the benchmark to assess the constructs through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and hypotheses testing. The group of fit indices include Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) as absolute fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999); Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI) as incremental or comparative indices of fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 1988); and the ratio between chi-square (χ^2) value and degrees of freedom (df) as parsimonious fit index (James et al., 1982). One or more fit indices from each group of fit indexes can assess the overall goodness-of-fit (GoF) of the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), where at least four fit indices such as GFI, CFI, NFI, and SRMR should use for a good fit (Kline, 1998) as no one index alone can measure the best fit of the model (Bagozzi, 1981; Bove & Johnson, 2006).

The benchmark or cut-off point to accept the χ^2/df ratio is <3.0 (Carmines & McIver, 1981), whereas Wheaton et al. (1977) suggested <5.0 . The value range from 0 (indicates poor fit) to 1 (means perfect fit) used for GFI, CFI, NFI and TLI, where the suggested cut-off point is >0.90 (Hair et al., 1995; Tucker & Lewis, 1973). The recommended value for RMSEA is 0.05 represents a good fit, and 0.08 indicates a reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The acceptable value range for SRMR is <0.05 for a well-fitted model (Byrne, 2006), where Kline (2005) values are as high as 0.10.

3.8.2 Data Editing, Screening and Coding

The data were downloaded as SPSS spreadsheet format from Qualtrics after successfully completing data collection in September 2020. This spreadsheet showed that 1800 respondents were attempted to participate in the survey. It was then screened to ensure only completed and consistent responses through data editing, which is essential for data processing and analysis (Zikmund, 2003). There were many incomplete responses as respondents have cancelled the survey before the submission due to the force validation in the questionnaire. After deleting incomplete and inconsistent responses, the final study considered 374 completed responses (no missing values). After screening the data for possible editing, the final data set was coded, assigning numbers to each answer (Malhotra et al., 1996). However, the coding can be created before or after the questionnaire is answered (DeVaus, 1995). The file was coded according to the number generated automatically by Qualtrics.

3.8.3 Test of Normality

The data were downloaded as SPSS spreadsheet format from Qualtrics after successfully completing data collection in September 2020. This spreadsheet showed that 1800 respondents were attempted to participate in the survey. It was then screened to ensure only completed and consistent responses through data editing, which is essential for data processing and analysis (Zikmund, 2003). There were many incomplete responses as respondents have cancelled the survey before the submission due to the force validation in the questionnaire. After deleting incomplete and inconsistent responses, the final study considered 374 completed responses (no missing values). After screening the data for possible editing, the final data set was coded, assigning numbers to each answer (Malhotra et al., 1996). However, the coding

can be created before or after the questionnaire is answered (DeVaus, 1995). The file was coded according to the number generated automatically by Qualtrics.

3.8.4 Test of Common Method Bias

The quantitative data collection through a survey approach may result susceptible to common method variance or bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). One of the critical reasons for the occurrence of measurement errors is data collection from a single informant (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) that threaten the causal relationships between independent and dependent variables (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Nunnally, 1978; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Another reason for common method bias is ordering the questionnaire with similar follow-up questions (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and the same trend (positive or negative).

This study carefully considered the common method bias concerns and applied different actions to overcome and reduce the issue. Firstly, it obtained the measurement of the dependent constructs (i.e., customer social media participation [CSMP] and repeat purchase intention [RPIN]) from different sources to reduce the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Secondly, this study used reverse coded scales for some constructs and a follow-up questionnaire break. In addition, a cover letter was included at the top of the questionnaire, assuring the anonymity of the respondents with a request to provide truthful answers to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Sharma, 2011). Finally, this study examined the occurrence of common method bias using Harman's single factor test, which is widely acceptable by researchers (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003). This analysis used the principal axis factor and forced nine constructs to create one factor. The one general factor that accounted for only 36.67% variance explained that it has not covered the majority of covariance and proved as out of common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.8.5 Non-response Bias

The survey research often resulted in non-response bias having differences in answers between respondents and non-respondents (Lambert & Harrington, 1990). Thus, there is a possibility to get an answer from non-respondents though they passed the screening questions. This study designed an attractive questionnaire format, offered incentives, and delivered questionnaires using personalised HTML [Hypertext Markup Language] (Lambert & Harrington, 1990) to reduce non-response bias by obtaining

higher responses from the respondents. Finally, a paired sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the first and last 50 responses (Armstrong & Overton, 1977) to measure the existence of non-response bias. The results of the *t*-statistics from the paired sample *t*-test show that the first 50 responses are not significantly different from the last 50 responses ($p > 0.05$) for the nine constructs used in this study (see Table 3.4). Therefore, analysis of this study's data set provided evidence of the absence of non-response bias.

Table 3.4 Paired sample *t*-test between first and last 50 responses

	Particulars	Mean	Mean Difference	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>																																																																																			
Pair 1	LXMS_First50	5.6112	-0.24	0.85325	-1.362	0.08	49																																																																																			
	LXMS_Last50	5.8534		0.73373				Pair 2	LXTC_First50	5.004	-0.46	1.03529	-2.287	0.66	49	LXTC_Last50	5.464	1.0431	Pair 3	LXSC_First50	5.4826	-0.09	0.89582	-0.456	0.31	49	LXSC_Last50	5.5686	0.86349	Pair 4	LXGN_First50	5.48	-0.16	0.92846	-0.836	0.95	49	LXGN_Last50	5.636	0.92731	Pair 5	SITU_First50	5.8632	-0.27	0.82618	-1.66	0.82	49	SITU_Last50	6.129	0.80247	Pair 6	ENDU_First50	5.1374	-0.28	1.19864	-1.1	0.38	49	ENDU_Last50	5.416	1.18912	Pair 7	INTL_First50	5.435	-0.38	1.16366	-1.578	0.24	49	INTL_Last50	5.81	1.02961	Pair 8	CPN_First50	4.9834	-0.41	1.4387	-1.517	0.72	49	CPN_Last50	5.398	1.36562	Pair 9	RPIN_First50	5.3334	-0.18	1.06025	-0.815
Pair 2	LXTC_First50	5.004	-0.46	1.03529	-2.287	0.66	49																																																																																			
	LXTC_Last50	5.464		1.0431				Pair 3	LXSC_First50	5.4826	-0.09	0.89582	-0.456	0.31	49	LXSC_Last50	5.5686	0.86349	Pair 4	LXGN_First50	5.48	-0.16	0.92846	-0.836	0.95	49	LXGN_Last50	5.636	0.92731	Pair 5	SITU_First50	5.8632	-0.27	0.82618	-1.66	0.82	49	SITU_Last50	6.129	0.80247	Pair 6	ENDU_First50	5.1374	-0.28	1.19864	-1.1	0.38	49	ENDU_Last50	5.416	1.18912	Pair 7	INTL_First50	5.435	-0.38	1.16366	-1.578	0.24	49	INTL_Last50	5.81	1.02961	Pair 8	CPN_First50	4.9834	-0.41	1.4387	-1.517	0.72	49	CPN_Last50	5.398	1.36562	Pair 9	RPIN_First50	5.3334	-0.18	1.06025	-0.815	0.11	49	RPIN_Last50	5.5134	0.92887						
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	LXSC_Last50	5.5686		0.86349				Pair 4	LXGN_First50	5.48	-0.16	0.92846	-0.836	0.95	49	LXGN_Last50	5.636	0.92731	Pair 5	SITU_First50	5.8632	-0.27	0.82618	-1.66	0.82	49	SITU_Last50	6.129	0.80247	Pair 6	ENDU_First50	5.1374	-0.28	1.19864	-1.1	0.38	49	ENDU_Last50	5.416	1.18912	Pair 7	INTL_First50	5.435	-0.38	1.16366	-1.578	0.24	49	INTL_Last50	5.81	1.02961	Pair 8	CPN_First50	4.9834	-0.41	1.4387	-1.517	0.72	49	CPN_Last50	5.398	1.36562	Pair 9	RPIN_First50	5.3334	-0.18	1.06025	-0.815	0.11	49	RPIN_Last50	5.5134	0.92887																	
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3.8.6 Assessment of Measurement and Structural Equation Modelling

The structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis comprises two procedures: assessing the measurement model and the assessment of the structural model (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model was assessed to evaluate the factors through specifying the relationships between the latent constructs and corresponding observed scale items (Arbuckle, 2005; Byrne, 2010). The measurement model was conducted by examining indicator reliability and validity, internal consistency, composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and discriminant validity, aligned with the guidelines of Hair et al. (2010). This study operated the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach to test the structural and extended models with mediating effects. Table 3.5 portrays the systematic procedures for SEM analysis.

Table 3.5 Systematic procedures for SEM analysis

SEM Analysis	Measurement Indicators	Decision Parameter
Measurement Model	<i>Convergent validity</i>	
	Item reliability	≥ 0.7 , and t -value > 1.65
	Internal consistency	≥ 0.7
	Average variance extracted (AVE)	≥ 0.5
	<i>Discriminant validity</i>	
	AVE analysis	AVE analysis of the square root of AVE of a construct is greater than its loading in other constructs
	Cross-loading matrix	Loading of an item within a construct is greater than its loading in any other construct
Structural Model	<i>Goodness-of-Fit</i>	
	Absolute fit	Chi-sq $p > 0.05$; RMSEA < 0.08 ; GFI > 0.90
	Incremental fit	AGFI > 0.90 , CFI > 0.90 , TLI > 0.90 , NFI > 0.90
	Parsimonious fit	Chi-sq/df < 5.0
	<i>Test of hypotheses</i>	Significant t -value = 1.65

This study examined the hypotheses developing a structural model after assessing the constructs' uni-dimensionality, reliability and validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, Hair et al., 1995; Kline, 2005). The structural model specified direct and indirect relationships among the independent and dependent constructs and tested

the projected hypotheses. The structural model was evaluated by analysing the explanatory power of endogenous constructs and examining the *t*-values of each path coefficient corresponding to the hypotheses.

3.9 Conclusion and Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis comprising two procedures: assessing the measurement model and assessing the structural model (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model was assessed to evaluate the factors through specifying the causal relationships between the latent constructs and corresponding observed scale items (Arbuckle, 2005; Byrne, 2010). The measurement model was conducted by examining indicator reliability and validity, internal consistency, composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and discriminant validity, aligned with the guidelines of Hair et al. (2010).

This study operated the covariance-based SEM approach (CB-SEM) to test the structural and extended models with mediating effects. This study examined the hypotheses developing a structural model after assessing the constructs' unidimensionality, reliability and validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, Hair et al., 1995; Kline, 2005). The structural model specified direct and indirect relationships among the independent and dependent constructs and tested the projected hypotheses. The structural model was evaluated by analysing the explanatory power of endogenous constructs and examining the *t*-values of each path coefficient corresponding to the hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 1

CONCEPTUAL EXTENSION OF LFSE AND LFSA CONSTRUCTS

4.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter of the thesis addresses Objective 1 (i.e., conceptual extension of the luxury flagship store experience [LFSE] and the luxury flagship store attributes [LFSA]) and Objective 2 (i.e., extending the scale items to measure the LFSE and the LFSA) based on RQ1. The chapter describes the qualitative study (i.e., Study 1) conducted to attain these two objectives addressing RQ1 (i.e., how can we conceptualise the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA), as indicated in Section 1.3 of Chapter 1.

The focus areas of this chapter are divided into three broad perspectives: the conceptualisation of the LFSE, identification of the dimensions of the LFSE driver (i.e., LFSA) and their corresponding scale items, and investigation of the LFSE impacts on its behavioural consequences. This chapter is divided into four parts to fulfil the research objectives mentioned earlier. First, it develops a theoretical background to draw the relationship among the LFSE, LFSA and outcome variables: CSMP and RPIN. Second, it describes the research methodology to accomplish the qualitative study (i.e., Study 1). This qualitative study simultaneously used in-depth interviews and analysis of social media content (i.e., expressions of the luxury flagship stores' fans). Third, the qualitative study findings were compared with the outcomes of literature reviews. Finally, this research specifies the extended and contextualised scale items for the LFSE, identifies the new scale items for the LFSA and explores the behavioural consequences of the LFSE. The following sections comprise the theoretical background (Section 4.2), qualitative research methodology (Section 4.3), in-depth interviews (Section 4.4), social media content (SMC) analysis (Section 4.5) and qualitative data triangulation among interviews, SMC and literature review (Section 4.6). Finally, Section 4.7 provides a discussion on results and summarises the chapter.

4.2 Theoretical Background

The current study aims to conceptualise the LFSE and the LFSA and examine relationships among the LFSE, LFSA and behavioural consequences of LFSE. From

the literature review of the previous chapter (Chapter 2), it is evident that the extant literature shows a narrow focus on the LFSE and LFSA topics, developing a theory to examine the said relationships in the marketing research perspective. This research reviewed the relevant experiences theories to ascertain the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA, which discussed in detailed in Chapter 5. This section recpaes theories to link the basis of the qualitative study.

The existing literature revealed some fundamental theories, such as experience categorisation (Dewey, 1922), social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974), theory of mind modularity (Fodor, 1983, 1998), mental modules (Pinker, 1997), experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999) and staged experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) that helped to identify the LFSE dimensions. The experience categorisation theory (Dewey, 1922) states the experience as the interlinking of human beings and their surroundings resulting through knowledge, senses, feeling and doing. The social identity theory postulates personal views to affiliation with a class of people from various social categories, such as organisational membership, gender, age-cohort and religion (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Cognitive scientists Fodor (1983) and Pinker (1997) developed two theories as mind modularity and mental modules, respectively, that exhibit mental reactions toward a specific environment. According to them, mental modules resemble the sensory, feeling and emotional aspects of experience (Brakus et al., 2009). From experience marketing, Schmitt (1999) categorised experience into five dimensions: sense, feel, think, act and relate. Pine and Gilmore (1999) later divided experiences into four aspects: aesthetic, educational, entertaining and escapist, from retail environments perspective. Substantial agreement between the theories shows similarities and differences based on the different settings and contexts.

This study also reviews applicable theories to determine the dimensions of the LFSA. The study considers concepts of servicescapes by Bitner (1992), store attributes by Erdem et al. (1999) and luxury brand stores by Joy et al. (2014) to develop the scales and dimensions of LFSA. Servicescape theory presents the physical surroundings of a store environment consolidating store environmental stimuli into three dimensions: (1) ambient conditions, (2) spatial layout and functionality, and (3) signs, symbols, and artefacts. Store attributes theory identifies three aspects of the store: status, merchandise, and price. Joy et al. (2014) later developed the concept of LFSA using an ethnographic approach. They categorised the LFSA into six

dimensions: luxecture, luxemosphere, deluxe, luxeservices, luxeart foundation and luxedesigners. However, this research only focused on a Luis Vuitton store. Again, it has not tested the dimensions empirically and is left for scale development. There have been considerable similarities observed in the primary attributes of a retail store among different theories of retail attributes.

Conversely, existing aspects and scales do not fit the LFSA. Initially, the relationships among the attributes, psychological consequences and values were measured by Gutman (1982) using the means-end chain (MEC) theory. The MEC generates connections from attributes to the usage benefits or psychological consequences and the consumers' values. The attributes are perceived as means to attain a particular set of benefits, and in turn, it helps to spread a lot of consumers' values (Gutman, 1982). In this research, the MEC theory was applied to explore LFSA that facilitate achieving experiential aspects (benefits and values) of luxury flagship store choice and examine their relationships. Remarkably, the MEC theory finished with learned beliefs as its key outcome (Chiu, 2005; Wu et al., 2018) and failed to draw a relationship with behavioural consequences. Thus, this study links the interpersonal relationship theory to develop a combined research model focusing on the relational outcomes and extends the MEC theory.

The interpersonal relationship theory was developed by Fournier (1998), who examined the relationship proposition between customers and the brand. This relationship between consumers and brands has similar qualities to human relationships as brands are somehow personalised or humanised (Fournier, 1998). According to this theory, the brands contribute significantly to the relationship dyad as an active object of marketing transactions. The experiences and connections between brands and consumers show the relationship behaviour over time (Hamzah et al., 2014; Nobre & Simões, 2019). The favourable experiences encourage consumers to purchase the brand repeatedly and influence others to buy (Brakus et al., 2009; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Again, consumers make efforts to maintain strong relationships to obtain consistent, meaningful experiences (Fournier, 1998). In turn, the experiential aspects of a brand establish a consumer-brand relationship through interactions in favour of the brand (Payne et al., 2009). The current study focuses on repeat purchase intention (RPIN) and customer social media participation (CSMP) as consequences of the LFSE. These two theories and other supporting theories will be

discussed in detail in a later chapter (Chapter 5) to develop the conceptual framework and research hypotheses. The following section describes the qualitative research methodology used to generate the insights of luxury consumers on the LFSE, LFSA and LFSE behavioural consequences.

4.3 Qualitative Research Methodology

Business research involves inclusive design, a careful plan and detailed procedures to investigate the event and gain necessary information to answer research questions (Malhotra, 1999). This research design can be categorised as descriptive, exploratory and causal or explanatory (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Descriptive research portrays a detailed profile of persons, situations or events (Robson, 2002). The exploratory study offers valuable insights to clarify the researcher's understanding of a problem (Malhotra, 1999; Robson, 2002). Conversely, the research design establishes cause-effect relationships between variables, events or phenomena termed 'explanatory' or 'causal' research (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

The purpose of the current study is primarily exploratory, and thus this study followed an exploratory research design. Again, this exploratory research design used a deductive approach to conduct the qualitative research, as this research used existing theory to set research objectives and develop a conceptual model (Yin, 2003). This exploratory approach was undertaken to address Objectives 1 and 2. It is qualitative and/or descriptive in nature and is suitable for conceptualising constructs (Meredith et al., 1989). Again, qualitative or exploratory research can also help to draw potential causal relations among the constructs that develop the conceptual model and extant literature support (Meredith et al., 1989). Thus, the qualitative study was carefully designed to focus on gleaning deeper insights into customers' cognitive perceptions of LFSA, experiential states, and their behavioural consequences toward a luxury clothing flagship store.

The context of this research is set as the luxury clothing flagship stores. However, 'luxury' is a relative concept (Mortelmans, 2005), and its measures of perception have varied over time (Cristini et al., 2017), as well as on the economic conditions and the social norms in different cultures (Scholze & Wierzba, 2015). The levels or categories of luxury are divided into three segments. These categories of luxury can be characterised as:

- prestige (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999),
- leisure class (Veblen, 1994)
- symbol of social status (Bagwell & Berhneim, 1996).

Conversely, these luxury brand categories were renamed by De Barnier et al. (2012) as:

- inaccessible
- intermediate
- accessible.

More recently, this categorisation has been redefined by Achille et al. (2018) in the context of luxury clothing brands as:

- absolute
- aspirational
- affordable.

The absolute luxury brands demonstrate a high level of brand heritage, excellence and charming appeal. Again, aspirational brands have exclusive product quality, a strong brand reputation and recognised design. Finally, the affordable brands have a robust fashion approach, a renowned brand image, and an accessible ratio between product and quality (Brun & Moretto, 2012). Many academic studies and industry reports have selected Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton and Prada as aspirational luxury clothing brands (Brun & Moretto, 2012; DeAcetis, 2020; De Barnier et al., 2012) and Calvin Klein, Marc Jacobs, H&M, Ralph Lauren, Tommy Hilfiger and Zara as affordable brands (Kapferer & Valette-Florence, 2018). This study considers aspirational and affordable luxury clothing brands (see Appendix IV) that have a higher penetration rate, rather than absolute luxury clothing brands (Achille et al., 2018). The absolute luxury category was avoided due to the methodological limitation of not being able to gain access to customers within a limited time. Respondents were selected based on their purchase from a flagship store of the luxury clothing brands mentioned earlier in this paragraph. This exploratory approach (Study 1) is divided into two parts: executing in-depth interviews (Section 4.4) and SMC analysis (Section 4.5), as detailed in the following sections.

4.4 In-depth Interviews

The in-depth interviews were initiated as one of the best operational tools for qualitative data collection to explore the untapped elements of LFSE and LFSA and their impact on the relationship between customers and flagship stores. The exploratory research process requires a small sample to be interviewed in-depth with a flexible and unstructured questionnaire (Malhotra, 1999). An in-depth interview with the relevant respondents was conducted to explore customers' insights in this area. This interview was performed in an informal environment that helped to gather additional questions for the subsequent discussions. The interviewee was allowed to talk freely about events and customers' beliefs and behaviour concerning the topic area. Therefore, this study was conducted using face-to-face in-depth interviews adopting a semi-structured interview schedule (Kim & Chen 2018; Saunders et al., 2009; Wilson, 2006), as the approach of this study was confirmatory (deductive).

A semi-structured interview schedule was developed based on the detailed review of the extant literature and pre-tested among six respondents before finalising the actual field study (Colgate et al., 2007). The pre-test of the interview schedule was conducted using the 'pen and pencil' method to accommodate the information, making it self-explanatory and easily understandable (Bowling, 2005). The following subsections describe the selection of interviewees, the interview schedule, the validity of the data, interview recording, transcribing, and coding and analysis of the qualitative data.

4.4.1 Demographic Profile of Interviewees

Twenty interviewees participated in the in-depth interviews for this study. The participants consisted of 60% female and 40% male, 50% staff and 50% postgraduate students with an average age of 33 years ranging from 18–40+ years. The participants were primarily Australian (45%), followed by Asian (30%) and from the Middle East (25%). In all, 40% of participants bought a luxury clothing item within the six-month interval, 25% in the past three months, 15% in the past four months, and 20% bought within a one- or two-months interval. However, respondents preferred diverse brands of the luxury flagship store when purchasing clothing and accessories (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Demographic profile of sample respondents

SL#	ID	Gender	Age	Occupation	Preferred Brand(s)
1	0331	Male	40+	Academic staff	Zara
2	0401	Female	26–30	Academic staff	Calvin Klein
3	0403	Male	31–35	Postgraduate student	H&M
4	0404	Male	18–25	Academic staff	Louis Vuitton, Zara, Mark Jacobs
5	0405	Female	18–25	Administrative staff	Gucci, Dior
6	0426	Male	31–35	Academic staff	Chanel, Calvin Klein
7	0501	Female	18–25	Academic staff	Prada, Dior
8	0503	Female	36–40	Postgraduate student	H&M, Zara, Calvin Klein
9	0510	Female	36–40	Administrative staff	Ralph Lauren, H&M, Calvin Klein
10	0515	Male	26–30	Academic staff	Dior, Versace
11	0528	Female	31–35	Postgraduate student	Zara, H&M
12	0529	Male	36–40	Academic staff	Zara
13	0530	Female	26–30	Academic staff	Ralph Lauren, Zara, Mark Jacobs
14	0614	Male	36–40	Postgraduate student	H&M, Tommy Hilfiger
15	0619	Female	18–25	Postgraduate student	H&M, Zara
16	0621	Male	31–35	Postgraduate student	Ralph Lauren, Calvin Klein
17	1004	Female	31–35	Postgraduate student	Burberry, Dior, Chanel
18	1005	Female	36–40	Postgraduate student	Zara, H&M
19	1016	Female	31–35	Postgraduate student	Zara
20	1017	Female	31–35	Postgraduate student	Ralph Lauren, Gucci, Louis Vuitton

4.4.2 Dimensions of LFSE

To better conceptualise the LFSE in terms of its dimensions, the researcher asked each interviewee to describe the LFSE they perceived during their purchase or visit to a luxury flagship store. This study identified the themes and sub-themes from the thematic analysis of the transcribed responses. The thematic analysis helped classify the dimensions of the LFSE. The thematic analysis identified three broad themes as given below:

- Contextual/Situational —contextual themes include multi-sensory and sensational reactions.
- Intellectual—learning aspects consist of knowledge and education.

- Social—social dimension comprises long-lasting responses through personality, status, and identity assimilation.

Most interviewees stated that visiting or shopping from a luxury flagship store was connected to contextual stimulation. They mentioned their contextual experiences using sensory and emotional sensations. Some respondents highlighted the sensory aspects of the situational experience. For example:

I like the store layout, colour, lighting, soft music, and great design, which is very impressive to my sense.

[Interviewee 3, Male, Age 31–35]

I can try it on, touch it, see it [...], smell associates it with what I experienced upon purchasing these items.

[Interviewee 5, Male, Age 31–35]

I feel happy to shop a luxury branded cloth. Sometimes I just want to go and visit the store to feel the enjoyment.

[Interviewee 8, Female, Age 36–40]

Again, interviewees constantly elucidated the learning and knowledge used to highlight the learning aspect of the LFSE. For example:

Buying a luxury item helps me to learn something new about the brand, the materials they use and the heritage attached to the brand.

[Interviewee 13, Female, 26–30].

I learn a lot from a luxury store about high-end luxury, stimulating me to aspire to new things. This sort of knowledge enhances my understanding to make it worth it in a sense. I can understand how to distinguish between a high-quality and a non-high quality product.

[Interviewee 5, Female, Age 18–25]

Finally, interviewees repeatedly cited personality and social identity as elements of the social aspect of the LFSE. For example:

It portrays the sense of assimilation with the part of the affluent group. [...] It is associated with celebrities and their association with the brand, which means I can buy the same product as the superstar has.

[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]

Chapter 4: Conceptual Extension of Constructs

It seems I have changed a level up, unlike the ordinary people, feeling of richness even if I am not such rich [...] It's a sense of social identity.

[Interviewee 11, Female, Age 31–35]

On my first visit to a luxury store, I felt socially inferior, facing an entry barrier by a gatekeeper, large empty spaces with few products, and the dismissive attitude of sales staff perceiving me as an impoverished student.

[Interviewee 6, Male, Age 31–35]

I enjoy in the luxury store, interacting with sophisticated people, feeling a part of an affluent community, and having a sense of social identity.

[Interviewee 11, Female, Age 31–35]

The luxury store helps me shift my taste to more sophistication as the dominant class in the social hierarchy, making my sense of self-actualisation.

[Interviewee 2, Female, Age 26–30]



Figure 4.1 Word cloud of LFSE

These statements demonstrate enjoyment, liking, loves, comfort, learning, happiness, status, social assimilation, etc., as significant elements of contextual, intellectual and social aspects of the LFSE (see above, Figure 4.1). Therefore, Phase 1 of the qualitative study explored three dimensions: contextual/situational, intellectual and social experience. The intellectual dimension is a contextualisation of previous literature, developed by Brakus (2009) using a different name. The other two dimensions (i.e., contextual and social) emerged from the interviews for the current study.

4.4.3 Dimensions of LFSA

Luxury stores are different from even the upper-grade brand stores in their aesthetic value, the aura of authenticity, the retail ideology of beauty and their charismatic persona. The transformation of multi-sensory experience through the physical spaces is necessary for a luxury flagship store. The thematic analysis acknowledged four broad themes, as shown below:

- Luxemosphere—comprises atmospheric elements such as aroma, lights, sound, and colour that are recognised to produce multi-sensory perceptions to the customer.
- Luxetecture—includes architectural settings such as design and a visual appearance that evoke multi-sensory insights to the customer.
- Luxescape—encompasses impeccable employee services that provide a long-lasting experience to the customers.
- Luxegovern—consists of customs and practices of a luxury flagship store to guide and direct customers to shopping or visiting the store.

The results of the in-depth interviews revealed the different aspects of a luxury flagship store that allures multi-sensory reactions. Interviewees noted the atmospheric elements of a luxury flagship store, termed ‘luxemosphere’ in this study. For example:

I feel the sign, ambience and aesthetics of the store. I guess the aesthetic environment makes the store impressive. The smell of genuine leather signifies the authenticity of the product. The fresh air, music [...] seeing a tangible product, trying it on, fits up, get all the boxes and then buying the product facilitates in the store.

[Interviewee 4, Male, Age 18–25]

The luxury store portrays a colourful theme, looks beautiful and offers a great environment. [...] The store keeps a wider view, [...] store's colours are different, and the lightings are beautiful.

[Interviewee 9, Female, Age 36–40]

The store is very consistent around the store. Everything places nicely, lighting, display and the ambience. [...] I see everything is always lovely and clean and good smell.

[Interviewee 10, Male, Age 26–30]



Figure 4.2 Word cloud of luxemosphere

Thus, the in-depth interviews revealed music, scent, colour, ambience, lights, etc., as the elements of the luxemosphere aspects (see Figure 4.2) of LFSA. The architectural settings, such as design and visual appearance, are also acknowledged as luxury store attributes that evoke multi-sensory insights to the customer. The

interviewees also explained the luxury architectural appearance and luxemosphere to describe the luxury store attributes. Some notable quotes on the luxetecture include:

It's like I am getting into the hugeness of that particular store. When anyone goes into that store, they see many spaces, there is no clutter, and they get an experience of each cloth individually.

[Interviewee 1, Male, Age 40+]

I tried the bag on my shoulder and looked at myself in the mirror. [...] It actually looked really really nice. [...] The store is designed with a marble floor that looks really luxurious and expensive. [...] A lot of digital aspects like a big-screen television, 3D pictures, and signage hold attention to stay inside the store.

[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]

Hence, the in-depth interviews have shown store design, digital ambience, more expansive spaces, decoration, etc., as the luxetecture aspects (see Figure 4.3) of luxury store attributes.



Figure 4.3 Word cloud of luxetecture

Luxury stores are the opposite of self-service stores, as customers receive impeccable employee service before purchasing a product. Most participants highlighted employee service and the store customs as the other two fundamental aspects of LFSA. For instance, some notable statements by interviewees are as follows:

The luxury store can take care of you in another way, more welcoming and cheers [...], especially buying an expensive brand you can look forward to for special treatment. So, shopping in a luxury store is much easy because someone helps me in each step of my transaction.

[Interviewee 2, Female, Age 26–30]

Everyone gets the excellent customer care service of a luxury store. We are paying a higher price to the luxury store for availing services. The environment of caring and attention attract me to go to a luxury store. The employees are always trying to keep continue their respect for customers during the visit to a luxury store. There will be someone who is trying to assist you.

[Interviewee 3, Male, Age 31–35]

A luxury branded [flagship] store allows only a few customers to enter at a time. The store must arrange to have a dedicated employee with them. It's sort of like a personalised service and delivery of information to a specific customer at a particular time. When someone waits for an employee, the store serves water, drinks, coffee and snacks.

[Interviewee 5, Male, Age 31–35]

A luxury store creates a barrier to entry. The customers should have the confidence to enter the store. The store has only a few pieces of product so that customers can consistently walk in a large room.

[Interviewee 6, Male, Age 31–35]



Figure 4.4 Word cloud of luxescape

The salesmen around me provide more information and advice on my interest. [...] I can see fewer customers because significantly less people can afford to go for those stores. Sometimes we cannot just go; we have to make an appointment before going to the store.

[Interviewee 11, Female, Age 31–35]

The cloth puts into a box inside the glass shelf in a luxury store to look very prestigious. It's not like anyone can touch & try easily; not all people are just touching it because it's kind of guarded. [...] An employee helps to bring out the item for customers. They use gloves to protect the clothes from any contamination. They probably wear gloves as they can take good care of the products. Some stores offer drinks, tea to make me feel comfortable.

[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]

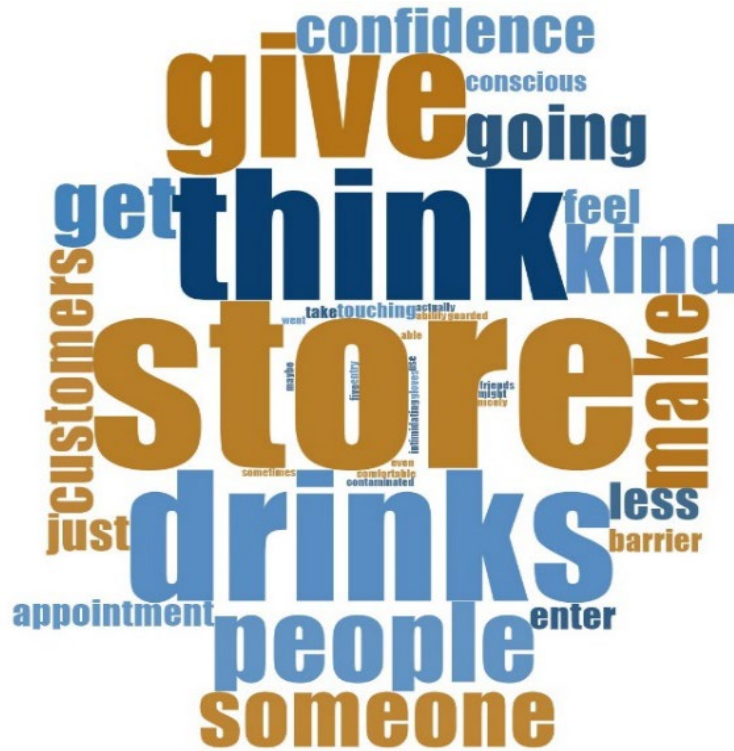


Figure 4.5 Word cloud of luxegovern

The above statements illustrate attention, care, customised assistance, advice, etc. as elements of the luxescape aspect (see above, Figure 4.4), and entry barrier, limited shoppers, cheers and greetings as significant components of the luxegovern factor (see above, Figure 4.5) of the LFSA. In this way, Phase 1 of the qualitative study explored four aspects: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern of the luxury store attributes.

4.4.4 Outcomes of LFSE

During the interviews, the researcher asked several questions about customer behavioural consequences affecting the LFSE. The respondents deliberately deny brand loyalty and a direct recommendation to others. However, they highly mentioned their direct and indirect social media participation by liking, sharing and commenting on the preferred luxury clothing brand. For example:

I do not talk about luxury items directly to anyone. However, I post other enjoyment and places on social media while a whole bunch of luxury stuff portray behind these events.

[Interviewee 6, Male, Age 31–35]

I like the brand and stuff on Instagram [...]. I share my experience only with my parents and close friends. [...] I don't share anything about the luxury store, but sometimes I like posts from the brand on Instagram.

[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]

Again, a large portion of the participants expressed their intention to continue purchasing the preferred luxury brand items as a behavioural consequence of the LFSE. For instance:

I like to buy from this luxury flagship store. I like their new design coming in every session. So, I keep continuing to buy from this store.

[Interviewee 14, Male, Age 36–40]

I will spend more time finding my preferred luxury store. I may travel a long distance or allocate time from my busy life to buy from the luxury store.

[Interviewee 16, Male, Age 31–35]

Therefore, Phase 1 of the qualitative study identified pro-brand customer social media participation and repeat purchase intention as two outcome variables of the LFSE. Finally, this study explored quotes related to the LFSE, LFSA as the drivers of LFSE, and its behavioural consequences (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) from the above descriptions. Table 4.2 shows corresponding quotes for each of the LFSE dimensions, dimensions of its driver (LFSA), and consequences (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) of the luxury flagship stores' customers, discovered from the in-depth interviews.

Table 4.2 Summary of quotations for drivers, dimensions and consequences

Driver (LFSA)	LFSE Dimensions	Consequences (CSMP & RPIN)
<p>Luxemosphere:</p> <p><i>The luxury store portrays a colourful theme, looks beautiful and offers a great environment. [.....] The store keeps a wider view, [.....] store's colours are different, and the lightings are beautiful.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 9, Female, Age 36–40]</p>	<p>Contextual:</p> <p><i>I like the store layout, colour, lighting, soft music, and great design, which is very impressive in my sense.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 3, Male, Age 31–35]</p>	<p>CSMP:</p> <p><i>I like the brand and stuff on Instagram [...]. I share my experience only with my parents and close friends. [...] I don't share anything about the luxury store, but sometimes I like posts from the brand on Instagram.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]</p>
<p>Luxecture:</p> <p><i>It's like I am getting into the hugeness of that particular store. When anyone goes into that store, they see many spaces, there is no clutter, and they get an experience of each cloth individually.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 1, Male, Age 40+]</p>	<p><i>I can try it on, touch it, see it [.....], and smell associates it with what I experienced upon purchasing these items.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 5, Male, Age 31–35]</p>	<p>RPIN:</p> <p><i>I like to buy from this luxury flagship store. I like their new design coming in every session. So, I keep continuing to buy from this store.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 14, Male, Age 36–40]</p>
<p>Luxescape:</p> <p><i>Everyone gets good customer care service from a luxury store. We are paying a higher price to the luxury store for availing services. The caring environment and attention attract me to go to a luxury store. The employees always try to continue their respect for customers while visiting a luxury store. There will be someone who is trying to assist you.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 3, Male, Age 31–35]</p>	<p>Intellectual:</p> <p><i>Buying a luxury helps one learn something new about the brand, the materials they use, and the heritage attached to it.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 13, Female, 26–30]</p>	
<p>Luxegovern:</p> <p><i>A luxury store creates a barrier to entry. The customers should have the confidence to enter the store. The store has only a few pieces of product, so customers can consistently walk in a large room.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 6, Male, Age 31–35]</p>	<p>Social:</p> <p><i>It portrays the sense of assimilation with part of the affluent group. [.....] It is associated with celebrities and their association with the brand, which means I can buy the same product as the superstar.</i></p> <p>[Interviewee 7, Female, Age 18–25]</p>	

The previous discussion on drivers, beliefs and behavioural consequences of the luxury flagship stores' customers is summarised by a cross-case analysis in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Cross-case summary of drivers, dimensions and consequences

Drivers (LFSA)	LFSE Dimensions	Consequences (CSMP & RPIN)
Luxemosphere:	Contextual:	CSMP:
Smell (13) Music (15)	See (27)	Share (7)
Quite (16) Touch (19)	Like (44)	Social (4)
Atmosphere (24)	Looks (10)	Email (3)
Environment (19)	Feel (47)	Instagram (20)
Colour (14) Scent (13)	Wear (14)	Read (14)
Animation (5)	Attract (7) Choice (3)	Post (12)
Perfume (14)	Confidence (5)	Review (12)
Symbol (28)	Relax (7)	Comment (11)
Aesthetics (3)	Sense (13)	Create (11)
Luxetecture:	Cheers (4)	Engage (7)
Lighting (12)	Comfortable (13)	Express (6)
Trying (12)	Emotional (19)	Facebook (5)
Design (35)	Enjoyment (11)	Inform (14)
Display (3)	Intellectual:	Invitation (11)
Beautiful (2)	Knowledge (58)	Pictures (13)
Spacious (14)	Think (52) Learn (18)	Twitter (3)
Architecture (11)	Social:	Write (9)
Portraits (6)	Status (72)	RPIN:
Automated (3)	Personality (53)	Buy (11)
Luxescape:	Attached (37)	Shop (11)
Service (19)	Connection (37)	Purchase (9)
Staffs (19)	Respect (21)	Intent (9)
Care (16) Assist (14)	Royal (12)	Want (7)
Help (14) Greet (13)	Associated (19)	Continue (6)
Respect (12)	Prestige (14)	
Advice (21)	Distinguish (8)	
Attention (11)	Represent (8)	
Friendly (12)	Similar (7)	
Luxegovern:	Celebrities (7)	
Complement (2)	Achievement (7)	
Drinks (2) Treat (2)	Special (7)	
Snacks (1)	Separates (6)	
Genuine (9)	Higher (5)	
Ethical (6)	Different (5)	
Entry barrier (7)	Social (4)	

Note: Number indicates the frequency of the sub-themes mentioned by interviewees.

4.5 Social Media Content (SMC) Analysis

This study also conducted SMC analysis to investigate the social media post of the luxury flagship stores' fans concerning their expression about the LFSE and the LFSA.

This research chose Twitter as a source to collect social media content. Twitter is one of the most widespread platforms (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2015) and attracts a vast number of luxury brands (Dauriz et al., 2014; PMX Agency, 2018) and their customers. A total of 12,925 tweets and retweets posted by customers, fans and followers mentioning 12 luxury clothing brands from 16 July 2019 to 15 November 2019 were collected using the salesforce social studio platform.

4.5.1 Data Transformation and Results

The raw textual data were downloaded using the salesforce social studio portal and extracted as a Microsoft Excel file to analyse further. The Excel data file was imported to nVivo12 software for thematic analysis. The thematic analysis explored relevant keywords of the luxury store and luxury flagship store experience. The social media content analysis yielded 42 for LFSE keywords and 52 for LFSA (see Table 4.4). Consequently, Phase 2 of the qualitative study generated five new keywords for LFSA (i.e., concentric, a royal art, crowd-free, intimidation, inferiority, and embrace) and four unique keywords for LFSE (i.e., celebrities, distinguish, power, and separate).

Table 4.4 Keyword summary for LFSE and LFSA from SMC

Dimensions and Keywords for LFSE		Dimensions and Keywords for LFSA		
Contextual (21 Keywords):	Intellectual: Knowledge	Luxemosphere (10 Keywords):	Luxetecture: Prestigious	Luxegovern (9 Keywords):
Delighted	Learn	Atmosphere	location	Appointment
Delivers	Level	Attached	Lot	Crowd free
Different	Match	Clean	Material	Inferiority
Feel	Think	Colour schemes	Merchandise	Intimidation
Find		Lighting	Place	Limited
Good	Social	Fresh	Screen	Line
Inner	(14 Keywords):	Music	Space	Original
Kind	Achievement	Fit	Wide	Real
Like	Aspiration	Smell	Luxescape	Class
Lot	Associated	Sophistication	(13 Keywords):	
Mind	Celebrities		Associated	
Quality	Personality	Luxetecture	Care	
Sense	Power	(20 Keywords):	Cheers	
Sort	Present	Artistic element	Concentric	
Time	Price	Big	Dedicated	
Touch	Proud	Boxes	Embrace	
Understanding	Represent	Beautiful design	Guest greeting	
Using	See	Comfortable	Help	
Values	Seen	seating	Knowledge	
Want	Social	Consistent	Information	
Well	Special	display	Polite	
Intellectual (7 Keywords):		Decontaminate	Friendly	
Ethical		Decorated	Warmly	
Involved		Digital animation		

4.6 Qualitative Data Triangulation

This research triangulates the qualitative data collected from in-depth interviews, social media content, and literature review (Chapter 2) to better conceptualise LFSE and LFSA constructs. The secondary data collected from the extant literature review helped contextualise the scale items (Beninger & Francis, 2021) used in other research settings. The primary data gathered from in-depth interviews and social media content confirmed the items’ relevancy and provided additional scale items for the constructs.

Table 4.5 Keywords for LFSE found in SMC, the literature and in-depth interviews

Dimensions and Keywords	Literature	In-depth Interviews (II)	Social Media Content (SMC)
Contextual:			
Aural		Yes	Yes
Smell	Okonkwo, 2010;	Yes	Yes
Sight	Wiedmann et al., 2018	Yes	Yes
Tactile		Yes	No
Elation	Ma et al., 2017	Yes	No
Sense	Brakus et al., 2009	Yes	No
Fun	Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982	Yes	No
Gleeful	Finn, 2005	Yes	No
Happy	Ma et al., 2017	Yes	No
Interactive	Kim & Chen, 2019	Yes	No
Joy	Hosany et al., 2015	Yes	No
Love		Yes	Yes
Intellectual:			
Curiosity	Brakus et al., 2009	Yes	No
Thinking		Yes	No
Knowledge	Hosany & Witham, 2010	Yes	No
Learning		Yes	No
Social:			
Achievement	No	Yes	No
Communitas	Arnould & Price, 1993	Yes	No
Discomfort	No	Yes	No
Discontent	No	Yes	No
Eliteness	No	Yes	No
Influence	No	Yes	No
Incentive	No	Yes	No
Niches	No	Yes	No
Reward	No	Yes	No
Self-actualisation	No	Yes	No
Self-identity	Schmitt, 1999b	Yes	No
Show-up	No	Yes	No
Success	No	Yes	No
Inferior	No	No	Yes
Personal pleasure	No	No	Yes
Pride	No	Yes	No
Smart	No	No	Yes

The triangulation of three qualitative data sources generated 33 keywords for the LFSE and 52 for the LFSA. This research contextualised 18 items based on the 18 keywords from the existing literature. The other 15 keywords were newly explored in

the qualitative study, where twelve were generated by in-depth interviews and three from the social media content analysis. These 15 keywords were considered an extension of the existing literature to propose an expansion of 15 items to measure the LFSE construct. Thus, a total of 33 keywords were considered along with current related experience scale items to measure the LFSA construct (see Table 4.5).

This research recognised 52 keywords for the LFSA, where 21 were identified from the existing literature. These 21 keywords were also extracted in the in-depth interviews with 25 unique additional keywords. A further six keywords were ascertained from the SMC analysis. However, these keywords were not used earlier to measure the LFSA. So, these 52 keywords were proposed to develop scale items to measure the LFSA construct (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Key terms for LFSA found in SMC, the literature and in-depth interviews

Dimensions and Keywords	Literature	In-depth Interviews (II)	Social Media Content (SMC)
Luxemosphere:			
Air quality	No	Yes	No
Ambience	Dion & Arnould, 2011; Koelemeijer & Oppewal, 1999	Yes	No
Colour schemes	Baker et al., 1994	Yes	No
Clean		Yes	No
Pleasant music	Morrin & Chebat, 2005	Yes	No
Scents		Yes	No
Luxetecture:			
Abandoned spaces	Moor et al., 2010	Yes	No
Prestigious location		Yes	No
Artefacts	No	Yes	No
Artistic element	No	Yes	No
Assortment	Broniarczyk et al., 1998	Yes	No
Attractive structure	Wakefield & Blodgett, 1999	Yes	Yes
Beautiful design	Arrigo, 2018	Yes	Yes
Comfortable seating	Bitner, 1992	Yes	Yes
Consistent display	Dickson & Albaum, 1977	Yes	No
Digital bridge	Ramaseshan, 2015	Yes	No
Digital technology	No	Yes	No
Glamorous decoration	Joy et al., 2014	Yes	No
Landscapes	No	Yes	No
Organised layout	Mohan et al., 2012	Yes	No

Dimensions and Keywords	Literature	In-depth Interviews (II)	Social Media Content (SMC)
Luxescape:			
Advice	No	Yes	No
Assistance	No	Yes	No
Brand attached	No	Yes	No
Cheerful	No	Yes	Yes
Concentric	No	Yes	No
Expertise knowledge	Mohan et al., 2012	Yes	No
Grandeur uniform	Joy et al., 2014	Yes	No
Guest greeting	No	Yes	No
Heritage focus	No	Yes	No
Impeccable service	No	Yes	No
Helpful	Baker et al., 1994	Yes	No
Polite and friendly		Yes	No
Passionate	No	Yes	No
Personal care	No	Yes	No
Personal attention	Dong & Siu, 2013	Yes	No
Pretty and attractive		Yes	No
Relation	No	Yes	No
Relief and comfort	No	Yes	No
Respect	No	Yes	No
Sophistication	No	Yes	No
Superiority	No	Yes	No
Luxegovern:			
Crowd free	No	No	Yes
Decontaminate	No	Yes	No
Embrace	No	No	Yes
Gatekeeper	No	Yes	No
Iconic	No	No	Yes
Inferiority	No	No	Yes
Intimidation	No	No	Yes
Invitation	No	Yes	No
Originality	No	Yes	No
Refreshment	No	Yes	No
Royal	No	No	Yes

4.6.1 Extension of LFSE Scale Items

This study re-formed the experiential aspects of the luxury flagship store in the luxury clothing and accessories industry. In this case, the scale items for the LFSE constructs were extended and contextualised from the literature review (Chapter 2), in-depth interviews and SMC analysis performed in previous sections (Sections 4.3 and 4.4).

This study reviewed extant literature on experiential marketing, customer experience, brand experience, service experience, retail, shopping and store experience, and luxury experience to contextualise the scale items. The study simultaneously conducted SMC analysis and in-depth interviews with 20 staff and postgraduate students of a Western Australian university to extend the LFSE scale items. This triangulation of qualitative data helped specify the scale items out of existing broad scales and added new items to extend the scale for the three dimensions of the LFSE construct. This process determined 12 items for the contextual, four for the intellectual, and 17 for the social dimension of the LFSE construct (see Table 4.7). Finally, the 15 new items of the social dimension of the LFSE had never been used as a scale for a luxury experience.

Table 4.7 Contextualised and extended LFSE scales

Keywords	Contextualised Scale Items
Contextual:	
Aural	I enjoy the pleasant music in this luxury clothing store.
Smell	I like the lovely fragrance in this luxury clothing store.
Sight	I am amazed by the visual display of this luxury clothing store.
Tactile	I feel the sophisticated touch in this luxury clothing store.
Elation	I feel elated visiting this luxury clothing store.
Sense	I find this luxury clothing store fascinating in a sensory way.
Fun	I feel fun visiting this luxury clothing store.
Gleeful	I feel gleeful visiting this luxury clothing store.
Happy	I feel happy visiting this luxury clothing store.
Interactive	I enjoy interacting with other shoppers at this luxury clothing store.
Joy	I feel a sense of joy visiting this luxury clothing store.
Love	I feel a sense of love visiting this luxury clothing store.
Intellectual:	
Curiosity	This luxury clothing store stimulates my curiosity in solving problems.
Thinking	I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this store.
Knowledge	This luxury clothing store makes me more knowledgeable.
Learning	I learn a lot while shopping in this luxury clothing store.
Social:	
Communitas	Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.
Self-identity	Shopping from this store allows me to indicate the kind of person I am.
Extended Scale Items (Source: In-depth interviews and SMC analysis)	
Social:	
Achievement	I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.

Keywords	Contextualised Scale Items
Discomfort	I feel discomfort visiting this luxury clothing store.
Discontent	I feel discontent visiting this luxury clothing store.
Eliteness	I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.
Incentive	It is an incentive to treat myself to visiting this luxury clothing store.
Inferior	I feel inferior visiting this luxury clothing store.
Influence	Shopping from this store positively impacts what others think of me.
Niches	Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.
Pride	I feel proud to visit this luxury clothing store.
Personal pleasure	It is a personal pleasure to visit this luxury clothing store.
Reward	It is my reward to visit and shop in this luxury clothing store.
Self-actualisation	I feel self-actualisation visiting this luxury clothing store.
Show-up	I like to be seen shopping from this store to others.
Success	I feel successful in having access to and visiting this luxury clothing store.
Smart	I felt like a smart shopper visiting this luxury clothing store.

4.6.2 Extension of LFSA Scale Items

This study developed and validated the measurement scales (Chapter 5) for the LFSA construct by following Churchill's (1979) recognised scale development procedure. However, a pool of items was generated through an extant literature review, SMC analysis and insights from the in-depth interview (Böttger et al., 2017) to conceptualise the LFSA construct before validating the scale items. For this purpose, the study reviewed extant literature on store attributes, channel attributes, retailer characteristics, physical store attractiveness, brand stores, and luxury stores to conceptualise the scale items for the LFSA construct. Similarly, it simultaneously conducted SMC analysis and in-depth interviews with 20 staff and postgraduate students of a Western Australian university to extend the scale items for the LFSA construct. First, this procedure (i.e., Study 1) determined six items containing one new item for the luxemosphere dimension. Second, this study explored 14 items for the luxetecture dimension (including four new scales) and 21 items for the luxescape (six contextualised and 15 items generated). Finally, the luxegovern was observed as a very new dimension of the LFSE, with 11 new scale items of the LFSE construct (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 Scale item conceptualisation for LFSA construct

Keywords	Contextualised Scale Items
Luxemosphere:	
Ambience	This luxury flagship store creates an artistic ambience.
Colour schemes	This luxury flagship store displays sophisticated colour schemes.
Clean	This luxury flagship store is immaculate and tidy.
Pleasant music	This luxury flagship store plays pleasant music.
Scents	This luxury flagship store has a pleasant fragrance.
Luxetecture:	
Abandoned spaces	This luxury flagship store reserves an abundance of free spaces.
Assortment	This luxury flagship store has a vast assortment of clothes.
Attractive structure	The structure of this luxury flagship store is very attractive.
Beautiful design	This luxury flagship store exhibits beautiful architectural design.
Comfortable seating	This luxury flagship store has friendly and comfortable seatings.
Consistent display	This luxury flagship store exhibits a consistent display of products.
Digital bridge	This luxury flagship store bridges physical and online stores.
Glamorous decoration	This luxury flagship store shows glamorous decoration.
Organised layout	This luxury flagship store facilitates an organised display of clothing.
Prestigious Location	This luxury flagship store is situated in a prestigious location.
Luxescape:	
Expertise knowledge	The employees of this luxury flagship store have expert knowledge of the specific brand.
Grandeur uniform	The employees of this luxury flagship store wear grand uniforms.
Helpful	The employees of this luxury flagship store are helpful.
Polite and friendly	The employees of this luxury flagship store are polite and friendly.
Personal attention	The employees of this luxury flagship store give personal attention.
Pretty and attractive	The employees of this luxury flagship store look pretty and attractive.
New Scale Items	
Luxemosphere:	
Air quality	This luxury flagship store has fresh air to breathe.
Luxetecture:	
Artefacts	This luxury flagship store presents museological artefacts.
Artistic element	This luxury flagship store attached with artistic elements.
Digital technology	This luxury flagship store has a lot of digital technology aspects.
Landscapes	This luxury flagship store exhibits landscapes of heritage.
Luxescape:	
Advice	The employees of this luxury flagship store provide the right advice to select a particular product.
Assistance	The employees of this luxury flagship store act as an assistant at each step of the shopping experience.
Brand attached	The employees of this luxury flagship store are highly attached to the brand.
Cheerful	The employees of this luxury flagship store are cheerful.

Concentric	The employees of this luxury flagship store concentrate on specific products.
Guest greeting	The employees of this luxury flagship store greet customers like a guest.
Heritage focus	The employees of this luxury flagship store are heritage focus.
Impeccable service	The employees of this luxury flagship store provide impeccable service.
Passionate	The employees of this luxury flagship store are passionate about resolving customer problems.
Personal care	The employees of this luxury flagship store provide better personal care.
Relation	The employees of this luxury flagship store remember repeat customers.
Relief and comfort	The employees of this luxury flagship store allow customers to choose products in comfort.
Respect	The employees of this luxury flagship store are respectful towards customers.
Sophistication	This luxury flagship store articulates sophisticated design.
Superiority	This luxury flagship store treats every customer as a superior class of people in society.
Luxegovern:	
Crowd free	This luxury flagship store is always crowd free.
Decontaminate	This luxury flagship store sanitises products.
Embrace	This luxury flagship store makes embracing by creating queue outside the store.
Gatekeeper	This luxury flagship store has a security guard who stops too many people entering.
Iconic	This luxury flagship store has iconic buildings.
Inferiority	The employees of this luxury flagship store makes customers feel inferior, indicating a high price.
Intimidation	The employees of this luxury flagship store intimidate customers who wear casual dress.
Invitation	This luxury flagship store sends invitations before visiting the store.
Originality	This luxury flagship store ensures the originality of the product.
Refreshment	This luxury flagship store offers refreshments (i.e., snacks, water, coffee) while waiting or after purchase.
Royal	The employees of this luxury flagship store provide royal service to the customers.

4.7 Discussion and Chapter Summary

This chapter's core objective was to generate initial scale items to contextualise and extend the LFSE construct and conceptualise the LFSA construct. This chapter addressed Objectives 1 and 2 (i.e., conceptual extension of the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA; extension of scales to measure the LFSE and the LFSA) based on RQ1. This study simultaneously conducted in-depth interviews and SMC analysis as part of the qualitative research process. The research data were collected from 20 in-depth interviews and more than 12,000 social media posts on Twitter. A thematic analysis

was conducted to generate an initial items pool identifying key terms and quotations related to the LFSE and the LFSA constructs.

In addition, a cross-case analysis was performed to determine the frequency of the keywords and corresponding dimensions. Again, this chapter has shown the comparative analysis of scale items through triangulation of literature review, in-depth interviews and SMC analysis. These results revealed three dimensions of the LFSE construct, including contextual/situational (12 items), intellectual (4 items) and social (17 items). The 12 scale items of the contextual dimension used in previous literature (i.e., Brakus et al., 2009; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Hosany et al., 2015; Kim & Chen, 2019; Ma et al., 2017; Okonkwo, 2010) is scattered as sensory and/or affective experiences. This study found 12 items in a combined form and created a unique dimension of LFSE. Four items of the intellectual dimension of LFSE were separately found as two items in brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009) and two in tourism experience research (Hosany & Witham, 2010) used as a similar dimension of experience. However, the 15 items among the 17 items of the social dimension were found either in in-depth interviews or SMC and considered a very new dimension of the LFSE. So, this qualitative phase has unveiled 33 initial items for the LFSE construct.

Conversely, 52 items were newly recognised for the LFSA construct, and these created four dimensions: luxemosphere (six items), luxetecture (14 items), luxescape (21 items) and luxegovern (11 items). The four dimensions used in a previous qualitative paper (Joy et al., 2014) do not have any scales. There are 31 unique items revealed from the in-depth interviews and SMC among the 52 items of the LFSA. Overall, the qualitative study (Study 1) identified some crucial findings on the contextual extension of LFSE and LFSA and causal relationships among the constructs. Finally, this study has shown the links among the LFSE, LFSA and two outcome variables (i.e., customer social media participation and repeat purchase intention). These findings will help develop the basis for the theoretical underpinnings and a proposed research model in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

5.1 Chapter Introduction

The current study aims to conceptualise LFSA, its relationship with LFSE and the behavioural consequences of LFSA and LFSE. This chapter investigates the theories related to attributes and values relationships and their consequences from a luxury clothing stores' viewpoint. Further, this chapter reviews research objectives to develop a set of hypotheses. Thereafter, a conceptual research model is proposed (Figure 5.1), based on the discussion of the critical theories, to address the research gaps and attain the objectives. Thus, this chapter deliberates on the store attribute concept using theories from marketing, retailing, flagship or branding, tourism and luxury brand literature. The key construct of the research model is LFSE, where LFSA is recognised as the perceived driver of LFSE, and CSMP and RPIN are considered the behavioural consequences of LFSA and LFSE.

The following sections focus on the theoretical foundation and relevance to the luxury retail and service context (Section 5.2). The relevant theories of LFSE and LFSA are discussed in Section 5.3. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the associations among LFSA, LFSE, CSMP and RPIN to develop hypotheses (Section 5.4). These discussions and hypotheses lead to developing a conceptual model (Section 5.5). Finally, Section 5.6 conveys a summary of this chapter.

5.2 Theoretical Foundation

This chapter deliberates on the store attribute concept using generic theories from retailing, flagship or branding and luxury brand literature. Six prevailing theories support this research: experience categorisation (Dewey, 1922), theory of mind modularity (Fodor, 1983; Pinker, 1997), staged experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), servicescape framework (Bitner, 1992), MEC theory (Gutman, 1982) and interpersonal relationship theory (Fournier, 1998), as well as one supporting theory titled social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974). This study relates the selected theories to the research objectives and finds the essence and gaps of those theories from the luxury brands' perspective.

5.3 Relevant Theories of Experience, Attributes and Consequences

5.3.1 Theories of Experience

Experience Categorisation: Experience categorisation theory was developed by the American philosopher John Dewey (1922). According to this theory, experience is noted as the interactions between human beings and environments. Dewey critiqued the previous view of experience as the completeness of physical knowledge and extended its scope toward another three aspects. Dewey argued that knowledge is only one aspect of an individual's understanding of the world through analysing, classifying and reasoning. According to Dewey, knowledge refers to the intellectual part of the experience and experience results through perceiving, feeling and doing. Finally, Dewey claimed that total human experience is a combination of intellectual, social, bodily and emotional experiences.

Theory of Mind Modularity: The theory of mind modularity explains the structure of the human mind. This theory of mind modularity combines the philosophy of mind of cognitive scientists Fodor (1983) and the mental modules of Pinker (1997). The theory of mind modularity exhibits distinct mental reactions toward a specific environment, and these responses are called the 'modular view of the mind'. According to the theory, a module is a particular purpose, mostly an autonomous computational system that responds to specific environmental prompts and solves a controlled class of problems (Brakus et al., 2009; Fodor, 1983). These are innate and evolutionary adaptations (Pinker, 1997) and produce four mental modules. The four mental modules resemble the sensory, feelings and emotions, creativity and reasoning, and social aspects of experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Pinker, 1997).

Stages Experience: Two management scholars, Pine & Gilmore (1999), developed the 'staged experience' theory by explaining the progression of economic value. According to these scholars, economic value has changed from extracting commodities to staging experiences. In the agrarian economy, consumers made food (e.g., birthday cakes) by extracting commodities (e.g., flour, sugar, butter and eggs). Then, in the industrial economy, consumers paid for premixed ingredients to save time. Later, the service economy took responsibility for ordering and preparing foods and delivering services by providing customised cakes. Finally, the experience economy emerged, arranging the birthday, including delivering cakes and making other

arrangements to stage a memorable event. According to the staged experience theory, an experience happens when a company deliberately uses goods as props and services as the stage to involve individual customers to create a memorable event. Pine and Gilmore (1999) sorted the experiences into four broad categories: entertainment, educational, escapist and esthetic.

Moreover, Schmitt (1999a) developed an experiential marketing concept applying staged experience or experience economy to marketing literature. According to this concept, experiential marketing differs from traditional marketing by focusing on customer experience rather than the functional benefits and features of products and a holistic view of consumption that only product categories and brands. Schmitt (1999a) developed strategic experiential modules (SEMs) and proposed five dimensions of experience: sensory experience (sense), affective experience (feel), creative cognitive experience (think), physical, behavioural and lifestyle experience (act) and social identity experience (relate).

Substantial agreement between the above theories shows similarities and differences in terms of the experience dimensions based on the different settings and contexts. However, the above mentioned three theories of experience: experience categorisation, mind modularity, and staged experience, were applied in existing research to determine the dimensions of brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009). Therefore these theories support the current study to prepare a basis for extending LFSE dimensions.

5.3.2 Servicescape Framework

Servicescape was coined by Bitner (1992) to indicate the physical settings of a service centre, such as ambient conditions, spatial layout and functionality, signs, symbols and artefacts. The servicescape represents the physical surroundings of a store environment controlled by the firm to enrich customers' actions (Quintal et al., 2015). Servicescapes consolidate store environmental stimuli into three dimensions: (1) ambient conditions, (2) spatial layout and functionality and (3) signs, symbols and artefacts. These stimuli or attributes converge to enhance or constrain customer acceptance or avoidance decisions and assist or obstruct their social interaction (Parish et al., 2008). Servicescapes strongly influence the customers' responses toward a firm (Lin, 2004; Mason & Paggiaro, 2012) and their experience (Dong & Siu, 2013). Servicescapes

generate positive relationships between the retail environment and customers' internal responses and behavioural intention (Mattila & Wirtz, 2001; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1999).

Furthermore, store employees' behaviour, competence and attractiveness play a significant role in customers' perception and relationship with a store (Dong & Siu, 2013; Harris & Ezeh, 2008). The store culture or governance is another critical aspect of store attributes that predominantly affects customer psychology and experience (Dong & Siu, 2013). Therefore, the servicescape framework helps to conceptualise four dimensions of LFSA: luxemosphere (i.e., ambience, colour, fragrance, music, design, lighting and decoration), luxetecture (i.e., facilitative settings, artefacts, heritage and digital amenities), luxescape (i.e., personal attention, customised assistance, comfort, need fulfilment, respectfulness, valuable advice and flawless service) and luxegovern (i.e., entry barrier, intimidation, limited customers present, greeting and employees' attire). Servicescapes theory supports identifying the LFSA and provides hints to propose relationships between the LFSA dimensions, LFSE, CSMP and RPIN.

5.3.3 MEC Theory

American psychologist Edward Chace Tolman (1932) proposed the concept of the attributes-benefits relationship. However, the concept was first applied by Young and Feigin (1975), who named it the benefit chain. This concept was extended to measure the relationships among the attributes, consequences and values by Gutman (1982) and renamed as a means-end chain or MEC theory. The MEC model comprises three layers: attributes, consequences and values. The MEC model generates connections from attributes to the usage benefits or consequences and the consumers' values. The attributes are perceived as a means to attain a particular set of benefits and in turn, help to spread a group of consumers' values (Gutman, 1982).

The first layer of the MEC model is means or attributes, which indicate the products' features (Botschen et al., 1999). These attributes can be tangible, such as weight, colour or price (Vriens & Hofstede, 2000), or intangible, such as style, brand or value (Botschen et al., 1999). The attributes of a luxury flagship store encompass atmosphere (Okonkwo, 2010), layout, design, assortment (De Lassus & Freire, 2014), service interface (Truong & McColl, 2011), retail practices and policies (Hui &

Bateson, 1991) and employees' performance (Joy et al., 2014). The second layer of the MEC model is consequences or benefits, which refer to physiological, psychological or sociological needs, such as hunger, thirst, self-esteem, group membership or status (Gutman, 1982). These are functional and psychological benefits (Peter et al., 1999), where functional benefits are time savings, energy and durability, for example (Gutman, 1982), and psychological benefits are consumers' mental state, such as feelings of self-worth and wellbeing (Amatulli et al., 2018). Similarly, luxury customers' psychological perceptions and expressions encompass their personal styles, identities, personalities, feelings, gleefulness, edutainment and homophily (Amatulli & Guido, 2011; Das et al., 2019; Oliver, 2014; van der Westhuizen, 2018). The third layer of the MEC model is values, referring to permanent beliefs induced by an individual's personality or end-state of existence, such as accomplishment, security or happiness (Gutman, 1982; Rokeach, 1973). The luxury consumers' values are self-referencing pleasure by taking care of self-confidence, self-esteem, self-respect and self-fulfilment (Amatulli & Guido, 2011).

MEC theory examines the individual's rational structures (Aurifeille & Valette-Florence, 1995; Pitts et al., 1991) relating to the choice of products or services, linking the outcomes (Reynolds & Olson, 2001). It proposes that cognitive linkage between attributes and benefits are induced by visiting stores and that consumer values stimulate decision making (Thompson & Chen, 1998). Indeed, this model is suitable ideally for brand assessment, brand positioning, advertising, tourism, retail marketing, market segmentation and product development (López-Mosquera & Sánchez, 2011; Reynolds et al., 1995; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988; Vriens & Hofstede, 2000; Wagner, 2007). MEC theory also explores customers' perceived values generated from store attributes (Mitchell & Harris, 2005).

Previous research mostly used the MEC model qualitatively for exploratory investigation (e.g., Xiao et al., 2017). The study by Xiao et al. (2017) applied MEC theory to explore the concrete and abstract attributes of online stores that facilitated achieving experiential aspects (benefits and values) of store choice. Remarkably, the MEC theory has learned beliefs as its key outcome (Chiu, 2005; Wu et al., 2018). Therefore, the current study focuses on the extension of MEC theory to capture the relational effects of learned beliefs.

5.3.4 Interpersonal Relationship Theory

The interpersonal relationship (IPR) theory was developed by Fournier (1998); it examines the relationship proposition between customers and brands. This relationship between consumers and brands is similar to human relationships as brands are somehow personalised or humanised (Fournier, 1998). According to this theory, brands contribute significantly to the relationship dyad as active objects of marketing transactions. Thus, consumers can easily assign consistent personality qualities to brand objects (Aaker, 1997) as brands have human characters (Levy, 1985; Plummer, 1985) and articulate their particular relationship views (Blackston, 1993). The experiences and connections between brands and consumers emerge in the relationship behaviour over time (Hamzah et al., 2014; Nobre & Simões, 2019). Favourable experiences encourage consumers to purchase the brand repeatedly and influence others to buy (Brakus et al., 2009; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Similarly, consumers maintain strong relationships with brands to obtain consistent, meaningful experiences (Fournier, 1998). In turn, the experiential aspects of a brand establish a consumer–brand relationship through interactions in favour of the brand (Payne et al., 2009).

The brand relationship can be an effect of store visits. The store environment can dramatically change customers' brand preferences and shift customers' minds from one commitment to something better, with these considered “friends of convenience” (Fournier, 1998, p. 354). Again, the relationship quality between consumers and brands may affect commitment based on the prestige associated with brands (Choi et al., 2017), varying with different experiential aspects of the brand (Fournier & Yao, 1997). Developing a consumer–brand relationship is indispensable for luxury brands (Hwang & Kandampully, 2012) as prestige is highly associated with a luxury brand, providing a pleasant experience. Previous literature has signposted that the experiential aspects of a luxury brand influence customers to interact on social media (Childers et al., 2001). Finally, the interpersonal ties between consumers and brands strengthen through sharing meaningful experiences and enhancing mutual appreciation (McAlexander et al., 2002).

Earlier studies in the literature on IPR theory focused on brand commitment (Dick & Basu, 1994), brand community (McAlexander et al., 2002), brand personality (Aaker et al., 2004), brand co-creation (Payne et al., 2009), brand attachment (Park et

al., 2010), brand love (Batra et al., 2012) and brand loyalty (Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014). Therefore, the interpersonal relationship theory can help the current study propose a relationship between consumers and a luxury flagship store by sharing their experiences on social media sites and repeatedly purchasing.

5.3.5 Social Identity Theory

Polish social psychologist Henri Tajfel pioneered work on the cognitive aspects of prejudice and social identity theory in 1974 (Tajfel, 1974). Social identity theory describes an individual's intention to classify people into various social categories, such as organisational membership, gender, age-cohort and religious affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), defined by prototypical characteristics abstracted from the group's membership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1985). According to this theory, social classification works through accomplishing two significant tasks. First, it cognitively segments and ranks the social environment, defines people's categories and classifies their positions using prototypical characteristics (Hamilton, 1981). Second, social classification enables individuals to find themselves in the social environment. An individual's self-concept encompasses distinctive abilities, bodily attributes, interests and psychological traits, such as social identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Social identity theory focuses on three basic principles. First, there is a psychological process behind categorising an individual's personal and social identification (Hornsey, 2008). An individual segments people into different groups through social categorisation. The various groups are valued and inferred by social comparison. Then groups' identities are professed and accepted in the social identification process (Tajfel, 1974). Second, individuals intend to gain a positive social identity through individual mobility, social competition and social creativity in the social identification process. Individual mobility avoids and devalues a group and moves to a higher standard group (Tajfel, 1975). Social competition refers to the improvement of the group's current status (Sherif, 1966). Social creativity denotes the activities that emphasise focusing on the positive sides more than the opposing sides of the group (Brown, 2000; Jackson et al., 1996). Finally, the application of social identity theory is based on three critical characteristics of social structure: stability, permeability and legitimacy (Ellemers & Haslam, 2011). Stability denotes the stable nature of a social structure and the long-lasting differences that define the group. Permeability denotes an individual's likelihood to work independently in a social

system. Legitimacy denotes the moral beliefs that regulate members' drive for change within a group structure.

Social identity theory has been used in various research contexts such as sports teams and their fans (Ambrose & Schnitzlein, 2017), workgroups (Sethi, 2000), group identification and organisation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and intergroup relationships (Tajfel, 1982). The current study considers the self-enhancement aspect of the social identity theory to explore the dimensions of LFSE and measure its relationships to LFSA and LFSE outcomes.

Table 5.1 Theories covered in this Study

Theories	Components or Constructs of the theory
Experience Categorisation (Dewey, 1922)	Intellectual, social, bodily and emotional
Theory of Mind Modularity (Pinker, 1997)	Sensory, feelings and emotions, creativity and reasoning, and social
Stages Experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999)	Entertainment, educational, escapist and esthetic
Servicescape (Bitner, 1992)	Ambient conditions, spatial layout and functionality, signs, symbols and artefacts
Means-end chain (Gutman, 1982)	Attributes, consequences and values
Interpersonal relationship (Fournier, 1998)	Brand characteristics and consumers' attitudes
Social identity (Tajfel, 1974)	Social categories, social environment, and individual self-concept

5.4 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

This research argues that LFSE and LFSA are higher-order constructs. The LFSE comprises three prime dimensions: situational, intellectual and enduring experiences. Similarly, the LFSA comprises four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. The overall experiences occur in in-store or online interactions (Holmqvist et al., 2020b), evoked by the products, packaging, environment, communication, events, sales relationships and the like (Schmitt, 2010). These experiential aspects encompass three stages: pre-purchase, during purchase and post-purchase (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016) and are encountered through different touchpoints

(Stein & Ramaseshan, 2020) and omnichannel interactions in the customer journey. This study proposes that various dimensions of LFSA act as drivers of the LFSE, and LFSE delivers consequences such as CSMP and RPIN. The study discusses the connotation among the constructs and proposes pertinent hypotheses in the following sections.

5.4.1 Drivers of LFSE

The store attributes are fundamental for creating customer admiration at a luxury flagship store (De Lassus & Freire, 2014; Dion & Arnould, 2011). The luxury items are often found in non-branded stores that may offer superior quality but fail to deliver the authentic store experience that customers desire during their shopping (Gistri et al., 2009). The main features of LFSA comprise an atmospheric presentation (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014; Okonkwo, 2010), architectural settings (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014), impeccable employee services (Joy et al., 2014; Quintal et al., 2015; Okonkwo, 2016) and customer-related policies and practices (Kerin et al., 1992).

The luxemosphere elements such as aroma, music, lighting and colour generate multi-sensory perceptions (Shapiro & Spence, 2002; Turley & Chebat, 2002; Turley & Milliman, 2000) and affect the LFSE (Verhoef et al., 2009). Similarly, the luxetecture elements such as design and visual appeal (Kirby & Kent, 2010) also influence the visual experience of a luxury flagship store (Arrigo, 2018). Finally, the overall store environment, including substantive artistic creation, luxury objects, retail services and store governance, affect LFSE (Borghini et al., 2009; Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Hollenbeck et al., 2008; Kozinets et al., 2002). Besides the empirical evidence, MEC theory proposes connections between attributes, psychological consequences and values. The attributes refer to the LFSA dimensions, and psychological consequences and values refer to the LFSE. This discussion demonstrates some critical links between the LFSA dimensions and the LFSE. Thus, this study postulates luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern are the drivers of the LFSE in the context of a luxury clothing store and hypothesises:

H1. Luxemosphere has a positive impact on the LFSE

H2. Luxetecture has a positive impact on the LFSE

H3. Luxescape has a positive impact on the LFSE

H4. Luxegovern has a positive impact on the LFSE.

5.4.2 Consequences of LFSE

The consequences of LFSE are experiential responses retained in consumers' memories (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). This experience can begin at the pre-purchase stage and endure even after the purchase and repeat purchase stage (Carù & Cova, 2003). Luxury flagship stores inspire customers to connect deeply with a luxury brand (Ko et al., 2019) using brand-related experience (Atwal & Williams, 2009). A luxury flagship store distinguishes itself by acting as a social maker (Kapferer & Bastien, 2012). It creates a more significant commitment to repeatedly purchasing luxury items (Shukla et al., 2016) or visiting the flagship store.

The extant luxury brands' literature has focused on brand prestige (Hwang & Hyun, 2012), brand advocacy, consumption satisfaction (Shukla et al., 2016) and purchase intention (Park et al., 2008) as outcomes. However, the dimensions of the LFSA converge to a feel-good experience that may confer a positive attitude in the customers (Pham, 2004). Consequently, the power and intensity of the LFSE transform the relationship between the brand and consumers (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013). This consumer–brand relationship extends through consumers' interactions on social media (Achille et al., 2018; Childers et al., 2001) to express their experiences (Tynan et al., 2010) and RPIN (Shukla et al., 2016). Again, the interpersonal relationship theory also proposes the ties between consumers and a luxury flagship store by sharing their experiences on social media and enhancing mutual appreciation by purchasing repeatedly. The more LFSE evokes, the more CSMP and RPIN. Thus, based on the above discussion on the consequences of the LFSE, this study hypothesises:

H5. The LFSE has a positive impact on CSMP

H6. The LFSE has a positive impact on RPIN.

5.4.3 Direct Effects of LFSA on CSMP and RPIN

This study expects that LFSE mediates the relationships between the four dimensions of the LFSA (luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and the two outcome variables (CSMP and RPIN). Luxury flagship stores play a vital role in communicating brands (Moore & Birtwistle, 2004). A luxury flagship store's fancy design and display are the most significant elements that help consumers recognise the

brand identity and contribute to a favourable brand impression (Okonkwo, 2009). Significantly, the luxury flagship stores' physical attributes have positively influenced consumer intentions to revisit (Loiacono et al., 2007) or repeat purchases (Cole & Chancellor, 2009; Ettis, 2017). So, the different dimensions of the LFSA (luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) positively impact the RPIN. Therefore, based on the above discussion, this study hypothesises as below:

H7a. Luxemosphere has a positive impact on CSMP

H7b. Luxetecture has a positive impact on CSMP

H7c. Luxescape has a positive impact on CSMP

H7d. Luxegovern has a positive impact on CSMP

Correspondingly, consumers' positive interactions in the store enhance their attitude toward the store, leading to a favourable attitude toward the luxury brand (Tynan et al., 2010) and influencing customers on social networking platforms to communicate and share their experiences (Yu et al., 2021). So, the different dimensions of the LFSA (luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) positively impact the CSMP. Therefore, based on the above discussion, this study hypothesises as below:

H8a. Luxemosphere has a positive impact on RPIN

H8b. Luxetecture has a positive impact on RPIN

H8c. Luxescape has a positive impact on RPIN

H8d. Luxegovern has a positive impact on RPIN.

5.4.4 Mediated Effects of LFSE on CSMP and RPIN

Furthermore, the different dimensions of the LFSA (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) influence the overall LFSE (Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Hollenbeck et al., 2008; Kozinets et al., 2002). The store environment creates a meaningful and memorable experience for the customers and visitors (Ettis, 2017). In turn, quality experience directly influences RPIN. Based on these studies, the current study argues that the LFSE mediates the relationships between the four dimensions of LFSA (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and the two

consequences (i.e., CSMP and RPIN). Thus, this study hypothesises the mediating relationships as below:

H9a. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxemosphere and CSMP

H9b. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxetecture and CSMP

H9c. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxescape and CSMP

H9d. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxegovern and CSMP

H10a. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxemosphere and RPIN

H10b. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxetecture and RPIN

H10c. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxescape and RPIN

H10d. The LFSE mediates the relationship between luxegovern and RPIN.

5.5 Conceptual Research Model

A conceptual model assists the systematic collection and exhibition of knowledge (Gregor, 2006). The conceptual model of this research was developed based on the literature review, qualitative study and theoretical propositions discussed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The literature review recognised a few vital pertinent constructs to understand the LFSA, LFSE, relationships between the LFSA and LFSE and their consequences. Notably, the impact of LFSA on the LFSE has been evident. In addition, it is anticipated that the LFSE will lead to CSMP and RPIN.

The proposed model of this research (see Figure 5.1) explains the dimensions of the LFSA and LFSE. It describes the relationships between the LFSA and LFSE by framing the dimensions of LFSA and higher orders of the LFSE construct. The model shows the consequences of the LFSE as CSMP and RPIN in a luxury clothing context. This study conceptualises a LFSE model for luxury clothing and accessories stores. Eighteen hypotheses were developed to describe the comprehensive research model. These hypothesised relationships are as shown in Figure 5.1, where dotted lines show the mediated effects of the LFSE on the relationships between the LFSA dimensions and outcome constructs. These hypothesised relationships will form part of the finalised conceptual model when the hypothesised relationships are established.

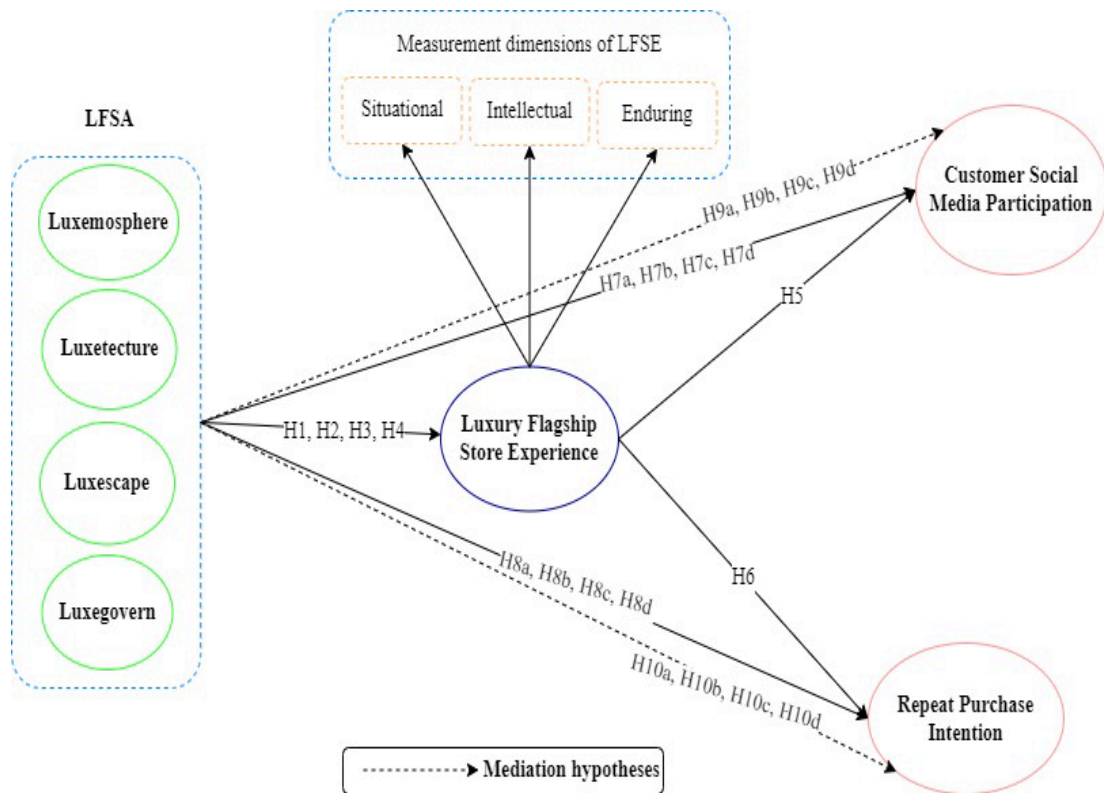


Figure 5.1 Means-end relationship conceptual model

5.6 Conclusion and Chapter Summary

The key objectives of this chapter were to describe the theory underpinning the work, the development of the hypotheses and the building of a conceptual research model. This chapter explains the pertinent theories to develop the study's fundamental hypotheses. Six hypotheses were then developed based on the theoretical underpinnings and support from the extant empirical literature. A comprehensive conceptual model encapsulated the LFSE and its relationship to LFSA, CSMP and RPIN, grounded on the research hypotheses. The chapter discussed the scale development for LFSA and the LFSE and analysed the structural equation model to validate the proposed conceptual model with its hypothetical relationships. The following chapter explains the instrument development procedures for the conceptual extension of the LFSE, the development of scales to measure LFSA and the testing of the conceptual research model.

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 2

DEVELOPMENT AND EXTENSION OF LFSE AND LFSA SCALES

6.1 Chapter Introduction

The previous chapter described the conceptualisation of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) and its drivers. This chapter depicts the process of development, extension and validation of scales to measure the dimensions of the LFSE and the luxury flagship store attributes (LFSA). In doing so, the chapter addresses Objective 2 (i.e., an extension of scales to measure the LFSE), Objective 3 (i.e., development and validation of the scales to measure LFSA), Objective 4 (i.e., examining the impact of the LFSA dimensions on the LFSE) and Objective 5 (i.e., investigate the effects of LFSA and LFSE on customer social media participation [CSMP] and repeat purchase intention [RPIN]).

This chapter focuses on the framework of the scale development process developed by Churchill (1979) and adopted to extend the LFSE scales and develop new LFSA scales. For scale extension, this study proposed and refined a multidimensional LFSE scale by replicating and extending the previous work of Brakus et al. (2009) by examining the broad brand experience in the context of LFSE. Conversely, this study proposed a multidimensional scale for the LFSA constructs. The key steps for the scale development process include specification of the domain and dimensionality of constructs, development of the initial scale items, purification, refinement, validation and generalisation of the scales. A short overview of the scale development and validation process can be seen in Figure 6.1.

This chapter is divided into four parts to address the four objectives mentioned. The first part of this chapter reviews the domain and dimensionality of both LFSE and LFSA constructs. The second part describes the overall process of scale extension of LFSE and LFSA. The third part discusses the results of structural equation modelling through testing the proposed model using the established outcome variables (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) and new scale items of LFSE and LFSA. The following sections of this chapter include theoretical background (Section 6.2), domain and dimensionality of constructs (Section 6.3), scale extension, development and path analyses (Sections 6.4–6.11). Section 6.12 provides a discussion of results and summarises the chapter.

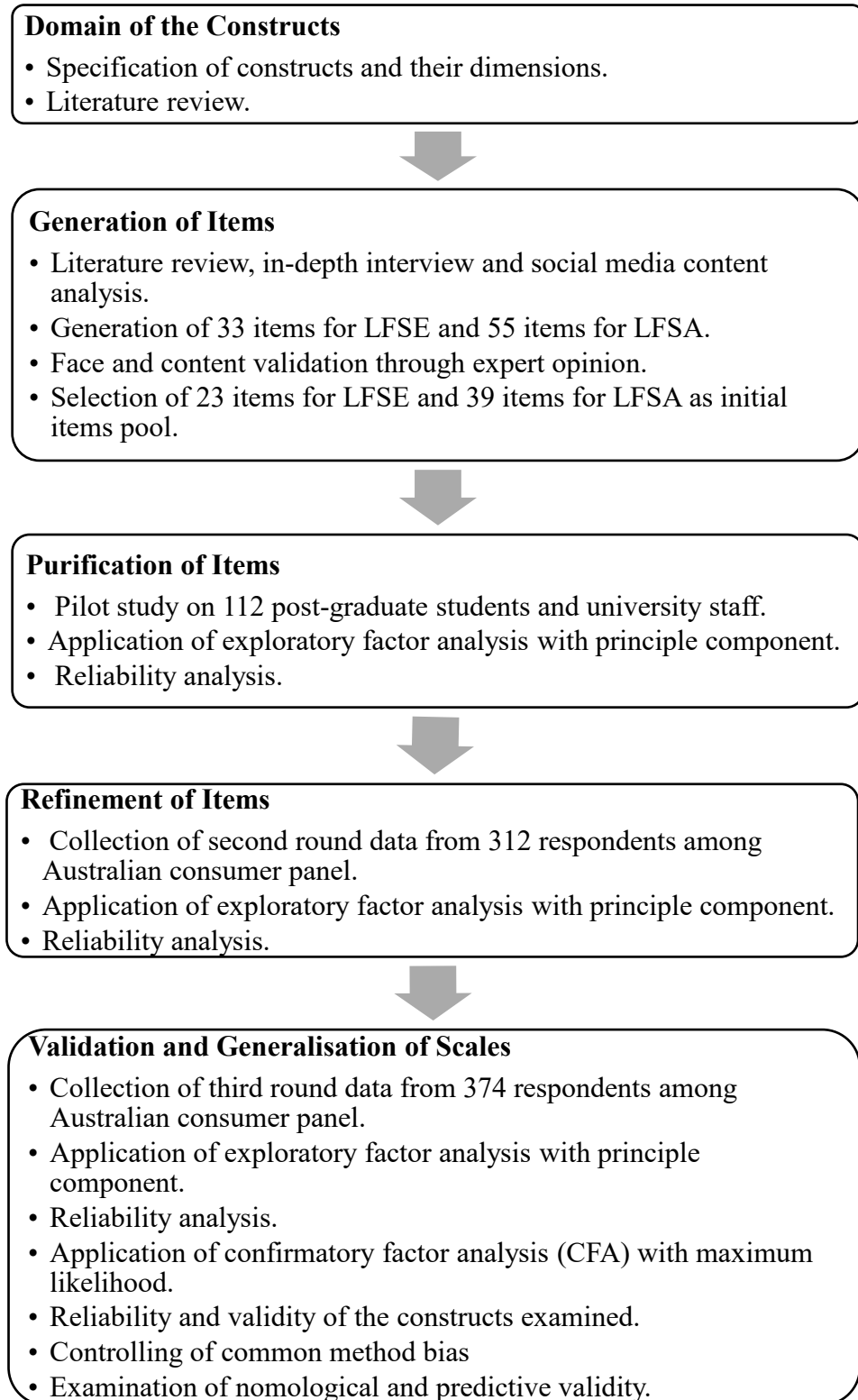


Figure 6.1 Scale development process

Source: adapted from Churchill (1979).

6.2 Theoretical Background

This research reviewed the relevant experiences theories to ascertain the dimensions of the LFSE and the LFSA, which discussed in detailed in Chapter 5. This section recpaes theories to link the basis of the quantitative study. The existing literature revealed some fundamental theories, such as experience categorisation (Dewey, 1922), social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974), theory of mind modularity (Fodor, 1983, 1998), mental modules (Pinker, 1997), experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999) and staged experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) that helped to identify the LFSE's dimensions. The experience categorisation theory (Dewey, 1922) states the experience as the interlinking of human beings and their surroundings resulting through knowledge, senses, feeling and doing. The social identity theory postulates personal views on affiliation with a class of people from various social categories such as organisational membership, gender, age-cohort and religion (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Cognitive scientists Fodor (1983) and Pinker (1997) developed two theories of mind modularity and mental modules, respectively, which exhibit mental reactions toward a specific environment. According to them, mental modules resemble the sensory, feeling and emotional aspects of experience (Brakus et al., 2009). From experience marketing, Schmitt (1999) categorised experience into five dimensions: sense, feel, think, act, and relate. Later, Pine and Gilmore (1999) divided experiences into four aspects: aesthetic, educational, entertaining and escapist, from a retail environment perspective. A substantial agreement has been observed among the theories showing similarities and differences based on different settings and contexts. Therefore, this study requires a compilation of literature review of context, literature review of theories, and results of the qualitative study (Study 1) to extend the LFSE scales.

Furthermore, this study reviewed applicable theories to determine the dimensions of the LFSA. It considered concepts of servicescapes by Bitner (1992), store attributes by Erdem et al. (1999) and luxury brand stores by Joy et al. (2014) to develop the scales and dimensions of LFSA. Servicescape theory presents the physical surroundings of a store environment consolidating store environmental stimuli into three dimensions: (1) ambient conditions, (2) spatial layout and functionality, and (3) signs, symbols, and artefacts. Store attributes theory identifies three aspects of the store: status, merchandise, and price. Later, Joy et al. (2014) developed the concept of LFSA using an ethnographic approach. They categorised LFSA into six dimensions:

luxecture, luxemosphere, deluxe, luxeservices, luxeart foundation and luxedesigners. However, this research focused only on the Luis Vuitton store. Again, it has not tested the dimensions empirically and left for scale development. There have been considerable similarities observed in the primary attributes of a retail store among different theories of retail attributes. Conversely, existing aspects and scales do not fit the LFSA. Hence, this study warrants further scale development for the LFSA after compilation of different aspects of LFSA from the existing literature of context, theories, and results of the qualitative study (Study 1) to develop the LFSA scales

6.3 Domain and Dimensionality of LFSE and LFSA Constructs

6.3.1 Luxury Flagship Store Experience

The LFSE refers to the formation of customers' subjective, internal and social reactions toward a luxury flagship store through interactions with the physical surroundings, atmospherics, people, and governance of a luxury flagship store. This experience happens when a customer visits, shops, use or searches for products, and receives service (Arnould et al., 2002; Brakus et al., 2008; Holbrook, 2000) in a physical store of a luxury brand. The type of store (i.e., functional and hedonic) form distinct experiences (Yoon, 2013). Again, the experiences from the different brands vary in intensity and strength, where some are more intense, stronger, and last longer, and others are short-lived (Brakus et al., 2009). So, the luxury store experience is distinct from functional and traditional brand stores. Correspondingly, the dimensions of LFSE also differ from the other types of experiences.

Dimensions of LFSE: From the extant literature review of context (Chapter 2), theoretical framework and research model (Chapter 3) and conceptualisation of LFSE (Chapter 4), this study proposed three dimensions for the luxury store experience. The LFSE can be a temporary one (Houston & Rothschild, 1978) that happens at a particular time or in a specific situation (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Richins & Bloch, 1986), physical or in a social setting, and from personality factors (Havitz & Mannell, 2005; Mannell, 1999). This element or dimension refers to situational experience. The situational dimensions of LFSE include mood (Hull et al., 1992), feelings (Kubey & Czikszentmihalyi, 1990; Hull & Michael, 1995), and sensory (Bitner, 1992), formed by consumers' (Carbone & Haeckel, 1994) encounters with a

multi-sensory physical setting and other situational factors (Bitner, 1992; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Schmitt, 1999a; Schmitt and Simonson, 1997).

Further, experience concentrates on a situation that facilitates customer engagement in an emotion-driven rational choice (Schmitt, 2010). This experiential aspect connects the conscious mental process engaging consumers in thinking or problem-solving (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999a). Luxury customers aspire toward learning (Chang, 2018) about the product, brand and history. Thus, this dimension of the LFSE involves engaging customers' minds, appealing to them and fascinating them with new knowledge (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). It allows customers to engage in thinking during visits or shopping in a luxury flagship store. For example, Ferrari provides training to shape the driving ability with Ferrari's performance capability (Atwal & Williams, 2009). This dimension is named intellectual experience by several studies (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009; Dubé & LeBel, 2003; Pallant et al., 2022) and can be measured through learning facilities, creating knowledge and stimulating curiosity about new things (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim et al., 2012; Triantafillidou & Siomkos, 2018).

The third dimension of the LFSE refers to enduring experience (Morse & Carter, 1996). These are individual responses that energise a person to keep him- or herself together (Morse & Penrod, 1999), relating him- or herself with the object (Zaichkowsky, 1986). It encompasses customer reactions to a specific object or thing for an extended period (Huang et al., 2010) that has a special meaning to them (McIntyre, 1989). The third dimension of LFSE is information-seeking or learning interest (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1999; Richins & Bloch, 1986) about an object. It allows customers to engage in thinking during visits or shopping in a luxury flagship store.

6.3.2 Luxury Flagship Store Attributes

The LFSA include physical surroundings (i.e., atmosphere, assortment and architecture), people and customer-related store practices and policies that have interactions with a customer who visits or shops in a luxury flagship store. The past literature suggested the fundamental features of luxury store attributes include architectural setting (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014), atmospheric presentation (Bitner, 1992; Joy et al., 2014; Okonkwo, 2010) and impeccable employee services (Joy et al., 2014; Quintal et al., 2015; Okonkwo, 2016). These attributes play essential roles to

delight customers through a seductive retail environment (Joy et al., 2014), ideological expression of the beauty of the place (Borghini et al., 2009), and impeccable employee service (Okonkwo, 2016) from its own or a flagship store.

Dimensions of LFSA: This study projected four dimensions of LFSA from the extant literature review (Chapter 2), theoretical framework and research model (Chapter 3) and conceptualisation of LFSA (Chapter 4). The first dimension of LFSA, *luxemisphere*, is a mishmash of *luxe* (luxury) and *atmosphere*, which refers to the respected atmospheric presentation of the luxury flagship store to create a multi-sensory experience (Okonkwo, 2010). It includes a colourful theme (Okonkwo, 2010), dramatic views (Joy et al., 2014), a sense of psychic operations (Rodríguez, 2015), lovely fragrance, pleasant music (Arrigo, 2018) and artistic ambience (Dion & Arnould, 2011) to create sensory appeal to the customers. The second dimension of LFSA, *luxetecture*, refers to the arrangement of a tangible symbolic brand's resilience, building glamour with the use of elegant appearance and prestigious settings (Joy et al., 2014). It includes polished store presentation (Okonkwo, 2016), glamorous decoration (Joy et al., 2014), technological sophistication (Joy et al., 2014) and historical appeal (Bitner et al., 1992; Quintal et al., 2015) to make the store an attractive and prestigious place for customers.

The third dimension of LFSA, *luxescape*, which refers to symbolised luxury, devotion and attentiveness, consciously respects the expression of grandeur and luxury to the customers by delivering impeccable service (Joy et al., 2014). It includes close attention (Dion & Arnould, 2011) and heartfelt respect (Truong & McColl, 2011) to deliver an enduring experience to the customers. Finally, the fourth dimension of LFSA, *luxegovern*, indicates the customer-related policies and practices (Kerin et al., 1992) that customers follow while visiting or shopping at a luxury flagship store. The existing literature demonstrated substantial agreement in the dimensions of LFSE and the LFSA. However, it is necessary to test and validate the scales empirically in the luxury flagship store context. This study followed the widely accepted scale development process of Churchill (1979) for the scale item generation, purification, refinement, validation and generalisation. The following sections discuss the scale extension and development of the LFSE and the LFSA.

6.4 Extension and Development of Scales

This section concentrates on the extension of LFSE and the new scale development of LFSA. This scale extension and development was conducted by following the recognised scale development process of Churchill (1979). This scale development procedure has been widely used by high-ranked marketing journals even in recent times, such as the *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* and *Journal of Retailing*, respectively, by Böttger et al. (2017), Hollebeek et al. (2014), Rapp et al. (2013) and Brocato et al. (2012).

First, item generation and sorting were undertaken to extend and develop scales and identify the corresponding dimensions of constructs. The objective of item generation was to confirm content validity by choosing the correct items for the construct. Item sorting aimed to guarantee the validity of the construct through using the convergent, discriminant and predictive tests.

6.4.1 Generation of an Items Pool

This study reviewed the extant literature, thesaurus searches and analysis of transcripts of in-depth interviews and social media content (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Wells et al., 1971) to generate a set of potential scale items. This was done to look for a relationship between construct and theory. Primarily, this study established the conceptual foundation of experience from the literature on experiential marketing (Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999b; Tynan & McKechnie, 2009). Then the literature review focused on customer and brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Verhoef et al., 2009) to understand customers' experiences in different retail and brand contexts. Similarly, an extensive review was conducted from previous research to seek a similar concept of the LFSA and its relevant theories. The extant marketing literature on buying situations (Belk, 1975; Gutman, 1982) was considered to establish the theoretical foundation of luxury store attributes. Later, this study reviewed retailing (Dion & Arnold, 2011; Laukkanen, 2007) and tourism (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Fang et al., 2020) literature to comprehend the nature of the luxury store attributes that may influence the experiences of luxury flagship stores' consumers. A total of 39 keywords (i.e., 18 for the LFSE and 21 for the LFSA) was selected to generate the item pool (see Appendix VI) from the literature review.

After the literature review, a qualitative study was conducted using in-depth interviews and social media content (SMC) analysis to broaden the scale item pool. The in-depth interviews were conducted with 20 postgraduate students and university staff, adopting a semi-structured interview schedule. The thematic analysis of the interviews created 52 items (i.e., 15 items for LFSE and 47 for LFSA), of which 37 were unique and not found in the existing literature. Then, an SMC analysis was conducted from 12,925 tweets and retweets posted on Twitter. The thematic analysis of the SMC generated four unique items for LFSE and five items for LFSA that were not found in the existing literature or in-depth interviews.

This study's initial sample items pool was generated following suggestions given in the literature, in-depth interviews and SMC analysis. A total of 33 items for the LFSE and 52 items for the LFSA was generated. The LFSE items were composed of 15 items that reflect situational experience, four items that reflect the intellectual experience and 14 items that reflect enduring experience. Similarly, the LFSA items were composed of 11 items covering luxemosphere, 12 for luxetecture, 12 for luxescape and five for luxegovern (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Initial item generation of constructs

Construct	Literature	Interviews	Social Media	Total Scale Items
LFSE	18	12	3	33
LFSA	21	25	6	52

6.4.2 Initial Items Review

The objective to review the initial scale items was to reduce the items generated from the previous study and determine the dimensionality of the LFSE and LFSA scales. The initial items were reviewed in two phases.

These initial scale items were reviewed for the appropriateness of the initial items pool by two judges having expertise in knowledge and prominently published in the luxury branding area. Each expert reviewed the items to confirm the content and face validity of the measures (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The working definitions of the LFSE dimensions (i.e., situational, enduring and intellectual) and LFSA dimensions (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and their real-life examples were also provided to understand the concept better. They were then asked to specify which items corresponded closely, moderately, somewhat and

irrelevant to the different dimensions of the construct. Later, the qualitative findings were matched with the existing scales to supplement the definition (Churchill, 1979; MacKenzie et al., 2011; Moore & Benbasat, 1991) by experts having experience in luxury brand research. Participants of the expert panel reviewed the perfection of the content and remarked on the areas of exclusion or repetition.

Table 6.2 Item development of LFSE construct

Dimensions	Code	Items
Situational	MSE01	I am amazed with the visual display of the luxury store.
	MSE02	I enjoy the pleasant music in the store.
	MSE03	I like the lovely fragrance in the store.
	MSE04	I feel the sophisticated touch in the store.
	MSE05	I find the store fascinating in a sensory way.
	EMO01	I feel elated visiting this store.
	EMO02	I feel gleeful visiting this store.
	EMO03	I feel proud visiting this store.
	EMO04	I feel happy visiting this store.
	EMO05	I feel a sense of love visiting this store.
	EMO06	I feel a sense of enjoyment visiting this store.
	Intellectual	INT01
INT02		I learn a lot while shopping in this store
INT03		This store makes me more knowledgeable
INT04		This store stimulates my curiosity and helps solving problems.
Enduring	SID01	I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.
	SID02	Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me.
	SID03	Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.
	SID04	I like to be seen shopping from this store to others.
	SID05	I enjoy interacting with other shoppers of this store.
	SID06	I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.
	SID07	Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.
	SID08	Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.

This part of the study removed 10 items from the LFSE and 16 items from the LFSA based on the experts' suggestions. The subsequent research used 23 items for LFSE and 39 items for the LFSA (see Tables 6.2 and 6.3) that retained after the experts' review. It was predicted that there would be at least three dimensions from the pool of items based on the literature review, in-depth interview and SMC analysis. Finally, the main dimensions considered for LFSE were situational, enduring and intellectual and luxemosphere, luxetecture and luxescape to measure LFSA.

This study reviewed the previous literature on brand experience, customer experience, retail brand experience, luxury brand attachment, store image, destination attributes, winescape and servicescape to determine the measurement format. Most of the scales relevant to the experience and store attributes (e.g., Han & Kim, 2020; Khan & Rahman, 2016; Kim, 2014; Quintal et al., 2015; Shimul et al., 2019; Stephenson, 1969; Taheri et al., 2020) have successfully used the 7-point Likert style, on which 1 is 'strongly disagree' and 7 is 'strongly agree'. In this way, this study follows a similar process and style to earlier studies for developing measurement format to collect data for further steps of scale development process.

Table 6.3 Item development of LFSA construct

Dimensions	Code	Items
Luxemosphere	LXM01	This luxury flagship store plays pleasant music.
	LXM02 has a pleasant fragrance.
	LXM03 exhibits sophisticated colour schemes.
	LXM04 creates an artistic ambience.
	LXM05 arranges comfortable seatings.
	LXM06 has beautiful lighting.
	LXM07 displays digital animation.
	LXM08 exhibits landscapes of heritage.
Luxescape	LXS01	The employees of this luxury flagship store are helpful.
	LXS02 are not friendly.
	LXS03 wear grand attire.
	LXS04 are smart.
	LXS05 are knowledgeable.
	LXS06 give personal attention to customers.
	LXS07 help customers to feel comfortable.
	LXS08 offer flawless service.
	LXS09 greet customers like a guest.

Dimensions	Code	Items
Luxetecture	LXS10 provide customised assistance.
	LXS11 provide useful advice.
	LXS12 are passionate toward fulfilling customers' needs.
	LXS13 develop strong relationships with customers.
	LXS14 are respectful towards customers.
	LXS15 focus on the brand heritage.
	LXS16 provide information on authenticity of the raw materials.
	LXT01	This luxury flagship store reserves abundance of free spaces
	LXT02 displays products consistently.
	LXT03 exhibits glamorous decoration.
	LXT04 presents museological artefacts.
	LXT05 articulates sophisticated design.
	LXT06 arranges comfortable seatings.
	LXT07 has appealing digital amenities.
	LXT08 has interactive digital touchscreen displays.
	LXT09 facilitates with a useful digital trial mirror.
LXT10 demonstrates attractive architectural beauty.	
Luxegovernance	STG01	This luxury flagship store has flexible product return policies.
	STG02 is located in a prominent place.
	STG03 facilitates online shopping.
	STG04 has a security guard who stops too many people entering.
	STG05 creates a queue to enable only limited shoppers in the store.

6.5 Scale Purification (First-Round Survey)

The scale purification stage was performed to reduce the items generated in the earlier stage and determine the dimensionality of LFSE and LFSA. First-round data were collected using a self-administered online survey of postgraduate students (Desmichel & Kocher, 2020; Yavas, 1994) and staff from a Western Australian university. Before data collection, the survey instrument was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (No. HRE2020-0145) of Curtin University. The student sample represented general consumers (DelVecchio 2000; Yavas 1994) and was exceedingly sensitised to brands (Loken et al., 1986). They had been frequently used in earlier luxury brand research (e.g., Bian & Forsythe, 2012; De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Desmichel & Kocher, 2020; Kamal et al., 2013; Mandel et al., 2006; Park et al., 2008).

The survey instrument was sent through email to the 644 respondents. A total of 112 completed surveys were received after two follow-up email reminders, making an effective response rate of 17.39% (100+ responses).

Respondents were screened based on a memory recall condition (De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) of whether they have purchased clothing and/or accessories from a flagship store of a luxury brand during the last six months. The 23 items of LFSE and 39 items of LFSA were selected and measured using a 7-point Likert scale. The scale was anchored by 1 indicating 'strongly disagree' and 7 'strongly agree' (Böttger et al., 2017; Taheri et al., 2020) in the data collection rounds. The study covers a more comprehensive psychological range and thus shows less extreme responses. These respondents were 21% female and 79% male, with 54.5% millennials and 45.5% generation X, and diverse ethnicity of 50% Australian, 28.5% Asian, 1% American, 12.5% European, 3% African, and 5% from the Middle East. Among the respondents, 59.8% bought items from aspirational luxury brands and 40.2% from affordable luxury brands, with 46.4% earning more than A\$4,000 and 53.6% less than A\$4,000 fortnightly.

6.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of LFSE and LFSA

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to ascertain the corresponding dimensions of LFSE and LFSA constructs. A principal component analysis (PCA) based extraction method with varimax rotation (criteria: Eigenvalue ≥ 1 and factor loading of ≥ 0.40) procedure was used to assess the initial scale measurement (Choi et al., 2016; Treiblmaier & Filzmoser, 2010). This study followed an iterative approach of re-running EFA and deleted items that loaded less than 0.40 (Hair et al., 2010; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) and/or cross-loading on more than one factor equal to 0.15 or more (Akbar & Wymer, 2017; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). In this way, this research excluded four items from LFSE coded as EMO05, EMO06, SID04 and SID05, and seven items from LFSA coded as LXS2, LXS15, LXS17, LXT2, LXT5, LXT9 and STG5. This study conducted the EFA on the initial items and identified three dimensions of LFSE and five dimensions of LFSA. Following this, reliability analysis (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) was performed on the extracted dimensions, which exceeded the cut-off value of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Finally, 19 items were retained to measure LFSE and 32 items for LFSA. A series of factor analyses were conducted to purify the scale.

The factor loading of the items ranged from 0.803–0.924 for LFSE and 0.505–0.802 for LFSA dimensions. The Eigenvalues were 1 or higher, explaining 79.67% and 72.49% of the variance in the data, respectively, for LFSE and LFSA. The extracted 19 items formed three constructs where nine items related to the construct ‘situational’ (0.962), six items related to ‘enduring’ (0.954) and four to ‘intellectual’ (0.893), as LFSE dimensions (see Table 6.4). The items were deemed to be reliable for the study based on Cronbach’s alpha score. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were calculated to measure the sample adequacy. Both values were over the threshold where the KMO was 0.911 (> 0.5), and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant at 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), indicating the data were suitable for factor analysis.

The scale was extracted to 32 items, where six items related to the construct luxemosphere ($\alpha = 0.901$), eight items relating to luxetecture ($\alpha = 0.954$), 11 items corresponding to luxescape ($\alpha = 0.954$), three items to luxestaff ($\alpha = 0.850$) and four items to luxegovernance ($\alpha = 0.826$) of the LFSA dimensions (see Table 6.5). Based on a Cronbach’s alpha score for each measurement, the items were deemed reliable for the study. Both values were over the threshold where the KMO measure was 0.924 (> 0.5), and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant at 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), indicating the data was suitable for factor analysis. Therefore, the first round of data collection and analysis resulted in a tentatively indication of a three dimensions factor solution for LFSE and five dimensions for LFSA.

Table 6.4 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSE of the purified scale

Factor	Items	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's alpha
SITUATIONAL	MSE02: I enjoy the pleasant music in the store.	0.924	0.924	8.965	36.241	0.962
	EMO01: I feel elated visiting this store.	0.887	0.888			
	MSE05: I find the store fascinating in a sensory way.	0.878	0.857			
	MSE04: I feel the sophisticated touch in the store.	0.858	0.827			
	EMO02: I feel gleeful visiting this store.	0.851	0.840			
	MSE01: I am amazed with the visual display of the luxury store.	0.830	0.823			
	MSE03: I like the lovely fragrance in the store.	0.828	0.815			
	EMO04: I feel happy visiting this store.	0.815	0.811			
	EMO03: I feel proud visiting this store.	0.812	0.795			
INTELLECTUAL	INT03: This store makes me more knowledgeable.	0.890	0.793	2.729	79.667	0.893
	INT04: This store stimulates my curiosity and helps solving problems.	0.854	0.774			
	INT01: I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this store.	0.854	0.763			
	INT02: I learn a lot while shopping in this store.	0.803	0.725			
ENDURING	SID06: I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.	0.940	0.884	3.444	62.660	0.954
	SID08: Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.	0.920	0.897			
	SID03: Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.	0.878	0.874			
	SID07: Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.	0.877	0.874			
	SID02: Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me.	0.835	0.807			
	SID01: I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.	0.831	0.842			

Table 6.5 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSA of the purified scale

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Luxemosphere	LXM03: This luxury flagship store exhibits sophisticated colour schemes.	0.781	0.747	1.829	55.496	0.901
	LXM06: This luxury flagship store has beautiful lighting.	0.693	0.735			
	LXM02: This luxury flagship store has a pleasant fragrance.	0.647	0.782			
	LXM04: This luxury flagship store creates an artistic ambience.	0.586	0.761			
	LXT03: This luxury flagship store exhibits glamorous decoration.	0.528	0.638			
	LXM01: This luxury flagship store plays pleasant music.	0.505	0.719			
Luxetecture	LXT07: This luxury flagship store has interactive digital touch screens display.	0.801	0.775	3.208	42.781	0.927
	LXM05: This luxury flagship store has comfortable seating.	0.76	0.773			
	LXT08: This luxury flagship store has a useful digital trial mirror.	0.757	0.678			
	LXT04: This luxury flagship store presents museological artefacts.	0.745	0.791			
	LXM08: This luxury flagship store exhibits landscapes of heritage.	0.71	0.745			
	LXM07: This luxury flagship store displays digital animation.	0.679	0.800			
	LXT06: This luxury flagship store has appealing digital amenities.	0.673	0.753			
LXT01: This luxury flagship store has an abundance of free space.	0.622	0.699				
Luxescape	LXS10: The employees of this luxury flagship store provide customised assistance.	0.802	0.843	15.745	23.961	0.954
	LXS09: The employees of this luxury flagship store greet customers like a guest.	0.797	0.813			
	LXS07: The employees of this luxury flagship store help customers to feel comfortable.	0.791	0.799			

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigenvalue	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
	LXS11: The employees of this luxury flagship store provide useful advice.	0.78	0.831			
	LXS06: The employees of this luxury flagship store give personal attention to customers.	0.775	0.825			
	LXS08: The employees of this luxury flagship store offer flawless service.	0.748	0.762			
	LXS14: The employees of this luxury flagship store are respectful toward customers.	0.741	0.772			
	LXS12: The employees of this luxury flagship store are passionate towards fulfilling customers need.	0.736	0.828			
	LXS13: The employees of this luxury flagship store develop strong relationships with customers.	0.705	0.728			
	LXS16: The employees of this luxury flagship store provide information on authenticity of the raw materials.	0.666	0.704			
	LXS05: The employees of this luxury flagship store are knowledgeable.	0.638	0.765			
Luxegovern	STG01: This luxury flagship store has flexible product return policies.	0.737	0.696			
	STG02: This luxury flagship store is located in a prominent place.	0.723	0.692			
	STG04: This luxury flagship store has a security guard who stops too many people entering.	0.607	0.581	1.333	65.147	0.826
	STG03: This luxury flagship store does not facilitate online shopping.	0.508	0.658			
Luxestaff	LXS03: The employees of this luxury flagship store wear grandeur attire.	0.746	0.669			
	LXS04: The employees of this luxury flagship store are smart.	0.733	0.734	1.082	72.49	0.850
	LXS01: The employees of this luxury flagship store are helpful.	0.612	0.759			

6.6 Scale Refinement (Second-Round Survey)

The scale refinement section aims to confirm the items' constancy of the dimensions of LFSE and LFSA scales revealed in the first-round survey. This study conducted a structured survey among the Australian Consumer Panel (ACP) members across Australia through online data collection by Qualtrics (Li et al., 2012). The respondents were screened out based on their purchase of clothing item(s) from a flagship store of an affordable or aspirational luxury clothing brand within the last six months (De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). The survey instrument includes all 23 LFSE and 39 LFSA items due to their high relevance to the context, although some items were excluded from the first-round survey. A simple random sampling technique was applied to collect data online by Qualtrics (So et al., 2014) to develop scales and test the research model. The second-round survey was carried out for one month in June 2020. The same procedure was followed for the third-round survey held in September 2020. The research methodology chapter (Chapter 3) has discussed a detailed research design in sections 3.5 to 3.8. This study collected third-round data in this step to finalise the dimensions' stability and test the relevant reliability and validity of the constructs. In this step, another structured survey was conducted among the members of the ACP through online data collection by Qualtrics. This survey excluded the respondents who participated in the second-round survey. The respondents were screened out based on their purchase of clothing item(s) from a flagship store of 12 selected as affordable (i.e., Calvin Klein, H&M, Marc Jacobs, Ralph Lauren, Tommy Hilfiger and Zara) or aspirational (i.e., Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton and Prada) luxury brands within the last six months. The survey instrument included 23 items of the LFSE scale, and 35 items of the LFSA scale remain at the scale refine step.

6.6.1 Results of Scale Refinement

This study received 334 completed responses from an online survey run by a professional survey agency in Australia. However, 312 useable responses were kept for the analysis after checking the data manipulation. These responses were used to test the scale refinement. The optimum number of responses was 300 plus for the fundamental measurement model with seven latent constructs (Hair et al., 1995). This study followed the data collection techniques used by earlier studies on luxury brands' context (e.g., De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Kim et al., 2016).

The respondents' profiles consist of 50.32% female and 49.68% male, 69.87% millennials of 18–41 years and 30.13% generation X of 42+ years. Again, 40.06% had experience with the aspirational brands and 59.9% with the affordable brands and had diverse ethnicity of 62.2% Australian, 24.4% Asian, 0.64% American, 1.6% African, 8.7% European, 0.3% from the Middle East and 2.2% others (see Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 Demographic profile of second-round survey respondents

Demographics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender:		
Female	157	50.32
Male	155	49.68
Age Group:		
Millennials	218	69.87
Non-millennials (generations X & Y)	94	30.13
Fortnightly Income (A\$):		
Less than \$2,000	102	32.69
\$2,001–\$4,000	99	31.73
\$4,001–\$6,000	45	14.42
\$6,001–\$8,000	22	7.05
\$8,001–\$10,000	18	5.77
More than \$10,000	26	8.33
Ethnicity:		
Australian	194	62.18
Asian	76	24.36
American	2	0.64
African	5	1.60
European	27	8.65
Middle-East	1	0.32
Others	7	2.24
Brand Category:		
Aspirational	125	40.06
Affordable	187	59.94

6.6.2 Refined Items

This step conducted EFA following the same procedure trialled in round 1 data analysis. This study ran the EFA based on a PCA for the extraction of variances due to its suitability to minimise a large number of items into a few fundamental latent

dimensions (Straub et al., 2004). Again, it has used PCA with varimax rotation (Eigenvalue ≥ 1 and factor loading of ≥ 0.40) that helps to demonstrate the convergent and discriminant validity (Ba & Pavlou, 2002; Segars & Grover, 1993). This step considered an iterative method of re-running EFA following items that measured as cross-loading on more than one factor and/or loaded less than 0.40 (Straub et al., 2004) were deleted. Further, this scale refinement process examined the corrected item-total correlation to improve the reliability. Finally, the instrument was refined by eliminating EMO04, EMO05, EMO06, SID04 and SID05 from the LFSE scale and LXM5, LXM7, LXS1, LXS2, LXS15, LXS16, LXT1, LXT2, STG1 and STG2 from the LFSA. Overall, one item of the purified scale was excluded from the LFSE and three items from the LFSA scale. So, the residual 18 items of the LFSE scale and 29 items of the LFSA scale were used to measure the LFSE and LFSA scales in the next step (see Table 6.6 and Table 6.7). As shown in Tables 6.7 and 6.8, the factor loading of the items of LFSE ranged from 0.52–0.74 and 0.45–0.86 for LFSA. The 18 items of LFSE yielded three factors, and 29 items of LFSA conceded four factors with cut-off Eigenvalues of 1. These refined factors explained 66.48% and 60.45% of the cumulative variance in the data, respectively, for the LFSE and LFSA.

Table 6.7 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSE of the refined scale

Factor	Item Code	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
SITUATIONAL	MSE03	0.804	0.742	8.750	27.744	0.919
	MSE04	0.799	0.772			
	MSE05	0.773	0.787			
	MSE02	0.740	0.612			
	EMO01	0.730	0.777			
	MSE01	0.726	0.696			
	EMO02	0.688	0.730			
	EMO03	0.650	0.721			
	ENDURING	SID08	0.855			
SID01		0.826	0.787			
SID07		0.766	0.768			

Factor	Item Code	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
	SID02	0.765	0.741			
	SID03	0.690	0.731			
	SID06	0.540	0.521			
INTELLECTUAL	INT03	0.795	0.700			
	INT04	0.727	0.674			
	INT02	0.709	0.667	1.093	66.481	0.844
	INT01	0.608	0.677			

The sample adequacy of the data was measured by the calculation of the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO measure was $0.929 > 0.50$ for LFSE and $0.934 > 0.50$ for LFSA. Again, Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p = 0.000$) was significant indicating the data was suitable for factor analysis (see Tables 6.6 and 6.7) that exceeded the threshold level (Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra, 2004). The factor analysis of the second-round data revealed a three-factor solution for the LFSE and four-factor for the LFSA. This phase of the scale development process extracted 18 items for the LFSE and 29 for the LFSA. From the extracted items, eight items formed the 'situational' ($\alpha = 0.919$) construct, six items the 'enduring' ($\alpha = 0.891$) and four items 'intellectual' ($\alpha = 0.844$), the three dimensions of the LFSE. The LFSA scale items formed four dimensions where seven items related to the construct 'luxemosphere' ($\alpha = 0.874$), seven items to 'luxetecture' ($\alpha = 0.895$), 10 items to the 'luxescape' ($\alpha = 0.920$) and five items to 'luxegovernance' ($\alpha = 0.878$). Hence, the refined model established its reliability of data as both values of the KMO measure (> 0.5) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at 0.000 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 6.8 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSA of the refined scale

Factor	Items	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Luxescape	LXS07	0.803	0.741	11.021	21.321	0.920
	LXS06	0.783	0.755			
	LXS12	0.773	0.768			
	LXS11	0.760	0.732			
	LXS05	0.742	0.723			
	LXS04	0.694	0.671			
	LXS10	0.678	0.686			
	LXS14	0.672	0.642			
	LXS08	0.669	0.694			
	LXS13	0.543	0.573			
Luxefecture	LXT08	0.842	0.757	3.419	36.667	0.895
	LXT07	0.779	0.728			
	LXT04	0.767	0.738			
	LXM08	0.688	0.737			
	LXT06	0.672	0.719			
	STG03	0.627	0.564			
	LXT09	0.528	0.637			
Luxemosphere	LXM03	0.719	0.670	2.432	49.119	0.874
	LXM04	0.691	0.692			
	LXM01	0.657	0.583			
	LXM02	0.613	0.706			
	LXT05	0.548	0.651			
	LXM06	0.495	0.623			
	LXT03	0.447	0.647			
Luxegovernance	STG04	0.862	0.768	1.264	60.453	0.878
	STG05	0.821	0.713			
	LXS17	0.815	0.696			
	LXS09	0.809	0.697			
	LXS03	0.790	0.680			

6.6.3 Congeneric and Measurement Models

This study performed a CFA through measuring congeneric and measurement models of the LFSE and LFSA to examine the dimensions of the scales and further refinement of the scale items. The test of dimensionality of scale items using CFA was considered superior to EFA (O’Leary-Kelly & Vokurka, 1998). Hence, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the AMOS 25 program.

Congeneric Models: This research developed three congeneric models for situational, enduring and intellectual dimensions of the LFSE. The congeneric model for the situational dimension considered eight items that recorded Chi-squared (χ^2) = 43.78, degrees of freedom (df) = 16, χ^2/df = 2.74, p = .000, RMSEA = .075, RMR = .058, GFI = .966, CFI = .982, TLI = .969 and NFI = .973 (see Figure 6.2).

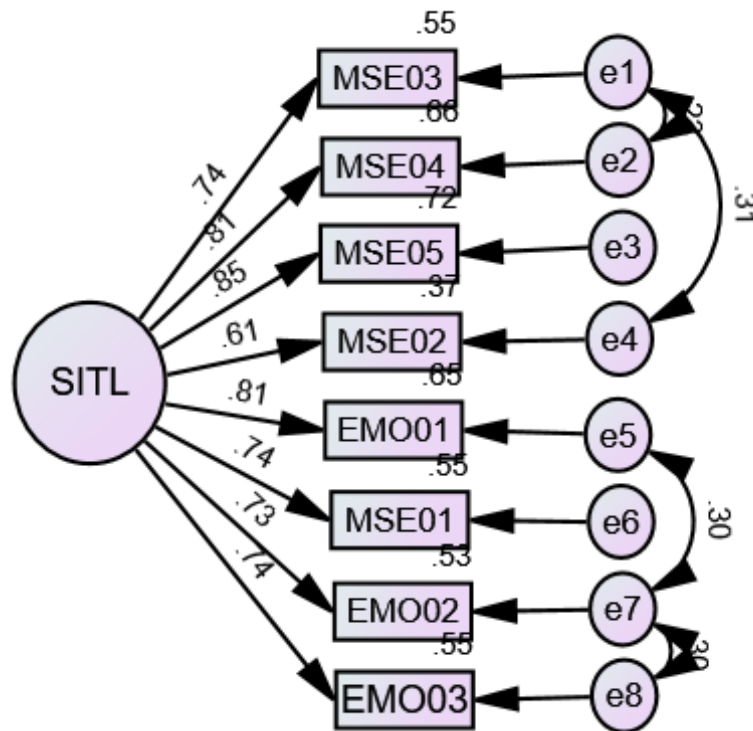


Figure 6.2 Congeneric model of situational experience

The congeneric model for the enduring dimension considered six items that recorded χ^2 = 28.93, df = 8, χ^2/df = 3.62, p = .000, RMSEA = .092, RMR = .077, GFI = .971, CFI = .980, TLI = .963 and NFI = .973 (see Figure 6.3).

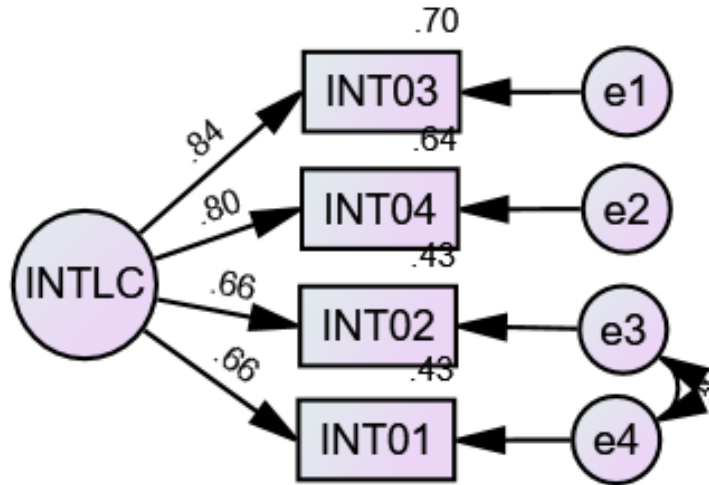


Figure 6.3 Congeneric model of enduring experience

The congeneric model for the intellectual dimension considered four items that recorded $\chi^2 = 10.54$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2/df = 10.536$, $p = .001$, RMSEA = .175, RMR = .043, GFI = .984, CFI = .982, TLI = .890 and NFI = .980 (see Figure 6.4).

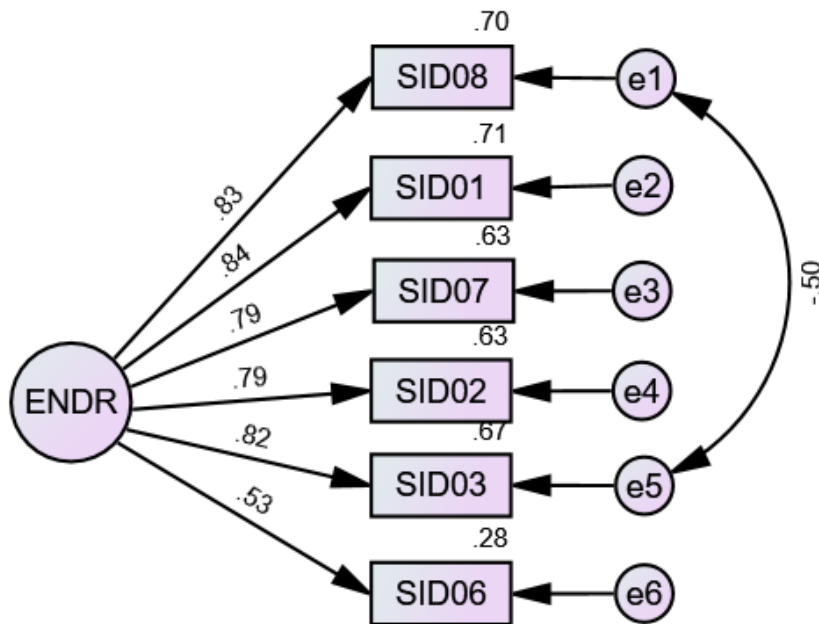


Figure 6.4 Congeneric model of intellectual experience

The LFSA construct formed four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. This study also developed four congeneric models for the four dimensions of the LFSA construct. The congeneric model for the luxemosphere dimension considered seven items that recorded $\chi^2 = 22.69$, $df = 12$, $\chi^2/df = 1.89$,

$p = .030$, $RMSEA = .054$, $RMR = .042$, $GFI = .979$, $CFI = .988$, $TLI = .979$ and $NFI = .975$ (see Figure 6.5).

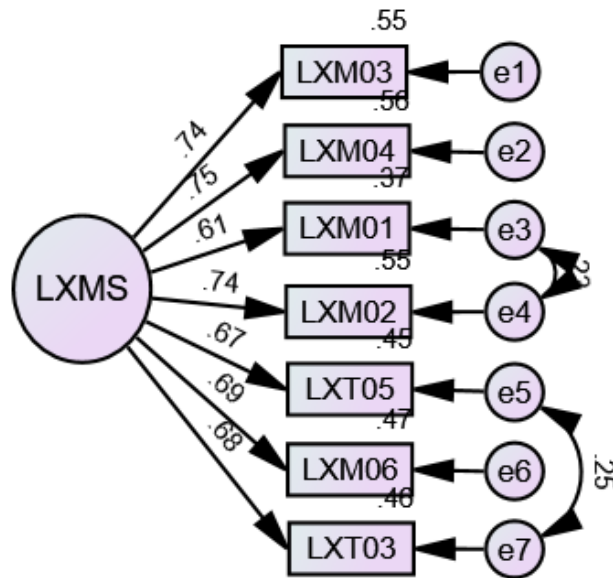


Figure 6.5 Congeneric model of luxemosphere

The congeneric model for the luxecture dimension considered seven items that recorded $\chi^2 = 24.24$, $df = 13$, $\chi^2/df = 1.87$, $p = .029$, $RMSEA = .053$, $RMR = .051$, $GFI = .979$, $CFI = .990$, $TLI = .984$ and $NFI = .978$ (see Figure 6.6).

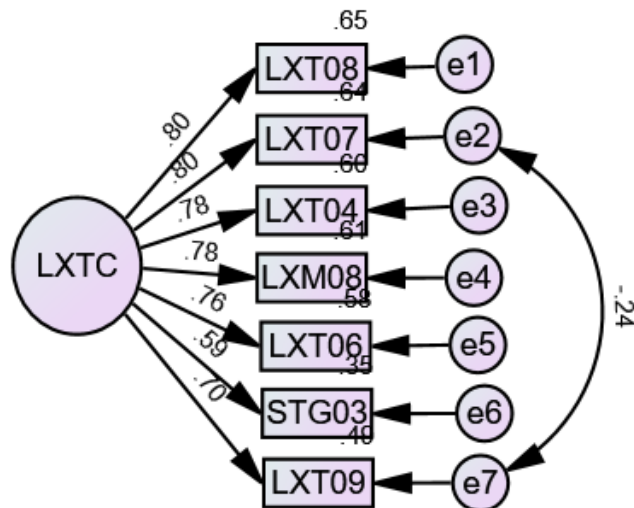


Figure 6.6 Congeneric model of luxecture

The congeneric model for the luxescape dimension considered seven items that recorded $\chi^2 = 93.32$, $df = 33$, $\chi^2/df = 2.83$, $p = .000$, $RMSEA = .077$, $RMR = .061$, $GFI = .944$, $CFI = .965$, $TLI = .952$ and $NFI = .947$ (see Figure 6.7).

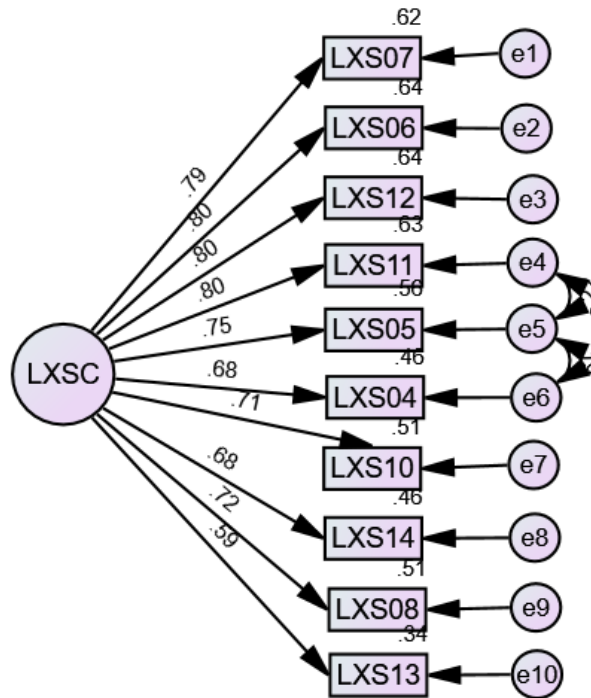


Figure 6.7 Congeneric model of luxescape

The congeneric model for the luxegovern dimension considered seven items that recorded $\chi^2 = 10.194$, $df = 4$, $\chi^2/df = 2.55$, $p = .037$, RMSEA = .071, RMR = .024, GFI = .988, CFI = .992, TLI = .980 and NFI = .987 (see Figure 6.8).

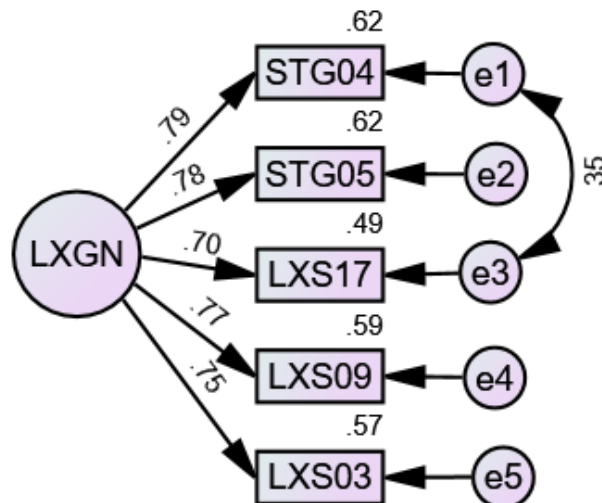


Figure 6.8 Congeneric model of luxegovern

Measurement Models: This study developed two separate measurement models for the LFSE and LFSA dimensions based on the seven congeneric models (Figures 6.2–6.8) to achieve acceptable measures of the constructs. The first

measurement model was developed by the three-factor structure of the LFSE using CFA (Kelloway, 1998; Walsh & Mitchell, 2005).

The measurement model of the three-factor structure of the LFSE construct achieved an acceptable model fit. The measurement model (see Figure 6.9) shows factor loading ranges from 0.60–0.85, $\chi^2 = 307.296$, $df = 126$, $\chi^2/df = 2.44$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .068, RMR = .110, GFI = .905, CFI = .950, TLI = .939 and NFI = .918, which are acceptable scores for the model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) for further analysis.

The measurement model of the five-factor structure of the LFSE construct achieved an acceptable model fit. The measurement model (see Figure 6.10) also shows the acceptable scores for the model fit where loading ranges from 0.60–0.80, $\chi^2 = 644.726$, $df = 365$, $\chi^2/df = 2.44$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .050, RMR = .096, GFI = .880, CFI = .945, TLI = .939 and NFI = .883.

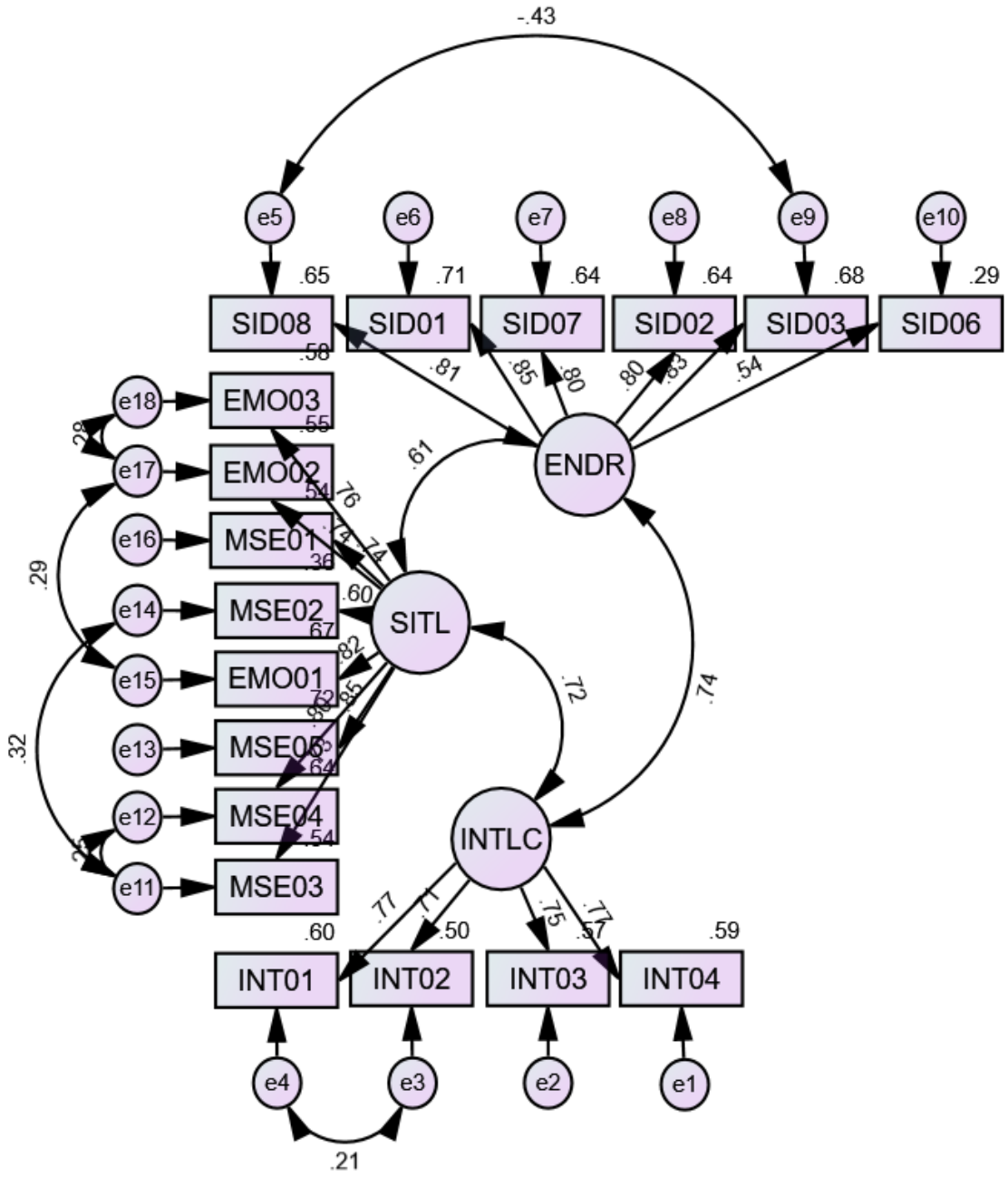


Figure 6.9 Measurement model for LFSE

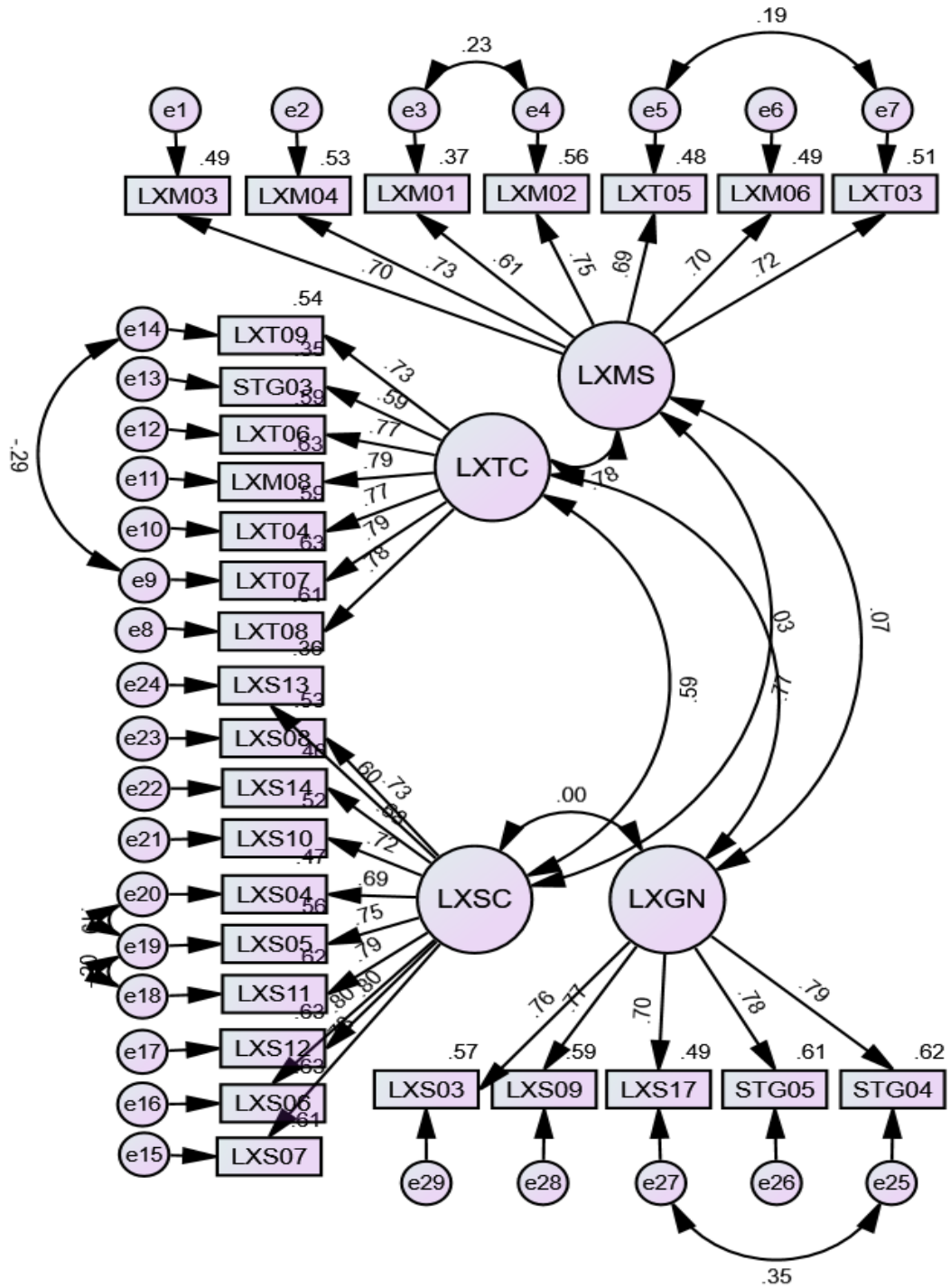


Figure 6.10 Measurement model for LFSA

6.7 Scale Validation (Third-Round Survey)

This study collected third-round data in this step to finalise the stability of the dimensions and test the relevant reliability and validity of the construct. In this step, another structured survey was conducted among the members of the ACP through online data collection by Qualtrics, excluding the respondents who participated in the

second-round survey. The respondents were screened out based on their purchase of clothing item(s) from a flagship store of 12 selected as affordable (i.e., Calvin Klein, H&M, Marc Jacobs, Ralph Lauren, Tommy Hilfiger and Zara) or aspirational (i.e., Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton and Prada) luxury brands within the last six months. The survey instrument included 23 items of the LFSE scale, and 35 items of the LFSA scale remain at the scale refine step.

6.7.1 Sample Profile (Third-Round Data)

A total of 374 useable responses were received in the final survey (round 3) after checking the data manipulation for the final analysis. These responses were used to test the hypotheses of the conceptual model. The optimum number of responses was 300 plus for the fundamental measurement model with seven latent constructs (Hair et al., 1995). This study followed the data collection techniques used by earlier studies on luxury brands' context (e.g., De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Kim et al., 2016). The respondents' profiles consist of 48.1% female and 51.9% male, 54.8% millennials of 18–41 years and 45.2% generation X of 42+ years. Again, 48.4% had experience with the aspirational brands and 51.6% with the affordable brands, purchased only from a physical channel (48.9%) and both physical and online channels (51.1%), and had diverse ethnicity of 58.0% Australian, 24.1% Asian, 4.0% American, 0.8% African, 10.2% European, 2.7% from the Middle East and 3.2% others (see Table 6.9).

Table 6.9 Demographic profile of respondents

Demographics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender:		
Female	180	48.1
Male	194	51.9
Age Group:		
Millennials	205	54.8
Non-millennials (generations X & Y)	169	45.2
Fortnightly Income (A\$):		
Less than \$2,000	82	21.9
\$2,001–\$4,000	143	38.2
\$4,001–\$6,000	73	19.5
\$6,001–\$8,000	33	8.8
\$8,001–\$10,000	15	4
More than \$10,000	28	7.5
Ethnicity:		
Australian	217	58
Asian	90	24.1
American	4	1.1
African	3	0.8
European	38	10.2
Middle-East	10	2.7
Others	12	3.2
Brand Category:		
Aspirational	180	48.1
Affordable	194	51.9
Purchase Channel:		
Only Physical Store	183	48.9
Both Physical and Online	191	51.1

6.7.2 Data Analysis

This study extended and developed scale items for the LFSE and the LFSA by conducting an EFA, CFA and nomological validity test through three separate studies. Again, this study adapted the scale items for the two outcome constructs: customer CSMP and RPIN. So, this study conducted the EFA and CFA for the contextualised and adapted constructs to re-confirm their structure, reliability and validity in the luxury brand context. Thus, this study used different statistical tools and techniques for analysing data to establish the acceptability of the theoretical model and measure

the depth of relationships between the independent and outcome variables (Coorley, 1978). Again, the data analysis needed specific refinements such as editing, coding and screening, identifying missing data, normality test, common method bias, and non-response bias as prerequisites for hypotheses testing. The following sub-sections describe the various areas of data analysis.

6.7.3 Data Analysis Tools and Methods

This study used IBM SPSS Statistics (SPSS) v.25 to screen the survey data set to identify missing data, testing normality, common method bias, non-response bias, descriptive statistics, EFA, etc. The SPSS software is well accepted and widely used by researchers for analysing data (Zikmund, 2003). This study also used analysis of a moment structures (AMOS) v.26 for structural equation modelling (SEM), path analysis, estimation of the variances and covariance and confirmatory factor analysis (Jiang et al., 2018; Saunders et al., 2009). It is a group of statistical techniques investigating relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The AMOS-based SEM used the cut-off points of different fit indices as the benchmark to assess the constructs through CFA and hypotheses testing. The group of fit indices include Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as absolute fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999); Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI) as incremental or comparative indices of fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 1988); and the ratio between Chi-squared (χ^2) value and degrees of freedom (df) as parsimonious fit index (James et al., 1982). One or more fit indices from each group of a fit index can assess the overall goodness of fit of the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). At least four fit indices (such as GFI, CFI, NFI and SRMR) should be used for a good fit (Kline, 1998), as no one alone can measure the best fit of the model (Bagozzi, 1981; Bove & Johnson, 2006).

The benchmark or cut-off point to accept the χ^2/df ratio is < 3.0 (Carmines & McIver, 1981), whereas Wheaton et al. (1977) suggested < 5.0 . The value range from 0 (indicates poor fit) to 1 (means perfect fit) was used for GFI, CFI, NFI and TLI, where the suggested cut-off point is > 0.90 (Hair et al., 1995; Tucker & Lewis, 1973).

The recommended value for RMSEA is 0.05 represents a good fit, and 0.08 indicates a reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The acceptable value range for SRMR is <0.05 for a well-fitted model (Byrne, 2010), where Kline (2005) values are as high as 0.10.

6.7.4 Data Editing, Screening and Coding

The data were downloaded in SPSS spreadsheet format from Qualtrics after successfully completing data collection in September 2020. This spreadsheet showed that 1800 respondents attempted to participate in the survey. The data were then screened to ensure only completed and consistent responses through data editing, which is essential for data processing and analysis (Zikmund, 2003). There were many incomplete responses, as respondents had cancelled the survey before the submission due to the force validation in the questionnaire. After deleting incomplete and inconsistent responses, the final study considered 374 completed responses (no missing values).

After screening the data for possible editing, the final data set was coded, assigning numbers to each answer (Malhotra et al., 1996). However, the coding can be created before or after the questionnaire is answered (De Vaus, 1995). The file was coded according to the number generated automatically by Qualtrics.

6.7.5 Test of Normality

This study tested the normality of data using the value of skewness and kurtosis. However, it was essential to maintain a large sample size so the extent of the variable's distribution and whether it was normal or not could be judged (Hair et al., 2010) because the deviation from normality may substantially impact the outcomes if the size of the sample is small (i.e., $n < 30$) rather than considerable (i.e., $n > 200$). A value of univariate skewness indexes > 3.0 deliberated as prime-skewed, and a value of kurtosis indexes > 8.0 was revealed as extreme kurtosis (Kline, 2005). These are considered as non-normal distribution of data. A zero value for skewness and kurtosis reflects a perfect normal data distribution. The normality test for the data set of this study observed normal distribution as the values of skewness and kurtosis found between the cut-off ranges of normal distribution (see Table 6.10).

Table 6.10 Descriptive statistics of scale items after EFA and CFA

Constructs and Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Luxemosphere				
<i>LXMS1</i> : This luxury flagship store creates artistic ambience.	5.67	1.13	-0.85	0.49
<i>LXMS2</i> : exhibits sophisticated colour schemes.	5.67	1.01	-0.55	-0.03
<i>LXMS3</i> : has a pleasant fragrance	5.70	1.01	-0.93	1.95
<i>LXMS4</i> : plays pleasant music.	5.65	1.05	-0.84	1.02
<i>LXMS5</i> :articulates sophisticated design.	5.56	1.04	-0.48	-0.29
<i>LXMS6</i> : has beautiful lighting.	5.71	1.05	-0.77	0.55
<i>LXMS7</i> : exhibits glamorous decoration.	5.60	1.15	-0.90	0.86
Luxetecture				
<i>LXTC1</i> : This luxury flagship store facilitates a useful digital trial mirror.	5.05	1.42	-0.68	-0.05
<i>LXTC2</i> :has interactive digital touchscreen display.	5.10	1.33	-0.71	0.39
<i>LXTC3</i> : presents museological artefacts.	5.08	1.34	-0.74	0.38
<i>LXTC4</i> : exhibits landscapes of heritage.	5.21	1.22	-0.54	0.02
<i>LXTC5</i> : has appealing digital amenities.	5.26	1.14	-0.45	-0.07
Luxescape				
<i>LXSC1</i> : The employees of the luxury flagship store give personal attention to customers.	5.54	1.20	-0.86	0.65
<i>LXSC2</i> : provide customised assistance.	5.43	1.25	-0.70	0.04
<i>LXSC3</i> : help customers to feel comfortable.	5.55	1.14	-0.88	1.01
<i>LXSC4</i> : are passionate towards fulfilling customers' needs.	5.46	1.18	-0.57	-0.27
<i>LXSC5</i> : are respectful toward customers.	5.56	1.20	-0.68	-0.05
<i>LXSC6</i> : provide useful advice.	5.47	1.13	-0.63	-0.08
<i>LXSC7</i> : offer flawless service.	5.37	1.23	-0.78	0.46
Luxegovern				
<i>LXGN1</i> : The luxury flagship store has a security guard to stop too many people entering.	5.48	1.18	-0.90	0.89
<i>LXGN2</i> : intimidate customers who wear casual dress.	5.28	1.25	-0.49	-0.19
<i>LXGN3</i> : has a queue to enable only limited shoppers in the store.	5.46	1.22	-0.88	0.81
<i>LXGN4</i> : greet customers like a guest.	5.49	1.06	-0.65	0.64
<i>LXGN5</i> : wear grand attire.	5.52	1.15	-0.69	0.36
Situational				
<i>SITU1</i> : I am amazed at the visual display of the luxury store.	6.02	1.05	-1.04	0.62
<i>SITU2</i> : I enjoy the pleasant music in the store.	5.98	1.01	-0.90	0.49

Constructs and Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>SITU3</i> : I like the lovely fragrance in the store.	5.96	1.03	-0.99	0.81
<i>SITU4</i> : I feel the sophisticated touch in the store.	5.99	0.98	-1.03	1.09
<i>SITU5</i> : I find the store fascinating in a sensory way.	5.88	1.09	-1.08	1.22
<i>SITU6</i> : Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.	5.88	1.05	-0.92	0.58
<i>SITU7</i> : Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.	5.83	1.06	-0.90	0.65
Enduring				
<i>ENDU1</i> : I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.	5.21	1.37	-0.69	0.23
<i>ENDU2</i> : Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me.	5.18	1.34	-0.73	0.43
<i>ENDU3</i> : Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.	5.12	1.39	-0.77	0.41
<i>ENDU4</i> : I like to be seen shopping from this store to others.	5.12	1.40	-0.72	0.12
<i>ENDU5</i> : I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.	5.01	1.49	-0.59	-0.25
<i>ENDU6</i> : Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.	5.10	1.31	-0.71	0.46
<i>ENDU7</i> : Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.	5.11	1.38	-0.78	0.41
Intellectual				
<i>INT01</i> : I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this store.	5.66	1.34	-1.25	1.54
<i>INT02</i> : I learn a lot while shopping in this store.	5.61	1.30	-1.02	0.67
<i>INT03</i> : This store makes me more knowledgeable.	5.43	1.39	-1.02	0.62
<i>INT04</i> : This store stimulates my curiosity and helps solving problems.	5.43	1.31	-1.01	0.74
Customer Social Participation				
<i>CP01</i> : I post content of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, etc.).	5.02	1.74	-0.70	-0.55
<i>CP02</i> : I 'like' the content of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites.	5.35	1.39	-0.91	0.53
<i>CP03</i> : I share posts of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites.	4.99	1.69	-0.71	-0.49
<i>CP04</i> : I comment on the contents of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites.	4.97	1.70	-0.68	-0.51
<i>CP05</i> : I read posts about this brand on social networking sites.	5.19	1.52	-0.91	0.25
<i>CP06</i> : I watch photos/videos of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites.	5.20	1.50	-0.95	0.37

Constructs and Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>CP07</i> : I read comments about this luxury flagship store on social networks sites.	5.10	1.57	-0.87	0.04
Repeat Purchase				
<i>PI01</i> : I will shop at this luxury flagship store in the near future.	5.47	1.07	-0.57	0.19
<i>PI02</i> : I intend to shop at this luxury flagship store in the near future.	5.49	1.11	-0.60	0.18
<i>PI03</i> : I will expand effort on revisiting this luxury flagship store to shop in the near future.	5.27	1.15	-0.50	-0.02

6.7.6 Test of Common Method Bias

Quantitative data collection through a survey approach may result in data susceptible to standard method variance or bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). One of the critical reasons for the occurrence of measurement errors is data collection from a single informant (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) that threatens the causal relationships between independent and dependent variables (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Nunnally, 1978; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Another reason for common method bias is ordering the questionnaire with similar follow-up questions (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and the same trend (positive or negative).

This study carefully considered the common method bias concerns and applied different actions to overcome and reduce the issue. First, measurement of the dependent constructs (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) was obtained from different sources to reduce the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Second, this study used reverse-coded scales for some constructs and a break in the questionnaire flow. In addition, a cover letter was included at the top of the questionnaire, assuring the anonymity of the respondents with a request to provide truthful answers to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Sharma, 2011). Finally, this study examined the occurrence of common method bias using Harman's single factor test, which is widely acceptable by researchers (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003). This analysis used the principal axis factor and forced nine constructs to create one factor. The one general factor that accounted for only 36.67% variance explained that it had not covered most covariance and proved common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003).

6.7.7 Non-response Bias

The survey research often resulted in non-response bias, having differences in answers between respondents and non-respondents (Lambert & Harrington, 1990). Thus, there was a possibility to get an answer from non-respondents if they passed the screening questions. This study designed an attractive questionnaire format and delivered questionnaires using personalised HTML (Lambert & Harrington, 1990) to reduce non-response bias by obtaining higher responses from the respondents. Finally, a paired sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the first and last 50 responses (Armstrong & Overton, 1977) to measure the existence of non-response bias. The results of the *t*-statistic from the paired sample *t*-test show that the first 50 responses were not significantly different from the last 50 responses ($p > 0.05$) for the nine constructs used in this study (see Table 6.11). Therefore, analysis of this study's data set provided evidence of the absence of non-response bias.

Table 6.11 Paired sample *t*-test between first and last 50 responses

Particulars		Mean	Mean Difference	S.D.	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>
Pair 1	LXMS_First50	5.6112	-0.24	0.85325	-1.362	0.08	49
	LXMS_Last50	5.8534		0.73373			
Pair 2	LXTC_First50	5.004	-0.46	1.03529	-2.287	0.66	49
	LXTC_Last50	5.464		1.0431			
Pair 3	LXSC_First50	5.4826	-0.09	0.89582	-0.456	0.31	49
	LXSC_Last50	5.5686		0.86349			
Pair 4	LXGN_First50	5.48	-0.16	0.92846	-0.836	0.95	49
	LXGN_Last50	5.636		0.92731			
Pair 5	SITU_First50	5.8632	-0.27	0.82618	-1.66	0.82	49
	SITU_Last50	6.129		0.80247			
Pair 6	ENDU_First50	5.1374	-0.28	1.19864	-1.1	0.38	49
	ENDU_Last50	5.416		1.18912			
Pair 7	INTL_First50	5.435	-0.38	1.16366	-1.578	0.24	49
	INTL_Last50	5.81		1.02961			
Pair 8	CPN_First50	4.9834	-0.41	1.4387	-1.517	0.72	49
	CPN_Last50	5.398		1.36562			
Pair 9	RPIN_First50	5.3334	-0.18	1.06025	-0.815	0.11	49
	RPIN_Last50	5.5134		0.92887			

6.7.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of Third-Round Data

In this step, this study repeated EFA following the same procedure followed in the previous two rounds. The final EFA was conducted based on a PCA for the extraction of variances due to its suitability to minimise a large number of items into a few fundamental latent dimensions (Straub et al., 2004). Again, it used the PCA with varimax rotation (Eigenvalue ≥ 1 and factor loading of ≥ 0.40) procedure that helped to demonstrate the convergent and discriminant validity of the construct (Ba & Pavlou, 2002; Segars & Grover, 1993). This step considered an iterative procedure of re-running EFA following items that measured as cross-loading on more than one factor and/or loaded less than 0.40 (Straub et al., 2004) were deleted. Further, this scale refinement process examined the corrected item-total correlation to improve the reliability. Finally, the instrument extracted 17 items for the LFSE and 24 items of the LFSA by eliminating EMO04, EMO05, SID05, SID06, SID07 and SID08 from the LFSE and LXM5, LXM7, LXS1, LXS2, LXS4, LXS5, LXS13, LXS15, LXS16, LXT1, LXT2, LXT9, STG1, STG2 and STG3 from the LFSA. The residual 17 items of the LFSE and 24 items of the LFSA were used to measure the scales. The factor analysis of the third-round data for the LFSE and LFSA are shown in Table 6.12 and Table 6.13, respectively.

The factor loadings of the items in the final EFA of the LFSE ranged from 0.76–0.88, produced three factors with Eigenvalue cut-off 1 and explained 73.48% of the cumulative variance in the data. The minimum Cronbach's alpha was 0.914 for intellectual experience, satisfying a minimum requirement of 0.70. The minimum corrected-item-total correlation was 0.71, exceeding the cut-off value of 0.40 (Straub et al., 2004). The sample adequacy of the data was measured by calculating the KMO measure and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Both the KMO measure (0.941 > 0.50) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p = 0.000$) were significant, indicating that the data were suitable for factor analysis.

The factor loadings of the items in the final EFA for the LFSA ranged from 0.59–0.84, produced four factors with an Eigenvalue cut-off of 1 and explained 62.09% of the cumulative variance. The minimum Cronbach's alpha was 0.716 for assurance, satisfying a minimum requirement of 0.70. The minimum corrected-item-total correlation was 0.574, exceeding the cut-off value of 0.40 (Straub et al., 2004). The sample adequacy of the data was measured by calculating the KMO measure and

Bartlett’s test of sphericity. Both the KMO measure ($0.934 > 0.50$) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($p = 0.000$) were significant, which indicated the data were suitable for factor analysis. From the extracted items, seven items formed the ‘situational’ ($\alpha = 0.932$) construct, four items the ‘intellectual’ ($\alpha = 0.914$) and six items the ‘enduring’ ($\alpha = 0.919$), as three dimensions of the LFSE. The LFSA scale items formed four dimensions, where seven items related to the construct ‘luxemosphere’ ($\alpha = 0.855$), five items to ‘luxetecture’ ($\alpha = 0.848$), seven items to ‘luxescape’ ($\alpha = 0.902$) and five items ‘luxegovernance’ ($\alpha = 0.875$). Hence, the validated model established its reliability of data as both values of the KMO measure (> 0.5) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were significant at 0.000 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 6.12 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSE of the validated scale

Factor	Items	New Code	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach’s Alpha
SITUATIONAL	EMO01	SITU1	0.852	0.821	8.288	29.663	0.932
	MSE02	SITU2	0.828	0.801			
	MSE03	SITU3	0.819	0.796			
	EMO02	SITU4	0.813	0.774			
	MSE01	SITU5	0.793	0.772			
	MSE05	SITU6	0.783	0.758			
	MSE04	SITU7	0.757	0.745			
INTELLECTUAL	INT03	INTL1	0.809	0.818	1.258	73.475	0.914
	INT04	INTL2	0.798	0.810			
	INT02	INTL3	0.789	0.808			
	INT01	INTL4	0.756	0.782			
ENDURING	SID07	ENDU1	0.875	0.838	2.945	55.635	0.919
	SID02	ENDU2	0.859	0.821			
	SID08	ENDU3	0.827	0.787			
	SID01	ENDU4	0.808	0.749			
	SID03	ENDU5	0.774	0.731			
	SID06	ENDU6	0.717	0.705			

Table 6.13 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for LFSA of the validated scale

Factor	Items	New Code	Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	Eigen-value	Cumulative Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Luxemosphere	LXM04	LXMS1	0.753	0.68	2.3	35.349	0.855
	LXM03	LXMS2	0.717	0.65			
	LXM02	LXMS3	0.683	0.635			
	LXM01	LXMS4	0.663	0.588			
	LXT05	LXMS5	0.603	0.604			
	LXM06	LXMS6	0.599	0.574			
	LXT03	LXMS7	0.594	0.608			
Luxetecture	LXT08	LXTC1	0.794	0.65	1.51	62.088	0.848
	LXT07	LXTC2	0.779	0.668			
	LXT04	LXTC3	0.749	0.7			
	LXM08	LXTC4	0.655	0.636			
	LXT06	LXTC5	0.64	0.646			
Luxescape	LXS06	LXSC1	0.791	0.736	9.463	19.006	0.902
	LXS10	LXSC2	0.784	0.753			
	LXS07	LXSC3	0.762	0.704			
	LXS12	LXSC4	0.747	0.746			
	LXS14	LXSC5	0.732	0.67			
	LXS11	LXSC6	0.711	0.693			
	LXS08	LXSC7	0.679	0.666			
Luxegovernance	STG04	LXGN1	0.835	0.779	1.627	48.954	0.875
	LXS17	LXGN2	0.796	0.7			
	STG05	LXGN3	0.745	0.719			
	LXS09	LXGN4	0.642	0.682			
	LXS03	LXGN5	0.615	0.649			

6.7.9 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Constructs

A CFA was used to test the reliability and validity of the LFSE and LFSA constructs' dimensions identified in the previous EFA. The CFA was considered superior to the EFA (O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurka, 1998). The CFA was also considered for further refinement of the scales. In this step, the congeneric models for each factor within the LFSE and LFSA scales were tested before examining the measurement model to confirm model fit using the AMOS 25 program. This process ensured the three dimensions: situational in seven items, enduring in six and intellectual in four items for the LFSE construct.

Conversely, there were four dimensions—luxemosphere in seven items, luxecture in five items, luxescape in seven items and luxegovernance in five items—for the LFSA construct. The results show that all the factors exceeded the requirement of a minimum of three items to load significantly for multidimensional scales (Raubenheimer, 2004). The three-factor LFSE and the four-factor LFSA constructs were used in CFA for further operationalisation.

Measurement Model: This section used a measurement model analysis to evaluate the factors through specifying the relationships between the latent constructs and corresponding observed scale items (Arbuckle, 2005; Byrne, 2010). The purpose of this analysis was to confirm the scale items load onto the intended constructs as determined by the previous sections and ensure the constructs' reliability and validity. The three-factor structure of the LFSE and the four-factor structure of the LFSA were tested through the measurement model along with two dependent variables (see Figure 6.11). The 17 items of the LFSE construct and 24 items of the LFSA construct were used in CFA from the EFA, and all the items remained with acceptable levels of factor loadings. The results of the measurement model test presented items' loading range from 0.63 to 0.87 (see Tables 6.13a and 6.13b). These results were acceptable loadings as they were higher than the standardised item loadings (at least 0.50) of the respective factor (Hair et al., 1995). Again, the inter-correlations of the factor shower lower estimated correlations (< 0.85) between factors (Kline, 2005) that indicates no possible overlap among the factors (see Table 6.15). The measurement model showed the acceptable model fit indices with $\chi^2 = 420.330$, $df = 239$, $\chi^2/df = 1.756$, $p = 0.000$, $RMSEA = 0.045$, $RMR = 0.072$, $GFI = 0.915$, $CFI = .932$, $TLI = 0.926$ and $NFI = 0.856$, and can be used for further analysis (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

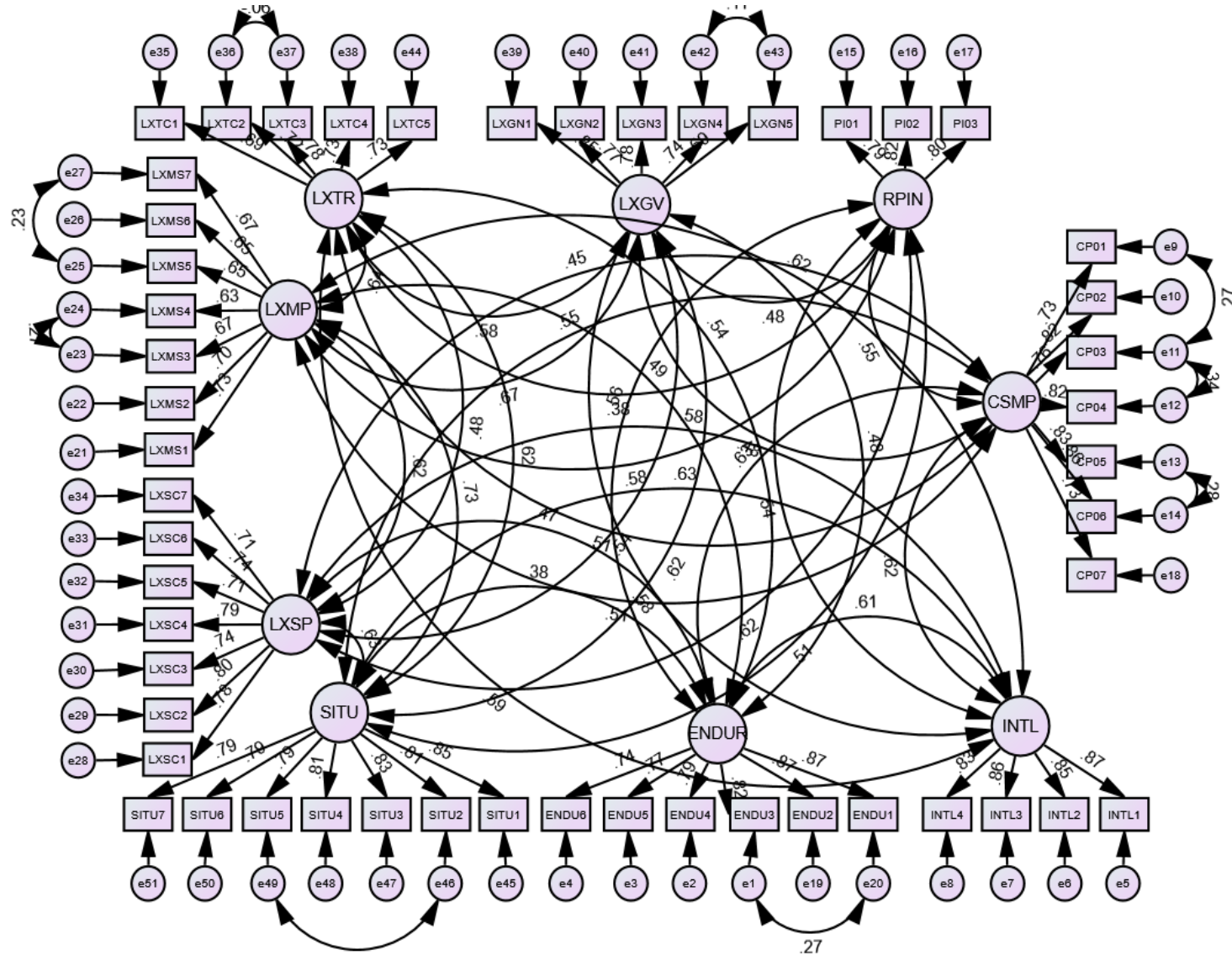


Figure 6.11 Measurement model of first-order latent constructs

6.7.10 Reliability and Validity of Constructs

The reliability shows the extent of the consistency of the results of scale items if repeated measurements are made on the constructs (Malhotra, 2010). It aims to check the consistency of the scale items performance and is free of random and systematic errors (Cooper & Schindler, 1998; Zikmund, 2003). This reliability analysis minimises errors in measuring the constructs of interest (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The primary measure that estimates the reliability of a measurement scale for a researcher to consider is Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha (Nunnally, 1978; Churchill, 1979).

Cronbach's alpha is one of the most common methods to measure the reliability of a construct (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2000) by estimating the degree of consistency of the scale items to represent the construct of interest. It is especially used in measuring multi-point (i.e., the 7-point Likert) scale items (Sekaran, 2000). Thus, this study used Cronbach's alpha to investigate the internal consistency of the scale items that exceeded the minimum of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978), and they were highly satisfactory. The Cronbach's alpha value for the constructs were 0.932 for situational experience, enduring experience 0.924, intellectual experience 0.914, luxemosphere 0.854, luxetecture 0.848, luxescape 0.902, luxegovernance 0.875, customer participation 0.925 and 0.845 for repeat purchase intention (see Tables 6.14a and 6.14b).

The reliability results do not indicate the necessary validity of the construct (Hair et al., 2010). This requires estimating the scale items' ability to measure the intended construct through validity tests (Zikmund, 2003). The constructs' validity can be evaluated through content and construct validity aspects (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Content validity is a systematic assessment of the content of the scale items of a construct on subjective judgement (Malhotra, 1996). The construct validity investigates the actual measures produced by the scale items (Churchill, 1995), ensuring the correctness and adequacy of the operational measures for the concept being tested (Malhotra, 1996). The reliability and validity measures of the LFSA scale estimated on the cut-off points of standardised values of the reliability and validity tests established by past research are explained below.

Table 6.14a Psychometric properties of constructs

Factor	Item Code	Mean	SD	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Item-Total Correlation	CR	AVE
Situational	SITU1	5.88	1.05	0.854	0.932	0.772	0.96	0.77
	SITU2	5.98	1.01	0.812		0.801		
	SITU3	5.96	1.03	0.831		0.796		
	SITU4	5.83	1.06	0.814		0.745		
	SITU5	6.02	1.05	0.787		0.758		
	SITU6	5.88	1.09	0.795		0.821		
	SITU7	5.99	0.98	0.787		0.774		
Enduring	ENDU1	5.10	1.31	0.868	0.924	0.757	0.96	0.75
	ENDU2	5.18	1.34	0.870		0.816		
	ENDU3	5.11	1.38	0.819		0.758		
	ENDU4	5.21	1.37	0.788		0.692		
	ENDU5	5.12	1.39	0.767		0.719		
	ENDU6	5.01	1.49	0.744		0.825		
Intellectual	INT01	5.43	1.39	0.868	0.914	0.782	0.95	0.83
	INT02	5.43	1.31	0.855		0.808		
	INT03	5.61	1.30	0.861		0.818		
	INT04	5.66	1.34	0.830		0.810		
Customer Participation	CP01	5.02	1.74	0.734	0.925	0.728	0.95	0.75
	CP02	5.35	1.39	0.819		0.778		
	CP03	4.99	1.69	0.759		0.766		
	CP04	4.97	1.70	0.824		0.819		
	CP05	5.19	1.52	0.831		0.799		
	CP06	5.2	1.50	0.865		0.823		
	CP07	5.10	1.57	0.733		0.663		
Repeat Purchase	PI01	5.47	1.07	0.791	0.845	0.708		
	PI02	5.49	1.11	0.817		0.737		
	PI03	5.27	1.15	0.804		0.691		

Table 6.14b Psychometric properties of constructs

Factor	Item Code	Mean	SD	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Item-Total Correlation	CR	AVE
Luxemosphere	LXMS1	5.67	1.13	0.727	0.854	0.679	0.91	0.59
	LXMS2	5.67	1.01	0.705		0.646		
	LXMS3	5.70	1.01	0.673		0.659		
	LXMS4	5.65	1.05	0.629		0.598		
	LXMS5	5.56	1.04	0.649		0.595		
	LXMS6	5.71	1.05	0.646		0.585		
	LXMS7	5.60	1.15	0.667		0.566		
Luxetecture	LXTC1	5.05	1.42	0.695	0.848	0.650	0.90	0.64
	LXTC2	5.10	1.33	0.719		0.668		
	LXTC3	5.08	1.34	0.779		0.700		
	LXTC4	5.21	1.22	0.729		0.636		
	LXTC5	5.26	1.14	0.732		0.646		
Luxescape	LXSC1	5.54	1.20	0.777	0.902	0.736	0.94	0.69
	LXSC2	5.43	1.25	0.801		0.753		
	LXSC3	5.55	1.14	0.735		0.704		
	LXSC4	5.46	1.18	0.792		0.746		
	LXSC5	5.56	1.20	0.714		0.670		
	LXSC6	5.47	1.13	0.743		0.693		
	LXSC7	5.37	1.23	0.712		0.666		
Luxegovernance	LXGN1	5.48	1.18	0.845	0.875	0.779	0.92	0.71
	LXGN2	5.28	1.25	0.769		0.700		
	LXGN3	5.46	1.22	0.776		0.719		
	LXGN4	5.49	1.06	0.739		0.682		
	LXGN5	5.52	1.15	0.695		0.649		

Discriminant and Convergent Validity: The purpose of the discriminant and convergent validity tests is to investigate whether systematic variance results show low correlations among the different constructs and high correlations with the measures of the respective construct (Peter, 1981). The discriminant validity confirms the low correlation with the items of other constructs, and convergent validity ensures the high correlation among the scale items of the relevant construct (Sekaran, 2000).

Discriminant Validity can be established using the inter-correlations test among the constructs (Chin, 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Ping, 2004). This test specifies that the different constructs are conceptually distinct and do not share similar scale items (Chin, 2010). Hence, this study conducted the inter-correlations test for the nine constructs that indicate a significant distinction among the constructs ranging from 0.384 to 0.729 within the threshold level to measure the inter-correlations (see Table 6.15). It is suggested that the inter-correlations among the constructs measures below 0.85 is considered to be acceptable and a shred of evidence to confirm the discriminant validity (Kline, 2005). Again, this study examined the cross-loadings to attain further confidence on discriminant validity. The cross-loading values of the scale items show their stronger relationship to their corresponding construct than other constructs. All items of the underlying constructs displayed a substantial amount of variance among each other by loading more value on their corresponding construct than others (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Bookstein 1982).

Convergent Validity measures the degree of confidence in the construct well measured by its scale items (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). It has been universally used to assess the degree of shared variance among the latent constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The convergent validity can be evaluated by Factor Loadings, Construct Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to ensure the high correlations of the scale items toward their respective construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). First, the essential initial consideration to safeguard the convergent validity is the size of the factor loading of scale items with significant level ranges between -1.0 and $+1.0$ onto the expected latent construct (Hair et al., 1995; Raimondo et al., 2008). The high factor loadings indicate the high convergent validity of a latent construct. A good rule of thumb is that estimated standardised factor loading should be 0.5 or higher to ensure convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). This study examined the standardised factor loading estimates (regression weights) in AMOS that resulted in ranges from

0.629 to 0.868 that exceed the threshold (0.5) for construct reliability (Tables 6.13a and 6.13b).

Construct Reliability (sometimes called composite reliability) is one of the measures of internal consistency in scale items (Netemeyer, 2003) that is estimated based on the standardised loadings and measurement error (Shook et al., 2004). The high internal consistency can be demonstrated through high construct reliability (CR), which signifies the representation of the same latent construct by the underlying items (Hair et al., 2010). The rule of thumb is to warrant excellent reliability to estimates of 0.7 or above the construct reliability test (Hair et al., 2010; Shook et al., 2004). The construct reliability is calculated from the squared sum of factor loadings (λ_i) and the sum of the error variance terms (ϵ_i) for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010) as below:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)}$$

The value of the CR for the constructs of situational experience, enduring experience, intellectual experience, luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape, luxegovernance, customer social media participation, and repeat purchase intention were 0.91, 0.90, 0.94, 0.93, 0.96, 0.95, 0.95, 0.96 and 0.91, respectively. Hence, the values of CR suggest the solid internal consistency of the above constructs. Further, the results of the item-to-total correlations show the correlation among the items that scored well above 0.3 (Field, 2005) ranges from 0.566 to 0.825 (Tables 6.14a and 6.14b) and reflect an adequate internal consistency for each construct.

Later, the AVE was used to estimate the scale items' relative degree of convergent validity. The AVE is counted as the mean-variance extracted for the scale items loading on a focal construct (Hair et al., 2010). The AVE value is calculated based on the below formula, where L indicates the standardised factor loading, i is the number of items, and n is the item. So, it is computed as the sum of all squared factor loadings divided by the total number of items (Hair et al., 2010):

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^2}{n}$$

Finally, this study examined the constructs' convergent and discriminant validity, comparing the square root of AVE of a given construct with the absolute value of the standardised correlation ($\sqrt{AVE} > \text{correlations}$) among the focal construct and other constructs. The higher the square root of AVE than the total value of the standardised correlation indicates the evidence of the greater convergent and discriminant validity of the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

The AVE value is estimated as the sum of all the squared standardised factor loadings divided by the number of items. A good rule of thumb for the AVE value is 0.5 or above to ensure adequate convergence (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). The AVE values for this study were estimated as 0.882 for situational experience, 0.880 for enduring, 0.912 for intellectual, 0.760 for luxemosphere, 0.816 for luxecture, 0.835 for luxescape, 0.845 for luxegovernance, 0.869 for customer social media participation and 0.876 for repeat purchase intention construct. Therefore, the AVE score shows significant convergent validity of the particular construct (see Table 6.15).

Table 6.15 Inter-correlations of constructs

FACTOR	MEAN	SD	CR	SITU	ENDU	INTL	LXMS	LXTC	LXSC	LXGV	CSMP	RPIN
SITU	5.93	0.88	0.96	0.882*								
ENDU	5.12	1.17	0.95	0.382	0.880*							
INTL	5.53	1.19	0.95	0.632	0.609	0.912*						
LXMS	5.65	0.78	0.91	0.729	0.493	0.616	0.760*					
LXTC	5.14	1.02	0.91	0.617	0.543	0.586	0.641	0.816*				
LXSC	5.48	0.94	0.94	0.627	0.473	0.580	0.618	0.481	0.835*			
LXGV	5.45	0.96	0.93	0.625	0.482	0.583	0.667	0.577	0.541	0.845*		
CSMP	5.12	1.32	0.96	0.552	0.635	0.622	0.511	0.508	0.447	0.480	0.869*	
RPIN	5.41	0.97	0.91	0.515	0.565	0.544	0.58	0.384	0.619	0.478	0.552	0.876*

Note: *The diagonal value represents the square root of the AVE

The psychometric properties (see Tables 6.14a and 6.14b) and inter-correlations (see Table 6.15) of the constructs in this study were found satisfactory. The LFSE and LFSA scales revealed acceptable results in different validity tests. The final scale items for the LFSE and LFSA constructs concluded with 17 and 24 items, respectively, as shown in Tables 6.16a and 6.16b.

Table 6.16a Final scale items of LFSE

Constructs	Item Code	Name of the Items
Situational	SITU1	I feel elated visiting this store.
	SITU2	I enjoy the pleasant music in the store.
	SITU3	I like the lovely fragrance in the store.
	SITU4	I feel gleeful visiting this store.
	SITU5	I am amazed with the visual display of the luxury store.
	SITU6	I find the store fascinating in a sensory way.
	SITU7	I feel the sophisticated touch in the store.
Intellectual	INTL1	This store makes me more knowledgeable.
	INTL2	This store stimulates my curiosity and helps solving problems.
	INTL3	I learn a lot while shopping in this store.
	INTL4	I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this store.
Enduring	ENDU1	Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community.
	ENDU2	Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me.
	ENDU3	Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.
	ENDU4	I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.
	ENDU5	Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.
	ENDU6	I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.

Table 6.16b Final scale items of LFSA

Constructs	Item Code	Name of the Items
Luxemosphere	LXMS1	This luxury flagship store creates artistic ambience.
	LXMS2 exhibits sophisticated colour schemes.
	LXMS3 has a pleasant fragrance.
	LXMS4 plays pleasant music.
	LXMS5articulates sophisticated design.
	LXMS6 has beautiful lighting.
	LXMS7 exhibits glamorous decoration.
Luxetecture	LXTC1	This luxury flagship store facilitates with a useful digital trial mirror.
	LXTC2has interactive digital touchscreen displays.
	LXTC3 presents museological artefacts.
	LXTC4 exhibits landscapes of heritage.
	LXTC5 has appealing digital amenities.
Luxescape	LXSC1	The employees of the luxury flagship store give personal attention to customers.
	LXSC2 provide customised assistance.
	LXSC3 help customers to feel comfortable.
	LXSC4 are passionate towards fulfilling customers' needs.
	LXSC5 are respectful towards customers.
	LXSC6 provide useful advice.
	LXSC7 offer flawless service.
Luxegovernan	LXGN1	The employees act as a gatekeeper to create an entry barrier.
	LXGN2 intimidate customers who wear casual dress.
	LXGN3 manage queue to enable only limited shoppers in the store.
	LXGN4 greet customers like a guest.
	LXGN5 wear grand attire.

6.8 Second-Order Reflective Models

This study estimated the second-order, hierarchical-reflective model for the LFSE and the LFSA constructs. The second-order, hierarchical LFSE construct was formed by all the apparent variables of the underlying first-order dimensions (i.e., situational, enduring and intellectual). Likewise, the second-order, hierarchical LFSA construct was reflected through all the manifest variables of the corresponding first-order dimensions, including luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. The

second-order reflective models for the LFSE and LFSA are discussed in the following sections.

6.8.1 Second-Order Reflective Model of LFSE

This study repeatedly used the evident variables to estimate the second-order hierarchical reflective model of the LFSE construct. The second-order luxury flagship store experience construct consists of three first-order latent variables (i.e., situational experience, enduring experience and intellectual experience), containing 17 evident items altogether (see Figure 6.12). Thus, the LFSE construct was measured using all 17 underlying first-order latent variables items to create primary loadings and the second-order latent variable (see Figure 6.13).

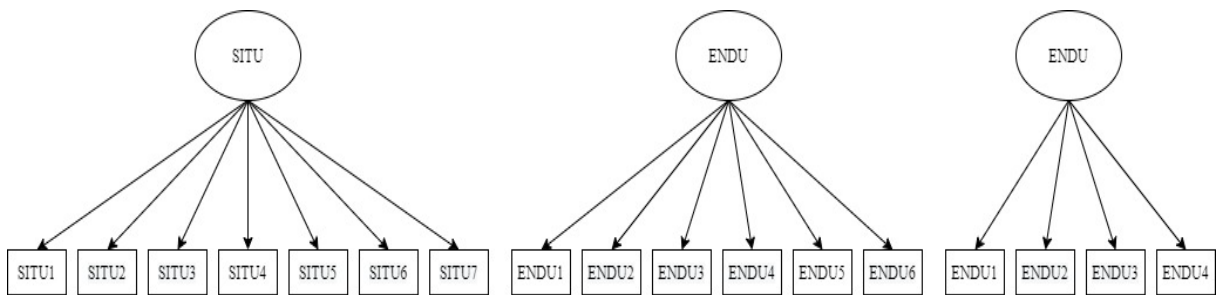


Figure 6.12 First-order latent variables of LFSE

Figure 6.12 shows the three first-order reflective latent variables (LVs; situational experience, enduring experience and intellectual experience) of the LFSE, which are related to their respective manifest variables (MVs).

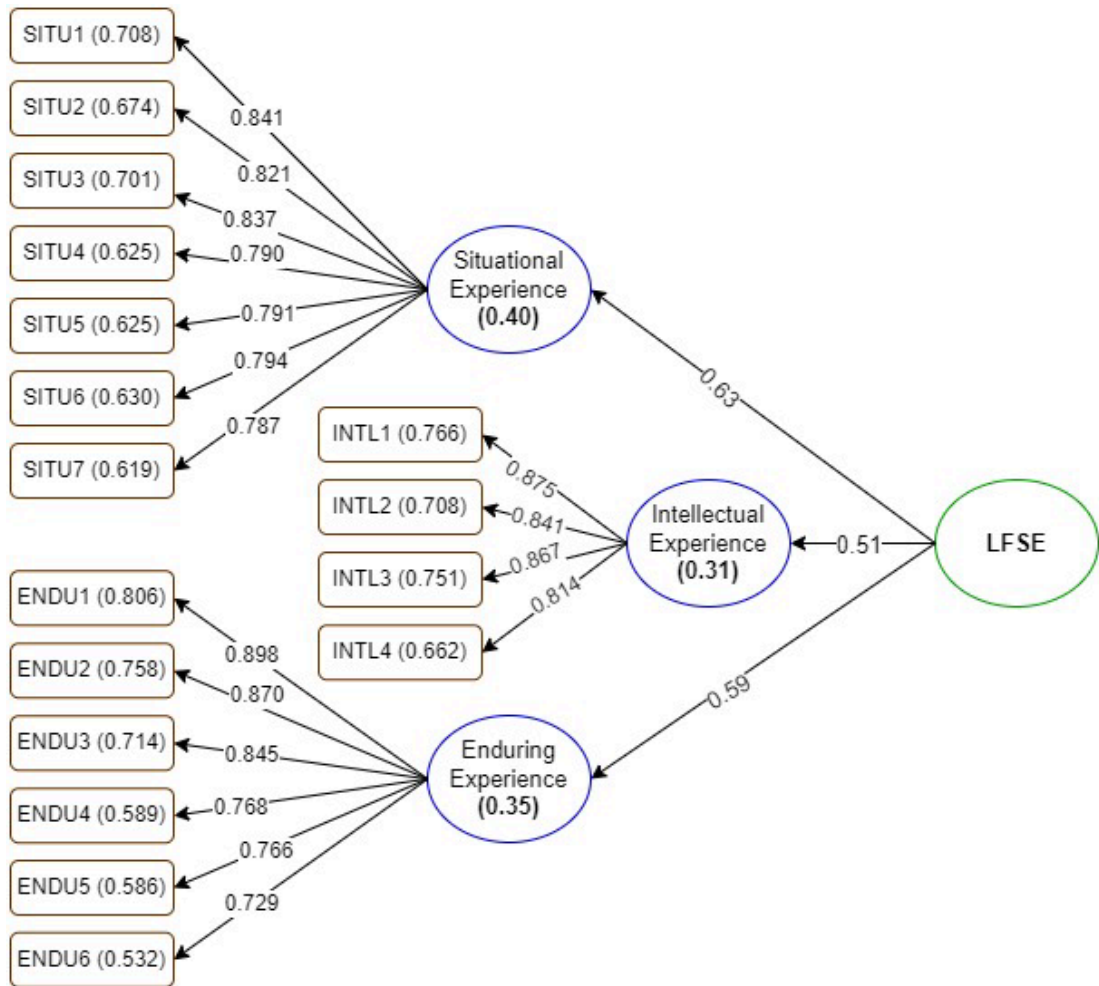


Figure 6.13 LFSE as a second-order reflective construct

Figure 6.13 shows the LFSE as a second-order reflective variable assembled by connecting it to the block of the underlying first-order latent variables. For example, the LFSE is built using 17 MVs (7 + 6 + 4) of four first-order LVs.

6.8.2 Second-Order Reflective Model of LFSA

This study replicated the same approach used in Section 6.8.1 for the dimensions and was extended to estimate the second-order LFSA construct. The second-order LFSA construct consists of four first-order LVs (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) containing 24 evident items altogether (see Figure 6.14). Thus, the LFSA construct was measured using all 24 underlying first-order LVs items to create primary loadings and the second-order LVs (see Figure 6.15).

Figure 6.14 shows the three first-order reflective latent variables (LVs; luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) of the LFSA, which are related to their respective manifest variables (MVs).

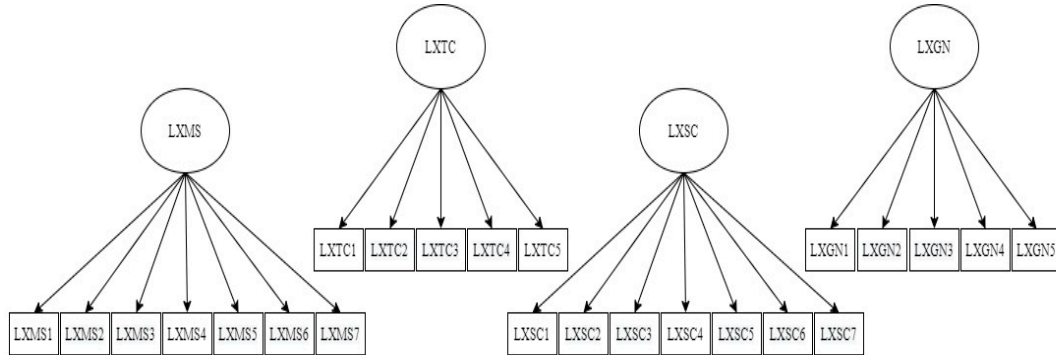


Figure 6.14 First-order latent variables of LFSA

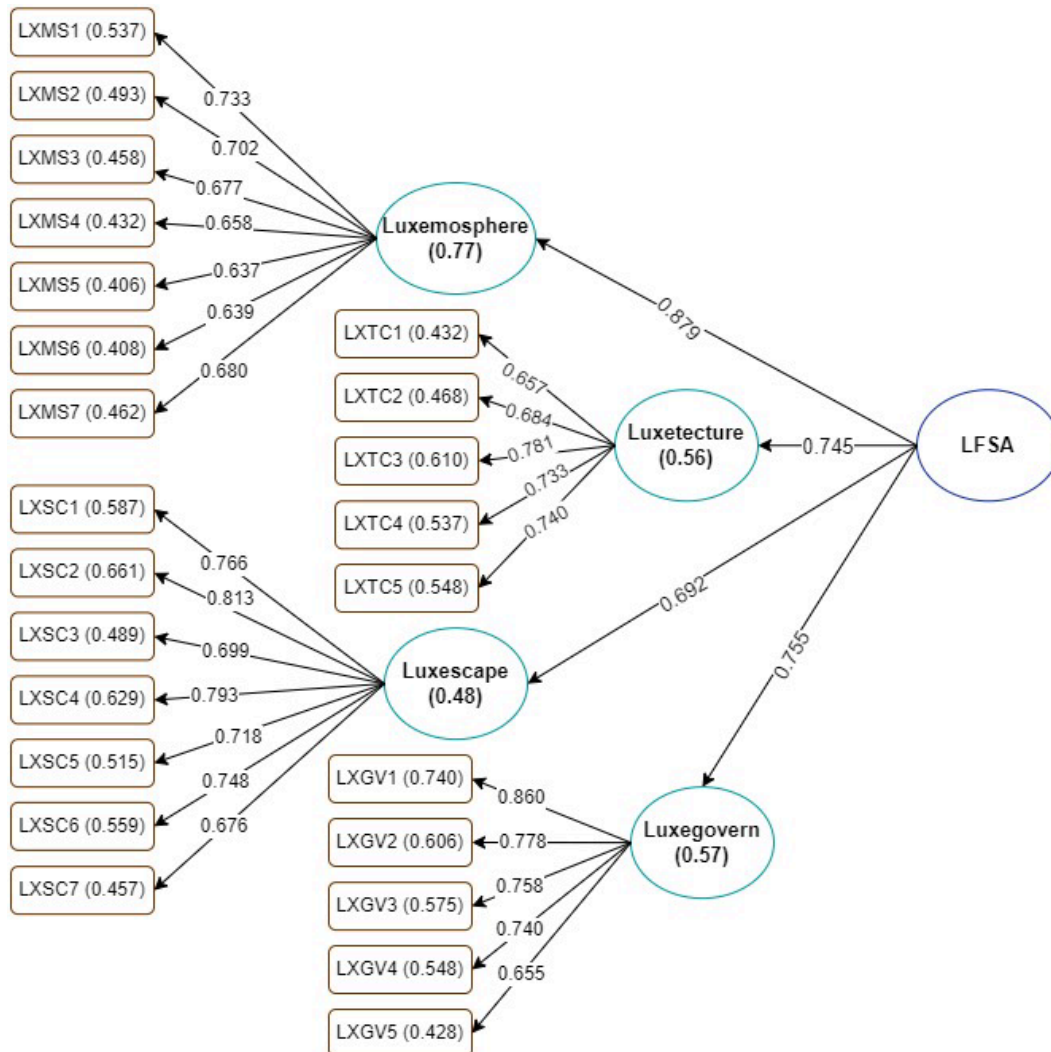


Figure 6.15 LFSA as a second-order reflective construct

Figure 6.15 shows the LFSA as a second-order reflective variable created by linking it to the chunk of the primary first-order LVs. For instance, platform quality is constructed using 24 MVs (7 + 5 + 7 + 5) of four first-order LVs.

The second-order reflective models of the LFSE and the LFSA showed acceptable model fit indices. The standardised factor loading of the LFSE ranged from 0.729 to 0.898 and loaded significantly ($p < .001$) on expected latent constructs. The model fit indices show $\chi^2 = 173.391$, $df = 112$, $\chi^2/df = 1.548$, $p = 0.000$, RMSEA = 0.038, RMR = 0.057, GFI = 0.947, CFI = 0.987, TLI = 0.984, NFI = 0.965 and can be used for further analysis (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Conversely, the standardised factor loading of the LFSE ranges from 0.655 to 0.860 and loaded significantly ($p < .001$) on expected latent constructs. The model fit indices show $\chi^2 = 437.757$, $df = 239$, $\chi^2/df = 1.832$, $p = 0.000$, RMSEA = 0.047, RMR = 0.074, GFI = 0.913, CFI = 0.957, TLI = 0.950, NFI = 0.910.

6.9 Second-Order Measurement Model

This study estimated measurement properties of two higher-order constructs, LFSE and LFSA, along with two outcome variables, customer social media participation and repeat purchase intention. The LFSE construct consists of 17 items (7 + 6 + 4) where seven items represent situational (SITU), six enduring (ENDU), and four reflect intellectual (INTL) dimension. Similarly, the LFSA construct consists of 24 items (7 + 5 + 7 + 5) in which seven items reflect luxemosphere (LXMS), five items reflect luxecture (LXTC), seven items reflect luxescape (LXSC), and five items reflect luxegovern (LXGN) dimension (see Figure 6.16).

This study ensured the factor loadings of the first-order LVs on the second-order factors (i.e., LFSE and LFSA) were 0.5 or higher to ensure the convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). The higher-order measurement model also confirmed the excellent rule of thumb for an AVE score of 0.5 or above to ensure adequate convergence (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010) and CR score of 0.7 or above of the construct reliability test (Hair et al., 2010; Shook et al., 2004). The factor loadings of the higher-order measurement model scored range from 0.725–0.793 for the LFSE, 0.683–0.778 for the LFSA and 0.718–0.865 for outcome variables customer CSMP and RPIN.

The CR values for the LFSA, LFSE, CSMP and RPIN were 0.883, 0.880, 0.954 and 0.908, respectively. The AVE values for this study were estimated as 0.655 for LFSA, 0.710 for LFSE, 0.791 for CR and 0.876 for RPIN. Finally, this analysis provided a good fit with $\chi^2 = 234.923$, $df = 104$, $\chi^2/df = 2.155$, SRMR = 0.068, RMSEA = 0.058, GFI = 0.929, CFI = 0.968, TLI = 0.958 and NFI = 0.945.

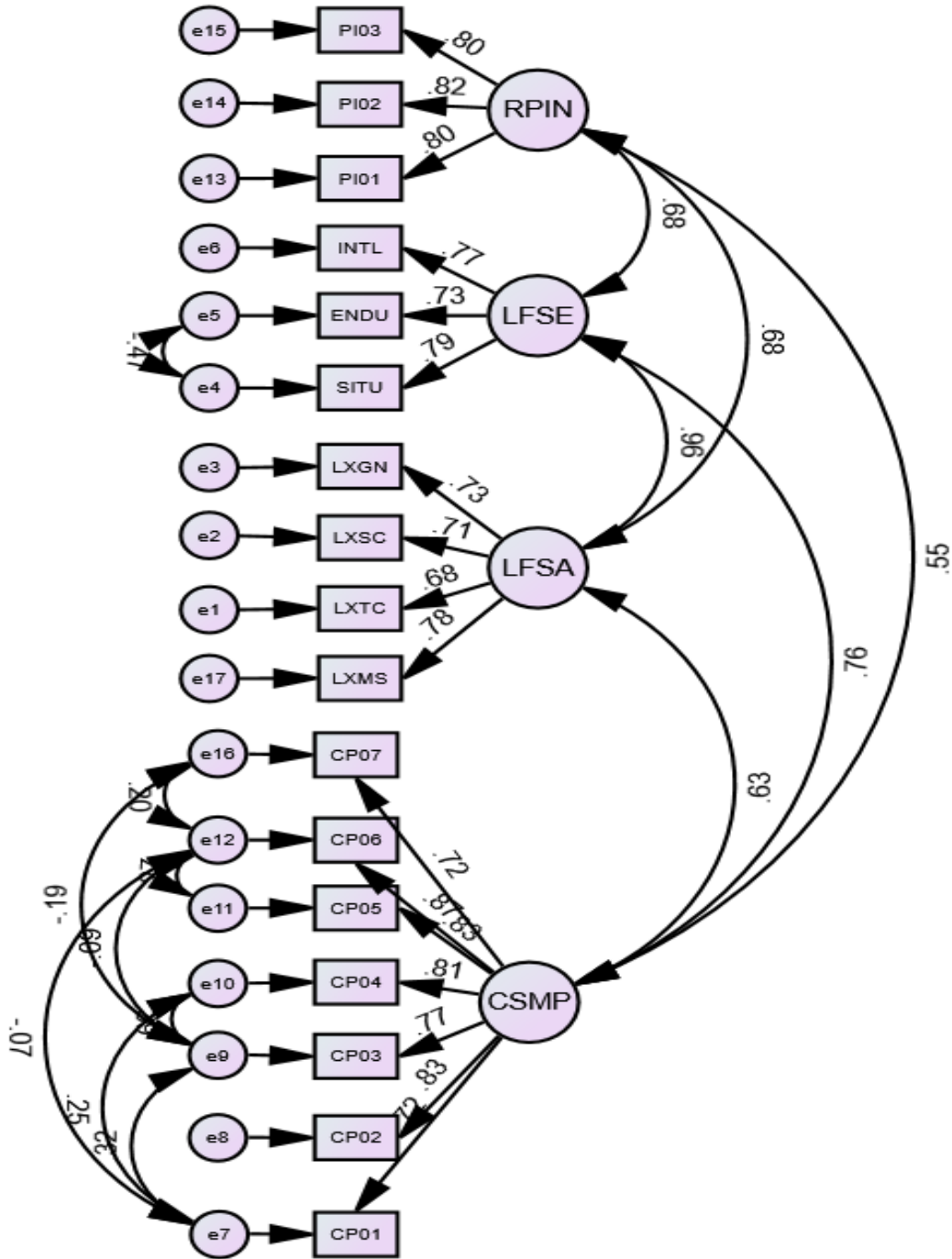


Figure 6.16 Higher-order measurement model of constructs

6.10 Structural Model: Test of Hypotheses

This study operated the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach to test the structural and extended models with mediating and moderating effects. This study examined the hypotheses by developing a structural model after assessing the constructs' uni-dimensionality, reliability and validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, Hair et al., 1995; Kline, 2005). The structural model specified direct and indirect relationships between the independent and dependent constructs and demonstrated the relationships by testing the hypotheses (i.e., H1-H6 and H7a–H8d), as shown in Figure 6.17.

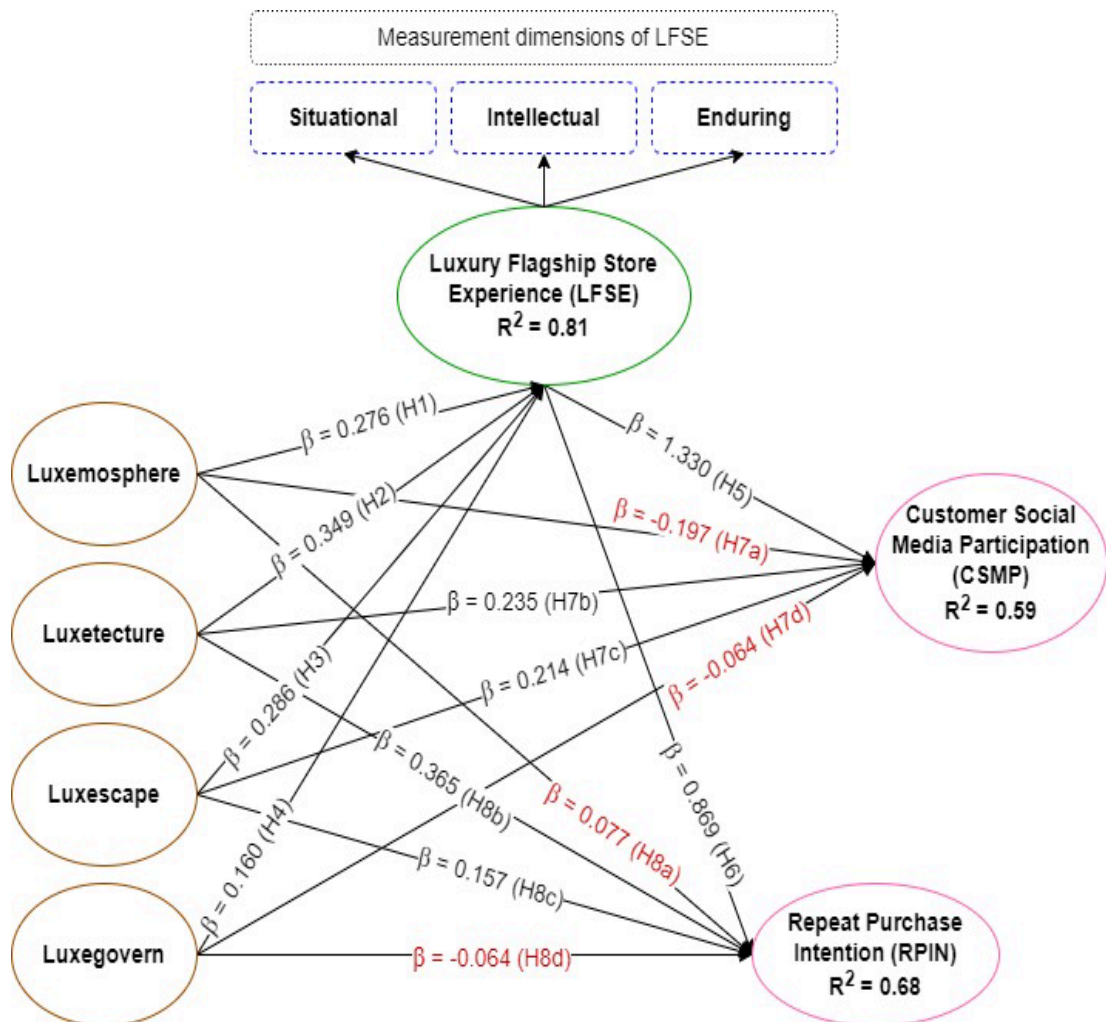


Figure 6.17 Main effects structural model

The analysis of this section used the responses ($n = 374$) collected in round three data collection at stage four. The structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis took place to test the proposed hypotheses using AMOS 25.0. This analysis estimated the relationships among the higher-order LFSE, four dimensions luxemosphere (LXMS), luxetecture (LXTC), luxescape (LXSC) and luxegovern (LXGN) of LFSA, CSMP and RPIN.

The SEM analysis provided a good fit with $\chi^2 = 1035.131$, $df = 593$, $\chi^2/df = 1.746$, SRMR = 0.072, RMSEA = 0.045, GFI = 0.872, CFI = 0.947, TLI = 0.941 and NFI = 0.885. The composite reliability for the constructs LXMS, LXTC, LXSC, LXGN, LFSE, CSMP and RPIN estimated as 0.905, 0.903, 0.939, 0.920, 0.883, 0.952 and 0.913, respectively. Again, the AVE were 0.760, 0.807, 0.831, 0.835, 0.846, 0.861 and 0.881 for the LXMS, LXTC, LXSC, LXGN, LFSE, CSMP and RPIN constructs, respectively. These results ensure the internal consistency and convergent validity of the constructs.

The structural model results delivered a standardised beta (β) of 0.276, 0.349, 0.286 and 0.160, respectively from the luxemosphere to LFSE, luxetecture to LFSE, luxescape to LFSE and luxegovern to LFSE. These path coefficients were significant at $p < 0.001$ or $p < 0.01$ and confirmed that luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern significantly influence the LFSE. Thus, it supported hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4. Correspondingly, the path relationship from LFSE to CSMP and RPIN produced a standardised beta (β) of 1.330 and 0.869, respectively. These path coefficients were also significant and confirmed that the LFSE significantly influences customer social media participation and RPIN. Thus, it also supported hypotheses H5 and H6.

The relationship paths between the independent and outcome variables show a slightly different result. The path relationship from the four dimensions (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) of LFSA to CSMP formed a standardised beta (β) of 0.235 and 0.214 for luxetecture and luxescape and were confirmed as significant. Similarly, the path relationship between luxetecture and RPIN (beta (β) = 0.365), and the relationship between luxescape and RPIN (beta (β) = 0.157) were also confirmed significant.

Conversely, the path relationship from the four dimensions (i.e., luxemoshpehre, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) of LFSA to CSMP formed a standardised beta (β) of -0.197 and -0.064 for luxemosphere and luxegovern and were confirmed as insignificant. Similarly, the path relationship between luxemosphere and RPIN (beta (β) = 0.077), and the relationship between luxegovern and RPIN (beta (β) = -0.064) were also confirmed insignificant (see Table 6.17).

Table 6.17 Results of the main effects structural model

Particulars	r^2	β	t - statistic	p -value	Results
H1: Luxemosphere → Luxury Flagship Store Experience	0.81	0.276	3.939	***	Supported**
H2: Luxetecture → Luxury Flagship Store Experience		0.349	5.717	***	Supported**
H3: Luxescape → Luxury Flagship Store Experience		0.286	5.485	***	Supported**
H4: Luxegovern → Luxury Flagship Store Experience		0.160	2.571	0.01	Supported*
H5: Luxury Flagship Store Experience → Customer Social Media Participation	0.59	1.330	6.584	***	Supported**
H7a: Luxemosphere → Customer Social Media Participation		-0.197	-1.806	0.071	Not Supported
H7b: Luxetecture → Customer Social Media Participation		0.235	2.333	0.02	Supported*
H7c: Luxescape → Customer Social Media Participation		0.214	2.459	0.014	Supported*
H7d: Luxegovern → Customer Social Media Participation	0.68	-0.079	-0.895	0.371	Not Supported
H6: Luxury Flagship Store Experience → Repeat Purchase Intention		0.869	5.753	***	Supported**
H8a: Luxemosphere → Repeat Purchase Intention		0.077	0.763	0.445	Not Supported
H8b: Luxetecture → Repeat Purchase Intention		0.365	3.767	***	Supported**
H8c: Luxescape → Repeat Purchase Intention	0.68	0.157	1.99	0.047	Supported*
H8d: Luxegovern → Repeat Purchase Intention		-0.064	0.455	0.455	Not Supported

Notes: * $p < 0.01$ and ** $p < 0.001$.

The structural equation model results showed that the r^2 value of the LFSE is 0.81, meaning that four dimensions of the LFSA (luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) caused 81% of the variation in the dependent variable, LFSE. Again, the overall variance explained 59% for the CSMP where the r^2 value was 0.59. The r^2 values were significantly large ($f^2 > 0.35$) according to the effect sizes for r^2 defined by Cohen (1988). Finally, the overall variance explained 68% for the RPIN where the r^2 value of 0.68 was significantly large (see Table 6.17).

6.11 Mediation Analysis

This study framed three hypotheses on mediation (H_7 and H_8) and moderation (H_9) analysis in the research model. The mediation analysis was formulated to evaluate the LFSE as a mediator in the relationship between the four dimensions of the LFSA and CSMP (see Figure 6.18) and the four dimensions of the LFSA and repeat purchase intention (see Figure 6.19).

6.11.1 Mediation Role of LFSE

The study analyses the mediated effect of the LFSE on the relationships between the four dimensions (luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) of the LFSA towards CSMP and RPIN. Figures 6.18 and 6.19 show the mediation process that considered LFSE as a mediator, LXMS, LXTC, LXSC and LXGN as independent variables, and CSMP as dependent variables. The LFSE also acts as a mediator in the relationship between the four dimensions of LFSA (i.e., LXMS, LXTC, LXSC and LXGN) and another dependent variable, PRIN (see Figure 6.20).

This study conducted a four-step regression method separately using process macro model 4 to measure the mediation effects. The mediation model tested the significance of the indirect effects and computed 500 bootstrapped samples and the 95% confidence interval. The direct, indirect and total effects are shown in Tables 6.18, 6.19 and 6.20. The two-tailed significance level was 0.01, suggesting the indirect and total effects for all the paths were statistically significant. Again, the direct effects on the relationship between LXTC and CSMP, LXSC and CSMP, LXMS and RPIN, and LXSC and RPIN were also significant. In this case, the mediation model test for H_9b , H_9c , H_{10a} and H_{10c} showed full mediation. Conversely, the direct effects for the relationship between LXMS and CSMP, LXGN and CSMP, LXTC and RPIN, and

LXGN and RPIN were insignificant. In this case, the mediation model test for H9a, H9d, H10b and H10d showed partial mediation (see Table 6.21).

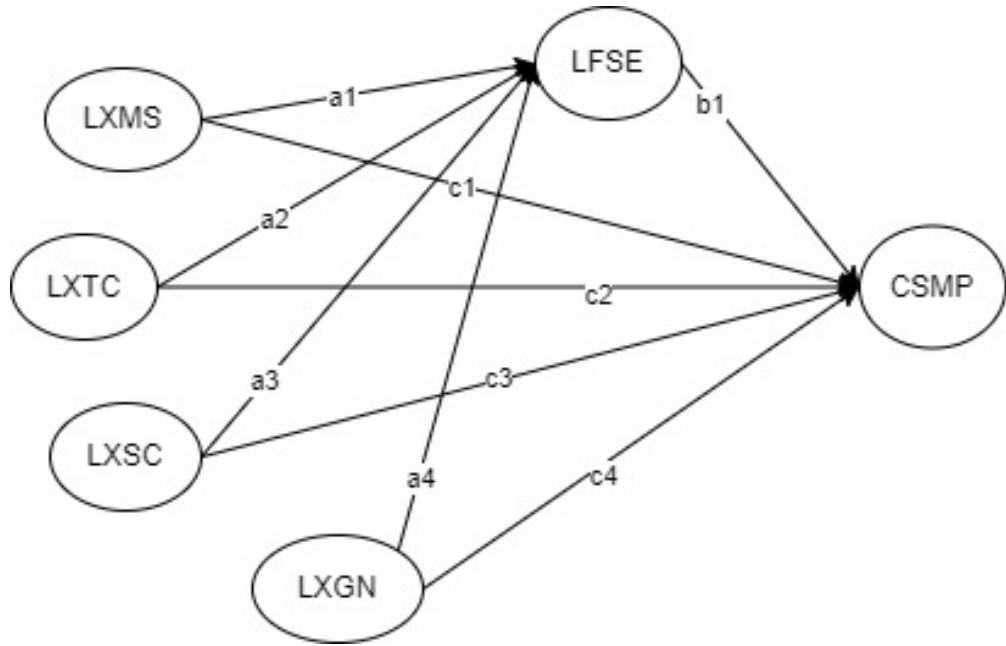


Figure 6.18 LFSE mediates relationships between the LFS dimensions and CSMP

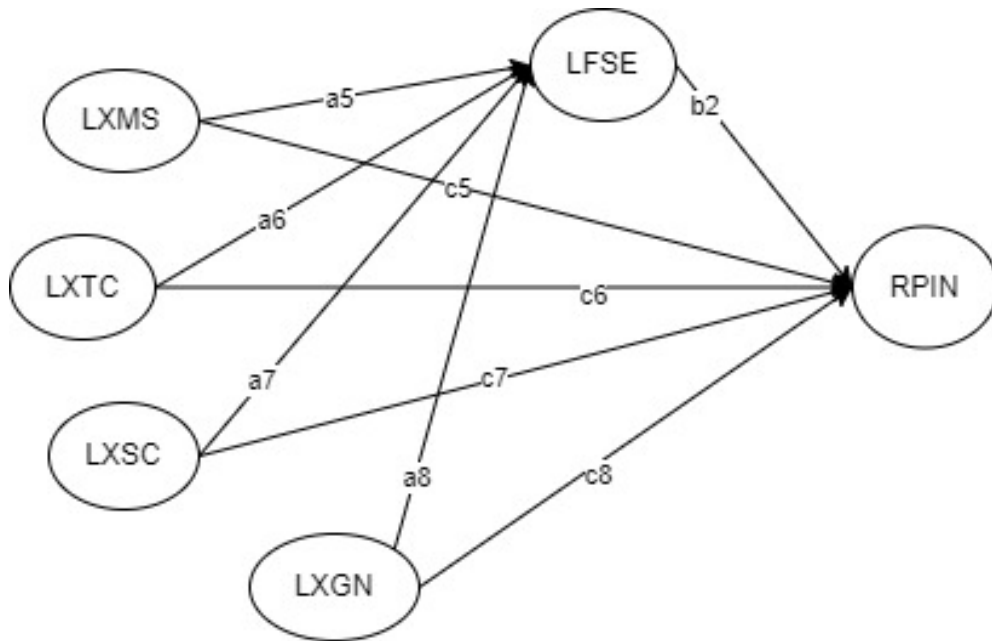


Figure 6.19 LFSE mediates relationships between the LFS dimensions and RPIN

Notes: LXMS = luxemosphere, LXTC = luxetecture, LXSC = luxescape, LXGN = luxegovern, LFSE = luxury flagship store experience, CSMP = customer social media participation, RPIN = repeat purchase intention.

Table 6.18 Direct effects (a, b, c)

Direct effect	r^2	β	SE	t	$p (< 0.01)$
LXMS \rightarrow LFSE (a1)	0.425	0.746	0.045	16.590	0.000
LXTC \rightarrow LFSE (a2)	0.396	0.629	0.035	15.610	0.000
LXSC \rightarrow LFSE (a3)	0.377	0.614	0.038	14.996	0.000
LXGN \rightarrow LFSE (a4)	0.382	0.618	0.038	15.154	0.000
LXMS \rightarrow CSMP (c1)	0.464	0.007	0.085	0.137	0.891
LXTC \rightarrow CSMP (c2)	0.218	0.467	0.060	10.187	0.000
LXSC \rightarrow CSMP (c3)	0.466	0.710	0.072	14.777	0.000
LXGN \rightarrow CSMP (c4)	0.464	0.018	0.066	0.373	0.709
LXMS \rightarrow LFSE (a5)	0.425	0.652	0.045	16.590	0.000
LXTC \rightarrow LFSE (a6)	0.396	0.629	0.035	15.610	0.000
LXSC \rightarrow LFSE (a7)	0.377	0.614	0.038	14.996	0.000
LXGN \rightarrow LFSE (a8)	0.382	0.618	0.038	15.154	0.000
LXMS \rightarrow RPIN (c5)	0.368	0.202	0.068	3.706	0.000
LXTC \rightarrow RPIN (c6)	0.348	-0.069	0.051	-1.29	0.199
LXSC \rightarrow RPIN (c7)	0.399	0.295	0.052	5.781	0.000
LXGN \rightarrow RPIN (c8)	0.351	0.097	0.054	1.828	0.068

Table 6.19 Indirect effects (a*b)

Indirect effects	Effects	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
LXMS \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow CSMP (a1*b1)	0.752	0.077	0.606	0.676
LXTC \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow CSMP (a2*b1)	0.524	0.050	0.427	0.623
LXSC \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow CSMP (a3*b1)	0.611	0.066	0.492	0.748
LXGN \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow CSMP (a4*b1)	0.570	0.060	0.357	0.516
LXMS \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow RPIN (a5*b2)	0.372	0.058	0.259	0.485
LXTC \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow RPIN (a6*b2)	0.378	0.042	0.295	0.463
LXSC \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow RPIN (a7*b2)	0.256	0.043	0.176	0.344
LXGN \rightarrow LFSE \rightarrow RPIN (a8*b2)	0.329	0.051	0.234	0.435

Table 6.20 Total effects (c+a*b)

Total effects	β	SE	t	$p (< 0.01)$	LLCI	ULCI
c1+a1*b1	0.746	0.079	9.671	0.000	0.609	0.919
c2+a2*b1	0.606	0.060	10.187	0.000	0.489	0.723
c3+a3*b1	0.544	0.067	8.135	0.000	0.413	0.676
c4+a4*b1	0.595	0.064	9.241	0.000	0.468	0.721
c5+a5*b2	0.624	0.056	3.706	0.000	0.514	0.735
c6+a6*b2	0.312	0.047	6.685	0.000	0.220	0.404
c6+a6*b2	0.560	0.045	12.509	0.000	0.472	0.648
c6+a6*b2	0.427	0.047	9.002	0.000	0.334	0.521

Table 6.21 Mediation effects of the structural model

Hypotheses	Paths	Total Effects	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Results
H9a	LXMS → LFSE → CSMP	Significant**	Not Significant	Significant* *	Full Mediation
H9b	LXTC → LFSE → CSMP	Significant**	Significant**	Significant* *	Partial Mediation
H9c	LXSC → LFSE → CSMP	Significant**	Significant**	Significant* *	Partial Mediation
H9d	LXGN → LFSE → CSMP	Significant**	Not Significant	Significant* *	Full Mediation
H10a	LXMS → LFSE → RPIN	Significant**	Significant**	Significant* *	Partial Mediation
H10b	LXTC → LFSE → RPIN	Significant**	Not Significant	Significant* *	Full Mediation
H10c	LXSC → LFSE → RPIN	Significant**	Significant**	Significant* *	Partial Mediation
H10d	LXGN → LFSE → RPIN	Significant**	Not Significant	Significant* *	Full Mediation

6.11.2 Post-hoc Analysis of the Mediation Role of CSMP

This study conducted a Post-hoc analysis of mediating role of the customer social media participation (CSMP) in the relationship between the luxury flagship store experience LFSE and repeat purchase intention (RPIN) to see whether (CSMP) plays any critical role or not. The research model shows that the CSMP and the RPIN are two outcomes of the LFSE. The researcher thought that there might be a mediating effect of the CSMP on the relationship between the LFSE and the RPIN. Thus, a post-hoc analysis was conducted using the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach to test the mediated role of CSMP on the relationship between the LFSE and the RPIN. Therefore, this research examined an additional hypothesis to test the mediated relationship between the LFSE and the RPIN via the CSMP (H11a), as shown in Figure 6.20. This study conducted a four-step regression method separately using process

macro model 4 to measure the mediation effects. The mediation model tested the significance of the indirect effects and computed 500 bootstrapped samples and the 95% confidence interval.

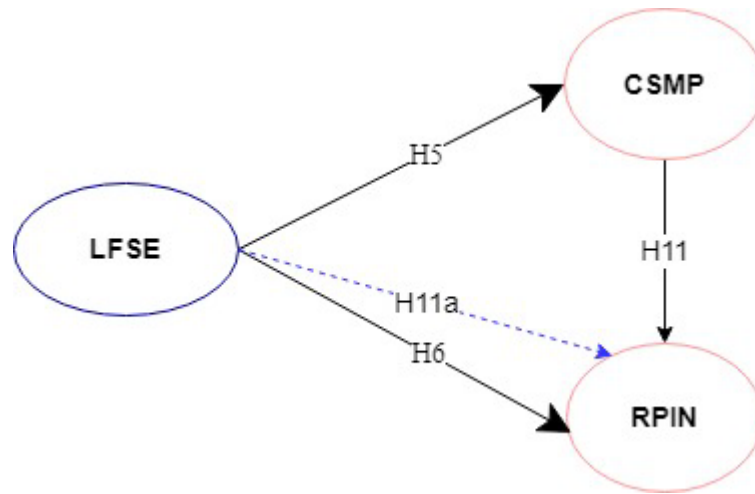


Figure 6.20 CSMP mediates the relationship between the LFSE and RPIN

The structural model results delivered a standardised beta (β) of 0.54, 0.64, and 0.10, respectively, for the direct, total and indirect effects in the mediated relationship between the LFSE and RPIN via CSMP (See Table 6.22). The direct and total effects of these path coefficients were significant at $p < 0.01$. However, the indirect effect was not significant. Thus, the mediating hypothesis (H11a) was not supported.

Table 6.22 Mediation effects of CSMP on RPIN

Particulars	r^2	β	SE	t	p -value	Results	LLCI	ULCI
H11: CSMP → RPIN	0.50	0.175		2.314	0.02	Supported*		
Direct Effect: LFSE → RPIN (H6)	0.35	0.54	0.06	8.73	.000		0.422	0.667
Total Effect: H5+H6)*H11		0.64	0.05	13.99	.000		0.552	0.733
Indirect Effect: LFSE →CSMP → RPIN (H5*H6)		0.10	0.06				0.012	0.206
Effects		Total		Direct	Indirect	Results		
H11a: LFSE → CSMP → RPIN		Significant**		Significant**	Not Significant	Not Supported		

6.12 Discussion and Chapter Summary

The principal objective of this chapter was to confirm the extended measurement items of the LFSE construct and the newly developed scale for the LFSA. The LFSE scale items were designed to measure the dimensions of situational, enduring and intellectual experience. Similarly, the LFSA scale items were designed to measure the dimensions of luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovernance, respectively. This chapter followed the extensive acceptable scale development process of Churchill (1979) that has also been tested and updated by prior studies. This chapter described the study's generation, refinement, purification and validation of items through EFA and CFA, confirmed the discriminant and convergent validity, examined the generalisability by measuring relationships with the behavioural indicators and ensured the scales' ability to measure the intended purpose.

The scale development process resulted in three dimensions for the LFSE: situational, intellectual and enduring. This result extended extant wisdom on the LFSE differing from the traditional brand experience and luxury brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; De Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). Further, this study proposed four dimensions for the LFSA: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. This result supported the qualitative research of Joy et al. (2014) and offered an additional dimension as luxegovern.

The chapter also assessed the relationships between the model constructs and tested six principal hypotheses. The chapter examined the effect of the mediator (LFSE) and moderator (channel preference) on the research model. This study successfully applied AMOS path modelling or covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) to estimate the parameters of the research model. The study results supported ten fundamental hypotheses (i.e., H1-6, H7b, H7c, H8b and H8c) and four (i.e., H7a, H7d, H8a and H8d) of the main effects model not supported. On the other hand, four hypotheses showed full mediation (i.e., H9b, H9c, H10a and H10c) and another four partial mediation (i.e., H9a, H9d, H10b and H10d) among the eight mediating hypotheses (H9a–H10d). Again, this research conducted a post-hoc analysis to test the mediated role of the CSMP on the relationship between the LFSE and RPIN. However, the results were not supported hypothesis H11a. Overall, this study validated the constructs' hypothesised relationships by applying predictive relevance and the GoF

Index. The implications of the results in terms of theory, methodology and practice are discussed exhaustively in Chapters 7 and 8.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL DISCUSSION

7.1 Chapter Introduction

Chapter 6 explained the data analysis and results of the conceptual extension of the LFSE and LFSA constructs (Study 1) and the scale items extension and development to measure the constructs (Study 2). The current chapter (Chapter 7) is a general discussion of the findings of the two studies. Notably, this chapter discusses the empirical findings to answer the predominant research questions and objectives, acknowledging research gaps in the literature. Also, the discussion focuses on interpreting the data analysis, extending the meaning of hypothetical relationships among the independent, mediating and dependent variables.

This study addresses three research questions to accomplish the five objectives. The five objectives are (1) conceptual extension of the LFSE and LFSA, (2) extension of the scale items used to measure the LFSE, (3) development and validation of the scales used to measure LFSA, (4) examine the impacts of LFSA dimensions on the LFSE and (5) investigate the effects of LFSE and LFSA on CSMP and RPIN. This study utilised theories and concepts related to experience, servicescape and relationship marketing to attain these objectives. This pioneering study in luxury branding research explores the dimensions of the two constructs, LFSE and LFSA, and models the effects on outcome constructs. The following sections discuss the empirical findings that support the theoretical relationships, the nature of the conceptual model and relevant hypotheses.

7.2 Conceptual Extensions of LFSE and LFSA

In this discussion chapter, the results of the Studies 1 and 2 are compared and contrasted with the existing literature. In conjunction with Objective 1, this study focuses on extending the concept of two constructs: LFSE and the LFSA. The LFSE and LFSA were treated as hierarchical constructs and operationalised as the second-order reflective model, based on the theoretical concepts and qualitative findings. The study used CFA to estimate the second-order latent variables and confirmed adequate measurement and structural properties. The CB-SEM approach using AMOS v.25 path

modelling was applied in developing and validating the second-order LFSE and LFSA constructs.

7.2.1 Dimensions of the LFSE

The results showed that the LFSE is a second-order, hierarchical construct formed by all the apparent variables of the underlying three first-order dimensions (i.e., situational, enduring and intellectual). The findings affirmed that situational experience has the highest absolute importance ($\alpha = 0.932$) concerning luxury flagship store experience, followed by enduring experience (0.924) and intellectual experience (0.914; see Table 6.14a). The relationship between LFSE dimensions is discussed in the following sections with their empirical and theoretical insights.

Situational experience: The empirical findings (see Figure 6.13) confirmed the absolute importance of situational experience as a significant dimension of LFSE. The results of the second-order reflective model indicated that the LFSE explained 40% of overall variance (r^2) in situational experience. This result represents the situational experience as an integral component of the LFSE. The extant literature on consumer psychology, consumer behaviour and customer experience (e.g., Hull et al., 1996; Richins et al., 1992; Stein & Ramaseshan, 2016, 2020; Thomson et al., 2005; Zaichkowsky, 1985) explained customers' emotions, appraisal and involvement; customer experience was particularly contextual or situational (Lemke et al., 2011). Therefore, the results are consistent with the earlier studies.

It is evident from the findings that situational experience consists of sensory and affective aspects of experience. This situational experience occurs while customers respond to the layout, colours, lighting, music, scents, visuals (Stein & Ramaseshan, 2016), calmness, excitement and dullness (Hull et al., 1992; Stewart & Hull, 1992) of a luxury flagship store. However, the situational experience differs from the dimensions of the existing product, brand and shopping experiences. The extant literature on product experience (e.g., Hoch, 2002; Mano & Oliver, 1993), brand experience (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009) or luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) and shopping or service experience (e.g., Puccinelli et al., 2009) were investigated. The existing literature demonstrated that sensory and affective experiences are the two separate dimensions of customer experience. In contrast, the current study proposed situational experience as an individual dimension of the LFSE,

combining the components of sensory and affective aspects of customer experience. Overall, the findings support situational experience as a significant dimension of overall LFSE, integrating *elation, enjoyment, smell, gleeful, sophistication, fascination* as the salient components of customer–luxury flagship store interaction in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Enduring experience: The empirical findings confirmed enduring experience as another significant dimension of the LFSE that explained 35% of overall LFSE variance (r^2). This connotation highlights that enduring experience is the second most crucial dimension among the three first-order components of the LFSE. The findings indicate that the LFSE is long-lasting (McIntyre, 1989), durable (Morse & Carter, 1996) and relates customers to the status of a luxury flagship store (Zaichkowsky, 1986). The findings redirect the concept of enduring involvement investigated by Richins et al. (1992). Enduring involvement refers to a long-running concern with a product (Richins et al., 1992), whereas enduring experiences are the long-running responses to a luxury flagship store. The findings reflect the social (Verhoef et al., 2009), lifestyle and relational (Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999a) components of customer experience.

The enduring experience focuses on the customers' personality, status, lifestyle and the social aspects of the experiences that occur through interacting with a luxury flagship store (Huang, 2006), which sustain for an extended period. The findings are consistent with the only existing research on luxury brand experience that investigated social experience as a separate dimension of luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). However, the results differ from the brand experience research of Brakus et al. (2009). Moreover, the behavioural dimension of brand experience did not emerge as any dimension of the LFSE. The consumers' perception to engage in physical actions did not represent a resource attained from the LFSE.

Overall, the findings support enduring experience as a significant dimension of the overall LFSE. Enduring experience comprises *assimilation with luxury customers, dissimilation with mass customers, social status, representation of personality and lifestyle* as the salient components of customer–luxury flagship store interaction in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Intellectual experience: The study results supported intellectual experience as another significant dimension of the LFSE by explaining 31% of the variance (r^2). This relative prominence of intellectual experience entails the thinking or knowledge about the heritage, authenticity and rich history associated with a luxury brand (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) or a flagship store. This experiential dimension connects the conscious mental process of engaging consumers in thinking or problem solving (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999a) as luxury customers aspire to learn (Chang, 2018) about the product, brand and history. Therefore, the findings are consistent with the previous studies on brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009) and luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019).

Overall, the empirical findings support intellectual experience as one of the significant dimensions of the LFSE. The intellectual dimension involves engaging customers' minds: *learning new knowledge* (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) and *thinking, curious and problem-solving* (Brakus et al., 2009) are the salient components of customer–luxury flagship store interaction in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Finally, the LFSE dimensions were assessed through a three-factor structure: situational, enduring and intellectual. The situational dimension may include some components of sensory and affective experiences suggested for brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009) and luxury value composition (Gentile et al., 2007). Conversely, the enduring dimension contains some elements of lifestyle, social and relational experiences proposed in experiential marketing (Schmitt, 1999a) and luxury value composition (Gentile et al., 2007). However, these responses vary in intensity, context and parties involved in receiving and delivering experiences. In the case of the intellectual dimension, the components are replicated from the brand experience suggested by Brakus et al. (2009).

7.2.2 Dimensions of the LFSA Construct

The second-order, hierarchical LFSA construct was reflected through all the manifest variables of the corresponding first-order dimensions, including luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. The findings affirmed that luxescape ($\alpha = 0.902$) has the highest importance concerning LFSA, followed by luxegovern ($\alpha = 0.875$), luxemosphere ($\alpha = 0.854$) and luxetecture ($\alpha = 0.848$; see Table 6.14b).

The relationship between the LFSA dimensions is discussed in the following sections with their empirical and theoretical insights.

Luxemosphere: The empirical findings (see Figure 6.15) confirmed the absolute importance of the luxemosphere as a significant dimension of LFSA. The results of the second-order reflective model indicated that the LFSA explained 77% of overall variance (r^2) in the luxemosphere. This result represents the luxemosphere as an integral component of the LFSA. Luxemosphere denotes the luxury atmosphere, which is an extension of the concept “atmospherics” proposed by Kotler (1973) as the critical element of a luxury flagship store format (Arrigo, 2018). Several studies in retailing, branding and luxury fashion (e.g., Arrigo, 2018; Backstrom & Johansson, 2006; Bonnin & Goudey, 2012; Morrison et al., 2011) accepted atmosphere as an essential element of store attributes. However, the extant literature does not specify the particular elements of atmospherics that are LFSA. The sole qualitative research (i.e., Joy et al., 2014) on a Louis Vuitton flagship store proposed luxemosphere as an extension of traditional store atmospherics applicable to a luxury flagship store. Therefore, the findings are relevant to the previous studies but an extension of the qualitative findings of Joy et al. (2014).

In contrast with the traditional store atmospherics, this study’s findings suggest that the luxemosphere focuses on creating a store environment capable of offering a perfect customer experience, not on selling products. Luxemosphere refers to the prominent and fabulous universe created by luxury flagship stores (Joy et al., 2014; Gibson & Carmichael, 1996; Okonkwo, 2010). However, there is no empirical evidence on the dimensions of LFSA. Based on the study findings, the current research proposes that luxemosphere is a significant dimension of the overall LFSA. Overall, the findings support the luxemosphere dimension by incorporating *artistic ambience*, *classy colour*, *aromatic fragrance*, *pleasant music*, *beautiful lighting*, *glamorous design* and *sophisticated decoration* as the salient components of the LFSA in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Luxetecture: The empirical findings confirmed luxetecture as another significant dimension of the LFSA that explained 56% of overall LFSA variance (r^2). This connotation highlights that luxetecture has significant importance as a first-order component of the LFSA. Luxetecture symbolises luxury architecture, a specialised form of store architecture for a luxury flagship store. The extant literature of luxury

fashion often used architecture as one of the essential facets of “the language of a flagship” (e.g., Moore & Doherty, 2007; Nobbs et al., 2012). The store architecture reflects a luxury fashion brand’s design and visual appearance (Kirby & Kent, 2010).

In the case of a luxury flagship store, architecture focuses mainly on the experiential values through communicating the luxury brand symbolically (Raffelt et al., 2013). Again, the architectural dimension of LFSA is exceptional and compliant with sustainable standards, contributing to making manifest the brand identity (Kirby & Kent, 2010; Riewoldt, 2002). Therefore, the findings are consistent with the extant studies on retailing and fashion marketing. However, no empirical evidence extended the traditional store architecture toward the luxury flagship store architecture to measure the LFSA. Based on the findings, the current study proposes that *luxecture* is a significant dimension of the overall LFSA by integrating *museological artefacts*, *landscapes of heritage*, *digital amenities*, *interactive display*, and *digital trial* as the salient components of the LFSA in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Luxescape: The study results supported *luxescape* as another significant dimension of LFSA, explaining 48% of the variance (r^2). This association strongly supports the *luxescape* as an integral dimension of LFSA. *Luxescape* refers to the curational attention and impeccable employee service in a physical outlet of a luxury flagship store (Joy et al., 2014; Okonkwo, 2007). The extant literature on retailing (e.g., Bitner, 1992) and luxury fashion research (e.g., Kim et al., 2016) describe the store services as the combination of personal interaction, physical aspect, store policy, reliability and problem-solving facilities provided in a physical store, termed the “*servicescape*”. In contrast to the previous literature, this study focused on the personnel aspects of a luxury flagship store to describe the *luxescape*, aligning with the qualitative research of Joy et al. (2014). However, no empirical evidence on the *luxescape* was found in the extant literature measuring LFSA.

Based on the findings, the current study proposes the *luxescape* as a significant dimension of the overall LFSA by incorporating *personal attention*, *customised assistance*, *delivering comfortable service*, *passion for fulfilling customer needs*, *respect*, *offering helpful advice* and *flawless service* as the salient components of the LFSA in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

Luxegovern: The study findings supported luxegovern as another significant dimension of LFSA, explaining 57% of overall LFSA variance (r^2). This relationship strongly supports luxegovern as a separate dimension of LFSA similar to the other three dimensions. Luxegovern denotes the customs, policies and practices of a luxury flagship store. The policies and practices have been described as an integral part of a physical store's overall attributes (e.g., Hui & Bateson, 1991; Kerin et al., 1992). Therefore, the components of luxegovern are found in the extant literature as overall store attributes, not as a separate dimension of a store's attributes. However, the existing literature has no empirical evidence measuring the luxegovern in LFSA. Based on the findings, this study proposes that luxegovern is a significant dimension of the overall LFSA, incorporating *entry barriers for mass people, unwelcome casual attires, space for limited shoppers, guest greeting to customers* and *employee dressed grandeur outfits* as the salient components of the LFSA in the context of the luxury flagship clothing industry in Australia.

7.3 Extension and Development of LFSE and LFSA Scale Items

This study attempted to extend and develop the multidimensional and hierarchical constructs of LFSE and its driver, LFSA, corresponding to research Objectives 2 and 3. The qualitative study findings and theoretical underpinnings supported their operationalisation as a reflective second-order mode. The widely accepted scale development process of Churchill (1979) was followed to extend, develop and validate the scale items to measure the dimensions of LFSE and LFSA constructs. Therefore, the following sections (Sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2) discuss the extension, development and validation of the scale items to measure LFSE (i.e., Objective 2) and LFSA (i.e., Objective 3).

7.3.1 Extension of LFSE Scale Items

This study extended the research of Brakus et al. (2009) and de Kerviler and Rodriguez (2019) to investigate LFSE dimensions. De Kerviler and Rodriguez (2019) extended the brand experience dimensions developed by Brakus et al. (2009) in the luxury brand experience context using millennial customers. The current study extended both brand experience and luxury brand experience dimensions for the LFSE using millennial and non-millennial customers. This study reviewed extant literature on customer experience (Gentile et al., 2007), product and brand experiences (Brakus et al., 2009;

Hoch & Ha, 1986), consumption or use experience (Carù & Cova, 2003; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), lifestyle service experience and shopping experience (Arnould & Price, 1993; Grewal et al., 2009; Hui & Bateson, 1991) to generate initial scale items. The initial items were reviewed by luxury brand experts and purified, refined and validated using a series of quantitative surveys followed by in-depth interviews and social media content analysis.

This research identified the LFSE as a second-order construct consisting of three first-order latent variables (i.e., situational experience, enduring experience and intellectual experience), containing 17 evident items altogether (see Table 6.16a). Thus, the LFSE construct was measured using all 17 underlying first-order latent variables items to create primary loadings and the second-order latent variable (see Figure 6.13). Similar to the previous research (Brakus et al., 2009; de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019), this study investigated intellectual experience as one of the essential dimensions of the LFSE, having four measurable items. However, this research recognised two items of brand experience (BExp) construct contextualised to measure LFSE (i.e., items no. 2 and 4). Conversely, another two items were similar to items used in the luxury brand experience (LuxBExp) construct (i.e., items no. 1 and 3), shown in Table 7.1. The other two dimensions of the LFSE extended in this study were situational and enduring experiences, which were not found in the extant customer experience research. However, the nature and meaning of the components of these dimensions redirect the research of Richins et al. (1992). The situational experience reflects the temporary sensory pleasure and feelings (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Richins et al., 1992) accompanying a particular situation (Richins et al., 1992). Thus, the situational experience dimension combines the scale items used in sensory and affective dimensions employed by Brakus et al. (2009) and de Kerviler and Rodriguez (2019). This study recognised seven scale items to measure the situational experience.

Moreover, luxury brand experience research (i.e., de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) used four items each to measure sensory and affective dimensions. However, three items of sensory and affective dimensions had similar meanings. In contrast, the current study found more intense feelings and emotional components as two more situational scale items to measure the LFSE construct (see Table 7.1). The enduring experience refers to the long-running responses to a luxury flagship store. The enduring experience dimension was not found in the existing product and brand

experience research (i.e., Brakus et al., 2009; Hoch & Ha, 1986) nor any other form. However, the research on shopping and luxury brand experience investigated different enduring experience components and termed it differently, such as lifestyle, relational or social experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019; Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999a). De Kerviler and Rodriguez (2019) explored four scale items to measure the social dimension of luxury brand experience. The enduring experience dimension in the current study imitated three items from the previous study and extended three more items to measure the LFSE. However, one item was not recognised as a component of enduring experience due to its behavioural characteristics. Finally, Brakus et al. (2009) considered the behavioural dimension as a different brand experience dimension, which has not been investigated either in luxury brand experience research or this current research on LFSE.

Table 7.1 Contextualised and extended items of LFSE

Dimensions	BExp Scale Items (Brakus et al., 2009)	LuxBExp Scale Items (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019)	LFSE Scale Items (Current Study)
Situational	<p><i>Sensory:</i></p> <p>(1) This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.</p>	<p><i>Sensory:</i></p> <p>(2) This brand makes an impression on at least one of my senses: smell, sound, sight, taste and touch.</p>	<p>(2) I enjoy the pleasant music in the store.</p> <p>(3) I like the lovely fragrance in the store.</p> <p>(5) I am amazed with the visual display of the luxury store.</p> <p>(7) I feel the sophisticated touch in the store.</p>
	<p>(2) I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.</p> <p>(2) This brand does not appeal to my senses (<i>reverse coded</i>).</p>	<p>(1) This brand appeals to my senses.</p> <p>(1) This brand has a sensory appeal.</p> <p>(1) I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.</p>	<p>(6) I find the store fascinating in a sensory way.</p>
	<p><i>Affective:</i></p> <p>(1) This brand induces feelings and sentiments.</p>	<p><i>Affective:</i></p> <p>(1) This brand induces feelings and sentiments.</p> <p>(1) This brand is affective.</p> <p>(3) I have feelings for this brand.</p>	<p>(1) I feel elated visiting this store.</p>
	<p>(2) This brand is an emotional brand.</p> <p>(2) I do not have strong emotions for this brand (<i>reverse coded</i>).</p>	<p>(2) I have emotions for this brand.</p>	<p>(4) I feel gleeful visiting this store.</p>

Dimensions	BExp Scale Items (Brakus et al., 2009)	LuxBExp Scale Items (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019)	LFSE Scale Items (Current Study)
Intellectual	(1) I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand. (1) The brand does not make me think (<i>reverse coded</i>).		(4) I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this luxury flagship.
	(2) This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving.	(1) This brand invites me to discover new things. (2) This brand encourages me to explore new things.	(2) This luxury flagship store stimulates my curiosity and helps solve problems.
		(3) This brand encourages my learning.	(3) I learn a lot while shopping in this luxury flagship.
		(4) I had the desire to advance my knowledge with this brand.	(1) This luxury flagship store makes me more knowledgeable.
Enduring		(1) This brand improves the way society views me.	(4) I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store.
		(2) Owning this brand allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.	(6) Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am.
		(3) This brand has a positive impact on what others think of me.	(2) Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me.
		(4) I like to be seen owning this brand.	
			(1) Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community. (3) Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers.

Dimensions	BExp Scale Items (Brakus et al., 2009)	LuxBExp Scale Items (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019)	LFSE Scale Items (Current Study)
			(7) I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store.

Note: (number) indicates the sequence of items used to measure the dimensions of the constructs

7.3.2 Development of LFSA Scale Items

This study attempted to develop scale items to measure the dimensions of LFSA. It used qualitative research on a luxury brand store (i.e., Joy et al., 2014) to develop scale items for the different dimensions of LFSA. Joy et al. conducted an ethnographic study on a single brand store and proposed six dimensions of a luxury brand store: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxearth foundation, (de)luxe, luxescape and luxedesigners. The current study used the widely accepted scale development process of Churchill (1979) to develop scale items for the four dimensions of LFSA using 12 luxury flagship stores. This study reviewed extant literature on luxury brand stores (Joy et al., 2014), luxury retailing (Dion & Arnould, 2011; Klein et al., 2016) and luxury fashion flagship stores (Arrigo, 2018; Dolbec & Chebat, 2013) to generate initial scale items. These items were reviewed by luxury brand experts and purified, refined and validated using a series of quantitative surveys followed by in-depth interviews and social media content analysis.

This research identified the LFSA as a second-order construct consisting of four first-order latent variables containing 29 evident items altogether (see Table 6.16b). Thus, the LFSA construct was measured using all 29 underlying first-order latent variables to create primary loadings and the second-order latent variables (see Figure 6.15). The empirical findings of this research show similar dimensions to the base paper by Joy et al. (2014), with some additions and deductions. The current study did not find any dimensions related to luxearth foundation, (de)luxe and luxedesigners. However, this research recognised one additional dimension, namely luxegovern, along with luxemosphere, luxetecture and luxescape (i.e., luxeservices). This study identified seven measurement scale items for the luxemosphere to measure the LFSA construct. Similar to Baker et al. (1994), the findings supported two scale items under the luxemosphere dimension. The findings also extend the research of Dion and Arnould (2011) and Joy et al. (2014) through identifying two scale items using two components, “artistic ambience” and “glamorous decoration” found in their qualitative studies. Finally, the three other scale items were found as newly developed items in this research to measure luxemosphere (see Table 7.2).

Table 7.2 Developed and validated scale items of LFSA

Dimensions	Existing Scale Items/Components	Source	LFSA Scale Items (Current Study)
Luxemospher	Artistic ambience	Dion & Arnould, 2011	(1) This luxury flagship store creates an artistic ambience.
	The colour scheme was pleasing.	Baker et al., 1994	(2) ... exhibits sophisticated colour schemes
	The background music in this store was pleasant.		(4) ... plays pleasant music
			(3) ... has a pleasant fragrance
			(6) ... has beautiful lighting
			(5) ... articulates sophisticated design
	Glamorous decoration	Joy et al., 2014	(7) ... exhibits glamorous decoration
Luxefecture			(1) This luxury flagship store facilitates with a useful digital trial mirror.
			(2) ... has interactive digital touch screen displays
		Joy et al., 2014	(3) ... presents museological artefacts
			(4) ... exhibits landscape heritage
			(5) ... has appealing digital amenities

Dimensions	Existing Scale Items/Components	Source	LFSA Scale Items (Current Study)
Luxescape	The employees give customers personal attention.	Dong & Siu, 2013	(1) The employees of the luxury flagship store give personal attention to customers.
	The employees are passionate.		(4) ... are passionate toward fulfilling customers' needs
			(2) ... provide customised assistance
			(3) ... help customers to feel comfortable
			(5) ... are respectful toward customers
			(6) ... provide useful advice
			(7) ... offer flawless service
Luxegovern		Baker et al., 1994; Dong & Siu, 2013	(1) The employees act as gatekeepers to create an entry barrier.
			(2) ... intimidate customers who wear casual dress
			(3) ... manage queues to enable only limited shoppers in the store
			(4) ... greet customers like a guest
	The employees are neat and gracefully dressed.		(5) ... wear grand attire

The second essential dimension of LFSA is luxetecture, which has five scale items developed and validated by this study. There is no previous study that investigated LFSA. The sole qualitative paper Joy et al. (2014) investigated several components of luxetecture, mentioning the elements of museum architecture. The empirical findings of this study extended the components into five new scale items to measure the luxetecture dimension of LFSA. The third dimension of LFSA found in this study is luxescape. The empirical findings relate the luxescape components with employee services, similar to the previous studies on retailing (Baker et al., 1994), tourism (Dong & Siu, 2013; Taheri et al., 2020) and luxury brands (Lunardo & Mouangue, 2019). However, the current study findings differ from the existing research focusing on the different traits of employee services. The empirical findings supported the luxescape dimension, extending and adding several traits of luxury flagship stores' employee services and developing seven scale items.

Finally, the empirical findings of the current research propose a new dimension, 'luxegovern', with five corresponding scale items. The components of the scale items have reflected the policies, practices, customs and decorum of the luxury flagship store. These components have partly supported the studies of Hui and Bateson (1991) and Kerin et al. (2002), which were focused on the return and after-sales service policies. However, the current study findings differ, focusing on the policies, practices and decorum of the store visit behaviour and guest-curator protocols.

7.4 Drivers and Consequences of the LFSE Construct

The qualitative study (Study 1) revealed the particular drivers and consequences of the LFSE (see Table 4.3). Study 1 explored four key drivers of LFSE: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. The qualitative findings revealed that CSMP and RPIN are the two critical consequences of the LFSE. The four dimensions of the LFSA generated 38 key components in Study 1; among them, luxemosphere produced 12 components, luxetecture 9, luxescape 10 and luxegovern 7. The luxemosphere is considered the foremost driver of LFSE, followed by luxescape, luxetecture and luxegovern.

The luxemosphere elements such as aroma, music, lighting and colour generate multi-sensory perceptions and influence the LFSE. The luxemosphere driver significantly influences the emotional and sensory experiences. Similarly, the

luxetecture elements comprise design and visual appeal, stimulating the ability to generate a visual experience of a luxury flagship store. Finally, the overall environment of a luxury flagship store, including the substantive artistic creations, luxury objects, retail services and store governance, influences the LFSE.

The qualitative study findings revealed two outcome constructs: CSMP and RPIN. Influenced by the four dimensions of LFSA, the LFSE produced experiential responses in the customers, such as participation in social media favouring the luxury flagship store, visiting the store and purchasing products from that store repeatedly. The four dimensions of the LFSA (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) converge to an intense experience for customers that confers a consumer-brand relationship between customers and the luxury flagship store. This relationship extends through consumers' interaction on social media and repeated purchases.

7.5 Hypothesised Relationships among LFSE, LFSA and their Consequences

This research examined the relationships between the LFSE and its corresponding drivers (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and consequences (i.e., CSMP and RPIN). The relationships between the constructs were assessed by testing 14 (fourteen) hypotheses to accomplish the research objectives. The outcome of the hypotheses test results is discussed below.

This study's findings revealed significant statistical proof to support a positive relationship between luxemosphere and LFSE (**H1**). The SEM found a significant association between the luxemosphere and the outcome construct LFSE ($\beta = 0.276$, $t = 3.939$). So, it is evident that the luxemosphere helps produce the LFSE for the shoppers or visitors. More precisely, the data contend that improving the luxemosphere will enhance the situational experience of a luxury flagship store. Previous studies also support that luxemosphere elements such as aroma, music, lighting and colour generate multi-sensory perceptions (Shapiro & Spence, 2002; Turley & Chebat, 2002; Turley & Milliman, 2000) and affect the LFSE (Verhoef et al., 2009). Therefore, the findings of this study are relevant to the previous studies. Similarly, the SEM findings supported a positive relationship between luxetecture and LFSE (**H2**), luxescape and LFSE (**H3**) and luxegovern and LFSE (**H4**). Luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern were significantly associated with the LFSE, with a β of 0.349, 0.286 and 0.160, respectively. The extant literature also supported that the luxetecture elements such as

design and visual appeal (Kirby & Kent, 2010) influence the ability to generate a visual experience of a luxury flagship store (Arrigo, 2018). Subsequently, luxury flagship store services and governance affect the LFSE (Borghini et al., 2009; Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Hollenbeck et al., 2008; Kozinets et al., 2002).

The SEM findings support the hypothesised relationship (**H5**) between the LFSE and CSMP. The coefficient of association between the LFSE and CSMP ($\beta = 1.330$) and the corresponding t-value ($t = 6.548$) infer a significant positive relationship between the LFSE and CSMP. It also specifies the positive role of the LFSE on CSMP, which proposes that the LFSE reliefs to enhance CSMP. In other words, an increase in the LFSE in terms of situational, intellectual and enduring experience enables a luxury flagship store to increase customers' participation in social media sites. This finding is also supported by the previous studies of Achille et al. (2018), Childers et al. (2001) and Tynan et al. (2010). Likewise, the findings support the hypothesised relationship (**H6**) between the LFSE and RPIN. The coefficient of association between the LFSE and RPIN ($\beta = 0.869$) and the corresponding t-value ($t = 5.753$) infer a significant positive relationship between the LFSE and RPIN. This result stipulates the positive role of the LFSE on the RPIN and infers that a higher degree of LFSE enables a higher frequency of RPIN. This finding is also supported by the previous studies of Shukla et al. (2016).

Furthermore, the empirical findings also support the hypothesised relationships between luxetecture and CSMP (**H7b**), luxescape and CSMP (**H7c**), luxetecture and RPIN (**H8b**) and luxescape and RPIN (**H8c**). The results specify that luxetecture is associated with CSMP and RPIN, with a β of -0.235 and -0.365 , respectively (see Table 6.18). Similarly, the results stipulate that luxetecture is significantly associated with the CSMP and luxescape is associated substantially with RPIN with a β of -0.214 and 0.157 , respectively (see Table 6.18). The statistical results infer that the elements of luxetecture and luxescape influence the impact of CSMP and RPIN. Previous studies on luxury retailing (e.g., Cole & Chancellor, 2009; Ettis, 2017; Loiacono et al., 2007; Okonkwo, 2009) also support the current study findings.

Conversely, the findings do not support relationships between the luxemosphere and CSMP (**H7a**), luxegovern and CSMP (**H7d**), luxemosphere and RPIN (**H8a**) and luxegovern and RPIN (**H8d**). The statistical results show that luxemosphere and luxegovern do not influence CSMP and RPIN in the case of a luxury

flagship store. The luxury customers' engagement on social media depends on the solid relationship between consumers and the brand (An et al., 2019). This relationship becomes stronger through availing excellent service from a store, thereby influencing customers to express responses on social media to voice opinions and recommend to other customers (Ismail & Spinelli, 2012). However, customers participate in social media and intend to purchase repeatedly when the store delivers social or personal values to customers (e.g., Park et al., 2021). Therefore, social characteristics of a physical store, such as media technologies elements of store architecture (Ha et al., 2014) and service quality of employees (Sands et al., 2011), allow customers to interact on social media and positively influence repeat purchase intention. On this ground, the current study assumed luxemosphere and luxegovern could not affect CSMP and RPIN due to the lack of delivering personal or social values to customers. These two dimensions comprise a store environment's physical setting and factors that mainly create a situational experience (Bitner, 1992; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Consequently, the luxemosphere and luxegovern provide specifically functional values to customers and cannot influence social media participation and repeat purchase intention. Thus, these may be the possible reasons to reject hypotheses H7a, H7d, H8a and H8d in the luxury flagship store context.

Finally, this study analysed the mediating effect of the LFSE on the relationships between the four dimensions of the LFSA (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and CSMP and RPIN. The study results supported the main effects model's six fundamental hypotheses (H7a–H8d) and the mediating hypotheses (**H9a–H10d**). Overall, this study validated the hypothesised relationships among the constructs by applying predictive relevance and the GoF Index.

7.6 Conclusion and Chapter Summary

This chapter delivered a general discussion on the results revealed in Studies 1 and 2. It also discussed previous studies in the literature supporting the findings from both the qualitative (Study 1) and the quantitative (Study 2) data analysis. Thus, the chapter offers a better understanding of the phenomenon of LFSE in terms of its dimensions and explores the drivers of LFSE and the consequences. The interpretations of the findings have been carried out to support the research objectives and the related hypotheses. It was found that the LFSE consists of three dimensions: situational,

intellectual and enduring, whereas the LFSA comprises four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern.

Furthermore, the corresponding four dimensions of the LFSA directly influence the LFSE. Finally, the LFSE and two of the four dimensions of LFSA influence CSMP and RPIN. The findings of Studies 1 and 2 possess critical theoretical, methodological and managerial implications, which are discussed in Chapter 8 (Conclusion), ending with an overview of the contributions of this research, its limitations and future research directions.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Chapter Introduction

The previous chapters described the conceptual extension of the constructs (Chapter 4), theoretical underpinnings and conceptual model (Chapter 5), scale development and validation to measure the constructs and test of hypothesised relationships (Chapter 6). This concluding chapter begins with an overview of the thesis. The overview is followed by a discussion of the research's contributions to theory development, methodological contributions, and managerial implications. Finally, the challenges and limitations of the research are discussed, with recommendations made for directions in future research.

8.2 Overview of the Study

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the current study. The chapter initially discussed the research problem, its rationale and objectives, followed by the specification of the research questions as they apply to the luxury flagship clothing industry. The chapter then presented the research methodology regarding the research paradigm, research method, sampling, scaling, and data analysis techniques. The chapter also outlined the study's contributions in terms of theory, methodology and practice. Finally, the chapter presented the structure of the thesis by briefly outlining the eight chapters and defining the key terms used.

Therefore, a conceptual extension of the LFSE and an investigation of its corresponding dimensions, drivers and consequences are warranted. To investigate the manifestation of the LFSE in terms of the research questions and conform to five research objectives, two research studies were conducted: Study 1 and Study 2. Before conducting these studies, a comprehensive literature review was undertaken to collate the existing knowledge on customer experience domains, including the drivers and consequences of customer experience.

The extant literature review (Chapter 2) revealed that studies on the LFSE domain are mainly subjective and disjointed. Therefore, the different domains of the customer experience literature were examined expansively in this study and linked with LFSA, LFSE and their two consequences: CSMP and RPIN. Additionally, this

chapter discussed the relevant theories used in the extant customer experience literature, which helped the investigation of the theoretical underpinnings of the current study (Chapter 5). Overall, the literature review identified some crucial findings and gaps, which became the basis for the conceptual extension of the constructs (i.e., LFSE, LFSA, CSMP and RPIN) and the preliminary research model. The literature review provided a solid basis for pursuing Study 1 (Chapter 4) and Study 2 (Chapter 6).

A detailed qualitative study is outlined in Chapter 4. The purpose of the qualitative study was the conceptual extension of the two constructs (i.e., LFSE and LFSA) and their corresponding dimensions, drivers and consequences. The qualitative study was conducted by interviewing 20 postgraduate students and staff of a Western Australian university who had previous experience visiting or shopping from a luxury flagship store. Content analysis of social media posts in the Twitter account of 12 luxury flagship stores was conducted simultaneously with the in-depth interviews. Study 1 found that the LFSE consists of contextual, intellectual and substantial dimensions, integrating 15 unique salient components identified from in-depth interviews and social media content analysis. Similarly, LFSA comprise four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern, integrating 30 unique salient components. In addition, the results revealed that luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern are the key drivers of the LFSE, and CSMP and RPIN are the two significant consequences.

This study piloted the detailed theoretical underpinnings and established hypotheses in Chapter 5. Then, a comprehensive final research model was developed, comparing the preliminary research model (Chapter 2) and Study 1 findings (Chapter 4). This research model and its corresponding hypotheses were justified in light of the MEC theory of Gutman (1982) and the IPR theory of Fournier (1998). The final research model was examined through empirical validation by the quantitative study in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6 describes the quantitative study (Study 2) in detail. Using the findings of Study 1, Study 2 identified three dimensions for the LFSE and four dimensions for the LFSA constructs. A series of quantitative surveys were conducted in Study 2 to collect the data, and the results were validated using various reliability and validity tests. Study 2 findings revealed that the LFSE construct consists of three

dimensions: situational (seven items), intellectual (four items) and enduring (six items), comprising 17 items altogether. Similarly, the LFSA construct contains four dimensions: luxemosphere (seven items), luxetecture (five items), luxescape (seven items) and luxegovern (five items), confirming 24 items altogether. The final research model consisted of the LFSE construct; four dimensions of the LFSE were considered drivers, and CSMP and RPIN were considered outcome constructs. The collected data were analysed using the CB-SEM technique employing AMOS v.25. Then, the SEM analysis was performed by assessing the measurement and structural models. Finally, the structural model was refined and evaluated by ensuring items' reliability and validity.

Chapter 7 provided a general discussion on the results revealed in Studies 1 and 2. It also discussed the support from the literature in favour of the findings from Studies 1 and 2. Thus, the chapter offered a better understanding of the phenomenon of LFSE in terms of its dimensions and explored the drivers and consequences. The interpretation of the findings was carried out to support the research objectives and related hypotheses. It was found that the LFSE consists of three dimensions: situational, intellectual and enduring, whereas LFSA comprise four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. Moreover, the corresponding four dimensions of LFSA directly influence the LFSE. Furthermore, the LFSE and two out of four dimensions of LFSA influence CSMP and RPIN.

Finally, this conclusion chapter focuses on the impact of the research in terms of its contributions to theory, methodology and managerial practice, with the focus then turning to the study's challenges and limitations, along with directions for future research.

8.3 Research Contributions

This section discusses the research contributions concerning theory, methodology and practice. Theoretically, the study extends the luxury brand experience research by extending the concept of luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) in terms of dimensions, drivers, and consequences in the context of luxury flagship retailing. Methodologically, the study proves the findings by simultaneously utilising different strategies in both qualitative and quantitative studies. Practically, the study offers

managers a LFSE model for conducting integrated analysis and design of luxury flagship stores. Specific research contributions are discussed in the following sections.

8.3.1 Contributions to Theory

This research plays a pioneering role in extending the luxury flagship store concept to identify dimensions, key drivers, and consequences. Therefore, this research contributes to the existing luxury brand and brand experience literature in several ways. This study has extended brand experience and luxury brand experience concepts by offering a better understanding of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE) dimensions, its driver (i.e., LFSA) and corresponding dimensions and modelling the impacts of LFSE and LFSA on their outcomes (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) in the luxury brand domain. First, this research identified that LFSE dimensions differ from the dimensions of brand experience and the luxury brand experience. The prior research shows that brand experience dimensions are sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural (Brakus et al., 2009). Again, the luxury brand experience dimensions are comprised of three similar dimensions (i.e., sensory, affective, intellectual) as brand experience but differ from one dimension (i.e., behavioural), replacing with a social dimension (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019). The current research extended the understanding of LFSE dimensions to customer experience (e.g., Hollebeek & Andreassen, 2019; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016), brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Das et al., 2019; Dwivedi et al., 2018), and luxury brand experience (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019), thereby offering an early empirical study. This study extends the LFSE concept in the luxury brand domain by expanding and validating a second-order congeneric model based on three dimensions: situational, intellectual and enduring experiences. Therefore, this study addresses call for future research of Kuppelwieser & Klaus (2021) by establishing customer experience as a higher-order construct in the luxury flagship store context. By encompassing the combined explanatory power of each component, the flagship store experience model advances experience theory in luxury brand research.

Second, this study identifies LFSA as the key driver of the LFSE. The current research empirically validated four dimensions out of six to measure the LFSA that were identified by Joy et al. (2014) in an ethnocentric study. The study extends the LFSA concept by developing and validating the second-order LFSA model comprising four dimensions: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern. The LFSA

concept also extends the previous concepts such as the ‘servicescape’ of Bitner (1992) and ‘experienscape’ of Pizam & Tasci (2019) toward luxury flagship experienscape.

Third, the study has identified a comprehensive yet parsimonious set of dimensions that help predict the experience quality of a luxury flagship store and the relationship of that experience with outcome constructs (i.e., CSMP and RPIN). The relationship characteristics among the LFSE, LFSA, CSMP and RPIN are specific to the luxury brand platform, which provides a solution to the new and challenging experience delivery of this sensational de(luxe) paradigm. These findings will add to the theory by modelling the association between the overall LFSE and its drivers (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) by including two new outcomes constructs (CSMP and RPIN), which have not been investigated before. This CSMP refers to the social outcome and RPIN as the economic outcome of the luxury flagship stores. Therefore, this study also supports the growing literature stream (e.g., Klaus, 2019; Le et al., 2019; Rajaobelina, 2018) that examines the connotation between the customer experience and behavioural intention (i.e., CSMP and RPIN). This conceptual extension and evaluation are essential in understanding the role of LFSE in financial benefits through RPIN and social recognition through CSMP. Thus, this study extends the scope of the luxury branding research domain by modelling the impact of LFSE logic on both CSMP and RPIN.

Finally, the comprehensive research model is unique because it incorporates two core theories, the MEC of Gutman (1982) and the IPR theory of Fournier (1998), to identify the relevant drivers and consequences and corresponding relationships in the LFSE model. The MEC theory pursues the explanation of relationships among the means (attributes), benefits (expressions) and ends (beliefs). This study extends the application of the MEC theory by reconfirming the relationship between the attributes, expressions and beliefs in the luxury flagship retail context. The research findings show that dimensions of the LFSA: luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern are the attributes and the LFSE dimensions: situational, intellectual and enduring experiences are the expressions and beliefs. On the other hand, this research also proves the bonding between consumers and brands based on the IPR theory where the LFSA and the LFSE act as luxury retail facilities and actions, and CSMP and RPIN as customers’ actions. Furthermore, this study combined the MEC and IPR theories to connect attributes, expressions and beliefs, and relational consequences that can not

be shown using only one theory. Therefore, a means-end-relationship (MER) model has been drawn by incorporating these two theories that propose an extension of the MEC theory.

However, this study connects the relational outcomes (i.e., CSMP and RPIN) as consequences of benefits and ends. Therefore, this study extends the outcome perspective of the MEC theory toward the means-end relationship (MER) model in the context of the luxury flagship stores in Australia and contributes significantly to the existing literature.

8.3.2 Contributions to Methodology

The current research has made several contributions to the research methodology. First, this study identified three dimensions for the LFSE and four for LFSA through in-depth interviews and social media content analysis simultaneously. Previous studies have not focused on identifying constructs' dimensions through the combined use of in-depth interviews and social media content analysis. The in-depth interviews provided extended conceptual thoughts on the LFSE and LFSA and supporting themes and keywords to identify corresponding dimensions. The social media content analysis also delivered the additional views of luxury flagship stores' fans on their experiences and experiential attributes that helped crossmatch the in-depth interview data and finalise the thoughts. This process of item generation and verification employing two methods can be used in future research.

Second, this study explained the methodological pattern of hierarchical modelling using CB-SEM to demonstrate why this study is a leap forward. This study is one of the earliest endeavours to conceptualise and validate a complex hierarchical model using both congeneric models to form the first-order dimensions and a second-order measurement model to confirm the second-order construct with corresponding dimensions. The study successfully maintained statistical standards (e.g., multivariate normality, measurement level, sample size, model complexity, model identification and factor indeterminacy) to prove the rigour of CB-SEM path modelling in estimating a second-order hierarchical model. So, this study contributes to the emerging complex modelling paradigm in social science and business research by estimating a CB-SEM second-order, hierarchical-reflective model. In contrast, most earlier studies focus on simple models or less complex theoretical frameworks.

Third, the study also illuminates the strength of analysis by demonstrating how to quantify mediating effects in a hierarchical model. Mediating effects are critical to ensure influential connotations among the latent variables. Finally, this study offered the GoF Index to confirm the worldwide validity of a CB-SEM hierarchical model. Through these demonstrations of validation techniques, the study contributes to the enlargement of CB-SEM as more vigorous for real-world applications and benefits to analysing a complex model.

8.3.3 Contributions for Managers

The research findings are valuable for luxury brand managers in capturing customers' perceptions of luxury flagship store experience, evidenced as hierarchical, multidimensional and context-specific. This knowledge provides an essential step towards conceptual clarity and practical solutions for the flagship store experience challenges of luxury retailing. First, the research findings specify that luxury customers' relation toward a luxury flagship store influenced by the LFSE at an overall and dimensional level (i.e., situational experience, intellectual experience and enduring experience). These findings will improve brand managers' understanding of the different perspectives of the luxury flagship store customer experience. In particular, these findings suggest that managers of a luxury flagship store should focus on improving the luxury customer experience by assessing the three primary dimensions of the LFSE. Because consumers who prefer to indulge themselves in the luxury world are mainly beholding for an environment that can trigger their senses in a unique way (Kauppinen-Räsänen et al., 2020). So, managers could determine the customers' perceptions of situational experience by measuring customers' elation, enjoyment, happiness, gleefulness, sophisticated confidence and fascination in visiting and spending time in a luxury flagship store. Similarly, the luxury flagship store managers should assess whether the customers are engaging themselves in learning from their store or showing curiosity about the products, brands or services to fulfil their intellectual experience.

Second, the luxury flagship brand managers can evaluate the enduring experience by measuring the customers' feelings—whether they perceive assimilation into the luxury community, representation of their personality and lifestyle and whether they gain social status while visiting the luxury flagship store. It is suggested that luxury marketers should use multiple senses persistently in the luxury store

environment so that consumers would desire the future experience (Shahid et al., 2022).

Third, the study findings indicate that the luxury flagship store experience of customer developed by the LFSA dimensional level (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern). These findings enhance the brand managers' and designers' understanding of the stimuli that evoke the luxury customers' experience in a luxury flagship store. In particular, these findings suggest that managers and designers of luxury flagship stores should focus on improving the LFSA that they provide across the four primary dimensions to stimulate the LFSE. For example, luxury brand managers and designers could improve customers' perceptions of the luxemosphere by enhancing the artistic ambience, classy colour, aromatic fragrance, pleasant music, beautiful lighting, glamorous design and sophisticated decoration of the luxury flagship store. In a similar vein, the luxetecture could be improved by incorporating museological artefacts, landscapes of heritage, digital amenities, interactive displays and technology-based trial and support services. Likewise, the luxescape could be enriched by offering personal attention, customised assistance, delivering comfortable service, fulfilling every need, offering helpful advice, providing flawless service and respecting every customer visiting the luxury flagship stores.

Finally, the luxegovern could be heightened by establishing traditions and customs of a luxury flagship store. Luxegovern aspect can be generated by offering entry to a limited customers, guest greetings approach at the entrance and throughout the store, one-to-one communication and showing magnificence in the attire and gesture of store employees. Therefore, luxury brand managers should consider setting up a luxury flagship store not only to generate sales but also to improve the reputation and present a new communication channel.

The model developed in this study offers an understanding of how LFSA dimensions (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) impact in forming of a LFSE, driving CSMP and RPIN. The findings support the importance of the LFSA as a decision-making construct predicting economic (i.e., RPIN) and social consequences (i.e., CSMP). The results of the consequences and their drivers (i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) will facilitate the scalability of the luxury brand paradigm. Therefore, luxury flagship brand marketers should deliver

appropriate hedonic experiential attributes, stimuli (de Kerviler & Rodriguez, 2019) or values (Han & Kim, 2020) to gain a luxury flagship store experience. They should spend on entertainment, interaction, customisation and word-of-mouth experiences (Dholakia et al., 2009) to maintain strong brand-consumer relationships (Brnkus et al., 2009) and enhance social media participation (Di Benedetto & Kim, 2016; Zollo et al., 2020) and repeat purchase intention.

Luxury brand managers can now consider the LFSE a success when a significant number of customers move beyond the experience stage and share the experience on social media sites and purchase the luxury flagship stores' products repeatedly. In addition, this study's findings extend the scope of luxury branding research for practitioners by modelling the impact of experience-dominant logic on CSMP and RPIN through an expanded theory-based framework.

8.4 Challenges and Limitations

In this study, the researcher avoided using fictitious brands as stimuli and required respondents to recall an actual purchase and LFSE. This decision was made to evaluate the impact of a lived experience on CSMP and RPIN. Indeed, it is challenging to simulate repeated interactions with the luxury flagship store over time and ask respondents to evaluate how a projected scenario-based experience would influence their RPIN and social media participation. The LFSE remains self-reported and could not be verified objectively. This study tried to limit the risk by refining the responses with screening questions in the survey instrument. Again, this study could not access absolute luxury customers within a limited period due to methodological limitations, so the study focused only on the affordable and aspirational categories of luxury customers. Therefore, field research in partnership with luxury flagship stores could provide verified responses from all types of luxury customers (i.e., absolute, aspirational and affordable) using a database of known buyers.

The study's results are robust in explaining how LFSE impacts CSMP and RPIN, driven by the four dimensions of LFSA. This study used several demographic markers such as gender split, age bracket, income level and purchase channel. However, this study did not analyse any moderating effects on the relationships between the constructs based on the demographic markers.

Furthermore, this study's respondents were from Australia only, and their view on the LFSE might differ from that held by individuals of other nationalities. Therefore, this study's outcomes may not apply to every country or cultural perspective. There is scope to verify the research model in countries that emphasise autonomy and individual initiatives compared to countries that endorse interdependent selves or those that are mainly collectivist environments. Finally, the respondents used in the first round survey were academic professionals and students. It could be more practical if the participants were utterly luxury consumers like the round two and three surveys. These limitations of the current research create opportunities for further research to improve the generalisability and strength of the constructs' scales and the research model.

8.5 Future Research Directions

This study opens new areas for future research on the LFSE regarding its dimension, drivers and economic and social consequences. Luxury flagship stores communicate positive content; consumers' perceptions of luxury reflect materialism, superficiality, and egocentric values that may be interpreted as a subtraction from the self (McIntyre et al., 2015). Further research could focus on negative responses evoked by LFSA to counterbalance this impact.

Experiences may have occurred in-store, and online interactions (Holmqvist et al., 2020b) may have been evoked by the products, packaging, environment, communication, events, and sales relationships, for example (Schmitt, 2010). Customers interact with the physical store while visiting to buy an item from a luxury flagship channel. Therefore, channel types (i.e., physical store vs. online) provide a different degree of experience that fluctuates across channel formats (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003) of a luxury flagship store. Customers prefer enjoyment, entertainment and exploration from a physical store context, whereas they admire authority, adventure and status from an online channel (To et al., 2007). The existing literature on branding and retailing confirmed that the store experience varies based on the retail types (Terblanche, 2018), whether it is a lower or higher level of a flagship store. Again, the experience varies depending on the retail format (Tyrväinen et al., 2020), whether interacting with a physical store or a virtual platform. Therefore, future research can focus on the impact of LFSA on the LFSE, examining the moderating effect of channel types and differentiation in omnichannel interactions.

The research model was tested with different age group brackets. Millennials may have particular values, beliefs and interests in connecting and building relationships with luxury flagship stores that differ from other generations, which may emphasise the intensity and directionality of the experiential dimensions differently. Therefore, future research could examine how consumers of various generations process a LFSE, leading to social media participation and RPIN. So, future research may use some moderating variables to investigate the variations in the different relationship paths of the current research model. Again, there remains a need for a better understanding of how the LFSE develops and differs across a broader range of product categories (i.e., clothing vs. accessories), product types (i.e., goods vs. services) and cultures (i.e., Australian vs. Asian or American vs. European).

8.6 Conclusion

The objective of this study was to identify the dimensions of the LFSE and LFSA and model their impacts on CSMP and RPIN in the context of the luxury clothing retail industry. This study commenced a systematic literature review of luxury brands, retailing and consumer behaviour research to serve the research objectives. A conceptual model and a set of hypotheses were developed using the literature review, a qualitative study (i.e., in-depth interviews and social media content analysis) and theoretical underpinnings. The conceptual research model was specified as a hierarchical-reflective model and tested in Australia's luxury flagship retail industry.

A series of quantitative surveys (Study 2) were conducted. Data were collected from 112, 312, and 374 respondents through three surveys to develop, refine, and validate the scale items and test the conceptual model. This study applied CB-SEM modelling to evaluate the hierarchical model and test the relationships among constructs. The study's findings confirmed the adequate measurement and structural properties of the research model, proving 14 core hypotheses. Moreover, the study confirmed the significant impact of the LFSE as a mediator.

This study's most significant research contribution lies in providing critical insights in experience marketing research in luxury flagship retailing by reframing the LFSE as a second-order, hierarchical-reflective construct and modelling its overall effects on economic (i.e., RPIN) and social (i.e., CSMP) consequences. In addition, this study contributes by developing and validating scales for the dimensions of LFSA

(i.e., luxemosphere, luxetecture, luxescape and luxegovern) and modelling their effects on the LFSE and two consequences. These relationships of the research model are based on sufficient logical evidence (i.e., the theory is internally consistent), epistemological evidence (i.e., rigour in research design) and empirical evidence (i.e., robust findings). The study's findings are valuable for managers in capturing the perceptions of the luxury flagship store experience as hierarchical, multidimensional and context-specific. This knowledge is essential to provide conceptual clarity and practical solutions to the flagship store experience challenges of Australia's luxury clothing retailing business. The hope is that this research will catalyse action by inspiring researchers and practitioners to embrace the LFSE as a core concept in luxury brand research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Cover letter for in-depth interviewees
CURTIN UNIVERSITY
School of Marketing

Dear Respondent/Participant,

I am doing PhD research in the area of Luxury flagship store experience under the School of Marketing, Curtin University. This research project entitled “Exploring the Consumers’ Insights on Luxury flagship store experience” aims to propose a conceptual framework highlighting the dimensions of the luxury flagship store experience (LFSE), corresponding drivers, and consequences. This research will also attempt to combine the measures for developing measures for store attributes.

In this regard, I invite you to participate in an interview for a qualitative study of my research. This is a voluntary approach where you have the right to refuse to participate in the Interview. Your information for this Interview will be used only for academic purposes and kept confidential. Your participation in a one-to-one discussion on a semi-structured open-ended questionnaire of about thirty minutes will be highly appreciated. The detailed response of the Interview will aid me to identify the key attributes that impact luxury flagship store experience towards brand loyalty. The information of this study will be kept under a secure password-protected drive at Curtin University for 7 (seven) years after the research is published, and then it will be destroyed.

For any further queries in relation to the Interview, please feel free to contact me through email at mohammad.m.islam@postgrad.curtin.edu.au. You can also contact my PhD supervisor Dr Fazlul Rabbanee, Senior Lecturer, School of Marketing, Curtin University via email at F.Rabbanee@curtin.edu.au or by telephone at 0892667735. This study has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval Number: **HRE2019-0131**). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the research or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Thank you for your participation.

Regards,

Mohammad Majedul Islam
PhD Research Student
School of Management and Marketing, Curtin University.

Appendix II

Semi-structured in-depth interview schedule

CURTIN UNIVERSITY
School of Marketing

A. Description of the preferred luxury clothing brand:

1. Do you usually buy luxury clothing item?
2. What do you usually buy?
3. Do you usually buy from a third-party (multi-brand) retail store or from a company owned brand store?
4. How frequently you purchase this luxury clothing brand?
5. How long have you been purchasing the luxury clothing brand from this store?

B. Description about the experience of the preferred luxury clothing brand:

1. Can you please describe the sensory feeling (e.g., eyesight, hearing, smell, touch, taste, and emotion) that you receive using the brand?
2. Does this luxury clothing brand associates with any intellectual aspects such as learning new knowledge, or stimulating you to enhance your aspiration to know more about the brand?
3. Are you emotionally attached to this clothing brand? Please describe.
4. Do you feel that you belong to any specific social group by using this brand? Please describe.
5. Does the brand help you to exclude yourself from any group or mass people?
6. Can you please describe your overall feeling about using this brand? Are you happy/delighted or excited that you are using the brand?
7. Do you see any relationships (sequential links) among the experiential elements (such as sensory, intellectual, social identity and happiness) that you described so far?

C. Description about the important aspects of the luxury clothing brand:

1. What are the most exciting characteristics of this brand? Please elaborate.
2. Is there anything to be improved about the brand?
3. How would you describe the company owned store of the brand? Please describe your assessment about its –

- Atmospheric environment
 - Architectural design
 - Employee service and interaction
4. How does it differ between a branded store and a third-party multi-brand retail outlet to buy the same luxury clothing brand?

D. Description about your observations on online presence of the luxury clothing brand:

1. Did you ever buy this luxury clothing brand from online?
2. Please describe your opinions about the website elements (e.g., images, colours, text, graphics, shapes, sound, videos and animation) of this brand to express the tangible attributes of a physical store.

E. Description about attitude and intention about the luxury clothing brand:

1. Will you continue to buy this luxury clothing brand in future?
2. Do you recommended this brand to others?
3. Do you usually create contents about this brand in social media or any other online platform (e.g., blog, brand communities, etc.)?
4. Do you usually respond to the contents generated by the brand in its social media or in any other online platform (e.g., blog, brand communities, etc.)?

Demographic Profile (Please tick mark on your answer):

- 1) Name of the clothing brand:

a) Calvin Klein	b) Chanel	c) Dior	iv) H&M	d) Louis-Vuitton
e) Prada	f) Ralph Lauren	g) Zara	h).....	
- 2) Your gender –

a) Male	b) Female
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- 3) Your age (in years) –

a) 18–25	b) 26–30	c) 31–35	d) 36–40	e) > 40
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- 4) Your education level –

a) Honours	b) Master’s	c) PhD
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- 5) Your occupation –

a) Student	b) Tutor	c) Faculty	d) Staff
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- 6) Your fortnightly income: –

a) < \$2000	b) \$2001–\$4000	c) \$4001–\$6000	d) >\$6000
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Thank you for your valuable comments and time.

Appendix III

Final Survey Questionnaire

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this survey. This survey is related to exploring consumer experience with a company owned luxury clothing flagship store. Please indicate your agreement and disagreement on different store attributes and your experiences with the store.

I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement Yes No
 in this project, and I voluntarily consent to take part.

1. Do you usually buy clothing or accessories items from a company owned luxury flagship store (e.g. *Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton, Prada, Calvin Klein, H&M, Ralph Lauren, and Zara*)? **a. Yes** **b. No**

2. Please write down the name of the flagship store _____ (e.g. *Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton, Prada, Calvin Klein, H&M, Ralph Lauren, and Zara*)

3. Did you purchase any clothing or accessories items within the last 6-8 months from the selected (in Q2) store?

a) **Yes** (*If yes, please answer Q4*) b) **No** (Thank you for your time)

4. What did you usually purchase (e.g. dresses, bags, shoes, jewellery, etc.) from the selected (in Q2) store?

_____ [Please write the name of the item(s)]

5. Which channel do you usually use to buy clothing or accessories item(s) and engage with the selected (in Q2) brand?

a) Only **physical** store b) **Physical and online** Channels c) Only **online** channel

The following statements are related to the atmospherics, architectural views, facilities, and employee services of the flagship store you mentioned above in Q3. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each of the statements below by ticking only one option.

5.0	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree
	This luxury flagship store		
5.1 plays pleasant music	1 2 3 4	5 6 7
5.2 has pleasant fragrance	1 2 3 4	5 6 7
5.3 exhibits sophisticated colour schemes	1 2 3 4	5 6 7
5.4 creates artistic ambience	1 2 3 4	5 6 7
5.5 arranges comfortable seatings	1 2 3 4	5 6 7
5.6 has beautiful lightings	1 2 3 4	5 6 7

5.7 displays digital animation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.8 exhibits landscapes of heritage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.9 reserves abundance of free spaces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.10 displays products consistently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.11 exhibits glamorous decoration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.12 presents museological artefacts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.13 articulates sophisticated design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.14 has appealing digital amenities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.15 has interactive digital touch screens display	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.16 facilitates with an useful digital trial mirror	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.17 demonstrates attractive architectural beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.18 has a flexible product return policies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.19 is located in a prominent place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.20 facilitates online shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.21 keeps gatekeeper that creates entry barrier for mass people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.22 creates queue to enable only limited shoppers in the store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The employees of this luxury flagship store								
.....								
5.23 are helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.24 are friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.25 wear grandeur attire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.26 are smart	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.27 are knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.28 give personal attention to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.29 help customers to feel comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.30 offer flawless services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.31 greet customers like a guest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.32 provide customized assistance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.33 provide useful advices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.34 are passionate toward fulfilling customers need	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.35 develop strong relationships with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.36 are respectful towards customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.37 focus on the brand heritage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.38 provide information on authenticity of the raw materials	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.39 intimidate customers who wear casual dresses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements describe your experiences within the store. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each of the statements below by ticking only one option.

6.0	Statements	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
6.1	I am amazed with the visual display of the luxury store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.2	I enjoy the pleasant music in the store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.3	I like the lovely fragrance in the store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.4	I feel the sophisticated touch in the store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.5	I find the store fascinating in a sensory way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.6	I engage in a lot of thinking when I come across this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.7	I learn a lot while shopping in this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.8	This store makes me more knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.9	This store stimulates curiosity and helps solving problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.10	I feel elated visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.11	I feel gleeful visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.12	I feel proud visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.13	I feel happy visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.14	I feel a sense of love visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.15	I feel a sense of enjoyment visiting this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.16	I feel an improvement in the way society views me when I shop from this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.17	Shopping from this store has a positive impact on what others think of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.18	Shopping from this store allows me to indicate to others the kind of person I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.19	I like to be seen shopping from this store to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.20	I enjoy interacting with other shoppers of this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.21	I feel closer to the luxury shoppers when I shop from this store	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.22	Shopping from this store is an opportunity to be a member of the luxury community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.23	Shopping from this store enables me to create distance from mass customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements are related to your behavioural responses. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each statement.

7.0	Statements	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree		
7.1	I post content of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites (<i>e.g., Fb, Instagram, and the like</i>)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.2	I “like” the content of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.3	I share posts of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.4	I comment on the contents of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.5	I read posts about this brand on social networking sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.6	I watch photos/videos of this luxury flagship store on social networking sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.7	I read comments about this luxury flagship store on social networks sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.8	I am aware of the different channels through which I can purchase an item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.9	I intend to purchase more items from through any of its multiple channels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.10	For future purchases, I will look into multiple channels first	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.11	I will consider any channel when this brand proposes new/additional offerings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.12	I will accept any channel when it proposes a new/additional product to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.13	I mention about this luxury flagship store in different online platforms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.14	I mention this luxury flagship store more frequently than other competing stores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.15	I talk about this luxury flagship store in great detail on online platforms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.16	I mention only the good things of this luxury flagship store on online platforms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.17	I will shop at this luxury flagship store in the near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7.18	I intend to shop at this luxury flagship store in the near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

7.19	I will expand effort on revisiting this luxury flagship store to shop in the near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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8. Demographic questions (Please circle the appropriate column):

8.1	Shopping Experience (Year)	a. < 1	b. 1 – 3	c. 4 – 6	d. 7 – 9	e. 10 – 12	f. > 12	
8.2	Shopping Frequency	a. Weekly	b.	c. Monthly	d. Quarterly	e. Half-Yearly	f. Yearly	
8.3	Age (Year)	a. 18 – 25	b. 26 – 33	c. 34 – 41	d. 42 – 49	e. 50 – 57	f. 58 – 65	g. 65+
8.4	Gender	a. Female	b. Male	c. Others				
8.5	Education	a. High School	b. TAFE	c. Undergrad	d. Master	e. PhD	f. Others	
8.6	Fortnightly Income (In thousand \$)	a. < 2	b. 2-4	c. 4-6	d. 6 - 8	e. 8-10	f. 10+	
8.7	Ethnic Origin	a. Australian	b. Asian	c. American	d. African	e. European	f. Middle-East	g. Other

Thank you for your valuable time!

Appendix IV

List of brands chosen by respondents

Aspirational luxury: *Burberry, Chanel, Dior, Gucci, Louis Vuitton and Prada*

Affordable luxury: *Calvin Klein, H&M, Mark Jacob, Ralph Lauren, Tommy Hilfiger, and Zara*

Appendix V

List of brands chosen by respondents

Speaker 1: Good morning

Speaker 2: *Good morning*

Speaker 1: Thank you for accepting my interview request

Speaker 2: *Well thanks*

Speaker 1: As you know that what about the interview, I will go directly to the questions.

Speaker 2: *Yep, fine*

Speaker 1: Which brand you usually buy as a luxury clothing?

Speaker 2: *Ok I bought few brands recently, but most recent one I bought Calvin Klein t-shirt.*

Speaker 1: So, you have recent in-store visit experience, right?

Speaker 2: *I have done both. So I bought it online and I went to the clothing stores as well. Yeah.*

Speaker 1: Ok then I will get both experience from you. I mean online and offline. So what do you usually buy from this luxury clothing brand?

Speaker 2: *So from ck I usually buy for my partner, yeah some t-shirt and jeans like amm for myself buy bags because their bags r pretty good and wallet.*

Speaker 1: How frequently you buy these goods?

Speaker 2: *So I would say once in a month and for me it would be every two months. So 2/3 months yeah.*

Speaker 1: How long have you been purchasing from this brand?

Speaker 2: *CK has been very recent, I would say four months. Yeah so I have done like from November till today I think I bought like 3/4 times already.*

Speaker 1: Ok thank you. So when you are purchasing from this brand you should have some something in your mind to purchase from this brand. So is there anything related to your sensory feeling like when you buy this when you use this like something you feel that you look gorgeous your or partner looks gorgeous have some comfortness of these clothing.

Speaker 2: *Yes my boyfriend is quite brand conscious so I was thinking first I get him like Gucci something like that I knew he didn't like the brand it is good with this brand is there designs are very simple, and is very classy So I think from that perspective the look of the t-shirt or the jean itself. Because it it's very simple and classy I think from that perspective makes me buy this brand for him. Because he is very simple so yeah. And find me I think you know as a woman I having different bags and it stuffs because their models are very nice and they're very similar to chanel version of the bags, the zips are a bit different but same thing as the clothes as well they are very simple so I don't like a lot of drama on my bags and you know lot of designs, I like it very clear. I like something else about this brand is straight away see that this is the band. you know when you see CK on a bag ck on t-shirt you know it is Calvin Klein I think that's what I like compare to when you I have a guess bag here you never know it is guess until you look for it. This one is a fossil bag you can't really see you have to turn around zip and everything faded look like or even see it. But with the CK one you can see a straight away no matter where it is.*

Speaker 1: Ok sometime what happened that people willing to buy a luxury brand they feel that we have some aspiration to learn something from using these things like this clothing brand has a new types of yarn or clothing new types of design tailor made. So do you think that that is happening with this brand when you are purchasing?

Speaker 2: *Ok my aspiration with the brand actually came from one of my girlfriend who told me that the t-shirt quality is very good. You know when you wash the t-shirt, it's like kind of becoming loose thing like that looking for something more I would say trustworthy. You know something that I know that he is gonna actually use for a while 1 or 2 months at least because he's very fussy about his clothes. So I need to find something that is washable so she told me that this brand has quite good fabrics this I say gives me an aspiration that time when I went to buy that brand. Because the quality was actually referred to by this brand from another girlfriend because she uses only that brand.*

Speaker 1: And what we perceive that brand are expensive compared to other common brands. So is it you feel that you have some emotional attachment with this brand that's why you were buying this clothing from the CK?

Speaker 2: *I think well I have seen now on the product how it is he became emotionally attached to it and I think I am doing it is well with my bag and staffs. But I think in generally so your question was why I think about the lives of the brand and the price you mean?*

Speaker 1: Yea, rather than price. What about the price is but you are going to buy ck because of some emotional attachment

Speaker 2: *Yeah I think they were just meant here is mainly because I have seen the product quality and stuff I have comparison to do with the other brands so I think that's why I become emotionally attached to it*

Speaker 1: And that your boyfriend likes this brand that's why

Speaker 2: *Yeah yeah yeah like I don't mind (whatever the price)*

Speaker 1: So when your boyfriend or you purchase from this brand or using this brand do you sometime feel that you were the different from other people like you have some different identity that you are wearing this

Speaker 2: *My boyfriend is very brand conscious right he's never going to wear that is not branded so I think he in his head his detaching himself he would not like someone to wear the same thing that he wear I personally don't care alright but he does care about it he is not going to do it so maybe from his angle I know that he's not going to he definitely wear it to be different but I don't want to be different I don't buy my bags to be different I buy because I like it and which has a trend at this moment. So two different perceptions are here I buy the loves luxury brand because I know the quality and number 2 its following the trend he buys it because he wants to be different*

Speaker 1: So from this discussion what I learnt that when we are using or buying a luxury clothing brand have some things like it looks gorgeous that's why by somebody is telling that you're looking very gorgeous and sometimes we are emotionally attached and sometimes we feel that we are different from the other people so what do you think this three or four elements of experience who's comes first or who's km per second like is there any sequential things

Speaker 2: *Are you mean the perceptions of others like what are you well and things?*

Speaker 1: No perceptions of yourself that you sometimes feel that he looks good yes so it has some sense of feelings it's comfortless we call it sensory feeling also we have emotional attachment and also I feel that we are different from other people but these are the three things which come first with come

Speaker 2: *I think for me when I able to buy a luxury brand it's the satisfaction that I received something in my life because I think about 5/6 yes back maybe I would not able to afford it today I can afford it so it's the pride I don't do it for others I did for myself because it is a sense of my self-actualization so my self-esteem and status things that I think if I look backward I would not able to do it but now I do it so I feel proud of myself so that's my emotional attachment*

Speaker 1: Is it just the satisfaction of beyond satisfaction?

Speaker 2: *I think it mostly self-actualization*

Speaker 1: Ok thank you thank you for your opinion about the experience now I would like to understand from you about the important aspects you have that is this brand has some characteristics compared to common brands like so what are the exciting characteristics you think this brand has?

Speaker 2: *You mean in the store?*

Speaker 1: About the product about the brand

Speaker 2: *Oh, about the product itself? it is very clear simple design not a lot of colors that's what I like mainly dark colors Australia for the t-shirt and it stuffs black white and grey four bags it's a bit different but still have same shades I like with it small I don't say it's quiet but more discreet type of brand.*

Speaker 1: You said that you buy it for self-actualization like do you think that this brand give you some prestige status?

Speaker 2: *Yes yes*

Speaker 1: It is different from the other that it is simple but good yes do you think that do you think that it is exclusive than other things or unique?

Speaker 2: *Yes it did it is very different I feel good when I wear I think it's because I tried other brands before and we can't compare you know and buying few luxury brand*

from couple of years you have a benchmark of comparison you can feel the difference also from me the feeling over the years I learnt that the most simple it is in terms of luxury it is so that's why I think it provides very simplicity

Speaker 1: Ok thank you is there anything need to be improved of this brand?

Speaker 2: *Yeah I think they store layout*

Speaker 1: So how explain about this layout

Speaker 2: *It is very dull I don't like the clothes because it is with the brand mean black and grey normally the same color in the store I think does not actually marketing person they are not attracting consumers in their store you literally don't have any fitting into the store you know what I mean and also because I bought this from Mauritius write that the staff are not that great but I bought it in Australia here that was at Myer 4 days ago it was ok*

Speaker 1: That means compared to different countries different kinds of stores

Speaker 2: *Yeah I think the problem is because it's a luxury brand right does not cost you less than \$200 for something when are you buying it in Mauritius it's like 6000 rupees the five thousand rupees I think did not realize the worth that you coming to put in the shop it does not give you the good feeling you buy a luxury brand but when are you in Myer here buying a ck they can take care you in another way more welcoming cheers especially I think buying an expensive brand you can looking forward for special treatment who is I don't think I had any malicious because I entered the store you just ask me if I need anything I said I am browsing I found the thing that I wanted and then I'm paid it but when I was here for the 4 days ago when I bought something for him it was much easy because they are with me in each steps of my transaction Sydney at 10 this is new one she wanna get this one and then the new one I purchased for him as well look at the system the size and everything they were very proactive*

Speaker 1: So employ service what's more interactive

Speaker 2: *Yeah*

Speaker 1: So you told me that you are so purchased this brand from online

Speaker 2: *Yes I did*

Speaker 1: Did you buy it from our multi-brand store?

Speaker 2: *Yeah as well*

Speaker 1: So what is the difference between?

Speaker 2: *I think you don't feel special at all I feel like just a normal thing*

Speaker 1: So what were the lacking when you are purchasing from the online?

Speaker 2: *I think about that you don't have the touch way somewhere you know you buy a luxury brand someone should acting you or assist you who you obviously don't have in the online context and that's why I said you don't get special treatment just buying anything*

Speaker 1: Considering your previous experience?

Speaker 2: *Yeah*

Speaker 1: You're buying from the online

Speaker 2: *Yeah yeah so I like for example I bought shoes like tommy Hilfiger shoes online but that was good because there was on the only website it was not on at mantra brand so you felt a special because gifts coming up with the shoes and then I had incentives as well likely rewards for my next purchase I had the tracking from day 1 and she was supposed to arrive about a week but it arrived within two days anyway just a wonderful experience and I just looked at it and that I just felt that very cared obviously but it is 200 of \$300 shoes anyways nice but I was spending that much money online I want to have a good experience I think they made it very well it made me comment and send the review and there was very wonderful the shoes came in a nice packet and it was very luxury like the glossy paper roll and everything tags and same I received from CK one*

Speaker 1: So CK one you buy from a multi brand store

Speaker 2: *Yeah On Myer*

Speaker 1: Did you check the CK owned website?

Speaker 2: *Yeah I did but the time are you wanted to buy from Myer because they had a deal going on*

Speaker 1: *So how are the looks of the secret website?*

Speaker 2: *It's good even better than the store I think it's online so they can they can crack micardis but in this till they can't they haven't used this right*

Speaker 1: Ok thank you now I would like to understand about the attitude and behavior having this luxury clothing brand like, *did you ever recommended this brand 2 anyone?*

Speaker 2: *Yeah I did I did maybe 4/5 people and they bought as well*

Speaker 1: And you also continue to buy this ck

Speaker 2: *Yeah yeah I bought it 3/4 times already within 4 months it's pretty like a once a month and my friends are actually by it so its word of mouth*

Speaker 1: So when you are recommending to your friends about this brand what actually you promote?

Speaker 2: *I told them something is very classy I think it's worthy it's worth your money and if it's the washable*

Speaker 1: Did you ever make any comments in social media about this brand?

Speaker 2: *No but for tommy Hilfiger fingers shoes that I bought I actually send them in review by email because this one was the best experience*

Speaker 1: *Do you have any membership with the brand community?*

Speaker 2: *Yeah I do I do have Chanel*

Speaker 1: Not ck

Speaker 2: *No it's from the system in or like you got this email in steps. I created an account with this so they give me does deals how to collect discount and updates about new product and stuffs. But define you have liked channel membership you get invited to some events to attend so it's the different levels*

Speaker 1: Did they send you an email to your Facebook account?

Speaker 2: *No but I did send an email because they how I sign up product online got the email address from there*

Speaker 1: So thank you so much for your time

Speaker 2: *You welcome*

Speaker 1: So these are the some demographic information it just feel it out thank you so much

Speaker 2: *You're welcome*

Appendix VI

List of keywords populated from literature review

Keywords for LFSE	Keywords for LFSA
<i>Contextual</i>	<i>Luxemosphere</i>
1. Aural	1. Ambience
2. Elation	2. Clean
3. Fun	3. Colour schemes
4. Gleeful	4. Pleasant music
5. Happy	5. Scents
6. Interactive	<i>Luxitecture</i>
7. Joy	6. Abandoned spaces
8. Love	7. Assortment
9. Sense	8. Attractive structure
10. Sight	9. Beautiful design
11. Smell	10. Comfortable seating
12. Tactile	11. Consistent display
<i>Intellectual</i>	12. Digital bridge
13. Curiosity	13. Glamorous decoration
14. Knowledge	14. Organised layout
15. Learning	15. Prestigious Location
16. Thinking	<i>Luxescape</i>
<i>Social</i>	16. Expertise knowledge
17. Communitas	17. Grandeur uniform
18. Self-identity	18. Helpful
	19. Polite and friendly
	20. Personal attention
	21. Pretty and attractive