1. Introduction

Over the last couple of years, the sharing economy has risen into a prominent buzzword in business, and consequently received considerable interest worldwide. The empirical focus advocate that this is just one component of a larger industrial movement: collaborative consumption. One driver of the substantial growth is technology, which has been pivotal in aiding a widespread scale and economic impact of collaborative consumption. This development has enabled the establishment of online peer-to-peer communities. Furthermore, a number of sharing platforms have created opportunities for individuals to sell, share or purchase services and products, allowing for an efficient utilization of excess goods. Specifically, the emergence of such solutions has contributed to drive changes in traditional industries such as transportation (Uber) and accommodation (Airbnb).

In light of this development, where the marketplace becomes populated by more suppliers, consumers' decision-making becomes more complex. The increasingly diverse, and numerous alternatives allows consumers to critically review, evaluate, and choose suppliers that will maximize the utility sought after. There is limited amount of research within this new field; hence, the groundwork has to be made for further research. Considering this, we aim to investigate how underlying drivers influence the decision-making process, and to what extent brands moderate these effects in this new consumption phenomenon. This is important as it contributes to a rather scarce field of literature, and will provide a framework for academia to further enhance our knowledge of collaborative consumption.

To do this, the authors will conduct research on one industry that is central to the collaborative consumption movement, the accommodation industry. Within this industry, Airbnb has grown to become one of the highest valued start-up brands in the world (30 billion $), and is already being valued above established brands such as Hilton Worldwide (23.33 billion $) (Ting, 2016). This illustrates the incredible power of the "sharing economy", and the extent and reach of such a powerful consumption phenomena. Therefore, the authors has conducted a study to test the effect of the drivers of mediated access-based consumption within the accommodations industry, in addition to test the moderating capability of brand equity.

2. Literature

Consumption is one of the pillars in social economics, and the concept of consumerism is one of the main ingredients within the capitalist system. In his book, Wealth of Nations, Adam Smith (1776) touch upon a number of classical theories of economics. Among such is the idea of consumerism, described as: "*He supplies a far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such part of the produce of other men´s labour as he has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to be what is properly a commercial society.*". In many ways, Adam Smith's idea of consumerism incorporates the fundamental driving force of collaborative consumption. Why should one not capitalize on excess resources if there is demand for it? This idea is far from revolutionary in itself, yet only recently has the society embraced the multitude of opportunities that comes with such a mindset. This development, where individuals takes the role of sellers and consumers, and vice versa, is today called "the sharing economy".

Researchers agree that there are three types of consumption phenomena (Belk, 2009); sharing, gift giving, and commodity exchange. These consumption types are often subject to debate within academia, largely due to conflicting definitions and nature. Belk (2009) propose three prototypes to classify the different types of consumption. These are presented in table 1:

	Sharing	Gift giving	Commodity Exchange
Prototype	Mothering Pooling and allocation of household resources	The perfect gift	Buying a bread at a store for money
Characteristics	Nonreciprocal Social links to others De facto or de jure shared ownership or usufructrights Money irrelevant Singular objects Networked Inclusion Inalienable Personal Dependent Sharing context Social reproduction Nonceremonial Love, caring	Nonreciprocal in appearence; reciprocal exchange in practice Non obligatory in appearance; obligatory in Transfer of ownership Thought that counts Sacrifice; luxury To please recipient Nonfungible Singularizes objects Wrappings; ceremony Lingering imbalance Networked inclusion Inalienable Personal; dependent Gift giving/alliance-formation context Qualitative relations between people Thank yous	Reciprocal Balanced exchange No lingering obligations Transfer of ownership Monetary Nonsingular Partible commodities Calculation Inspection Alienable Impersonal Independent Trade/barter context Quantitative relations between objects
Counterindications	Reciprocal expectations Formal monetary debt Forced compliance Exchange Thank yous	Appearance of recinprocity concern Too quick a return gift Too generous a gift Gift scrutiny; inspection Gift requests	Love, caring Embedded relationships Socially meaningful money Thank yous
Exceptions	Borrowing and lending Some paid caregiving Voluntary anonymous charity	Age and wealth exceptions to reciprocity Money gifts; gift certificates Mandated charity	Secondhand goods Relationship marketing Usury prohibitions; Shariah banking

Table 1: Prototypes of consumption. Adapted from Belk (2009)

Belk (2009) explains that the main differentiator and objective of commodity exchange is that it involves a balanced exchange, and/or monetary action. This stands in contrast to gift giving and sharing, which could be symbolic actions, such as social status, and/or relationships, and does not involve a balanced exchange.

The internet has opened up for new avenues of consumption. Recently a “new” type of consumption has been called the “sharing economy”. Companies such as Uber and Airbnb have become popular and are now in direct competition with traditional industries such as taxi services, and accommodation providers, i.e., hotels. We argue that these “new” types of consumption is actually not new, but rather traditional commodity exchange marketed through the vocabulary of sharing. This claim is supported by Belk (2014), where refers to the phenomenon as “pseudo-sharing”. Albeit, there are companies that operate within the framework of sharing, and should therefore be defined as such (e.g., Couchsurfing). Nevertheless, this concept of “pseudo-sharing” has been popularized in recent years, and researchers believe that it will be used more frequently in the future. Some arguing that it will be as big as the industrial revolution (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Belk 2014; Tussyadiah, 2015).

Researchers have used collaborative consumption to define pseudo-sharing transactions (Botsman and Rogers, 2010). We will follow Belk´s 2014 definition of collaborative consumption: *"people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation"*. This conceptualization include "... for a fee or other compensation". Thus, excluding sharing, and gift giving, making it mutually exclusive. Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) propose a related term; *access-based consumption*. Defined as *"transactions that can be market mediated but where no transfer of ownership takes place"* (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Belk (2014) contest the specific label of access-based consumption, arguing that the term is insufficient, and is covered by collaborative consumption. However, we would argue that access-based consumption is a subcategory of collaborative consumption, as the latter could include transfer of ownership. Thus, we advocate that collaborative consumption can be divided into two sub groups: access-based consumption, and ownership transfer. Moreover, access-based consumption can be broken down into mediated and unmediated, depending on whether there is a third party facilitating the transactions. This paper will focus on mediated access-based consumption. Figure 2 provides an overview of the subcategories of collaborative consumption.

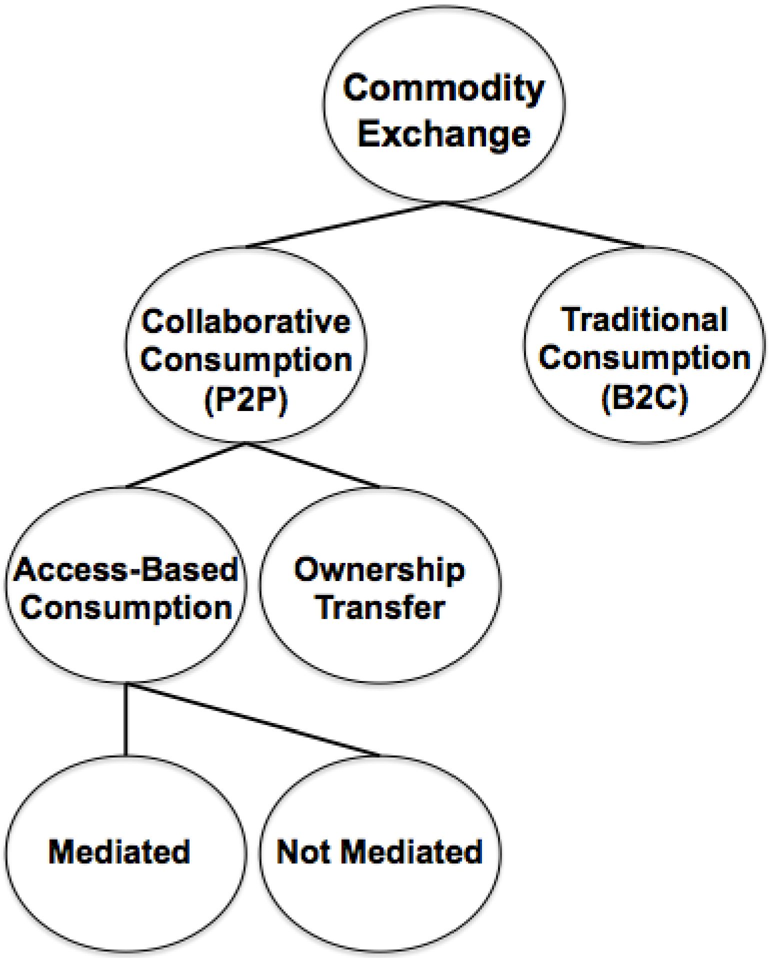

Figure 1: Types of consumption

Belk (2014), and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) agree that the driving force behind collaborative consumption is *"instead of buying and owning things, consumers want access to goods and prefer to pay for the experience of temporarily accessing them"*. Supporting the sentiment "*I don't need a drill; I need a hole in my wall"*. Emphasizing that it is the service provided by a product that add value for consumers, not the tangible good itself. These types of consumption is a balanced exchange of access from the seller, and monetary value from the customer. A traditional business model (B2C) can be viewed as a funnel, where the supplier promotes, produce and sells their goods to consumers. In this model, the seller is typically identified through its brand, which is associated with a particular value or meaning. As a result, consumers are, to some degree, able to evaluate options based on the inherent meaning attached to the brand. In mediated access-based consumption on the other hand, a simplified business model consist of three parties: *seller*, *mediator* (marketplace), *and consumer*. This model constitutes that the mediator make use of technology to match suppliers of goods and/or services with consumers.

There is extensive research exploring the different effects in second hand markets. This is markets where consumers transfer ownership of goods, after one consumer has possessed the good over a certain period. This market fit the framework of collaborative consumption, and it is reasonable to assume that the same mechanisms applies to access-based consumption. One of these laws are the law of contagion, which states that "*once in contact, always in contact*" (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Hence, consumers could deem access-based transactions as polluted because of the good being in contact with a multitude of consumers. Therefore, reducing the perceived value of access. That said, following the logic of the law of contagion, a similar effect should be experienced in certain traditional industries, such as the accommodation industry since the same principles applies there. Moreover, there is reason to believe that the purchase of access, rather than ownership, will diminish the effect of the law of contagion, as the good/service will only be in customers' possession for a limited time.

Although research explaining consumer behavior in collaborative consumption is limited, Tussyadiah (2015) propose trust, efficiency, economic benefits, sustainability, and community as motivating drivers of collaborative consumption.

Two graduate students from NHH conclude that there are five main drivers of collaborative consumption: financial, convenience, experiential, social, and symbolic (Stene and Holte, 2014). These findings lend support to the drivers proposed by Tussyadiah, where economic/financial, and social/community/symbolic incorporate similar factors. Moreover, convenience and experiential are two proposed drivers not covered by Tussyadiah. We assume that the largest contributing factor to the difference in drivers stems from terminology practices. As the concept is rather new, related terminology is scarce and a contested subject. Moreover, the differing results could also be explained by context- and industry specific factors particular to each study.

Hamari et al (2015) found that the following factors had a significant effect on behavioral intention to participate in collaborative consumption in a B2B economy: sustainability, enjoyment, reputation, economic benefits, and attitude. There is a possibility that additional factors could contribute to explain how consumers are motivated to participate in access-based consumption. However, due to a scarce collection of research, we have no supporting evidence to include more factors. Factors included will be explained further in section 2.3.

2.1 Decision making

As this paper's motive is to investigate how certain drivers affect consumer behavior in mediated access-based consumption, we turn our attention to how consumers make decisions.

Homo Economicus is a concept frequently used in economic theory to portray perfectly rational individuals, attempting to maximize utility. John Stuart Mill explained the concept as *"It is concerned with him solely as a being who desires to possess wealth, and who is capable of judging the comparative efficacy of means for obtaining that end*" (Persky, 1995). Although still relevant, *Homo Economicus* or "The Economic Man" mainly have theoretical applications, and does not extend particularly well to how decisions are made in practice. As a result, a competing concept, coined *bounded rationality,* attempts to explain how decisions are actually made. This concept incorporates the idea that individuals' ability to make rational decisions are limited by the decision problem at hand, cognitive limitations of their mind, and scarcity of time (Simon, 1991). As we will later discuss (section 2.3.4), there is reason to believe that when consumers assess the risk involved in access-based consumption they potentially weigh the probability for a desirable outcome to be lower than when participating in a more traditional consumption sense. Indicating that access-based consumption must incorporate this risk within its value proposition.

In harmony with bounded rationality theory, Kahneman and Tversky (1979, 1992) documented that individuals' decision making are characterized by irrational behavior. To cope with this the authors proposed prospect theory. The key elements of this theory are *"1) a value function that is concave for gains, convex for losses, and steeper for losses than for gains, and 2) a nonlinear transformation of the probability scale, which overweights small probabilities and underweights moderate and high probabilities*" (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979). In line with this argument, we expect decision making in access-based consumption will have similar characteristics as the proposed prospect theory.

2.2 The importance of brands

A brand can be defined as "*a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or combination of them which is intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors*" (Kotler and Armstrong, 1991; p. 442). These brand components are called "brand identities" and make up "the brand" (Keller, 1993). Apart from just a symbol of the seller or manufacturer, a brand can hold powerful symbolic value. The brand can in itself project status, or the lifestyle of users.

The body of literature on brand equity is rich, where the concept has been thoroughly conceptualized (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). Keller (1993) defined brand equity as *"the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand"*. In general, this concept grew to prominence as an attempt to define the relationship between customers and brands (Wood, 2000). That being said, the concept of brand equity is debated, and hold different meanings dependent on discipline (i.e., marketing/accounting). In marketing, brand equity is popularly approached from a customer based brand equity perspective (CBBE). The basic premise of the CBBE perspective is that the power of a brand is a result of what customers have "*learned, felt, seen, and heard about the brand, and the resulting effect over time*", i.e. the power of a brand is determined on what resides in the mindset of customers (Keller, 2012; p. 68-69). As brand equity is an evaluation of consumers' beliefs and attachment to a certain brand, some basic memory principles can be applied to enhance understanding of how brand relates to brand equity. The notion that memory plays an integral part in consumer decision-making is well documented (Biehal and Chakravarti, 1986; Lynch, Marmorstein, and Weigold, 1988), where one of the most widely accepted conceptualizations of memory structure involves some form of associative memory structure, defined as "the ability to learn and remember the relationship between unrelated items" (American Psychological Association, 2005).

Brands are of significant economic importance to organizations. Companies such as Apple and Nike are able to leverage and capitalize on their strong brands, enabling them to distinguish themselves from competitors and solidify a favorable position in the mindset of consumers. Apart from being able to offer a price premium, the strength of a brand contributes to influence consumers' decision making. In general, consumers' choice processes are explained as a series of stages, where the number of options/brands decrease. The initial stage of the process normally consist of two categories of brands, those the consumer is aware of (awareness set) and those he or she is not aware of. Furthermore, the awareness set is divided into brands the consumer would consider to purchase (consideration set) and those that are not considered due to for instance less favorable beliefs about certain brands. This classification implies that purchase is restricted to brands in the consideration set (Nedungadi, 1990). However, the conditions for brand building are not necessarily equally distributed in all product categories.

Often, the conditions are set based on consumers' beliefs about brands and rival actions from competitors. Fischer et al. (2010) define Brand Relevance in Category (BRiC) as "*the extent to which the brand influences customer decision-making relative to other criteria* (e.g., convenience, price, technical features etc.)". More specifically, BRiC can be seen as a "decision weight", comparing brand specific benefits to other benefits (i.e., risk reduction vs. price). Another established concept is *cue utilization theory* (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972), which builds on Pavlovian conditioning, and helps to explain how brands hold differing importance across categories. In decision-making, individuals' associations are shaped by cues about a certain outcome, where changes to such associations depends on whether the expectations of the result are different from the real result. In this instance, brands function as a cue. However, the degree to which consumers make use of such cues when evaluating products vary across categories, as do their influential importance. Another theory that support the BRiC construct is the utility-based brand equity construct. This theory explain how consumers assign weights to specific product features when he or she experience differences in product features across brands (Fischer, 2007). The weighted score of such features or attributes make up the utility of the product. While this weight may vary across consumers and categories, it does not vary across brands (Fischer et al., 2010).

BRiC is a customer-oriented concept that measures the role of brands in decision-making. Thus, it is not focused on the individual brand but rather the role of brands in a specific category. While, the concept of BRiC has been applied to regular fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) categories, existing literature does not address how the concept influence how consumers evaluate products in mediated access-based consumption.

2.3 Hypothesized Drivers for Mediated Access-Based Consumption

Based on the literature review, we have derived five factors that are likely to affect behavioral intention to participate; sustainability concerns, economic benefits, community, trust, and access (Hamari et al, 2010; Tussyadiah, 2015). While the other drivers are taken from prior research, access is based on the fact that it is an access-based service. According to Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), and Belk (2014), access is the foundation of access-based consumption.

2.3.1 Sustainability Concerns

Gansky (2010) state that consumer awareness of current environmental conditions is driving consumers towards resource maximization, i.e., utilization of excess resources. Access-based consumption is believed to support consumers in these efforts, as it arguably extends the life cycle of certain products, thus reduces environmental impact due to decreasing consumption of raw materials (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Therefore, collaborative consumption could be considered a "*manifestation of sustainable behavior"* for consumers with a greater preference for "green consumption" (Tussyadiah, 2015). De Pelsmacker et al., (2005) argues that *"consumers feel responsible towards society and expresses these feelings by means of their purchase behavior".* Thus, *"consumers take their social responsibility into account in addition to individual needs and wants (Vermeir and Verbeke, 2006)"*.

Taking into account the increased environmental concerns that has surged in noticeability in recent years, it is reasonable to assume that the positive impact gained from this type of consumption will drive environmentally conscious consumers to it. To conclude, access-based consumption services represent an attractive option for consumers with heightened environmental concern (Schrader, 2001).

H1: Sustainability concerns has a significant positive effect on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption.

2.3.2 Economic Benefits

Access-based consumption has been proven to grant economic benefits to consumers, as monetary value spent per consumer is lower than for substitutes (Belk, 2010; Lamberton and Rose, 2012). By renting out unused space, sellers are able to capitalize on excess resources, while consumers save cost by not choosing more expensive accommodation alternatives. In addition, 86% of American consumers agree that it is more affordable than owning (PWC, 2015). Hence, consumers could maximize the utility of their consumption by substituting ownership with access-based alternatives. However, as previously stated, the perceptual evaluation of utility has to be positive for them to occur, therefore the objective economic benefits alone does not convince consumers to choose access-based consumption alternatives.

Research indicate that consumers have, in recent years, been forced to rethink their values (Gansky, 2010), reduce spending, and become more resourceful (Tussyadiah, 2015). Making it reasonable to assume that it has resulted in a change in regards to the perceived value of ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Botsman and Rogers, 2010). Therefore, we believe that the overall utility evaluation of access-based consumption is positive.

H2: Economic benefits has a significant positive effect on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption.

2.3.3 Community

Based on personal communication, access-based consumption provides a platform supporting the creation and development of meaningful connections and communities (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Another factor that influence this dimension is reputation. Reputation is intrinsic in this type of consumption, as past evaluations for both parties are presented before the transaction occurs. Reviews in particular are important, as it reduces the perceived risk of the transaction. Thus, providing a comparable function to brand equity for evaluating source credibility or trustworthiness (Botsman & Rogers, 2010).

H3: Community has a significant positive effect on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption.

2.3.4 Trust

Wilson (1995) stated, *"We include the concept of trust in marketing studies based upon common sense, reports from both practitioners and marketers and a vigorous literature detailing trust research"*. Further, one can argue that trust is an integral part of peer-to-peer marketplaces. This is supported by 69% of American consumers, which state that they will not use collaborative consumptions providers before they are recommended by someone they trust (PWC, 2015). This can be explained by the inherent uncertainty associated with peer-to-peer transactions, in contrast to traditional businesses' perceived credibility as a result of brand equity. This equity has high monetary value, and a similar source of credibility would be very difficult if not impossible to replicate for individuals. In an attempt to legitimize sellers and/or customers as credible actors, the mutual evaluation system allow consumers to review past transactions, where the "rating" of sellers serve as a proxy for reputation.

We support Botsman & Rogers' (2010) claim that mutual trust is a necessity for access-based consumption to function. Where this trust can be obtained in two ways: experience with seller, or peer-to-peer reviews. Further, one could argue that the third party (the platform facilitator) serves an important function, where the inherent trust in facilitator can contribute to either a positive or a negative effect on seller's trustworthiness. The effect of the third party is likely to be higher if the seller does not have a favorable rating.

According to Erdem & Swait (2004), brands play an important role in consumer decision-making and consideration. The authors propose that especially one mechanism, brand credibility, influence choice and consideration. Similar to the previously discussed consideration set (Nedungadi, 1990); the cost-benefit approach has been used to conceptualize how consumers evaluate different products leading up to a decision (Hauser & Wernerfelt, 1990). This method use the expected utility framework, emphasizing that consumers weigh potential losses versus gains when deciding between two or more brands or products. This approach takes into account that uncertainty is part of the process. In situations where a choice between products is associated with uncertainty, brands can serve as a risk-reducing cue based on the credibility associated with a certain brand (Wernerfelt, 1988). In this context, credibility is conceptualized as *"the believability of an entity's intentions at a particular time" (*Erdem & Swait, 2004).

Another important aspect is the conditional uncertainty that varies across product categories. In certain contexts, uncertainty levels and sensitivity to uncertainty are higher (e.g. DIY tools versus accommodation services). Employing a cost-benefit approach, the degree to which consumers delve into elaborate information processing will vary according to the perceived level of risk (i.e. uncertainty and investment).

H4: Trust has a significant positive effect on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption.

2.3.5 Access

Access-based consumption is based on a balanced exchange of monetary value against access for a limited period of time (Belk, 2014; Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Consumer evaluation of ownership is in rapid change (Belk 2014), and with increased perceptual value of access, there is reason to believe that consumption through access will increase in demand. Following the notion that it is the service provided by a product that adds value for customers, not the tangible good, for access-based consumption to gain popularity the consumer mindset must change. Ownership must be substituted with access, and consumers must value the service a product brings, rather than valuing the product alone.

H5: Access has a significant positive effect on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption.

2.3.6 Research questions

Because of the limited empirical research within the field, there are a number of questions unanswered regarding which factors that influence, and to what degree these factors influence consumers' decision making in access-based consumption. Thus, we have derived the following research questions to enhance our knowledge of consumers in this field:

RQ1: What has the strongest effect on behavioral intention?

RQ2: What has the weakest effect on behavioral intention?

RQ3: How does the drivers' effect differ by non-participants, likely participants, and participants?

2.4 Brand equity as a moderator of driver strengths

The unique characteristic about access-based consumption in a peer-to-peer marketplace, is that the brand takes the form of an intermediary, instead of the end seller. Thus, facilitating trade or sales between two parties. This difference constitutes an important alteration to how research has addressed the notion of BRiC in literature. While consumers in a traditional B2C-market is free to evaluate the product based on the accompanying brand equity, consumers cannot rely on brands when assessing products where the supplier is an independent party. This raise the question of how important brands are in access-based consumption, in a context where a branded third party mediates the transaction and/or sharing. In such a context, the third party's role is to match customer with supplier. There is reason to believe that suppliers with an account on such third parties will be influenced by associations attached to the third party brand. However, we believe that consumer reviews will have a larger effect on evaluation of supplier than the brand of third party. Considering this, if the supplier has none pre-existing reviews from prior consumers, there is reason to believe that consumers will rely more on brand equity attached to a third party.

H6: Is brand equity a moderator in access-based consumption?

RQ4: Does the effect from the drivers change, dependent on equity?

3. Methodology

To answer the aforementioned hypotheses and research questions, two studies will be conducted. MTurk, or some other form of online distributor of surveys will be used for data collection. Therefore, the sample will be based on an American population. This sample is appropriate as the majority of literature on collaborative consumption stems from the US. According to a study from PWC (2015), people aged between 25 - 44 are most likely to take part in collaborative consumption. Consequently, this will be our target group. There is no requirement for respondents to have participated in "the sharing economy" prior to our survey.

Data collection will be conducted using questionnaires. The first study will be designed to test the direct effects of the following drivers on behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption: sustainability concerns, economic benefits, social environment, trust, and access. The objective of the second study will be to determine the importance of brand equity in mediated access-based consumption.

The framework, sample size, measurement scale, and wording of the questionnaires will be based on past studies, ensuring consistency and reliability in measurement design (see: Keller, 1990: Hamari et. al, 2015; Moeller & Wittkowski, 2010). To secure internal consistency reliability within the hypothesized dimensions, correlation tests will be conducted. Hence, Cronbach's alpha will be computed. Cohen´s kappa will also be computed to secure inter-rater reliability.

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1977), intention is one of the best predictors of behavior. Supported by the Theory of Reasoned Action and Theory of Planned Behavior (Sheppard et. al, 1988). Therefore, intention will be used as a proxy for consumer behavior in our study.

3.1 Pretest

In the pretest, we will test for flaws in the questionnaires by gaining feedback from scholars and peers. The questionnaire for both groups will be subject to a pretest. The sample group will be 10 for each questionnaire, and will be gathered through convenience sampling. If necessary, changes will be done accordingly.

3.2 Study 1

There will be two groups within the study. We will prime a fictional brand for low brand equity, and Airbnb for high brand equity. Both groups will contain 500 respondents.

We will ask the respondents to score their intention to participate in "the sharing economy", on a 7-point Likert scale, at the beginning of the questionnaire

Each driver will receive a rating of importance according to the subjective evaluation of each respondent. This rating will be done on a five point Likert-scale, ranging from disagree to agree.

Prior to the analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis will be conducted to analyze the latent constructs, and the strength of their factor loadings.

In our findings, we will set a threshold for those that are likely to participate and those who are not likely to participate. At this stage, we foresee that this threshold will be 6. Respondents indicating a behavioral intention to participate in access-based consumption the upcoming year as very likely (6) and extremely likely (7) will be counted as participators. Respondents answering 5 and 4 will be counted as likely participants, while those answering 3 or lower will be categorized as non-participants. We will further analyze how these groups differ in relation to the drivers proposed.

This study aims to answer hypotheses 1-5, in addition to research question 1, 2 and 3.

3.3 Study 2

We will compare the results from the previous studies, and test hypothesis 6, and research question 4. This will result in a conclusion to what degree brand equity moderates the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable.

Note that the methodology section is still in an early phase. We will seek guidance from supervisor to critically review the method proposed. We welcome feedback.

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