

Article history: Received 24 June 2019; accepted 2 August 2019
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33182/tmj.v7i2.813>

Beer Brand Word-of-Mouth Drivers in Colombia: A Qualitative Exploration

Philipp G. Stahl [‡]
Nathalia C. Tjandra [§]
Alessandro Feri [¥]
Kristen Marshall [^]

Abstract

This paper explores which motivational drivers incline consumers to engage in word-of-mouth (WOM) communication within the Colombian beer market, forecast to be among the most important beer markets during the coming years. Colombian consumers are primarily influenced by recommendations from friends and family and are therefore more likely to adopt new products due to WOM rather than mass communication. Yet marketers still have little knowledge of how to manage WOM effectively, especially in the Latin America region. Consequently, the authors adopt a qualitative research method conducting semi-structured interviews with fifteen Colombian beer market mavens aimed at exploring which motivational drivers cause consumers to engage in WOM. Twelve motivational drivers were found for WOM about beer brands. Of these, two were found to be partially important, and three appeared to be necessary. The findings of this study propose a number of recommendations to be made for enhancing motivational drivers to generate more WOM. The findings of the study could be used to develop a quantitative measurement identifying which of the motivational drivers have the most influence on Colombian consumers to engage in WOM. This research could assist brewing businesses to internationalise into the Colombian beer market and to achieve competitive advantage.

Keywords: word-of-mouth; beer; market mavens; Colombia; Latin America.

Introduction

The beer world is very fragmented with some major players like ABInBev, SABMiller, and Heineken, and many small breweries, which have increased dramatically by total numbers of breweries over the last few decades especially in the USA and within the last decade in the UK (Euromonitor, 2014; Alkhatib, 2014). Furthermore, the beer industry is known for its marketing budget being one of the highest of all industries, where Heineken spends 12.5 per cent of its annual sales

[‡] Philipp G. Stahl, Edinburgh Napier University, Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland, United Kingdom. E-mail: philipp.g.stahl@gmail.com.

[§] Nathalia Tjandra, Associate Professor of Marketing, Edinburgh Napier University, Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland, United Kingdom. E-mail: n.tjandra@napier.ac.uk.

[¥] Alessandro Feri, Lecturer in Marketing, Edinburgh Napier University, Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland, United Kingdom. E-mail: a.feri@napier.ac.uk.

[^] Kristen Marshall, Lecturer in Marketing, Queen Margaret University, Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland, United Kingdom. E-mail: KMarshall@qmu.ac.uk.



on marketing (Van den Oever, 2012). However, new players in the market, due to the craft beer trend of the last decades and the smaller established breweries, might not have had such an extensive marketing budget. They might have not needed it, due to the fact that they sell their beer regionally rather than internationally (Davis, 2013). However, the beer market in Colombia is shifting with the introduction of Central Cervecera de Colombia SAS (includes Heineken and other International brands in its portfolio), Bavaria's SA's 97% volume share will be challenged (Euromonitor, 2017). While other markets may be stagnating or experiencing low growth, beer continues to experience positive growth with premium offerings expected to perform increasingly well in Latin America (Malandrakis, 2017). Similarly to Asia and the Middle East, Latin America is interesting because of its changing market structure (Arbix, 2010; Baena, 2012; Grosse, 2016; Mostafa and Mahmood, 2015).

Colombia is one of the most important markets within Latin America because of its large population, people's rising disposable income, and relatively low consumption of beer (Euromonitor, 2014). Due to these factors, Colombia offers one of the highest growth potentials within the beer category in Latin America. Colombia has also seen changing trends within the beer category from basic products towards premium products (Euromonitor, 2014). Microbrewing and more local offerings might also gain a foothold as consumers in Latin America may be likely to embrace higher quality options (Cyrino *et al.*, 2010; Malandrakis, 2017). Consequently, it can be seen as an important market for local brands, with a high growth potential, and for international beer brands positioned in the premium segment (Bianchi, 2014; Alvarez, 2004; Castro-Gonzales *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, the Colombian government introduced free trade agreements with the European Union and the USA and those combined with the shift towards more premium products were a reason why the imported premium lagers rose in total volume in 2013 by 21 per cent (Euromonitor, 2014). Furthermore, beer became a financially attractive option for alcohol consumption within Colombia as it enjoyed a lower than average tax increase compared to other alcoholic drinks in 2017 (Euromonitor, 2017). Consequently, Colombia could be seen as an important market for local brands with a high growth potential and for international beer brands positioned in the premium segment (Tesfom and Lutz, 2006).

Many breweries with a relatively small marketing budget have concentrated on word-of-mouth communication (WOM) to gain market share, with bigger breweries also integrating WOM campaigns into their marketing strategy (Ferguson, 2008). This might be due to the



fact that many studies regarding WOM have concentrated on its consequences and found that it has a significant effect in increasing sales – indeed, one that is much greater than traditional marketing communication tools can achieve (Hogan *et al.*, 2004; Berger and Schwartz, 2011). Until about a decade ago, WOM was considered a side effect of marketing, but now it is widely recognised as a communication tool in its own right (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Whilst WOM is considered more powerful than other marketing communications in forming and changing consumer's perceptions of brand value (Ertekin and Atik, 2012), it is also more difficult to manage than other kinds of communication because it happens constantly and involves the whole customer-brand experience (Ferguson, 2008). Nonetheless, WOM's importance in today's beer industry is increasing, as it is one of the cheapest and most effective communication tools (Wien and Olsen, 2012).

It is perhaps surprising that no qualitative studies have been undertaken to investigate the motivational drivers of WOM in the context of beer brands; indeed, conventional advertising research tends to explore the reach and frequency of WOM rather than its drivers (Groeger and Buttle, 2014), and more contemporary studies focus on electronic WOM. As Colombian consumers are primarily influenced by recommendations from friends and family, a study of non-electronic WOM is appropriate for this context. This study contributes to the existing literature, using a qualitative research method, by proposing a framework for the motivational drivers of WOM in the context of beer brands in Colombia. The findings could help breweries operating both locally and internationally within the Colombian beer market by allowing them to increase their sales volumes and market share with only a very small investment. This paper is structured as follows: a literature review, research methods, and findings and discussion with reference to the relevant literature. The study is summarised by suggesting managerial implications and highlighting research limitations, as well as areas for future research.

The power of WOM to build beer brands

WOM is defined as “the act of exchanging marketing information among consumers” (Chu and Kim, 2011, p. 48). It is generally perceived as more trustworthy and credible than marketing communications initiated by companies (de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Lau and Ng, 2001) and it also has a greater influence on the adoption of innovations than mass communication (Rogers, 2012). WOM can help consumers by aiding in the awareness and evaluation of new products through trusted sources of information (Chatterjee, 2011). As a consumer's buying process is a social one – influenced not

only by companies promoting their brands, but also by people engaging with brands to gain information – WOM ultimately reduces the risk involved in the buying process (Rosen, 2001; Wien and Olsen, 2012; Balaji and Sarkar, 2013).

Most studies regarding WOM have concentrated on its consequences, finding that it can create purchase intentions (Doh and Hwang, 2009; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2012), influence product value perceptions (Gruen *et al.*, 2006), and impact the diffusion of sales (Berger and Heath, 2007). Furthermore, WOM has been found to be more effective in influencing consumers to change brands when the messages are perceived to be coming from a neutral source (Folse *et al.*, 2012) and convert unfavourable or neutral predispositions into positive attitudes (Wu *et al.*, 2016; Hutter and Hoffmann, 2014).

The Motivational Drivers of WOM in the Colombian Beer Market

Opinion seeking and opinion giving are two important dimensions of WOM (Chu and Kim, 2011). While the motivations to seek WOM are quite obvious (i.e. information search), the motivations for giving WOM are more complex. That may be another reason why research has mainly concentrated on tracking and investigating the consequences of WOM, rather than looking at its drivers (Bruwer and Reilly, 2006; de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Sweeney *et al.*, 2012). Although there are many studies that investigate motivations for eWOM (Prendergast *et al.*, 2010; Chu and Kim, 2011), the nature of online communications means that the variables presented in these studies are not directly transferable to face-to-face communications.

Some studies about WOM from the givers' perspective have examined the consumer-brand relationship. For instance, in terms of product characteristic, researchers found that hedonic products received more WOM than utilitarian products (Wojnicki and Godes, 2008; Berger and Schwartz, 2011). This might be particularly true for beer, as previous studies have found that commercial communications around beer are better linked to consumption when there is "a social utility orientation, learning of normative expectations about drinking", because the consumption of alcohol is often tied to social interactions (Strickland, 1982, p.307). Brand love, or brand passion, is another concept that evolved because consumers who love a brand are more enthusiastic about sharing that love with their peers (Albert and Merunka, 2013; Albert *et al.*, 2013; Ferguson, 2008). A comprehensive review of the existing WOM literature identifies nineteen motivational drivers that could motivate consumers to engage in WOM. As the following sections discuss, some of these drivers are interrelated and their potential implications on WOM are highlighted.



Lovett et al. (2013) were the first to study differentiation in relation to WOM, measuring it by using a weighted average of items, including the extent the product is different, distinctive, unique, dynamic and innovative. In the beer industry, consumers find it difficult to differentiate between beer brands when doing a blind test; therefore, beer brands emotionalise their products because the added value comes mostly with the brand, rather than the product (Apostolatos and Poore, 2012; Van den Oever, 2012; Keller, 2013). Beer has also become a more information-intensive product through the craft beer trend, which enables marketers to differentiate themselves by giving more information about their brand (Bruwer and Reilly, 2006). As micro brewing has been identified as a growing trend in emerging markets, it is expected that consumers will continue to seek out alternatives and recognise points of differentiation (Malandrakis, 2017).

Social interaction is based on the human desire to socialise with others and it has been found to increase the frequency of WOM (Wolny and Mueller, 2013; Rosen, 2001). However, social interaction is dependent on three motivational drivers, 'accessibility', 'visibility', and 'age' (Berger and Schwartz, 2011; Lovett et al., 2013).

Accessibility is based on the classical conditioning theory, which incorporates a stimulus and a following response that was learned over time (Pavlov, 1927). Visibility is a stimulus related to accessibility, because the more visible a brand is the more accessible it is (Berger and Schwartz, 2011). However, accessible brands are not necessarily visible brands because some brands are consumed more publicly than others (*ibid.*). Consequently, the more visible a brand is the more likely consumers will talk about the brand. Therefore, some brands which are usually not visible are made visible (Lovett et al., 2013).

The age of a brand is a brand characteristic that is related to uncertainty and a high demand for information, because consumers might not know much about new brands (Peres et al., 2010). Lovett et al. (2013) found that new brands are more likely to be talked about than old brands; thus, new beer brands might lead consumers to engage more in WOM due to the uncertainty and high information demand (Peres et al., 2010). Younger or new brands tend to receive immediate WOM and if they are accessible or visible over time, they are likely to receive on-going WOM (Berger and Schwartz, 2011).

Brand identification comes from the congruence between the consumer and the brand regarding the image, values, personality, and the typical consumers of the brand, and express significant aspects of the self (Fournier, 1998; Escalas and Bettman, 2003; Albert and Merunka, 2013). Identification is also linked to 'commitment',

because affective brand commitment comes from brand identification and then the willingness to maintain a relationship with a brand (affective commitment), but could also be caused by a lack of alternatives or too high costs to switch brands (continuance commitment) (Fullerton, 2005; Albert and Merunka, 2013; Albert *et al.*, 2013). Fullerton (2003) found that commitment is stronger when it is linked to identification than to the lack of alternatives or too high costs. Similarly, affective commitment was found to have a positive effect on WOM, while continuance commitment had no effect on WOM (Harrison-Walker, 2001; de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Wolny and Mueller, 2013).

Consumers engage in WOM to enhance their positive self-image amongst others (Wojnicki and Godes, 2008; Han *et al.*, 2010), so they may try to enhance their perceived expertise by demonstrating their knowledge about brands, or they may talk more about brands they think will make them appear more interesting (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004; Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Knowledge is important because consumers are not able to engage in a conversation or provide information about a brand when they do not have knowledge about it (Wien and Olsen, 2014).

Consumers are expected to talk more about a brand when they are excited about it because 'excitement' is a stimulating emotion (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, it is argued that 'interesting' brands are talked about more than bland brands because people think it makes them more interesting when they talk about interesting things (Berger and Schwartz, 2011). Interesting brands were found to motivate consumers to engage in WOM, although Berger and Schwartz (2011) conclude that interesting brands receive more immediate WOM, but do not receive more overall.

Consumers are more likely to recommend high-quality brands or brands with a high perceived value to enhance their self-image, their perceived expertise, or to signal their social status (Wojnicki and Godes, 2008; Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, perceived value and quality have an influence on consumers' behavioural responses, because a high value could lead consumers to commit to a brand and then to recommend it within their hub, while high quality could lead consumers to speak about a brand more favourably (de Matos and Rossi, 2008).

'Satisfaction' is one of the most researched motivational drivers with an effect on WOM (Casaló *et al.*, 2008; de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Doh and Hwang, 2009; Finn *et al.*, 2009). The consumption of a brand, or just the thinking about it, can evoke emotions, which can lead



consumers to share these – including their satisfaction (Casaló *et al.*, 2008; Finn *et al.*, 2009; Wolny and Mueller, 2013).

Trust is closely related to satisfaction because the more consumers are satisfied with a brand the more they trust it (Kau and Loh, 2006). Further to this, trust can lower uncertainty and anxiety and so satisfy consumers (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). Indeed, high levels of trust are related to higher levels of positive WOM (de Matos and Rossi 2008). WOM givers are trusted sources and do not like to give incorrect recommendations, and, therefore, trust of a brand is particularly important to them (Mazzarol *et al.*, 2007). Some studies find trust to be more important than satisfaction in relation to WOM, but this could be due to the benefits created by trust which, in turn, influence satisfaction resulting in WOM (de Matos and Rossi, 2008).

Loyal consumers give positive recommendations to others within their hubs and are more motivated to positively process new information about a brand they are loyal to (de Matos and Rossi, 2008). Although 'loyalty' is found to be a driver for WOM, trust and satisfaction have a slightly stronger relationship (*ibid.*).

Product-involvement is concerned with the personal relevance a consumer sees in a brand (Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Schau and Gilly, 2003; Wolny and Mueller, 2013). Consumers who have a bond with a brand show a high level of product-involvement (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Consumers are not likely to talk about brands that are not relevant to them, but as a brand becomes more relevant they are more likely to discuss it (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, a brand that can relate to consumers' values and attitudes allows consumers to experience product-involvement (Wolny and Mueller, 2013). Product-involvement seems to be particularly important for WOM about hedonic brands, due to its emotional dimension (*ibid.*). The positive arousal from a brand can create a tension that can only be eased through talking, recommending, or showing enthusiasm about that brand (Wolny and Mueller, 2013).

Functionally, perceived risk is seen as a reason for consumers to search for information, or to provide information – to reduce the risk of bad brand performance or the risk of paying a higher price (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Emotionally, perceived risk is explained by the possible social embarrassment caused by a brand, and, therefore, consumers might want to express their anxiety about a brand or search for information (Rogers, 2012; Sundaram *et al.*, 1998). Consumers engage in WOM within their network to reduce the risk of social embarrassment as a result of using a brand that is not accepted by their hub (Lovett *et al.*, 2013; Wien and Olsen, 2014). This is more

present in collectivistic cultures than individualistic cultures, because consumers from collectivistic cultures, with strong social ties, appear to prefer what the majority prefers, and, therefore, they engage more in information searching to reduce the risk of choosing the wrong option (Christodoulides *et al.*, 2012; Hofstede, 2014; Wien and Olsen, 2014). Colombians are collectivistic (Hofstede, 2014), and, therefore, they could be more likely to engage in WOM due to information search rather than information giving.

The 'complexity' of a brand is related to the information demand of consumers when engaging in WOM. The higher the complexity of the information demands, the higher the risk, and, therefore, the greater the need for engaging in WOM to lower the perceived risk (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Complexity is measured by looking at the time frame needed to get used to a brand, to fully understand the advantages and the brand concept, and the effort needed to use it (*ibid.*).

Data and methods

This study focuses on Colombian beer market mavens, who are likely to have substantial knowledge about the Colombian beer market and to share their knowledge with others (Gladwell, 2000). Market mavens are "individuals who have many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information" (Feick and Price, 1987, p.85). Marketers have often tried to reach market mavens to generate WOM because this group of consumer are recognised by others as having good market awareness (Thomas, 2004; Wien and Olsen, 2014). This study adopts a qualitative approach, which attempts to understand the social interactions of beer market mavens in Colombia conceptualising them as entities which have causal power. The causal explanation between motivators for providing WOM and the effects of the WOM within a social context is established as a conceptual basis for WOM (Chu and Kim, 2011), and so the authors sought to understand the social action through interpretation. Qualitative interviews allowed the authors to understand the social world by examining the expressed meanings (*ibid.*).

The interviews were conducted in Colombia January 13th and February 17th 2015. Snowball sampling was undertaken to identify beer market mavens. Contacts were made with four individuals in Colombia, in two different cities (Bogotá and Medellín), who were considered beer market mavens and those individuals were asked to identify further Colombian beer market mavens to be interviewed until data saturation was reached. According to Liamputtong (2013,



p. 16), "saturation will occur when few or new data are being generated". In this study, data saturation was reached when no new data was emerging under the motivational drivers identified and once each driver was well developed individually and interdependent of the others identified (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Although no new data was generated after the twelfth interview, three more interviews were undertaken to ensure that saturation was reached. Therefore, the sample size of fifteen interviewees for this study could be seen as sufficient to reach data saturation (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Mason, 2011; Trotter, 2012). Table 1 presents the demographics of the respondents.

Table 1. Demographic of the respondents

No.	Nationality	Age	Sex	Occupation	Recommendation	Price in Colombian Pesos
1	Columbian	63	m	Pensioner / Telecommunication	Club Colombia Roja	2.000
2	Columbian	62	m	Pensioner / Florist	Club Colombia Roja	2.000
3	Columbian	37	m	Receptionist / Typographer	Poker	1.650
4	Columbian	21	f	Student	Corona	3.750
5	Columbian	23	f	Student	Club Colombia Dorada	2.000
6	Columbian	30	m	Architect / Lecturer	BBC Monserrate Roja	4.000
7	Columbian	24	f	Student	Club Colombia Negra	2.000
8	Columbian	24	f	Student	Club Colombia Dorada	2.000
9	Columbian	30	m	Simultaneous Translator	Aguila Imperial	3.000
10	Columbian	35	m	Consultant for International Sourcing	Stella Artois	3.750
11	Columbian	31	f	Fashion Designer	Club Colombia Dorada	2.000
12	Columbian	23	f	Student	Heineken	3.750
13	Columbian	28	m	Tourist Guide	Pilsen	1.650
14	Columbian	25	m	Student	Club Colombia Negra	2.000
15	Columbian	26	f	Bank Analyst	Club Colombia Roja	2.000

AV: 32,13 f: 7 ; m: 8

The interview questions were developed from the nineteen motivational drivers derived from the existing literature. The data of the interviews were analysed by thematic coding, which was developed from the drivers discussed in the literature review.

Findings and Discussion

The findings of this study suggest that twelve out of nineteen motivational drivers identified in the literature were leading Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about beer brands. As the following section shows, the main drivers identified in this research are: differentiation, visibility, age, identification, commitment, interesting, excitement, perceived value, perceived quality, product-involvement, perceived risk, and complexity. Moreover, perceived expertise and knowledge, although not sufficient to enhance WOM about beer brands, were found to have a significant role. Finally, satisfaction, trust, and relevance, despite being necessary to recommend beer brands, were not found to be motivational drivers.

Differentiation

Consumers use consumption and possessions to express their group identity or uniqueness (Han *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, differentiated brands are used to signal uniqueness and they show higher rates of WOM than non-differentiated brands (Berger and Heath, 2007; Lovett *et al.*, 2013). The interviews found that the majority of Colombian consumers drink what their friends drink, and, therefore, group identity seems to be important for engaging in WOM about beer brands. This is different from Lovett *et al.*'s (2013) study, which might be explained by Colombia's national culture, because consumers from collectivistic cultures usually prefer what the majority prefers (Hofstede, 2001; Wien and Olsen, 2014).

Most Colombian consumers seem to recommend differentiated brands or brands with a perceived differentiation. The respondents mentioned functional differences, such as the price of the brand, packaging, and the differentiated experience a brand offers. Yet, most important for Colombian consumers appears to be the chance to personally differentiate themselves,

"My lifestyle is changing, and, therefore, the topic of status and the appreciation of nice things. I am looking for congruence between my lifestyle and the brand. I want a beer that reflects my status I have been developing."
(Respondent 6)

Some respondents said their friends drink the brand they recommended, but added that "not everyone consumes it; it is something to differentiate yourself" (Respondent 15). Hence, Colombian consumers appear to drink and recommend beer brands within their group of friends, but they also like to recommend differentiated brands to express their uniqueness. These findings suggest that Colombian consumers signal their group identity within their social network, and their uniqueness to people from outside it.

The following comment was congruent with the suggestion that beer producers have to emotionalise their products because the added value might not come with the product, but rather with the brand (Apostolatos *et al.*, 2012; Van den Oever, 2012; Keller, 2013),

It is about being special and about knowing the difference. However, everything that makes it special is marketing because the taste of Club Colombia and Pilsen is very similar. I think Club Colombia is the most exclusive beer brand and that is what they want me to think.
(Respondent 8)

Thus, differentiated brands appear to be important for Colombian consumers to recommend a brand and this is in accordance with



Lovett et al.'s (2013) study, which indicates that differentiated brands show higher WOM than non-differentiated brands.

Accessibility, Visibility and Age

To see if the accessibility of a beer brand has an influence on the motivation of Colombian consumers to recommend it, the respondents were asked what reminds them of the brand they recommend when they think about it, and if they could remember a marketing campaign for it (Berger and Schwartz, 2011). Respondents remembered mainly functional parts of the brand like: design, packaging, flavour, and the experience they had while consuming it. The only brand that seemed to use a stimulus, which was remembered and mentioned by many of the respondents, was Aguila, which used a sort-of beauty campaign, selecting local girls as spokes people. However, only Respondent 9 recommended Aguila, and he indicated a special edition beer that the Aguila Girls had not advertised. Hence, an advertisement campaign might be used as a stimulus to make a brand easily memorable, which is congruent with the findings of Berger and Schwartz (2011), but it appears that Colombian consumers were not motivated by this stimulus to engage in WOM.

The findings also indicate that recommendations appear to be more important than advertisements, while the visibility could be a stimulus to start talking about the brand, as explained by Respondent 7,

I need a lot of propaganda, like advertisements or publications, but I do not really watch much television. Therefore, I need advertisements in the streets or in the park where I hang out with my friends. Or I just listen to someone who has tried a beer after seeing it on television. I think that really helps to spread the word.

This finding reaffirms that the adoption rate of innovations is dependent on both mass communication and WOM. Consequently, the visibility of a brand in advertisement campaigns might lead Colombian consumers to engage in WOM, but some respondents recommended a beer brand without the stimulus of mass communication, saying that they would engage in a conversation when they saw an on-trade advertisement or a product in someone's hand; as explained by Respondent 9, "Costeñita, for example, is not a brand you will find often or everywhere. Therefore, when I see someone with that beer I will ask for it". As a result, visibility seems to be a stimulus to engage in WOM, which is in agreement with Berger and Schwartz (2011) and Lovett et al.'s (2013) findings. Nevertheless, the visibility might be dependent on the place and the beer brand.

Most respondents mentioned alcohol content, flavour, colour, texture, foam, producer and origin as important considerations when buying beer. Many respondents said, "The origin is important for me because I like to support the national industry" (Respondent 7). However, the origin was also important to some respondents because,

People know that German or Belgian beers are good and Colombian beers are good too. There are countries, which are not very specialised in beer. So if you tell me about a beer from Venezuela or Costa Rica it would not really attract my attention. They are not very well known.

(Respondent 5)

Respondent 4 elaborated on this point, saying, "The producer is important because when you know who made the beer, you know it is better for your health because they use better ingredients". Hence, many respondents' need primarily functional information about brands. Yet, Respondent 6 explained that different products have a different information demand; for example, craft beers, which are usually new beer brands, seem to have a higher information demand than commercial beers. It seems that Colombian consumers might engage more in conversations about new brands than commercial and well-known brands, which supports the findings of Lovett et al.'s (2013) study.

Identification and Commitment

Most respondents seemed to identify with the brand they recommended because they could identify with the typical consumers of the brand. They said that typical consumers are people like their friends, or people like themselves, as explained by Respondent 13, "Very often it is not really about the taste, you drink the beer because everyone drinks it", and Respondent 9, "Often, when there is a beer brand your friends like you want to drink it too because you want to be part of it". This is in congruence with Albert and Merunka's (2013) study.

Most respondents mentioned that price is the element that they dislike about the brand they recommended. This was possibly because most respondents recommended premium brands. Therefore, it does not seem like Colombian consumers engage in WOM due to continuance commitment. Thus, this finding is in accordance with the findings of Harrison-Walker (2001) and Fullerton (2003).



In addition to the packaging, design, origin or flavour, some respondents mentioned that they liked the brand because they could identify themselves with the brand they recommended, as explained by Respondent 11,

Basically, the taste and the bottle. I like the image; it seems to me to be very elegant. I also like that they use the history of Colombia, archaeological things, which represent the country. Further, it is fancy in a kind of way. Therefore, you see the beer and you talk. It can change the paradigm people have of how we Colombians are.

Similarly, most respondents seem to identify with the typical consumers of the brand they recommended, as well as through shared values and the personality of the beer brand. Furthermore, most respondents showed affective commitment through identification. Hence, the findings of this study confirm the results of other researchers: brand identification, and the resulting affective brand commitment, motivates consumers to engage in WOM about brands (de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Albert and Merunka, 2013; Wolny and Mueller, 2013).

Perceived Expertise and Knowledge

Most respondents said that other people know as much as they do about beer, and some said that others could speak with more knowledge than they could. This is interesting since as other people consider the respondents to be knowledgeable. Most respondents said that they are not experts regarding the brand they recommended, or beer in general. Some respondents said they would describe themselves as, "Connoisseurs but maybe not experts" (Respondent 2). Respondent 15 explained, "I think I have been trying a lot of beers, but I do not know if I am an expert". Hence, this study has been unable to demonstrate that self-described consumer experts engage in more WOM than others, because none of the respondents described themselves as experts, which is in contrast with the findings of Wojnicki and Godes' (2008) study. Only a few were able to recall facts about the brand; for example, Respondent 15 said,

It is a beer with a longer fermentation period. It is the special beer of the brewery Bavaria, like a special line. It has around five per cent of alcohol and around Christmas they have other bottles and other things.

Hence, this study has been unable to support the findings of Lovett et al.'s (2013) study, saying that consumers will only engage in WOM about a brand when they have knowledge about that brand,

because many of the respondents said they do not know much, or anything, about the brand they recommended.

Interesting and Excitement

All respondents said that their recommended beer brand appears to be interesting to them, with some noting that this was because it is well known, attracts attention, or as a result of the brand's values. Hence, Colombian consumers seem to recommend interesting brands and, furthermore, some consumers use these to enhance their own self-image; therefore, the results of this study are in agreement with those of Berger and Schwartz (2011).

Most respondents said they feel happy, good or excited when they see or buy their recommended brand. A common response from the respondents was, "Happy, I feel good because I know I bought a quality beer and not just any beer" (Respondent 12). Most of the other respondents added that these feelings would lead them to engage in a conversation about the brand. For instance, a respondent highlighted: "Yes, very happy. When I see the brand, while being with a friend, I say 'hey that beer is very good, let us buy it'. Or when I see it on a menu at a restaurant, I say how good it is" (Respondent 10). Consequently, Colombian consumers seem to engage in WOM due to excitement about a brand, which is in accordance with the findings of Lovett *et al.*'s (2013) study.

Nonetheless, excitement might not lead Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about a brand when it is one they usually consume. Exciting brands seem to get more immediate WOM, but not more overall, which is similar to the findings of Berger and Schwartz (2011) about new brands. Hence, new brands might be more exciting than old brands, and, therefore, new brands and exciting brands might get more immediate WOM, but they will not receive more overall.

Perceived Value and Perceived Quality

Colombian consumers appear to recommend beer brands with high perceived value, which is consistent with the results of earlier studies (de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Lovett *et al.*, 2013). They also seem to use consumption to signal their social status and to enhance their positive self-image, which is congruent with the findings of Schau and Gilly (2003), Hennig-Thurau *et al.* (2004), and Han *et al.* (2010). Every respondent said that his or her recommended brand offers great value for money. When recommending a brand, Colombian consumers seem to stress their recommendation with the value for money the brand offers. This might be because most respondents recommended a premium beer with a high price that has to be justified. For instance, Respondent 4 indicated,



Especially here in Colombia, not everyone is able to buy a beer in a bar that costs 8000 to 9000 Colombian Pesos [£2.00 - £3.00]. Here you know who is rich and who is poor. Therefore, the people who buy Corona are people from the middle or upper class, but never from the lower class because it is very expensive.

These findings match those observed in earlier studies (de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Wojnicki and Godes, 2008; Han *et al.*, 2010; Lovett *et al.*, 2013).

Most respondents said that their recommended beer brand has a superior quality to other beer brands. Only when Colombian consumers compared their recommended beer brand to imported beer brands did they consider other brands of better quality. This might be due to the fact that many Colombian consumers think that the price and the quality of a brand correlate and, since imported beer brands are usually more expensive, they might think that the quality of those beers is better too.

Satisfaction, Trust and Loyalty

Regarding satisfaction, all respondents said that the beer brand they recommended satisfies them. A typical answer was: "Yes, because in specific moments I am looking for something specific and satisfaction is a necessity" (Respondent 6). It seems like satisfaction is necessary for Colombian consumers to recommend a beer brand and these findings are in accordance with previous studies (Casaló *et al.*, 2008; Finn *et al.*, 2009; Wolny and Mueller, 2013). However, satisfaction could be investigated in more detail because this motivational driver is necessary to recommend a beer brand, but may not be a motivational factor for Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about them.

Almost all of the respondents said they trust the beer brand they recommended. Some respondents said, "Sure I am anxious, because I do not want the other person to have a bad experience. I have obviously expectations of how you like the beer or what you think about the beer" (Respondent 12). However, most respondents said, "Relaxed, because I think I am giving a good recommendation. It is possible that they do not like it but I think it is a good recommendation, so it is fine" (Respondent 10). It seems like Colombian consumers recommend beer brands because they trust the brand. They feel anxious about the response of others because they do not want to give a bad recommendation, but if they trust the brand they think they will give a good recommendation. These findings match those observed by Mazzarol *et al.* (2007) and de Matos and Rossi (2008).

However, similar to satisfaction, this motivational driver seems to be important for Colombian consumers to recommend a brand, but it does not seem to be a motivational driver to engage in WOM.

All respondents said that they switched between beer brands. Some respondents said they switch between brands because there is little difference between them, because it was easy to order what everyone else ordered, because the beer they prefer was not available, or because of the price. Respondent 8, for example, said,

"It depends on what I want and on the price. If you go to an estate of a friend for a party, you will buy Pilsen because you can buy a lot more. But if you want to drink a nice beer and your parents pay, you will buy Club Colombia."

Respondent 6 explained that, "It depends on the situation. When I want to drink beer at my place with friends I will drink a common beer. When I invite someone for a special dinner or to a special place, I will have a special beer". Thus, Colombian consumers may switch between beer brands in different contexts to enhance either their self-image or social image.

Most respondents highlighted that they do not interact with the brand or search for any information about the beer brand they recommended. Colombian consumers do not seem to be loyal to any beer brand and are sensitive to availability, price, or occasion. Consequently, the findings of this study regarding loyalty do not confirm what other researchers identified (de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Wolny and Mueller, 2013). However, according to de Matos and Rossi (2008), trust had a higher influence on the motivation of consumers to recommend brands than satisfaction or loyalty, and this study appears to be in line with those findings.

Product-involvement and Relevance

Most respondents were able to relate to the brand they recommended. Often the respondents mentioned the quality, the origin, or when recommending Club Colombia, they mentioned the name. Some of the respondents did not just identify with the brand, but it also seemed to make them feel proud of themselves and their country, as explained by Respondent 11,

Club Colombia, totally. I like that it makes me feel very Colombian. I like the indigenous part, from the earth, which is represented a lot by Club Colombia. It wants to be very premium, but does not want to be very European, and nothing else. It is more classic, nothing fashionable that changes quickly. It is a nice thing.



Consequently, it can be said that the respondents seem to identify with the brand, as well as the attitudes and values it represents. Thus, it seems like product-involvement is important for Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about beer brands, which is in line with the results of Wolny and Mueller (2013).

Regarding the relevance of a brand, all respondents said that the brand they recommended is relevant, but almost all of them said that the beer they recommended is not the most relevant. For example, Respondent 6 said,

Club Colombia is more relevant. Because it is present in every moment I drink beer. It is the premium beer of Bavaria and it is more affordable than the beer of the BBC. So for me, Club Colombia is more relevant and I like it more and the one I have at home is Club Colombia. I do not buy BBC in the supermarket. When I buy beer and I want to impress you and I invite you to my house and they sell BBC I will buy it. However, when we are friends and we meet to watch a movie or have a conversation at home I buy a more commercial beer like Club Colombia or Pilsen.

It seems like beer brands have to be relevant to Colombian consumers to motivate them to engage in WOM about a beer brand, which is in accordance with Lovett *et al.*'s (2013) study. However, it was suggested that the more relevant a brand was the more likely consumers will engage in WOM about it (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). This does not appear to be the case in this study.

Perceived Risk and Complexity

The respondents said that most Colombian consumers asked for information about the performance of the brand. This could be the taste, alcohol content, experience or which beer gets you drunk quicker. However, Respondent 9 explained what other information might be important,

"When someone goes to a place, like a house or a house of a friend, you sometimes want to bring a special beer, a bit more expensive, to show off. A six-pack of Budweiser, for example, because it is kind of cool. It is because we do not drink much Budweiser because it is a foreign beer. The same with Heineken or Miller."

Hence, price and the social embarrassment could also be important to Colombian consumers.

Most respondents talked about the brand-performance, while some talked about the social embarrassment that might be involved. As a result, it can be said that Colombian consumers appear to engage in WOM to search for information – to reduce their risk of bad brand-performance, mainly, but also to reduce the risk of paying a higher price, or social embarrassment when buying a beer. Those findings are in line with those of other researchers (Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Lovett *et al.*, 2013; Wien and Olsen, 2014).

Regarding the complexity of a beer brand, the respondents mainly mentioned the following information as necessary: alcohol content, producer, production, origin, ingredients, beer type, colour, strength, texture, foam, bitterness, packaging, taste, and price. Some respondents said, "I need more information for craft beers than for commercial beers" (Respondent 6), while others said that they like to know more a beer's advantages, as explained by Respondent 7,

Miller Lite. It attracted my attention a lot. They said it is a beer that does not make you feel full. But I do not like the taste of Miller so I have not tried the beer because if the taste is not good I do not care about the other advantages. Almost no one has ever tried the beer, though. I asked other people about it when I saw it in advertisements or when someone else drank it.

Hence, the complexity of a beer brand seems to lead Colombian consumers to engage in WOM, which supports the findings of Lovett *et al.*'s (2013) study.

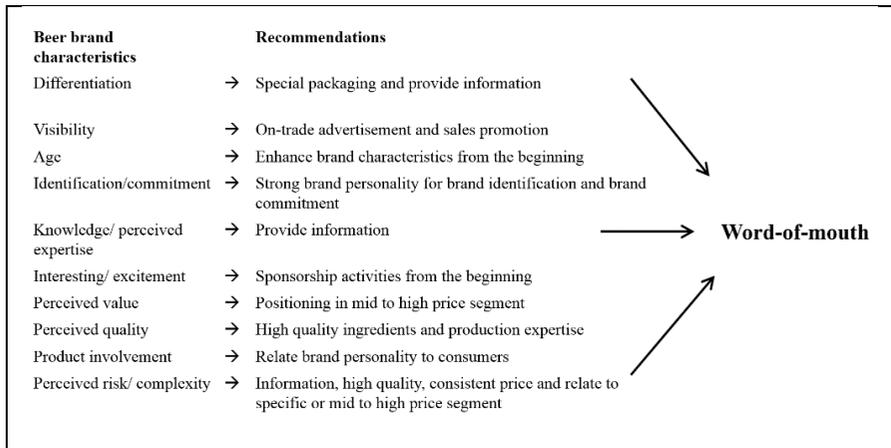
Conclusions and Managerial Implications

This study aimed to better understand which motivational drivers encourage Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about beer brands. It was conducted in accordance with the literature supported assumption that WOM is important for consumers to adopt new beer brands. Twelve out of nineteen motivational drivers drawn from existing literature were found to be drivers for Colombian consumers to engage in WOM about beer brands. Those drivers were: differentiation, visibility, age, identification, commitment, interesting, excitement, perceived value, perceived quality, product-involvement, perceived risk, and complexity. Furthermore, two motivational drivers, perceived expertise and knowledge, were found to be partially important. Satisfaction, trust, and relevance appeared to be necessary to recommend beer brands, but they were not found to be motivational drivers. Therefore, this study supports previous findings and extends the existing literature by investigating these drivers for the first time in the context of beer brands in Colombia. Consequently, this research could assist brewing businesses to



internationalise into the Colombian beer market and to increase their market share there.

Figure 2. Beer brand characteristics as drivers for WOM



Many marketers want to integrate WOM in their marketing strategies, but they do not know how to manage it effectively (Lovett *et al.*, 2013). Marketers can use the findings of this study to enhance several motivational drivers and develop relevant marketing strategy to generate more WOM within the Colombian beer market.

Colombian consumers express their group identity within their social network and their uniqueness outside of it, because collectivistic cultures prefer what the majority prefers, so differentiation was found to act as a driver for WOM. Furthermore, the added value of beer brands comes mostly with the brand rather than the product, and, therefore, differentiation could be seen as significant. Thus, beer brands could use special packaging or provide information to differentiate themselves from others.

Colombian consumers appeared to engage in WOM due to the visibility of a brand and the age of a brand, while accessibility did not seem to play an important role. Visibility, especially through on-trade advertisements, played an important role in driving WOM, but also uncommon beer brands that became publicly visible. Consequently, beer brands could develop on-trade advertisement campaigns and targeted sales promotions in the street for uncommon brands to make them more visible. New beer brands appeared to have a higher information demand than old brands and they received more immediate WOM, but not more overall. Consequently, beer brands

should enhance those motivational drivers that increase WOM from the outset.

Identification and affective commitment appeared to be particularly important amongst Colombian consumers engaging in WOM, while continuance commitment did not seem to have any influence on their behavioural response. Therefore, beer brands should try to create a strong brand personality, with which Colombian consumers can identify, and this will make consumers commit to their brand and create more WOM.

Colombian consumers appeared to use consumption to express their social status or to enhance their positive self-image amongst others. They also appeared to appreciate receiving information about beer brands in order to be perceived as an expert by others. They engage more in WOM when they felt excitement, or when they had high perceived quality or value; however, excitement was also similar to the age of a brand, because it led to more immediate WOM, but not more overall. Thus, beer producers could provide Colombian consumers with information that could allow them to be perceived as experts; for example, the production process, ingredients, consumption recommendations and origin. To be perceived as interesting, beer brands could engage in sponsoring activities, which fit with the brands' personality.

While the mavens did express a preference for Colombian beers, there was a perception that imports were of higher quality and this was directly linked to the higher price of imports. There might be an opportunity for Colombian beer brands to capitalise on their preferred status as local producers, while also focusing on their quality. Developing premium offerings or special editions could be one approach to encourage consumers to associate local producers with higher price points and superior quality.

Colombian consumers recommended brands that they trust and that satisfy them. However, satisfaction and trust did not appear to motivate Colombian consumers to engage in WOM. Colombian consumers did not seem to be loyal to any beer brand. They appear to consume the brand they recommend more often, but mostly because of availability, price, or the occasion for consuming the brand. Since satisfaction and trust appeared to be necessary for Colombian consumers to recommend a brand, producers should consistently meet consumers' expectation by delivering consistent quality and taste.



A beer brand had to be relevant to Colombian consumers for them to engage with it, but it did not seem like brands are recommended more often because they are more relevant. Product-involvement appears to be important as a driver for WOM about beer brands amongst Colombian consumers. Therefore, to encourage product involvement and maintain relevancy, beer brands should try to relate their beer brands' personality to their consumers' attitudes and values.

As collectivists, Colombian consumers appeared to engage more in information searching than information giving. Colombian consumers engage in WOM to reduce their perceived risk regarding brand performance, paying a higher price, and to avoid social embarrassment. Consequently, beer producers should provide information and a high quality product to reduce consumers' risk of bad brand-performance. The given information would also lead consumers to engage more in WOM due to the complexity of a beer brand and loyalty to the brand (Diaz and Vassolo, 2012). Furthermore, beer producers should employ a consistent price policy for their brands to reduce consumers' risk. Lastly, to reduce the risk of social embarrassment, beer producers should either relate their beer brand to a specific target market segment or position their brands in the medium- to high-price segment, so as not to be perceived as cheap.

One limitation of this study is its generalisability, due to the small convenience sample used. Yet, the generalisability is not as important in qualitative research, or in this study, because it does not aim to statistically prove others' theories. As this exploratory study was intended to extend theory, a quantitative research method could be employed to prove or disapprove the findings. A quantitative study would also be helpful to statistically analyse which of the motivational drivers that seemed to motivate Colombian consumers to engage in WOM are most important. Furthermore, it would be interesting to investigate if the same motivational drivers motivate consumers in other countries to engage in WOM about beer brands. Finally, the researchers suggest that the three motivational drivers, namely visibility, satisfaction, and trust, are investigated in more detail due to the various influencing factors which fell outside the scope of this study.

References

- Albert, N., & Merunka, D. (2013). The role of brand love in consumer-brand relationships. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30(3), 258-266. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761311328928>
- Albert, N., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2013). Brand passion: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(7), 904-909. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.12.009>
- Alkhatib, A. (2014). Beer - Key Trends for the Year Ahead. Euromonitor International, Retrieved November 2014, from the Passport database.
- Alvarez E, R. (2004). Sources of export success in small- and medium-sized enterprises: the impact of public programs. *International Business Review*, 13(3), 383-400. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2004.01.002>
- Apostolatos, K., Atkinson, D. & Poore, J. (2012). How to build a global beer brand. Retrieved August 1, 2016, from <http://www.thedrinksbusiness.com/2012/03/building-a-successful-global-beer-brand-part-7/>
- Arbix, G. (2010). Structural change and the emergence of the Brazilian MNEs. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 5(3/4), 266-288. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801011058389>
- Baena, V. (2012). Market conditions driving international franchising in emerging markets. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 7(1), 49-71. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801211197879>
- Balaji, M. S., & Sarkar, A. (2013). Does successful recovery mitigate failure severity? *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 8(1), 65-81. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801311297282>
- Berger, J., & Heath, C. (2007). Where consumers diverge from others: Identity signaling and product domains. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(2), 121-134. <https://doi.org/10.1086/519142>
- Berger, J., & Schwartz, E. M. (2011). What drives immediate and ongoing word of mouth? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 48(5), 869-880. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkr.48.5.869>
- Bianchi, C. (2014). Internationalisation of emerging market firms: an exploratory study of Chilean companies. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 9(1), 54-78. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJoEM-02-2010-0013>
- Bruwer, J., & Reilly, M. (2006). The power of word-of-mouth communication as an information source for winery cellar door visits. *Wine Industry Journal*, 21(3), 43-51.
- Casaló, L. V., Flavián, C., & Guinalú, M. (2008). The role of satisfaction and website usability in developing customer loyalty and positive word-of-mouth in the e-banking services. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 26(6), 399-417. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02652320810902433>
- Castro-Gonzales, S. J., Espina, M. I., & Tinoco-Egas, R. M. (2017). Strategies and competitiveness for emerging countries. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 12(1), 125-139. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJoEM-12-2014-0222>
- Chatterjee, P. (2011). Drivers of new product recommending and referral behaviour on social network sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1). <https://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-30-1-077-101>



- Christodoulides, G., Michaelidou, N., & Argyriou, E. (2012). Cross-national differences in e-WOM influence. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(11/12), 1689-1707. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561211260040>
- Chu, S.-C., & Kim, Y. (2011). Determinants of consumer engagement in electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) in social networking sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1), 47-75. <https://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-30-1-047-075>
- Cyrino, A. B., Barcellos, E. P., & Tanure, B. (2010). International trajectories of Brazilian companies. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 5(3/4), 358-376. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801011058424>
- Davis, N. (2013). The Craft Beer Market Has Exploded, And Now Brewers Are Worried About A Collapse. Retrieved November 20, 2014, from <http://https://www.businessinsider.com/alchemy-craft-beer-market-boom-bubble-outlook-2013-12?IR=T>
- de Matos, C. A., & Rossi, C. A. V. (2008). Word-of-mouth communications in marketing: A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36(4), 578-596. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-008-0121-1>
- Diaz, F., Vassolo, R. (2012). How much does country matter in emerging economies? Evidence from Latin America. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 7(3), 263-288. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801211237009>
- Doh, S.-J., & Hwang, J.-S. (2009). How consumers evaluate eWOM (electronic word-of-mouth) messages. *Cyber Psychology & Behavior*, 12(2), 193-197. <https://doi.org/10.1089/cpb.2008.0109>
- Ertekin, Z. I., & Atik, D. (2012). Word-of-mouth communication in marketing: An exploratory study of motivations behind opinion leadership and opinion seeking, 39, 323-345.
- Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2003). You Are What They Eat: The Influence of Reference Groups on Consumers' Connections to Brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(3), 339-348. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP1303_14
- Euromonitor (2014). Beer in Columbia. Retrieved November 28, 2014, from the Passport database.
- Euromonitor (2017). Beer in Colombia. Retrieved September 15, 2018, from the Passport database.
- Feick, L. F., & Price, L. L. (1987). The Market Maven: A Diffuser of Marketplace Information. *Journal of Marketing*, 51(1), 83-97. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224298705100107>
- Ferguson, R. (2008). Word of mouth and viral marketing: taking the temperature of the hottest trends in marketing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 25(3), 179-182. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363760810870671>
- Finn, A., Wang, L., & Frank, T. (2009). Attribute perceptions, customer satisfaction and intention to recommend e-services. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 23(3), 209-220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2009.04.006>
- Folse, J. A. G., Moulard, J. G., & Raggio, R. D. (2012). Psychological ownership: a social marketing advertising message appeal? *International Journal of Advertising*, 31(2), 291-315. <https://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-31-2-291-315>

- Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24, 343-373. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209515>
- Fullerton, G. (2003). When Does Commitment Lead to Loyalty? *Journal of Service Research*, 5(4), 333-344. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094670503005004005>
- Fullerton, G. (2005). The Impact of Brand Commitment on Loyalty to Retail Service Brands. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 22(2), 97-110. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2005.tb00712.x>
- Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(9), 1408-1416. Retrieved from <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss9/3>
- Gladwell, M. (2000). *The tipping point: How little things can make a big difference*. Boston, MA: Little Brown and Company.
- Groeger, L., & Buttle, F. (2014). Word-of-mouth marketing influence on offline and online communications: Evidence from case study research. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 20(1-2), 21-41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2013.797736>
- Grosse, R. (2016). How emerging markets firms will become global leaders. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 11(3), 274-287. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOEM-07-2015-0138>
- Gruen, T. W., Osmonbekov, T., & Czaplewski, A. J. (2006). eWOM: The impact of customer-to-customer online know-how exchange on customer value and loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(4), 449-456. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2005.10.004>
- Han, Y. J., Nunes, J. C., & Drèze, X. (2010). Signaling status with luxury goods: The role of brand prominence. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(4), 15-30. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.74.4.015>
- Harrison-Walker, L. J. (2001). The measurement of word-of-mouth communication and an investigation of service quality and customer commitment as potential antecedents. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(1), 60-75. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109467050141006>
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 18(1), 38-52. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.10073>
- Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (2014) *Cultural Tools*. Retrieved 24 November, 2014, from <http://www.geert-hofstede.com/countries>
- Hogan, J. E., Lemon, K. N., & Libai, B. (2004). Quantifying the Ripple: Word-of-Mouth and Advertising Effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 44(3), 271-280. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021849904040243>
- Hutter, K., & Hoffmann, S. (2014). Surprise, Surprise. Ambient Media as Promotion Tool for Retailers. *Journal of Retailing*, 90(1), 93-110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2013.08.001>
- Kau, A. K., & Loh, E. W. Y. (2006). The effects of service recovery on consumer satisfaction: a comparison between complainants and non-



- complainants. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(2), 101-111. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040610657039>
- Keller, K. L. (2013). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity* (4th ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Lau, G. T., & Ng, S. (2001). Individual and Situational Factors Influencing Negative Word-of-Mouth Behaviour. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 18(3), 163-178. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2001.tb00253.x>
- Liamputtong, P. (2013). *Qualitative research methods* (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lovett, M. J., Peres, R., & Shachar, R. (2013). On brands and word-of-mouth. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 50(4), 427-444. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmr.11.0458>
- Malandrakis, S. (2017). Beer: 3 Trends for 2017. Euromonitor International, Retrieved September 15, 2018, from the Passport database.
- Mason, J. (2011). *Qualitative researching* (1st ed.). London: Sage.
- Mazzarol, T., Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2007). Conceptualizing word-of-mouth activity, triggers and conditions: An exploratory study. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(11/12), 1475-1494. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560710821260>
- Mostafa, G., & Mahmood, M. (2015). The rise of the BRICS and their challenge to the G7. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 10(1), 156-170. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOEM-07-2012-0063>
- Pavlov, I. P. (1927). *Conditioned reflexes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Peres, R., Muller, E., & Mahajan, V. (2010). Innovation diffusion and new product growth models: A critical review and research directions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 27(2), 91-106. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2009.12.012>
- Prendergast, G., Ko, D., & Yin, V. Y. S. (2010). Online word of mouth and consumer purchase intentions. *International Journal of Advertising*, 29(5), 687-708. <https://doi.org/10.2501/S0265048710201427>
- Rogers, E. M. (2012). *Diffusion of innovations* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Rosen, E. (2001). *The Anatomy of Buzz: How to Create Word-of-mouth*. New York, NY: Doubleday. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-8804\(01\)81017-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-8804(01)81017-X)
- Schau, H. J., & Gilly, M. C. (2003). We are what we post? The presentation of self in personal webspace. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30(4), 385-404. <https://doi.org/10.1086/378616>
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Strickland, D. E. (1982). Alcohol Advertising: Orientations and Influence. *International Journal of Advertising*, 1(4), 307-319. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.1982.11104863>
- Sundaram, D. S., Mitra, K., & Webster, C. (1998). Word-of-mouth communications: A motivational analysis. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 25(1), 527-531.
- Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N., & Mazzarol, T. (2012). Word of mouth: measuring the power of individual messages. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(1/2), 237-257. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561211189310>

- Tesfom, G., & Lutz, C. (2006). A classification of export marketing problems of small and medium sized manufacturing firms in developing countries. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 1(3), 262-281. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468800610674480>
- Thomas, G. M. (2004). Building the buzz in the hive mind. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4(1), 64-72. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.158>
- Trotter, R. T. (2012). Qualitative research sample design and sample size: Resolving and unresolved issues and inferential imperatives. *Preventive Medicine*, 55(5), 398-400. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.07.003>
- Van den Oever, R. (2012). Teaching an Old Beer Brand New Tricks, [Electronic version]. *Wall Street Journal*, Retrieved 27 November, 2014, from <http://online.wsj.com/news/articles/SB1000142412788732440750457>
- Wien, A. H., & Olsen, S. O. (2012). Evaluation context's role in driving positive word-of-mouth intentions. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 11(6), 504-513. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.1402>
- Wien, A. H., & Olsen, S. O. (2014). Understanding the relationship between individualism and word of mouth: A self-enhancement explanation. *Psychology & Marketing*, 31(6), 416-425. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20704>
- Wojnicki, A. C., & Godes, D. B. (2008). Word-of-Mouth as Self-Enhancement. HBS Marketing Research Paper No. 06-01. Retrieved February 1, 2016, from the SSRN database. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.908999>
- Wolny, J., & Mueller, C. (2013). Analysis of fashion consumers' motives to engage in electronic word-of-mouth communication through social media platforms. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29(5-6), 562-583. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2013.778324>
- Wu, J., Arora, A. S., & Arora, A. (2016). Experience the "ambience." *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 11(2), 148-174. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJoEM-11-2013-0204>

