

**FACTORS INFLUENCING SOUTH AFRICAN FEMALE GENERATION Y
STUDENTS' PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR OF BEAUTY PRODUCTS**

RIANÉ CHERYLISE DALZIEL

STUDENT NUMBER: 20316054

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the discipline of

MARKETING MANAGEMENT

in the

**FACULTY OF ECONOMIC SCIENCES
AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY**

at the

VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS

of the

North-West University

Promoter: Prof. N. de Klerk

Co-promoter: Prof. AL Bevan-Dye

Vanderbijlpark

2016

DECLARATION

I declare that:

“Factors influencing South African female Generation Y students’ purchase behaviour of beauty products”

is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation has not previously been submitted by me at any other university.

SIGNATURE

RIANÉ CHERYLISE DALZIEL
November 2016
Vanderbijlpark

DATE

LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

H C Sieberhagen

SATI no 1001489

Hettie.Sieberhagen@nwu.ac.za

Translator and Editor

082 3359846

018 2994554

CERTIFICATE

issued on 02 December 2016

I hereby declare that I have edited the language of the thesis

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OF THE NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY**

The responsibility to accept recommendations and effect changes remains with the author.



H C Sieberhagen
SATI no 1001489
ID 4504190077088

It all starts here TM



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A special word of thank you to the following persons who have assisted me in completing this study:

- To God who inspires me and leads the path in my life and who carries me through all my trials and testings.
- To my parents, Pierre and Malie Zeeman, for providing me with the invaluable gift of education and for their on-going love, support and motivation.
- To my husband, Jacques Dalziel, for his love, constant support, motivation and patience.
- To my promoter, Prof. Natasha de Klerk, for her kind words, constant motivation, guidance and expertise in assisting me to complete the study.
- To my co-promoter, Prof. Ayesha Bevan-Dye, who provided additional guidance and expertise in assisting me to complete this study.
- To Ms Aldine Oosthuyzen of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) for the formatting of the document.
- To Ms Hettie Sieberhagen for her professionalism in the language editing of this study.
- To Prof. Casper Lessing for his assistance with the bibliography list.
- To the lecturers and undergraduate students who participated in the pilot and main survey questionnaire of the final study.
- To the rest of my family, friends and colleagues who gave additional support and advice in assisting me to complete this study.

Riané Cherylise Dalziel

Vanderbijlpark

2016

ABSTRACT

KEY WORDS: Fashion, beauty products, purchase intention, South Africa, Generation Y, female consumers

Fashion is regarded as a significant part of the economy, as the global fashion industry revenue reaches an astounding 1.2 trillion USD annually (Attire Club, 2013). In South Africa, fashion is regarded as an important industry that forms part of the economic development programme of the government (Grail Research, 2009:13). Brown (2013) explains that the African fashion industry has a forecast to become an industry worth 15.5 billion USD by 2019 (Aderibigbe, 2014). Fashion is perceived by the fashion industry as a selection of material and non-material aspects and, therefore, defined as an object as well as a process (Vieira, 2009:179). According to Rudd and Lennon (2000:152), the fashion process includes any aspect that forms part of managing one's outward appearance. Therefore, individuals do not only make use of apparel, they also utilise cosmetics to enhance their appearance or express their style. Accordingly, fashion comprises a number of different industries, namely apparel, footwear, leather, jewellery, perfumes, and cosmetics (Macchion *et al.*, 2015:173).

The Euromonitor International (2015) specifies that the global cosmetic industry maintained an industry growth of five percent in 2014. Allied Market Research (2015), reiterates this by stating that lifestyle improvements and the increase of disposable income will result in a future growth in the global cosmetics market. In 2013, the South African cosmetic industry accounted for six percent (R17 billion) of the manufacturing industry (Vorster, 2014:4), with a growth of 4.1 percent annually, between 1995 and 2013. In a market that has reached such a level of vigorous development, it is imperative to understand consumers' consumption regarding cosmetics or beauty products (Chen *et al.*, 2011:11630). The young female market's significant interest in cosmetics is perceived to be especially salient to fashion marketers and retailers (Nezakati *et al.*, 2013:127).

Yalkin and Rosenbaum-Elliott (2013:301) contest that it is essential to understand the underlying factors of the consumption of younger consumers. Parment (2013:190) states that younger consumers, the Generation Y cohort, is sizeable and has significant purchasing power. Markert (2004:21) defines Generation Y as those individuals born between 1986 and 2005, which in 2016 puts them at 11 to 30 years of age. South Africa's population totalled around 55 908 900 in 2016,

of which an estimated 37 percent formed part of the Generation Y cohort (Statistics South Africa, 2016). The size of this cohort makes them salient to South African marketers and retailers. Generation Y members who have engaged in tertiary education are especially important to marketers, as higher education correlates with higher future earning potential and higher social standing (Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:49; Day & Newburger, 2002). In addition, Kim and Jang (2014:39) opine that the Generation Y cohort has more occasions and reasons to spend, and that women from this group are prone to spend more money on luxury purchases. Female consumers enjoy considerable purchasing power, which increases their economic force (Pudaruth *et al.*, 2013:179), as they control 20 trillion USD in annual consumer spending globally, and this amount is expected to increase to nearly 30 trillion USD (Barmann, 2014). Research reveals that the impact of female consumers is ascendant in the cosmetic and beauty care industry (Pudaruth *et al.*, 2013:180). Moreover, research indicates women's physical appearance is more important in society than men's physical appearance, and women will most likely use fashion to express their identity and uniqueness (Bakewell *et al.*, 2006).

The primary objective of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of the antecedents of female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products in South Africa. The proposed model suggests that attitude towards beauty products, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness are factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products.

The sampling frame consisted of a list of the 26 registered South African public HEIs, which included 11 traditional universities, nine comprehensive universities and six universities of technology. From the sampling frame, a non-probability judgement sample of three HEI campuses situated in the Gauteng province was selected. Of these, one is a traditional university, one a university of technology and one a comprehensive university. Thereafter, a single cross-sectional non-probability convenience sample of 780 full-time undergraduate female Generation Y students aged between 18 and 24 was taken in 2016. Of the questionnaires completed, 610 were usable. The statistical analysis of the collected data included exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.

The findings of this study indicate that female Generation Y students have a favourable attitude towards beauty products, and that these attitudes, together with subjective norms, price

consciousness and product innovativeness have a direct influence on these consumers' purchase intention of beauty products. Moreover, they display positive intentions towards beauty products. Furthermore, these consumers are influenced by their variety-seeking and status consumption orientation regarding their beauty product purchases. Media-, celebrity-, and group influence, as well as their level of physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness play an imperative role in the beauty product purchases of these consumers.

This study contributes to the limited literature available on consumers' purchase intention towards beauty products in the South African market, with specific reference to the factors that influence the female Generation Y cohort's purchase intention of beauty products. Furthermore, this study will add information and theory to the literature of South Africa and enhance beauty product purchase intention literature internationally. The findings of this study provide insight into predicting the female Generation Y cohort's purchase intentions across a range of beauty product categories in the South African context. In addition, the results of this study have important implications for South African and international marketing practitioners and retailers involved in beauty product retailing, given that they can use the model proposed by this study to understand the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. This study offers guidance for selecting, developing or adapting effective marketing strategies to target the female portion of the Generation Y cohort within the South African beauty product industry.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Fashion is regarded as a significant part of the economy, as the global fashion industry revenue reaches an astounding 1.2 trillion USD annually (Attire Club, 2013). According to Fashion United (2015), the UK fashion industry was worth £26 billion in 2014. Similarly, in South Africa fashion is regarded as an important industry that forms part of the economic development programme of the government (Grail Research, 2009:13). Brown (2013) concurs, stating that the South African fashion market has prodigious potential, as it is one of the top fashion markets in Africa. Furthermore, Brown (2013) explains that the African economy is performing particularly well compared to other developing economies, holding six of the top 10 performing economies in 2010, with an expectation of claiming seven by 2015. With such a growth rate, the African fashion industry is forecasted to become an industry worth 15.5 billion USD by 2019 (Aderibigbe, 2014).

Fashion is perceived by the fashion industry as a selection of material and non-material aspects and is, therefore, defined as an object as well as a process (Vieira, 2009:179). According to Rudd and Lennon (2000:152), the fashion process includes any aspect that forms part of managing one's outward appearance. Therefore, individuals do not only make use of apparel, they also utilise cosmetics to enhance their appearance or express their style. Fashion comprises a number of different industries, namely apparel, footwear, leather, jewellery, perfumes and cosmetics (Macchion *et al.*, 2015:173).

While beauty products, also referred to as cosmetics, include any product used to care for, clean and enhance the beauty of the human body (Ergin *et al.*, 2005:5), they are generally used by women to enhance physical attractiveness (Guthrie *et al.*, 2008:165). Beauty products include skin-care, creams, lotions, perfumes, lipsticks, nail polish, eye and facial makeup, permanent waves, hair colours, deodorants, bath oils and mouthwashes (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:545). Guthrie *et al.* (2008:164) add that make-up such as mascara, lipstick and eye shadow assists individuals in improving their self-image. Consequently, these products increase confidence levels and assist individuals in enhancing their appearance (Sahota, 2014:31). Craik (1993:158) adds that “make-up inscribes the attributes of personality onto the social body”.

According to Premium Beauty News (2015), the European cosmetics industry exhibited a growth of 0.5 percent in 2014, even though the growth in the overall economy was still weak. The Euromonitor International (2015) specifies that the global cosmetics industry maintained an industry growth of five percent in 2014. Allied Market Research (2015) reiterates this by stating that lifestyle improvements and the increase of disposable income will result in a future growth in the global cosmetics market. In 2013, the South African cosmetics industry accounted for six percent (R17 billion) of the manufacturing industry (Vorster, 2014:4), with an annual growth of 4.1 percent between 1995 and 2013. In a market that has reached such a level of vigorous development, it is imperative to understand consumers' cosmetic or beauty product purchasing behaviour (Chen *et al.*, 2011:11630). The young female market's significant interest in cosmetics is especially perceived to be salient to fashion marketers and retailers (Nezakati *et al.*, 2013:127).

According to the literature, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) can be applied to predict consumers' behaviour across an extensive variety of contexts. These include, *inter alia*, recycling (Jones, 1990), nutrition (Shepherd & Towler, 1992), exercise (Abraham & Sheeran, 2003; Latimer & Ginis, 2005), food (Ackermann & Palmer, 2014; Tarkianinen & Sundqvist, 2005), environmental practices (Marshall *et al.*, 2010), public land management (Bright *et al.*, 1993), social media (Kim *et al.*, 2015), safe sex (Bosomprah, 2001), alcohol use, (Codd & Cohen, 2003), health (Courneya & Hellsten, 1998), voting (Singh *et al.*, 2001), female buying intentions within the fashion industry (Bellman *et al.*, 2009) and consumer behaviour (Simonson, 1992). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980:82) state that the contributing factors of deliberate human behaviour can be determined by utilising the TRA. However, by establishing the intention of a consumer, the behaviour of the consumer can also be determined, as Ajzen (2002:665) opines intention to be a precursor of behaviour. This is supported by several other authors (Chan & Bishop, 2013; Hierman & Walrave, 2012; Mishra *et al.*, 2014; Yousafzai *et al.*, 2010). According to Ajzen (1991:181), the underlying motivational factors inducing a specific behaviour are captured by intentions. Furthermore, these motivational factors indicate the amount of effort consumers is willing to employ to execute that behaviour. Based on this theory, it is vital that managers understand the target market's motivational factors in order to predict their purchase intention (Solvason, 2015:3). Consequently, for the purpose of this study, the TRA is used to examine the purchase intention of consumers with regard to beauty products.

Yalkin and Rosenbaum-Elliott (2013:301) contest that it is essential to understand the underlying factors of the consumption of younger consumers. Generational research has found the

Generation Y cohort to be the most profitable cohort for marketers, and that individuals forming part of this cohort will play a noteworthy role in future. This is evident as Parment (2013:190) states that the Generation Y cohort is sizeable and has significant purchasing power. While experts differ on the exact start and end dates of this age cohort, Markert (2004:21) defines Generation Y as individuals born between 1986 and 2005. Accordingly, in 2016, these individuals are aged between 11 and 30. In South Africa, the Generation Y cohort accounts for approximately 37 percent of the total population of 55 908 900 in 2016 (Statistics South Africa, 2016). As such, this cohort is deemed a sizable cohort, which brands them as an important segment for South African marketers and retailers. Members of the Generation Y cohort who have engaged in tertiary education are of particular importance to marketers. This is due to the fact that consumers with higher education may have the potential to earn higher salaries, and have a higher social standing (Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:49; Day & Newburger, 2002). Furthermore, higher earnings and social standing may cause individuals to have a greater influence within the society (Baum & Payea, 2005; Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:49). According to Ma and Niehm (2006:622), Generation Y members demonstrate an overall fondness for purchasing, and are likely to spend easily and quickly. In addition, Kim and Jang (2014:39) opine that the Generation Y cohort has more occasions and reasons to spend, and that women from this group are prone to spend more money on luxury purchases.

Female consumers are enjoying considerable purchasing power, which increases their economic force (Pudaruth *et al.*, 2013:179), as they control 20 trillion USD in annual consumer spending globally, and this number is expected to increase to nearly 30 trillion USD annually (Barmann, 2014). This may be due to females being appointed in advanced degree to high power jobs (O'Halloran, 2008:1), and due to female Baby Boomers who blazed new paths by attending college and entering the workforce in large numbers, as well as commanding better-paying and more secure jobs (Barmann, 2014). Research reveals that the impact of female consumers is ascendant in the cosmetics and beauty care industry (Pudaruth *et al.*, 2013: 180). According to Brookman (2000), females of the Generation Y cohort spend an estimated 312 USD on a monthly basis, where approximately 50 percent of that amount is spent on jewellery, clothing and beauty products. In the US, female teenagers generally spend a total amount of 11 hours at shopping malls weekly (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:99). Moreover, research indicates that women's physical appearance is more important in society when compared to men's physical appearance, and women will most likely use fashion to express their identity and uniqueness

(Bakewell *et al.*, 2006). For that reason, this study focuses on the female portion of the Generation Y cohort engaged in tertiary education.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to the literature, several studies have been conducted in international markets pertaining to the purchase intention of consumers. Furthermore, numerous studies have investigated factors influencing the purchase intention of consumers pertaining to a wide variety of products and services, and found a number of factors to have a significant effect on consumers' purchase intention. Some of these include attitude, subjective norms, variety-seeking, status consumption, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness (Durvasula & Lysonski, 2008; Jin & Suh, 2005; McCrindle, 2003; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2009; Mishra *et al.*, 2012; Moschis, 1976; Noble *et al.*, 2009; O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Parment, 2013). However, none of these studies investigated all of these factors simultaneously. In order to determine the most influential among various factors, it is necessary to investigate them in chorus. As such, there is an absence of research pertaining to this topic, especially on examining various factors influencing the purchase intention of consumers towards beauty products.

Given the size of the South African Generation Y cohort, this is a lucrative segment to investigate. It is expected that Generation Y individuals with a tertiary qualification will have a higher earning potential. Thus, an understanding of the student portion of this cohort will presumably offer valuable insight into these consumers' purchase intention regarding beauty products. As indicated in Section 1.1, female consumers have considerable purchasing power, which makes them an attractive segment for marketers, especially in the beauty product industry. With the significant development of the cosmetic market in South Africa, it is important to understand the factors influencing the purchase intention of consumers in this market (Vorster, 2014:4). Limited research is available on the purchase intention of consumers with reference to beauty products in South Africa. In order to address this gap in the literature, this study explores factors influencing the purchase intention of consumers in this market. Examining the purchase intention pertaining to a specific market assists in the development of effective marketing strategies. As such, marketers have much to gain from understanding the factors influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been formulated for the study:

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to determine and model the factors influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products in South Africa.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Outline the fundamental principles of consumer behaviour, the consumer decision-making process and the factors influencing the consumer decision-making process.
- Review various attitude models and theories.
- Conduct a review on the theory of reasoned action.
- Review the literature on the influence of attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness on the purchase intention of beauty products.
- Conduct a review of the literature on beauty products.
- Conduct a review of the literature pertaining to the characteristics of members of the Generation Y cohort.
- Propose a model of factors influencing South African female Generation Y students' intention to purchase beauty products.

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- Determine female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.

- Determine female Generation Y students' variety-seeking orientation concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' status consumption orientation concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived media influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived group influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived celebrity influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of physical vanity concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of price consciousness concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of beauty product innovativeness.
- Determine female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products.
- Empirically test a proposed model of the extent to which attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness influence female Generation Y students' intention to purchase beauty products.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formulated in order to achieve the empirical objectives of the study:

H₀1: Antecedents of beauty product purchase intention is not an eleven-factor structure comprising attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention.

- H_a1: Antecedents of beauty product purchase intention is an eleven-factor structure comprising attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention.
- H₀2: Variety-seeking (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_a2: Variety-seeking (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀3: Status consumption (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_a3: Status consumption (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀4: Media influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_a4: Media influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀5: Celebrity influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_a5: Celebrity influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀6: Physical vanity (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_a6: Physical vanity (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀7: Media influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.

- H_a7: Media influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H_o8: Group influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H_a8: Group influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H_o9: Variety-seeking (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a9: Variety-seeking (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o10: Subjective norms (+) do not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a10: Subjective norms (+) have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o11: Physical vanity (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a11: Physical vanity (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o12: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a12: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o13: Attitude towards beauty products (+) does not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a13: Attitude towards beauty products (+) does have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.

- H₀14: Variety-seeking (+) does not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a14: Variety-seeking (+) does have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H₀15: Subjective norms (+) do not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a15: Subjective norms (+) have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H₀16: Group influence (+) does not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a16: Group influence (+) does have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H₀17: Price consciousness (+) does not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention
- H_a17: Price consciousness (+) does have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H₀18: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does not have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a18: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does have a direct significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study comprised a literature review and an empirical study. Quantitative research, using the survey method, was used for the empirical portion of the study. The study focused on measuring attitudes and, therefore, a descriptive research design with a single cross-sectional sample was followed.

1.5.1 Literature Review

In order to support the empirical portion of this research study, international as well as South African literature was used. This literature was obtained from secondary data sources, including the Internet, journal articles, academic articles, textbooks, online academic databases, business articles, newspaper articles and magazine articles.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical portion of this study encompasses the following methodology dimensions:

1.5.2.1 Target population

For this study, the target population was female Generation Y students between 18 and 24 years of age, registered at South African higher education institutions (HEIs). Specifically, the target population was defined as follows:

- Element: Female full-time Generation Y undergraduate students aged between 18 and 24 years.
- Sampling unit: South African registered public HEIs.
- Extent: Gauteng, South Africa.
- Time: 2016.

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame for this study comprised the 26 registered HEIs in South Africa, as listed by the Higher Education in South Africa website, of which there are 11 traditional universities, nine comprehensive universities and six universities of technology (Higher Education in South Africa, 2015). From the initial sampling frame, a non-probability judgement sample of three HEI campuses located in the Gauteng province was selected, one traditional university, one university of technology and one comprehensive university. The Gauteng province was chosen as the main sample of this study due to it encompassing the largest share of the South African population.

1.5.2.3 Sample method

In order to conduct this study, a single cross-sectional non-probability convenience sample of full-time undergraduate female Generation Y students, aged between 18 and 24, was selected. Permission for students to partake in the study was obtained from lecturers at each of the three HEIs. Lecturers were informed that participants were not to be forced to complete the questionnaire; therefore, it was done on a voluntary basis and the participants' identity was kept anonymous. Subsequently, the participating lecturers were asked to hand out the self-administered questionnaire to students attending one of their scheduled classes.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

A sample size of 780 full-time undergraduate female Generation Y students was selected for this study. Previous studies of a comparable sort, such as Ergin *et al.* (2005) (sample size of 600), Kaushal (2011) (sample size of 700) and Kamal *et al.* (2013) (sample size of 400) validate the selected sample size of 780 as sufficient. The sample size of 780 full-time undergraduate female students was divided equally between the three HEIs. This allowed a sample size of 260 female students on each campus.

1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

In order to collect the required data, participants of this study were asked to complete a structured self-administered questionnaire. The measuring instrument utilised to measure undergraduate Generation Y female students' purchase intention of beauty products comprised existing scales used in previously published research. The scales from Coulter *et al.* (2002), Eastman *et al.* (1999), Eze *et al.* (2012b), Goldsmith and Hofacker (1991), Kim and Karpova (2010), Lichtenstein *et al.* (1993), Mascarenhas and Higby (1993), Moschis (1967), Netemeyer *et al.* (1995) as well as Song *et al.* (2014) were adapted and used in this study.

The students were requested to complete a questionnaire comprising two sections. The first section (Section A) was aimed at gathering the demographical information of the participants. Section B gathered the participants' beauty product purchase information. The following section (Section C) includes the items pertaining to the factors influencing students' purchase intention of beauty products. This scale measured the students' perceptions and attitudes towards beauty products and comprised 11 dimensions, measuring attitude (four items), variety-seeking (three items), status consumption (five items), subjective norms (four items), media influence (five

items), group influence (four items), celebrity influence (seven items), physical vanity (five items), price consciousness (five items), beauty product innovativeness (five items) and purchase intention (three items). The students' perceptions and attitudes were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) based on the students' extent of agreement or disagreement to the statements that relate to beauty products. A cover letter outlined the purpose of the study and provided the necessary contact details.

In order to ascertain reliability, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 48 students. The pilot test was conducted at a South African HEI campus, not forming part of the sampling frame of the main study. The results emanating from the pilot test were coded and tabulated, and considered when finalising the questionnaire.

Permission to conduct the survey during class time was requested from individual lecturers of the applicable classes at each of the respective institutions. Thereafter, the questionnaires were hand-delivered to the participating lecturers to be distributed to and completed by their full-time undergraduate female students during a scheduled class. The completed questionnaires were collected thereafter.

1.5.3 Statistical analysis

The captured data were analysed using the statistical package IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 23. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Frequency analysis
- Factor analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive statistical analysis
- Correlation analysis
- Structural equation modelling.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research study adhered to all the ethical standards of academic research. The academic staff of the participating institutions granted the required permission to perform the study. The

information provided by the participants was kept confidential at all times, and was used for statistical purposes only, guaranteeing the protection of the interest and identities of the participating students.

In addition, the questionnaire, together with an overview of the research methodology followed, was submitted to and accepted by the North-West University's Ethics Committee. This procedure was utilised to certify that the measurement instrument did not request any information of a sensitive nature and that any individual who could be categorised as being vulnerable did not form part of the sample used for the purpose of this study. The questionnaire met the Committee's standards and received the following ethical clearance number: **ECONIT-2016-027**.

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study pertains to female Generation Y students between the age of 18 and 24, registered at South African public HEIs in the year 2016. For the purpose of this study, three HEI campuses within the Gauteng province of South Africa were selected. These campuses comprised one traditional university, one comprehensive university and one university of technology.

1.8 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The cosmetics industry has experienced significant growth, resulting in increased competition amongst brands. Consequently, beauty product marketers and retailers require successful marketing strategies in order to gain a competitive advantage. Within the South African literature, limited research has been conducted on the factors influencing consumers' purchasing intention with regard to beauty products. The findings of this study contribute to the limited literature available on consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards beauty products. This study was conducted to empirically determine the factors that influence South African female Generation Y students' purchasing intention of beauty products. One of the main purposes of this study is to add information and theory to the literature of South Africa and enhance beauty product purchase intention literature internationally. In addition, the findings of this study contribute to the ProGenY research project (profiling the consumer behaviour of Generation Y in South Africa) at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

The findings of this study contribute to the literature pertaining to the female Generation Y student cohort in South Africa, concerning their perceptions and attitudes toward beauty products. Findings from this study provide insight on understanding consumers' purchasing intention pertaining to beauty products. Furthermore, the results from this study provide South African and international marketers and retailers with information regarding this market segment. The results of this study could be used by marketers and retailers in the development of effective marketing strategies aimed at marketing beauty products to female Generation Y students, which will result in businesses obtaining a competitive advantage.

1.9 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

In line with the lack of literature concerning the antecedents of South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products, one primary objective, seven theoretical objectives, and 12 empirical objectives were set out in Chapter 1. In order to address these objectives, the remainder of this thesis integrates the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Consumer behaviour

Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion on consumer behaviour and the consumer behaviour model. This chapter also comprises a discussion on the consumer decision-making process, with special reference to the different stages of this process. Furthermore, the factors pertaining to the consumer decision-making process are outlined and discussed. The last section of this chapter introduces various attitude models and theories.

Chapter 3: The theory of reasoned action and Generation Y

Chapter 3 comprises a comprehensive literature review on the theory of reasoned action, focussing on the possible factors influencing consumers' purchase intention. Included in this chapter are definitions of these factors namely, attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness. This chapter provides the literature pertaining to beauty products and the role these play in the fashion market and in everyday life. The chapter concludes with an overview on the Generation Y cohort, and more specifically the female Generation Y cohort.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

The sampling procedure, measuring instrument and data-collection method employed in conducting the empirical study are outlined in this chapter. In addition, an overview on the target population, the sample frame, the sample method and the sample size are included in this chapter. The response rate and the problems encountered are also examined in this chapter. Chapter 4 concludes with a discussion on the data analysis and the statistical procedures utilised.

Chapter 5: Results and findings

This chapter includes the findings of the empirical study, following the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the results according to the guidelines and instructions. The results of the statistical analysis procedures used to conduct the analysis are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Within this chapter, a brief overview of the study is given and the main findings of the study are provided. Chapter 6 concludes with recommendations, suggestions and limitations for future researchers pertaining to the same research study.

1.10 GENERAL

Annexures are to be found at the back of the thesis.

Tables and figures are placed on the relevant pages of the thesis.

Where no source reference appears for figures and tables, it denotes own research.

Referencing is based on the 2012 version of the NWU referencing guide: Harvard style.

1.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted the study's context and background. Furthermore, the chapter introduced a brief overview of the fashion industry and its importance within the global economy. A discussion on the beauty product industry and the significant role it plays in the fashion industry was included in this chapter. This accentuated the importance of investigating the factors that influence the purchase intention of consumers in this industry. The research problem identified in this study was that there is a dearth of published literature regarding the

factors that influence consumers' purchase intentions, especially in the South African context. As the young female market signals significant interest in beauty products, the study focuses on the female portion of the South African Generation Y cohort. In accordance with the problem statement, one primary objective, seven theoretical objectives and 12 empirical objectives were set out in this chapter. Thereafter, a brief overview of the research methodology followed to achieve those objectives was provided, followed by a discussion regarding the ethical considerations and demarcation of the study. This chapter concluded with an explanation of the contribution of the study and a classification of the chapters included in the thesis.

The subsequent chapter, Chapter 2, provides a literature review on consumer behaviour, with specific reference to the decision-making process and the factors that influence the decision-making process, together with an introduction to various attitude models and theories. This discussion serves to address the first two theoretical objectives formulated for this study.

CHAPTER 2

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Consumers possess all the power in the business world, as businesses are dependent on the consumer spending his or her money at their business (Blythe, 2013:7). Therefore, it is imperative to understand why consumers behave in a certain way. Joubert (2013:2) concurs and explains that it is imperative for marketers to understand the purchase behaviour of consumers. Furthermore, marketers need to attend to this on a regular basis, as the purchase patterns, as well as product and service preferences of consumers are subject to continuous change. Determining consumer behaviour assists businesses of all types with planning and management related activities, and contributes to the long-term success of their products (Quester *et al.*, 2011:6). Lamb *et al.* (2010:75) emphasise that marketers who study their consumers' behaviour can use the findings to change the attitudes of their consumers, predict their behaviour in certain situations, as well as influence their purchase behaviour. Kardes *et al.* (2011:11) add that marketers who understand the behaviour of their consumers can predict the motivation behind their consumers' purchase behaviour and, consequently, these marketers can deliver products and services that respond to those motivations and exceed the expectations of their consumers. An understanding of consumers' purchase behaviour, habits and needs is a fundamental principle of marketing, and effective marketing strategies can be developed accordingly (Blythe, 2013:7; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:2; Quester *et al.*, 2011:6; Taderera, 2010:6).

As specified in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of factors that influence South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. The primary purpose of this chapter is to address the first two theoretical objectives indicated in Section 1.3.2. As such, in Section 2.2, consumer behaviour will be defined, with specific reference to the consumer behaviour model. Section 2.3 comprises a description of the consumer decision-making process, with specific reference to the different decision-making stages. In Section 2.4, the focus is on the factors influencing the consumer decision-making process, and Section 2.5 presents various attitude models and theories.

2.2 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR DEFINED

Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:2) describe consumer behaviour as a combination of actions and influences associated with the purchase, consumption, evaluation and disposal of products or services, to satisfy a need. Examples of these actions include emotional, psychological and behavioural actions, and precede, determine or follow the activities consumers engage in to consume a product. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:4), consumer behaviour focuses on the way consumers decide to spend the resources available to them to obtain products or services. These resources include time, money and effort. Blythe (2013:3,5) makes a distinction between a consumer and a customer, stating that a consumer is anyone who gain benefit from the use of a product or service, whereas a customer is the individual that makes the actual decision to purchase a product or service. While differentiating between the shopper, the buyer and the consumer, Lindquist and Sirgy (2009:5) concur that a consumer is the individual who gain the benefit by using or possessing the product or service, whereas the shopper is the individual who searches for a product or service that will deliver the benefits they are looking for. Furthermore, the buyer is described as the person who completes the transaction, and acquires the product or service. Consumer behaviour does not only include the behaviour individuals demonstrate to satisfy their needs and wants, but also the behaviour of families, groups and organisations (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:6; Joubert, 2013:2; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:2). Kardes *et al.* (2011:8-9) reiterate that a consumer can be described as an individual consumer or an organisational consumer. Individual consumers purchase products and services in order to satisfy their own needs and wants or those of a third party. Organisational consumers, conversely, purchase products and services with the purpose to resell, produce other products or services, or operate a business. Given these observations, this study defines consumer behaviour as all the decisions, actions and influences associated with the selection, purchase, consumption, evaluation and disposal of products or services to satisfy needs. As this study is focused on the female portion of the Generation Y student cohort, the term consumer will refer to an individual consumer, and not an organisational consumer.

Consumer behaviour is a diverse subject (Quester *et al.*, 2011:6). This is apparent as authors differ regarding the factors that influence consumer behaviour. Blythe (2013:7) indicates that consumers' actual behaviour is created by their attitude, which comprises emotion, thought processes and intended behaviour, together with their personal and environmental factors. While, Hoyer *et al.* (2013:10) assert that the consumer's culture and psychological core, as well as the

decision-making process and behavioural outcomes and issues, affects actual behaviour. Quester *et al.* (2011:7) maintain that consumer behaviour is influenced by the personal characteristics of the consumer, those of the product and the consumption situation. Despite the differences pertaining to the factors that influence consumer behaviour, a review of the literature suggest that all these influencing factors can be categorised into internal or individual factors and external or social factors. Internal factors encompass, among others, perception, learning, memory, motivation, personality, emotion and attitude, whereas external factors comprise culture, subculture, demographics, social class, reference groups, family and marketing efforts (Blythe, 2013:18-20; Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2013:25; Joubert, 2013:5; Lamb *et al.*, 2010:76). These internal and external factors are illustrated in the model of consumer behaviour, which also captures the general structure and process of consumer behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:25). The following section provides an overview of this model.

2.2.1 Model of consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour is a complex process that comprises numerous steps that are influenced by a number of factors (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:6). Joubert (2013:5) opines that consumers make purchase decisions in a unique way because of the various factors influencing their behaviour. The following figure illustrates the conceptual model of consumer behaviour, representing all the factors influencing the behaviour of a consumer.

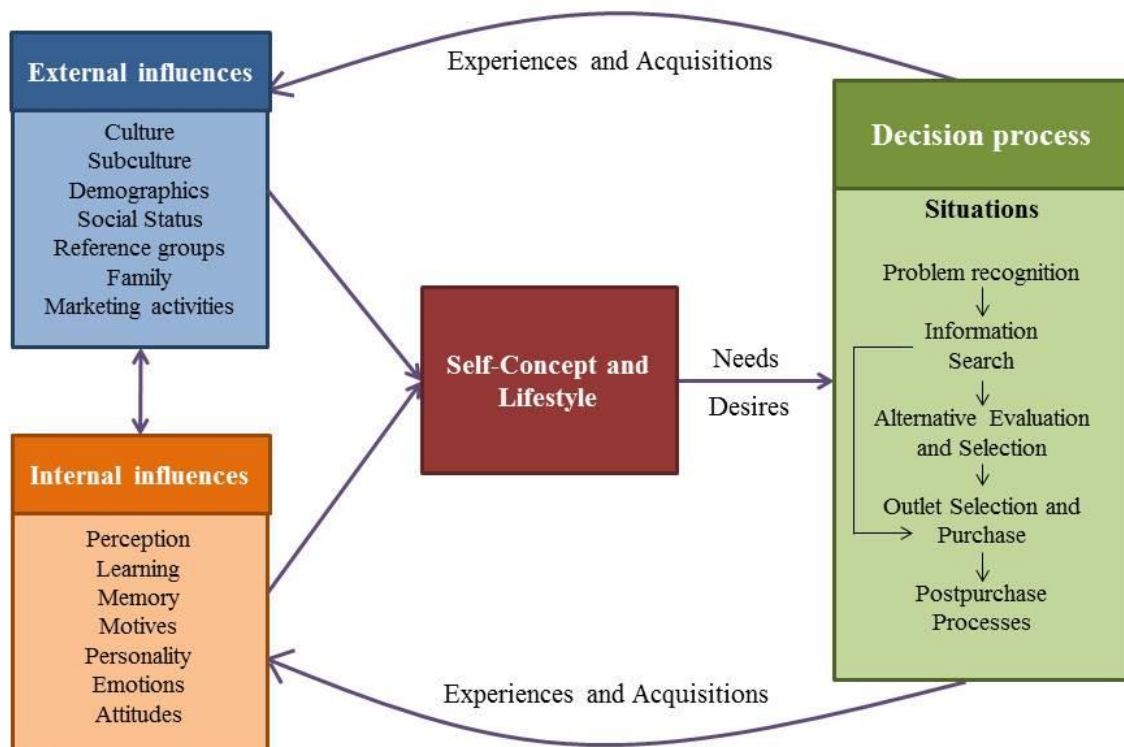


Figure 2.1: Model of consumer behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:25)

According to the consumer behaviour model depicted in Figure 2.1, various internal and external factors influence the development of consumers' self-concepts (their view of themselves) and lifestyles (ways in which they live). The internal influences mainly comprise psychological and physical factors, while the external influences primarily include sociological and demographic factors (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:24). These developed self-concepts or self-images and lifestyles yield needs and wants that generally necessitate the decision to consume a product or service (Joubert, 2013:94). Subsequently, the consumer decision-making process is activated when individuals come across situations relevant to their needs and wants. Furthermore, the consumer decision-making process and the experiences and acquisitions formed by this process affect the consumer's internal and external characteristics, which, sequentially affect the self-concept and lifestyle of the consumer (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:24).

The activity of looking for, funding and consuming a product or service is followed by the mental activity of making a decision (Joubert, 2013:2). According to Blythe (2013:297), the decision-making of consumers is formed by their needs and attitudes, and marketers therefore need to have a thorough understanding of the factors affecting their needs and attitudes, as well as the mental processes consumers undergo when engaged in the decision-making process. Shiffman and Kanuk (2014:4) posit that the current marketplace is dynamic and evolves at a rapid pace. For this reason, it is imperative for marketers to have a complete understanding of the factors that influence their target market's decision-making and decision-making process. In addition, marketers need to know what their target market want, how they think and work and spend their leisure time, as this will help them to determine how, when and where to reach their target market. As such, the following section entails an overview of the consumer decision-making process.

2.3 CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

The consumer decision-making process is defined as an intellectual process consumers use to determine the mental and physical activities they need to undertake to relieve tension caused by an unsatisfied need (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:250). Although Joubert (2013:124) posits that these activities within the decision-making process are chronological and monotonous, Taderera (2010:12) argues that some consumers may stray from this linear decision-making process and loop back to previous stages within the process. Various authors concur that the consumer decision-making process comprises five stages, namely problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation, purchase decision and post-purchase evaluation (Belch & Belch, 2015:111; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:25; Workman & Studak, 2006:75). The sections to follow briefly describe each of these five stages.

2.3.1 Problem recognition

The first stage in the decision-making process is problem recognition (Belch & Belch, 2015:111). This stage focusses on the primary incentive that initiates the shopping for products or services (Workman & Studak, 2006:75). A problem arises when a consumer has a need without a clear goal on how to satisfy that need (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:263). A consumer identifies a problem when there is a discrepancy between the actual state perceived and the desired or ideal state (Joubert, 2013:126). The actual state is the genuine situation the consumer is faced with at the current moment, whereas the ideal state is the situation a consumer desires

(Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:185). The difference between the actual and ideal state serves as motivation to act, which results in a number of cognitive processes (Joubert, 2013:126). The problem recognition stage can be complex, as a number of factors affect a consumer's problem recognition, namely environmental factors, individual differences, and information stored in the consumer's memory (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:253). Environmental factors include personal information sources, marketing influences, promotional influences, and social and cultural influences (Joubert, 2013:128). Individual differences, also known as psychological factors, comprise the consumer's motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitude (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:413). Once a need or problem has been identified, the consumer will want to satisfy the need or solve the problem through gathering the relevant information (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:512). As such, this stage initiates the succeeding stage, motivating the consumer to find information regarding the product or service (Belch & Belch, 2015:111).

2.3.2 Pre-purchase search

The pre-purchase search commences when a consumer finds that a problem can be solved or a need can be satisfied by the purchase of a product or service (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:415). This, the second stage in the decision-making process, pertains to the pre-purchase or information search (Belch & Belch, 2015:117). Included in this stage are all the psychological and physical activities undertaken to obtain information regarding the recognised problem. Consumers begin searching internally for information by scrutinising their memory to gain information from previous experiences (Joubert, 2013:128). This internal search generally delivers a set of attributes and constraints the consumer use to guide the external search (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:512). When the information gained from the internal search is inadequate, consumers resort to knowledge obtained from external sources (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:262). These external sources are divided into two categories, namely marketer-generated and non-marketer generated sources. Marketer-generated sources comprise, among others, advertising, brochures, salespeople, product placements and retail displays. Non-marketer generated sources include friends, family, magazine articles, government reports, consumer organisations, news stories and word-of-mouth (Blythe, 2013:276). Consumers engage in the pre-purchase search stage with the primary goal of making more effective purchase decisions (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:195). In addition, while engaged in this step, consumers are likely to discover

alternative solutions to the problem at hand and obtain the necessary information to evaluate these alternatives (Joubert, 2013:128).

2.3.3 Evaluation of alternatives

The evaluation of alternatives forms the third stage of the decision-making process. This stage entails consumers identifying alternative solutions to a problem and evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of each of these alternatives (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:258). Consumers categorise the identified alternatives into three respective sets, namely the evoked set, the inert set and the inept set (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:418). The evoked set comprises the alternatives a consumer is willing to consider, whereas the inept set includes those alternatives a consumer will not consider as the solution to a problem (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:513; Quester *et al.*, 2011:99-100). The inert set consists of the alternatives a consumer is aware of, but indifferent towards (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:219). From the evoked set, consumers evaluate the alternatives according to a predetermined set of criteria, and compare them to one another to establish which alternative will best solve the problem at hand (Joubert, 2013:131). In the criteria set, consumers set specific limits they consider acceptable when they search for a solution. These limits are directly associated with the consumer's desired benefits (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:549). Depending on the type of purchase decision, consumers construct different sets of criteria, as the criteria for buying a car and buying a house will differ substantially (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:259). After the evaluation and selection of alternatives, consumers will continue to the purchase stage of the decision-making process (Joubert, 2013:132).

2.3.4 Purchase

Once the search for a product or service and the evaluation thereof has been completed, the purchase stage commences (Joubert, 2013:132). During the purchase stage, the consumer should end the searching for and evaluating of alternative products and brands, and make a purchase decision (Belch & Belch, 2015:124). Based on the product or service evaluation outcome, the consumer will use cognitive processes to make a purchase decision, and will most likely choose the alternative product or service offering that best meets the established evaluation criteria (Joubert, 2013:132). Whenever consumers cannot choose from these alternatives, they will postpone the final decision to purchase (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:268). Belch and Belch (2015:126) posit that some purchase decisions are made because of a habitual routine. However, Solomon *et al.* (2006:300) report that a purchase decision may comprise more than just a

straightforward, monotonous act of going to a shop and selecting something to purchase. Consumers' purchase decisions are subjective to several personal factors, for example mood, time pressure and the specific situation for which the product is required. In some situations the salesperson, reference group or, in today's world, the Internet play an essential role in the consumer's final decision to purchase. In addition, the purchase stage includes several other decisions, namely when to purchase, where to purchase, and how much money to spend (Belch & Belch, 2015:124).

Consumers can make three types of purchases, namely trial purchases, repeat purchases and long-term commitment purchases. When a consumer purchases a product for the first time with the aim of evaluating the product, it is classified as a trial purchase. A repeat purchase, however, suggests that the consumer has adopted the product and will most likely continue to purchase it. Consumers usually make long-term commitment purchases when they purchase durable goods, such as large electrical appliances, or where a trial purchase cannot take place (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:429). For consumers to engage in any type of purchase, they have an unfulfilled need that they want to satisfy. In order to determine whether the product or service fulfilled the need that initiated the purchasing act, consumers have to evaluate the performance of the product or service (Joubert, 2013:132-133). Therefore, the purchase of a product or service is followed by various post-purchase evaluation processes (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:612).

2.3.5 Post-purchase evaluation processes

Consumers' post-purchase behaviour is important to businesses. This is because their post-purchase behaviour will determine their word-of-mouth recommendation and their decision to revisit the business, either to complain, or to engage in repeat purchases (Blythe, 2013:332). Consumers evaluate their purchase decisions based on the expectations and the desired benefits they want to gain from the purchase of a product or service. The difference between consumers' expectation and perception of the product performance will determine their level of satisfaction (Quester *et al.*, 2011:197-198). Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:429) identify three possible outcomes that evaluate consumers' satisfaction. This includes an unsatisfied consumer, where the actual performance is below the consumer's expectations; a neutral consumer, where the consumer's expectations are met by the performance of the product; and a satisfied consumer, where the actual performance exceeds the consumer's expectations. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh

(2013:621) posit that when a consumer is satisfied with the performance of a product, this may result in product commitment and loyalty.

Included in the post-purchase evaluation processes, is post-purchase dissonance, which is described as the anxiety or doubt a consumer feels after the purchase of a product (Quester *et al.*, 2011:191). Post-purchase dissonance occurs as soon as the consumer finds a difference between the pre-purchase expectations and the post-purchase outcomes (Blythe, 2013:339). Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:613) advise marketers to reduce consumers' insecurities or doubt. This can be achieved through validating their purchase decisions and giving the necessary reassurance for indulging in the consumption of the product or service.

As stipulated in the preceding sections, it is evident that consumer behaviour is a complex process and that consumer decisions are influenced by a number of factors, as discussed in the following section.

2.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

The literature contains several conflicting categorisations of the factors that influence consumer decision-making, including internal and external influences (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:24-25; Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:21-22), individual and group factors (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:5-6), psychological and external influences (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:413), and individual differences and environmental influences (Joubert, 2013:5). In this study, the factors that influence consumer decision-making were not categorised. Although these authors differ regarding the classification of the sections, the underlying principles are similar. The individual, internal or psychological influences that affect the decision-making process of consumers comprise various subsections, namely perception, learning, memory, motives, personality, emotions, lifestyle and attitudes (Joubert, 2013:129; Quester *et al.*, 2011:21; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:16). Included in the external, environmental or group influences are the organisational marketing efforts, and sociological or socio-cultural environmental influences, such as reference groups, family, social and cultural influences (Joubert, 2013:129; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:16). The subsequent sections provide a description of all these factors.

2.4.1 Organisational marketing efforts

Traditionally, marketing was described as a tool used for the purpose of increasing sales (Joubert, 2013:151). These marketing tools include effective advertising and promotion that persuade consumers to purchase a certain product or service (Whalley, 2010:11). However, according to Kotler (2000:4), the goal of marketing is to know and understand the consumer in such a way that the product or service is of value to the consumer and sells itself. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:414) concur, explaining that the main purpose of the marketing efforts of a business is to reach, inform and encourage consumers to purchase and use products. Marketing is described as all the techniques used to make consumers aware of a business, the products or services they offer, and their competitive advantage, with limited focus on the consumer (Joubert, 2013:151). Furthermore, marketing is included in all the aspects of the business, such as company culture and positioning, market research, product or business development, advertising and promotion, sales and customer service functions, and public relations, comprising practically every kind of media and business-initiated outreach (Whalley, 2010:11).

Marketing has two facets, namely a philosophy and organisational activities. The philosophy is defined as an attitude, perspective, or management orientation that is aimed at consumer satisfaction, whereas the organisational activities include all the activities and processes utilised to implement this philosophy (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:2). Furthermore, marketing involves activities of an individual and organisational nature, where the planning and executing of the creation, distribution, promotion and pricing of products, services and concepts, are used to enable and accelerate exchanges between the business and the consumer (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:8). According to this explanation, marketing is focused on creating and sustaining relationships with consumers. In order for businesses to create and build consumer relationships, they need to create, communicate and deliver value to their consumers (Belch & Belch, 2015:7). Value is determined when the consumer weighs all the benefits of a product or service against all the costs of acquiring and consuming the product or service. Accordingly, the marketing strategy of a business is aimed at providing more value to their consumer than their competitors, while producing a profit (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:10). When formulating the marketing strategy, the marketing mix elements, namely the four Ps (product, price, promotion and place) are combined and directed at providing the consumer with superior value, facilitating the prospective of an exchange between the business and the consumer (Belch & Belch, 2015:8; Khan, 2006:11).

The product forms the basis of the marketing strategy, as it is the tangible offering made to consumers in order to satisfy needs and to add value to their lives (Joubert, 2013:156; Khan, 2006:11). Consumers purchase a product to satisfy a need, and for that reason, marketers focus their marketing strategies on need satisfaction, rather than physical product attributes (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2013:17). Blythe (2013:409) agrees, stating that a product is more than a physical item, and includes various benefits that appeal to the consumer's affective and conative aspects. The aspects that may add to these benefits include the branding and the appearance of a product, as well as the manufacturer's reputation. In addition, Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:7) opine that the product aspect of the marketing strategy includes the post-purchase benefits, such as warranties and return policies.

The price is the amount of money the business charges consumers to obtain the right to use the product or service (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:19). Traditionally, the marketing strategy was used to set a certain price in order to obtain a reasonable return on the investment the business made in the product or service. However, when relationship marketing emerged, the price was based on the relationship between the business and the consumer, and the additional features or services ordered by the consumer (Joubert, 2013:157). When determining the price aspect of the marketing strategy, marketers should consider various discounts, allowances and payment methods (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:7). Joubert (2013:157) recommends inviting consumers to participate in the pricing process by giving them the opportunity to customise their purchase and accordingly determining the price they pay, and the method of payment.

The place aspect of the marketing strategy is referred to as the location where the exchange takes place, and is concerned with more than convenience. It may also include part of the product, as the product may add to the hedonic benefits perceived by the consumer (Blythe, 2013:418). This aspect can also be referred to as the delivering of a product, and comprises the distribution of the product and ensuring that the consumer knows how to obtain the most benefit from the product, and also ensuring they receive good after-sale service (Tanner & Raymond, 2012:15).

Promotion or marketing communication is used to describe the product or service and its value to potential and present consumers (Tanner & Raymond, 2012:12). This communication method includes mass advertising, the sales force or personal selling, promotional offers, manuals, price lists, public relations, packaging and any other communications concerning the business, and the products and services offered (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:18; Joubert, 2013:157;

Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:8). In addition, businesses make use of media, such as television, radio and cinema, to convey their marketing messages (Blythe, 2013:419). According to Khan (2006:12) and Tanner and Raymond (2012:13), promotion or marketing communication is used to make consumers aware of a business and its products and services, and to change the attitude of the consumer towards the business and its products and services to a more favourable attitude. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:217) posit that consumers usually purchase products to satisfy a need; however, some purchases may take place as a result of group influences. The next section concerns a discussion on reference groups.

2.4.2 Reference groups

Although a group is usually referred to as two or more individuals, a reference group involves any external influence that provides social cues (Belch & Belch, 2015:134). Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:95) describe a reference group as any individual or group that consumers use as reference or comparison when they develop certain values and attitudes, as well as behaviour patterns. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:218) agree, stating that consumers use reference groups' perspectives and values as a reference for their own behaviour. These groups influence consumers by broadcasting information, welcoming comparisons, and setting norms or standards members should adapt (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:70). Joubert (2013:26) theorises that the more entwined a consumer is with a reference group, the more their behaviour will correlate with the group members' behaviour.

Several types of reference groups exist, namely membership groups, aspirational groups, formal and informal groups, and primary and secondary groups. When a consumer needs to be a member in order to be part of a certain group, it is classified as a membership group (Joubert, 2013:26-27). An aspirational group is a group that consumers are not a part of, but which they admire and wish to be a member of (Hoyer *et al.*, 2011:305), such as celebrities, sport icons, as well as movie and music stars. Groups with a definite structure and membership criterion, such as colleagues, are defined as formal groups (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:68). However, informal groups are groups without formal rules or criteria, namely families and friends (Joubert, 2013:27). Informal groups are important to businesses and marketers as they have a remarkable influence on the purchase behaviour of consumers (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:97; Solomon *et al.*, 2006:351). Family and friends form part of primary groups that have strong ties and continuous contact with one another, whereas secondary groups include professional and

religious groups, and comprise weaker ties and less frequent contact (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:218-219). Hoyer *et al.* (2013:306) identify two other types of reference groups, namely associative and dissociative reference groups. An associative reference group is a group an individual belongs to, or can relate to, like a specific age, ethnic or geographic group. However, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:219) assert that a reference group with negative desirability, or a dissociative reference group, is a group that displays values, attitudes and behaviours that are rejected by society or an individual, and does not want to be imitated.

These reference groups can affect an individual in a number of ways, namely informational, normative and value-expressive influences (Joubert, 2013:27). With informational influences, an individual may accept valuable information from reference group members as credible (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:351). Normative influences refer to consumers obtaining a reward for obeying a specific reference group's norms or being sanctioned for not adhering to these norms (Khan, 2006:61), whereas value-expressive influences refer to individuals' behaviour that is influenced by aspiring to be like a certain group or sharing that group's values (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:98). According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:218), individuals may belong to several different groups; however, one particular group will function as the primary point of reference or comparison.

Marketers cannot ignore the significant effect reference groups have on the purchase behaviour of consumers. Solomon *et al.* (2006:350) state that the desire of consumers to 'fit in' or to relate to desirable individuals or groups is the main motivation for several of their purchases and activities. Various researchers have studied the effect of social groups on consumer behaviour (Hansen, 1969; Lou, 2004; Madahi & Sukati, 2012; Moschis, 1976; Stafford, 1966; Witt 1969; Witt & Bruce, 1972; Venkatesan, 1966) and have found that consumers are susceptible to group influence regarding various products, including bread (Stafford, 1966), suits (Venkatesan, 1966) and frequently purchased nondurable products (Witt & Bruce, 1972). Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:95) assert that consumers are more susceptible to group influence when purchasing speciality or luxury products. As such, consumers may be influenced by reference groups when purchasing beauty products. According to this section, family forms part of various reference groups, and has an influence on the purchase behaviour of consumers. The subsequent section describes family and its influence on consumers' purchase behaviour.

2.4.3 Family

Blythe (2013:243) suggests that the family is one of the most influential powers that affect the consumer decision-making process, and is referred to as the most vital reference group. According to Joubert (2013:140), the composition and structure of families differ significantly, and therefore it is difficult to define a family. However, in the traditional sense, a family can be defined as two or more individuals, residing together and related by blood, marriage or adoption (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:187). Couples who live in consensual unions, regardless of whether they are legally married, can also be described as a family (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:405). The family, more specifically the parents, are influential regarding behaviour patterns, as well as the cultural and social-class values, as they pass this on to the next generation (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:187). Similarly, children can influence the purchase behaviour of their parents by applying pressure on parents to make certain purchases (Blythe, 2013:248). Family members do not only influence the behaviour of other family members but also play a noteworthy role in the socialisation of these members (Quester *et al.*, 2011:423), contributing to the economic well-being of their family members, offering emotional support and shaping the lifestyles of their members (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:272). McDaniel *et al.* (2013:212) add that family influences the values, attitudes, and self-concept of their members. Therefore, marketers need to determine the significance of the influence families or households have on consumer decisions.

2.4.4 Non-commercial sources

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:16), non-commercial sources form part of the external factors that influence consumers' decision-making. These non-marketing controlled sources include personal experiences, personal sources, public sources and other rating organisations that evaluate products and services (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:188). The Internet and social networking sites are also included in the non-marketing controlled sources, as consumers can learn about and evaluate products and services without interferences (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:169). Personal experiences refer to the consumer testing or observing the product or service, while personal sources include product or service recommendation from friends, family, colleagues or acquaintances (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:188). Word-of-mouth communication (WOM) forms part of personal sources, and is described as individuals who share information about a product or service verbally, face-to-face, telephonically or on the Internet (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh,

2013:230). WOM is considered the most powerful personal influence, and has the ability to strengthen or weaken marketing messages, especially when communicated on social media (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:227). Accordingly, WOM communication has a more significant influence on consumers than other marketing-controlled communications (Blythe, 2013:230) and generally precedes a consumer's decision-making (Quester *et al.*, 2011:467). Public sources comprise consumer reports, newspaper and Internet reviews, in addition to any rating organisation, such as trip advisor, consumer reviews and numerous other organisations (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:188-190). In addition, government publications are included in public resources (Hanson, 1980:54). Consumers prefer non-commercial or independent sources, such as rating organisations or consumer reviews when they are searching for information regarding a product or service (Tanner & Raymond, 2012:99). These sources are used to determine the trustworthiness of the business and its products and services (Blythe, 2013:207), as these sources are deemed credible, and consumers are generally less sceptical towards messages from an unbiased source (Belch & Belch, 2015:25). Hanson (1980:54) posits that the influence of these non-commercial sources differs depending on the product, as well as the personal characteristics of the consumer. Some of these characteristics, such as lifestyle, values, norms, interests and behaviour, usually determine the social class consumers are grouped into (Belch & Belch, 2015:132).

2.4.5 Social class

Several authors define social class as a group of individuals who are approximately equal regarding status and community esteem, and who share similar behaviour patterns (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:167; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:330; Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:364; Joubert, 2013:5-6; McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:206; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:99). Furthermore, individuals who form part of a social class socialise formally and informally on a regular basis, and share various ideas and values concerning life and the way it should be lived (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:436). Social class is determined by various factors, namely profession, education, income, wealth, race, ethnic group, and possessions (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:167). The basis on which social class is established differs according to the characteristics members of a society desire and hold in high esteem (Quester *et al.*, 2011:496). Most societies have three broad social classes, namely upper, middle, and lower class; however, various subsections can be added to this structure (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:364). Within the South African context, social class is classified into five categories. These include upper class, upper middle class, middle class, working class and lower

class (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:99). Blythe (2013:205) posits that the power and influence individuals have depends on their social class within a society.

Individuals belonging to a social class generally have similar behavioural patterns, attitudes, values and possessions (Noel, 2009:67). Consequently, a social class affects many aspects of their lives, namely childhood training, choice of religion, selection of profession, time spent on certain activities and, therefore, purchase decisions (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:167). Furthermore, social class determines the acquisition, consumption and disposition behaviour of consumers (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:369), and is an indication of the type of product certain consumers will purchase (Joubert, 2013:5). Solomon *et al.* (2006:428) reiterate that social class affects how consumers spend their money, as it is a reflection of their 'place' in society. Accordingly, marketers can use social class to determine the advertising message and medium to employ when advertising products and services to the various social classes (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2009:495; McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:208). Blythe (2013:189) posits that social class, together with culture and subculture, forms part of the social environment that includes all the behavioural inputs received from other people. Therefore, the following sections pertain to an overview on culture and subculture.

2.4.6 Culture

Culture is defined as the knowledge, beliefs, art, law, customs and other skills and traditions individuals acquire when they are included in a specific society (Quester *et al.*, 2011:529). Values and behaviours included in culture are learned and inherited from previous generations, and members of a society believe these values or rules are as important as laws (Blythe, 2013:189-190). Cultural diversity between groups can be identified in various factors of their lives, such as traditions, religion, food preferences and entertainment (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:62). In addition, the culture of individuals can be a determining factor of their food and clothing preference, as well as the way they socialise (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:168). As such, culture is described as a society's personality (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:75; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:304; Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:41).

Practically all aspects that influence the thought processes and behaviour of consumers form part of their culture (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:40). Culture influences the decision-making process, which includes the way consumers perceive and process information gathered (Khan, 2006:34; Noel, 2009:17). In addition, the purchase behaviour of consumers, including how they purchase and use products, is also affected by their culture (Blythe, 2013:190). Accordingly,

culture has a significant effect on the development, promotion, distribution and pricing of products, also known as the marketing mix elements (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:168). Although consumers from different cultures may be interested in similar products, different promotional appeals should be used, as this will target the various cultural segments more efficiently (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:62-63). As such, an understanding of various cultures will assist marketers with the prediction of consumers' reaction to their products (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:305), and therefore, marketers spend a lot of time and resources to understand various cultures.

When culture is connected to consumer behaviour, three levels of subjective culture are particularly relevant and should be considered when formulating the marketing strategy of a business. These levels include the supranational level, the national level and the group level. Supranational cultural differences reflect the underlying dimensions of culture that affect several cultures or different societies, whereas the national level of cultural differences captures the national character or identity of the citizens of a country. Group level factors are described as the subsections or subcultures of a country or society (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:306).

2.4.7 Subculture

A subculture is a smaller section within a large, complex society (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:328). These smaller sections are formed according to characteristics of the individuals, such as age, religion, language, ethnic group, and geographic regions (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:78). Although these groups have their own values, customs, traditions and other ways of behaviour (Khan, 2006:38), they all share dominant traits of the fundamental national culture (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:330). Individuals belonging to a subculture have more similarities than those belonging to a larger culture, especially with reference to their attitudes, values and actions (Dibb *et al.*, 2013:169). Consequently, these subcultural groups influence consumers' behaviour significantly, and some are more powerful than others (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:587).

A vast array of subcultures occur within any country's national culture (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:348). The most recognised subcultures are geographic-, age-, ethnic-, gender- and brand-based subcultures. A geographic subculture includes individuals residing in the same area, with a specific language, values and traditions or habits that can affect their behaviour in some way. Age subcultures comprise individuals from the same generational cohort, where these

individuals maintain attitudes and behavioural patterns derived from their youth (Blythe, 2013:198-203). Individuals behaving in a similar way based on a common racial, language or national background are referred to as an ethnic subculture (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:151). Ethnic subcultures are dependent on the ancestors' culture, as well as the residing country's culture (Blythe, 2013:200). Within the South African context, ethnic subcultures are determined according to language, religion and ethnicity (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:51). The ethnic origins, racial identity and religious background of consumers determine their identities to a large extent (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:593). Gender-based subcultures are grounded on the gender of the individual, whereas brand-based subcultures depend on the brand preference of an individual (Blythe, 2013:203). Religion is identified as another subculture that affects the behaviour of individuals, as religion provides a framework the members should obey (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:347). As such, these religious subcultures significantly influence consumers' personality, attitude towards sexuality, birth rates and household development, as well as income and political outlooks (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:590).

As stated by Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:151), subcultures affect various aspects of consumers' lifestyle, such as food preference, clothing preference, taste in music, attitude towards various products, and alcohol consumption, to mention but a few. Accordingly, as stated by Kotler (2000:88), many markets are segmented based on subcultures, leading marketers to customise products and marketing strategies to the needs of the various subcultures.

2.4.8 Demographics

A population's demographics provide a description of the population's size, distribution and structure (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:110). Demographics are also described as a consumer's personal information (Du Plessis, 2011:15), and can be identified with ease (Khan, 2006:21). Consumers may be divided into segments based on their demographics, also referred to as their vital statistics, such as wealth, age, gender, ethnicity, location and education levels, among others. These demographic segmentation factors influence consumers' purchasing decisions directly (Blythe, 2013:8; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:55), or influence other individual attributes, such as personal values and decision styles (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:110). Marketers utilise demographic segmentation to focus their marketing strategies on specific demographic groups. These demographic groups may be based on gender, where marketers will focus on either males or females, or on age, where marketers will focus on a

specific age group, such as the Baby Boomers or Generation Y, among others (Belch & Belch, 2015:50; Du Plessis, 2011:15). According to Khan (2006:18), marketers make use of demographic variables to 'locate' their target market. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:53) identify various reasons for marketers to use demographic segmentation. First, demographic segmentation is an accurate, easy and logic way to classify people. Secondly, it is one of the most economical methods to identify and target specific segments. Thirdly, it enables marketers to identify business opportunities in the form of changes in age, income distribution, and populations of various regions. Lastly, marketers use demographics to an excessive degree, as many consumption behaviours, attitudes and media exposure patterns are directly related to consumers' demographics.

In addition to all the aforementioned influences, which include factors that influence consumers from an external source, various factors that occur primarily within the consumer also influence consumers with regard to their purchase decisions. These factors will be discussed in the succeeding sections.

2.4.9 Perception

Perception refers to the process through which individuals observe, select, organise and attend to environmental stimuli using their five senses of sight, smell, sound, touch and taste (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:80). As such, perception is described as the way consumers see the world (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:132). The perception process is utilised to transform sensory inputs into information that is stored and used to understand how the world functions (Blythe, 2013:103), and includes three stages, namely exposure, attention and interpretation (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:36). Consumers are exposed to a stimulus when it is placed within their relevant environment (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:273). For a sensory input or stimulus to be recognised, the stimulus should be sufficiently intense and placed within the range of an individual's sensory receptors (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:161). The environment is filled with an enormous amount of stimuli, and consumers cannot recognise all inputs simultaneously. Therefore, by making use of selective exposure, consumers determine which stimuli to take note of and which stimuli to discard (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:159). With the remarkably selective nature of consumer exposure, marketers are forced to use unique and extravagant methods to attract consumers' attention (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:273-274; Solomon *et al.*, 2006:48). When a consumer's attention is drawn to a stimulus, it signals that the stimulus has activated one

or more sensory receptors (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:277), and that the consumer will devote mental resources to the stimulus (Noel, 2009:94). By engaging in the interpretation stage, the consumer assigns meaning to this stimulus (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:333). The meaning that is assigned to a stimulus is determined by the characteristics of the stimulus, the consumer and the environment. This process is referred to as interpretation or the Gestalt psychology (Quester *et al.*, 2011:239-240). The final interpretation encompasses a cognitive and an affective interpretation. The process by which consumers place a stimulus in existing categories is specified as cognitive interpretation, whereas affective interpretation involves the emotional response elicited by a stimulus (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:287-288).

2.4.10 Learning

Learning is described as a process by which changes in behaviour occur according to information obtained and prior experience (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:163). Newly acquired information is collected by means of reading, discussions, observations, and from thinking. Consumers' actual experiences, together with the newly acquired information, serve as feedback, and determine their future behaviour in similar situations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:162). Through the learning process, consumers develop most of their values, attitudes, tastes, preferences, feelings, symbolic meanings and behaviours (Khan, 2006:114). Consumers are provided with learning experiences when interacting with family, friends and members of their culture, school or religious community. Furthermore, learning experiences are offered to consumers when they are exposed to mass media or any form of advertising (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:312). These learning experiences influence the products consumers purchase and the type of lifestyle they pursue (Quester *et al.*, 2011:268-269). McDaniel *et al.* (2013:223) distinguish between two types of learning, namely experiential and conceptual learning. Experiential learning refers to a consumer's behaviour changing as a result of a direct experience. However, when a consumer's behaviour changes without the occurrence of a direct experience, this type of learning is referred to as conceptual learning.

Marketers make use of two behavioural theories to induce consumer learning from a stimulus-response approach, namely the classical conditioning and instrumental or operant conditioning theories (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:164). Marketers utilise the principles of the classical conditioning theory with the aim of conditioning consumers to associate a stimulus with a response, such as a certain behaviour or feeling (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:320).

Instrumental or operant conditioning is a theory grounded on trial and error, with a positive experience resulting in future repurchase and a negative experience reducing the probability of future repurchase. Furthermore, with instrumental conditioning, marketers reinforce a desired response by rewarding consumers, and discourage an undesired response by punishment (Quester *et al.*, 2011:271). Referring to conditioning theories, consumers learn as a result of trials and positive or negative reinforcement. Conversely, cognitive learning is a result of the mental activities consumers use to solve problems (Blythe, 2013:133-134). Cognitive learning comprises three theories, namely iconic rote learning, vicarious learning or modelling, and reasoning. Iconic rote learning involves consumers learning to associate certain products with different concepts while conditioning is not present (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:190). When consumers make use of vicarious learning or modelling to learn behaviour, they learn by observing the outcomes of other consumers' behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:324). Reasoning occurs when consumers use creative thinking to restructure and recombine existing and new information with the goal of forming new associations and concepts (Quester *et al.*, 2011:275). The information learned from cognitive learning is stored in a consumer's memory, which, therefore, plays a significant role in consumer decision-making.

2.4.11 Memory

Memory is a process concerning the acquisition of information over a certain period, as well as the storage of the specific information. This information is recalled from the consumer's memory when needed (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:72). Furthermore, memory involves the consumer storing and retrieving learned information, whether consciously or unconsciously. The consumer retains this information in his/her memory, based on the type of memory employed. These types of memory include sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:100). Consumers are exposed to a great volume of stimuli on a daily basis, and therefore it is impossible to place all the learned information in their memory (Noel, 2009:115). The information received by each sense is sent to the brain separately, and one single image is produced. The image lasts a few seconds in the sensory memory, and if not processed, it is lost immediately (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:177). As such, consumers store information in the sensory memory for a very short time, and will only store the information in the short-term memory when motivated to do so (Noel, 2009:115). Short-term memory or working memory is the portion of the consumer's total memory that is currently in use and can be recalled immediately and used for problem solving (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:313; Khan,

2006:116). However, long-term memory is the memory that is dedicated to storing information for a long period or permanently (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:313). Concepts, decisions, rules, processes, affective states, among others, are included in long-term memory (Khan, 2006:117). As such, information stored in consumers' memories influence their behaviour significantly (Noel, 2009:113). Therefore, marketers need to design advertisements in such a way as to ensure that consumers retain the information displayed in the advertisement, from either their short- or long-term memory, to recall during the purchase process.

2.4.12 Motivation

Motivation is essential in understanding consumer behaviour (Evans *et al.*, 2009:6) and is described as a set of mechanisms creating a force that moves an individual to act in a specific way, with the aim of satisfying unfulfilled needs (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:160). Motivation is the result of a drive or motive set on a specific goal (Blythe, 2013:31). A motive represents an unobservable internal force that induces the behaviour of a consumer, whereas motivation is the reason for the behaviour of a consumer (Quester *et al.*, 2011:302). Consumers engage in a series of activities to satisfy an aroused need (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:165). This aroused need causes tension, which drives the consumer to attempt to reduce or abolish this state of tension (Joubert, 2013:66).

A consumer's motivation is an important factor to induce interest in a product, service or activity (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:47). Consequently, it is imperative for marketers to understand consumers' motives and motivation, as these can be used to analyse the key elements influencing their purchase behaviour (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:221). Motivation is based on various theories and each of these theories offers potential insights for marketers. Some of the theories of motivation that are regarded as important in the consumer behaviour science include Freud's id, ego and super ego theory (1923), Murray's personality theory (1938), Jung's collective unconscious theory (1953), Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), and McGuire's psychological motives (1974). The most prevalent theory of motivation within the marketing field is Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The theory proposed by Maslow (1954) arranges motives or needs in ascending order of importance (Joubert, 2013:69). According to this theory, needs or motives are classified into five categories, namely physiological, safety, social, egoistic and self-actualisation needs or motives (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:49), as depicted in Figure 2.2.

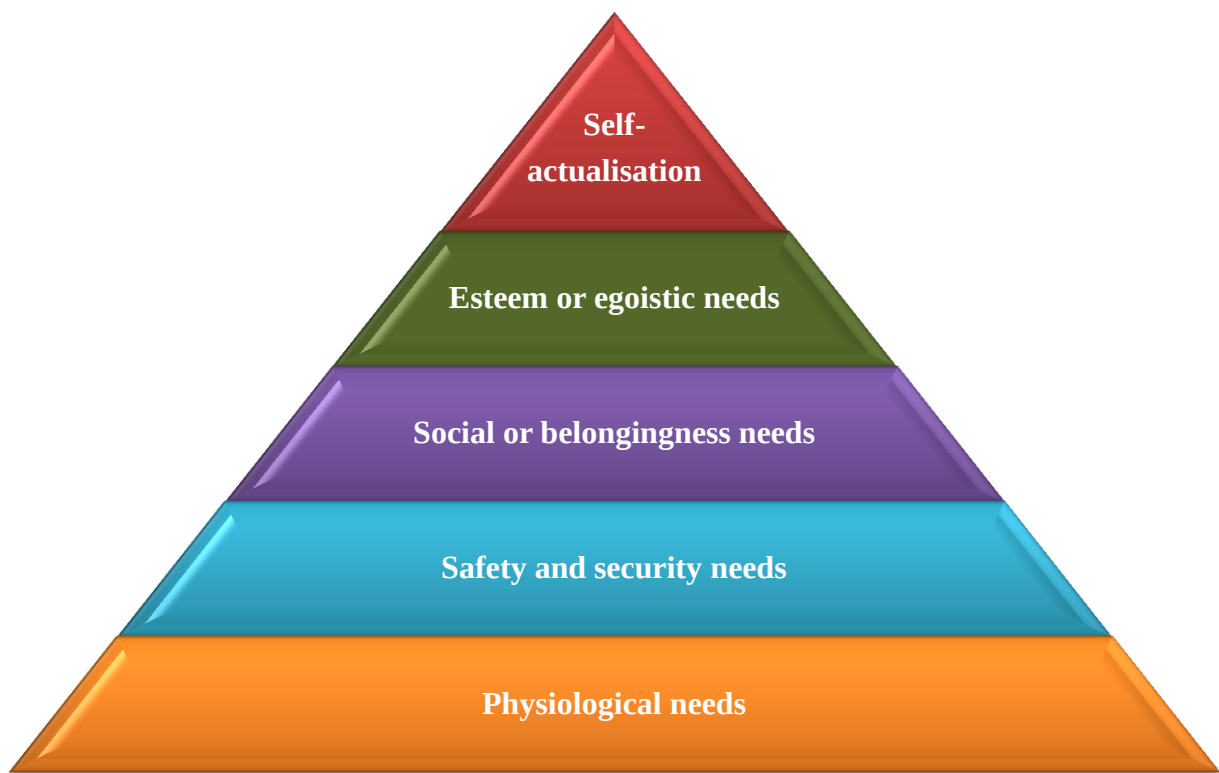


Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:84)

The first and most basic level is physiological needs includes the need for food, water, sleep and shelter. The second level of needs (safety needs) comprises physical safety and security, protection and stability (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353). The lower-level needs (physiological and safety needs) must be satisfied before the higher-level needs (social, egoistic and self-actualisation needs) are triggered (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:168). The third level, social or belongingness needs, encompasses the need for friendship, love, family, affiliation and intimacy (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:85). The succeeding level consist of egoistic or esteem needs and includes the need for status, superiority, respect and prestige (Quester *et al.* 2011:303). The fifth and final level (self-actualisation needs) comprises the need for self-fulfilment, enriching experiences and individuals' desire to reach their full potential (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:86). Hung *et al.* (2011:457) state that consumers attach emotional, experiential and symbolic values to the consumption of luxury products and, therefore, these products assist consumers with shaping their identity, building self-esteem and attaining a higher social standing. Most luxury goods provide symbolic social status, and several studies reveal that for the youth, these goods signify their ambitions and sense of belonging, which motivate their

consumption decisions (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002:394; Piacentini & Maller, 2004:253; Park *et al.*, 2008:245; Hung *et al.*, 2011:457). Therefore, beauty products, as various other luxury products, generally fulfil higher-level needs, rather than lower-level needs, as Kaur *et al.* (2013:70) assert that a woman's physical appearance can influence her social or career success in life. As such, this theory is a good guide to understanding most human behaviour in general terms (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:165; Quester *et al.*, 2011:303).

2.4.13 Personality

Personality is described as the inner psychological characteristics, to be exact, the qualities, attributes, traits and mannerisms that define an individual, making each person unique and different from others (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:204). These characteristics determine the way an individual responds to various situations (Quester *et al.*, 2011:314). Individuals are born with the characteristics forming a personality or these characteristics are formed according to the way individuals are raised (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:396). McDaniel *et al.* (2013:216) opine that the personality is a combination of an individual's psychological character and external environmental forces. Blythe (2013:79) adds that personality is a combination of the individual's perception, motivation and attitude, and that behaviour is directed by personality. Furthermore, an individual's personality is consistent, especially throughout the purchase process, and will only change by means of a difficult and slow process. Joubert (2013:89) concurs, stating that a personality can change under certain circumstances, such as a major life-changing event, either a pleasant or a traumatic event, or due to the process of growth or maturity.

Marketers are of the opinion that an individual's personality has an influence on the types of products, as well as the brands he/she purchases (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:216-217). Similarly, Joubert (2013:88) posits that the product and store choices, along with the response to promotional efforts are influenced by an individual's personality. Guthrie *et al.* (2008:167) agree, explaining that consumers make brand choices by evaluating whether the personality portrayed by the brand reflect their own personalities. Consequently, marketers use research on personality to establish personality types or groups with the purpose of targeting each of these groups effectively by means of market segmentation (Blythe, 2013:79). For that reason, marketers can obtain an excessive understanding of the way consumers behave when investigating their personality traits (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:215).

2.4.14 Emotions

Emotions are relatively uncontrolled feelings. As humans, we are emotionally charged by environmental factors as well as events, and as such, emotions control a large part of our behaviour (Khan, 2006:96). Emotions are defined as affective responses activated by deep-seated and value-laden beliefs of a consumer (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2009:286). There is a significant link between emotions, needs, motivation, and personality. The link between emotions and motivation is evident, as unsatisfied needs result in a consumer being motivated to satisfy the need, which is associated with the arousal component of emotion. Negative emotions are usually associated with unsatisfied needs, whereas satisfied needs typically produce positive emotions. Furthermore, a consumer's personality has an effect on his/her emotional state, as some consumers are more emotional when compared to others. As such, consumers who are more emotional or consumers with higher affect intensity, experience stronger emotions and are likely to be influenced by advertisements with an emotional appeal (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:368-369). As such, emotions affect the way consumers respond to advertising efforts, and therefore, influence their perception of the product being advertised (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2009:289). In addition, emotions also influence the way consumers think, the decisions they make, the way they feel after making a decision, what they remember and how much they enjoy the experience (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:9). The emotions consumers experience as a result of an advertisement affect their beliefs, knowledge and ultimately their behaviour (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2009:289).

2.4.15 Lifestyle

Lifestyle is described as a consumer's way of living or actual patterns of behaviour, determined by the consumer's activities, interests and opinions (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:401; Khan, 2006:18). Activities refer to the way consumers choose to spend their time, while interests comprise the preferences and priorities of consumers, and opinions are defined as consumers' feelings about various events (Khan, 2006:18). A consumer's lifestyle is a function of intrinsic characteristics, shaped through social interaction as the consumer progresses through the life cycle, and consequently affects all the facets of consumption behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:427). Lifestyle articulates consumers' consumption patterns based on their allocation of time and money; however, it can also reflect the attitudes and values attached to these patterns. Furthermore, lifestyle pertains to more than the mere allocation of money, as it also signals a

consumer's position in society (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:558). Consumers who have diverse opinions and interests and who are involved in different activities signify distinct lifestyle segments, and can be targeted by marketers according to those segments (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:401). As such, lifestyles may also be referred to as group identities (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:558).

Solomon *et al.* (2006:558) state that a consumer's self-concept, reference group and social class, are determining factors of his/her unique lifestyle. Consequently, consumers with a certain lifestyle may affect others within their social group (Khan, 2006:19). Solomon *et al.* (2006:558) concur, stating that lifestyles are based on various factors shared by individuals from similar social or economic circumstances. Although each individual within a specific social group will have a certain unique attribute, which signals some individuality to their lifestyle, they all have similarities with regard to their behavioural patterns. As such, consumers who have similarities regarding their lifestyle generally show a fondness for similar products. According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:427) and Rani (2014:57), a consumer's lifestyle has a noteworthy effect on his/her consumption behaviour and purchase decisions, and is of great importance to marketers, as consumer lifestyle can assist them in reaching their target market more effectively.

However, some researchers are of the opinion that the acquisition of a product or service (Blythe, 2013:153-154), as well as the success of a business's marketing strategy (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:164) is dependent on the consumer's attitude towards the product, service or even the store; therefore, attitudes are considered to be a precursor of consumer behaviour. Quester *et al.* (2011:339) agree, stating that consumer attitudes are central to understanding consumer behaviour and, therefore, form part of a considerable amount of the marketing strategy of a business. For that reason, investigating consumer attitudes is of great importance to marketers.

2.4.16 Attitudes

Within the consumer behaviour field, attitude is one of the concepts that enjoys a significant amount of attention (Belch & Belch, 2015:122). An attitude is defined as an individual's level of favourable or unfavourable evaluations, feelings and tendencies towards the behaviour, product or service in question (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:185). Furthermore, an attitude is a learned predisposition and is influenced by an individual's value system, which includes personal standards and norms (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:224). A consumer forms a specific attitude by experiencing and evaluating an object, based on the individual's own perception or

experience and information obtained from word-of-mouth communication, and the exposure to various advertising and marketing efforts (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:194; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:194). This is in line with Zikmund and Babin's (2013:260) statement that an attitude is a continuous, unchanging, responsive process embedded within an individual. This process determines the degree of favourable or unfavourable feelings individuals have towards affective, cognitive and behavioural components. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:194) conclude by explaining that an attitude is the evaluation summary of a behaviour, product or service.

Attitudes play an integral role in everyday life, as they determine the way in which individuals react towards objects, people and events (Joubert, 2013:80). An attitude is not permanent, and can change as a result of individual and situational influences, as well as marketing efforts (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:395). However, this will not be done easily (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:174). Individual influences comprise gender, need for cognition, consumer knowledge, ethnicity and regulatory focus, while situational influences comprise programme context, level of viewer distraction and purchasing occasion. Consumer involvement is an important factor and enjoys a considerable amount of attention from marketers, as this factor is regarded as both an individual as well as a situational influence (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:395). Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:208) suggest that attitude changes are learned as well, and that an individual's personality, personal experiences and information obtained from other sources play a significant role in the receptiveness towards an attitude change. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:195), therefore, posit that although behaviour can be described as a product of attitude, consumers' behaviour may be inconsistent with their attitudes due to the situation they are in.

An individual's attitude towards a behaviour is a key determinant of the intention to engage in that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:188), and behavioural intention in turn is a noteworthy predictor of the actual behaviour (Oreg & Katz-Gerro, 2006:463). Therefore, it is suggested that the attitude of an individual influences both the behavioural intention and the behaviour of the individual. This suggestion is supported by various studies (Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013:50; Kim, 2009:73; Kim & Chung, 2011:43). The attitudes of consumers are central to the decision-making process, as attitudes reveal the evaluations and behavioural tendencies consumers have towards various situations, products, services, brands and marketing efforts, to mention only a few (Batra & Ahtola, 1991:160; Kotler & Gertner, 2002:251). Various scholars argue that individuals with a

more favourable attitude regarding a behaviour will have a stronger intention to perform the behaviour under consideration (Ajzen, 1991:188; Kim & Chung, 2011:42).

Given that attitudes are essential to understanding consumer behaviour (Khan, 2006:28), several models have been developed in an attempt to explain, interpret and predict the relationships between attitudes and behaviour in various consumption related situations. The most prevailing of these models will be discussed in the following sections.

2.5 ATTITUDE THEORIES AND MODELS

Consumers' attitudes play an imperative role in their purchase intention and purchase behaviour, and therefore the measurement of these attitudes enjoys substantial attention from marketers (Blythe, 2013:159). Behavioural scientists have developed conceptual models in an attempt to better describe and understand consumer attitudes (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:261). According to Solomon and Rabolt (2009:286), attitude models are utilised in order to identify the different factors that influence consumers' evaluation of various attitude objects. The following sections contain a brief examination of some of the more important attitude models, namely the tri-component attitude model, the hierarchy of effects, the attitude-toward-object model, the attitude-toward-behaviour model, the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour.

2.5.1 Tri-component attitude model

An attitude is a composite of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes and encompasses three components, namely a cognitive, an affective and a behavioural component (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2013:384). In conjunction, these three components form the tri-component attitude model (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:197). Figure 2.3 illustrates the tri-component attitude model.

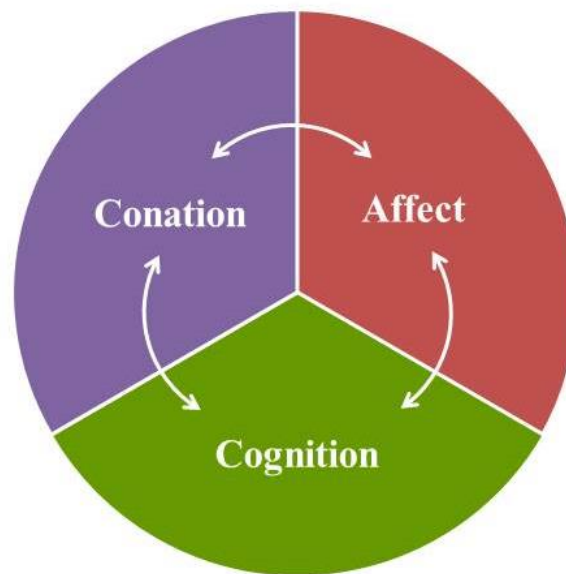


Figure 2.3: Tri-component attitude model (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:197)

The cognitive component includes a consumer's awareness, beliefs, knowledge and images regarding an object (Blythe, 2013:156), whereas the feelings or emotional reaction towards an object or activity represents the affective component (Cant, 2013:50). The third component of an attitude, the behavioural component, comprises the consumer's tendency to respond a certain way towards an object or activity (Dibb *et al.*, 2012:164). This component is also known as the conative component, which demonstrates a consumer's intention to purchase (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:199). All three of these components play an imperative role with the formation of an attitude, however, their relative significance will vary according to the consumer's level of motivation pertaining to the attitude object (Soloman & Rabolt, 2009:281). Accordingly, researchers have developed a vast number of models to fully comprehend the formation and change of consumer attitudes.

2.5.2 Hierarchy of effects

Attitude researchers have developed the hierarchy of effects to explain the impact of the cognitive, affective and behavioural components on the attitude of a consumer (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:281-283). The following figure is a representation of the three hierarchies, namely the standard learning hierarchy, the low-involvement hierarchy, and the experiential hierarchy.

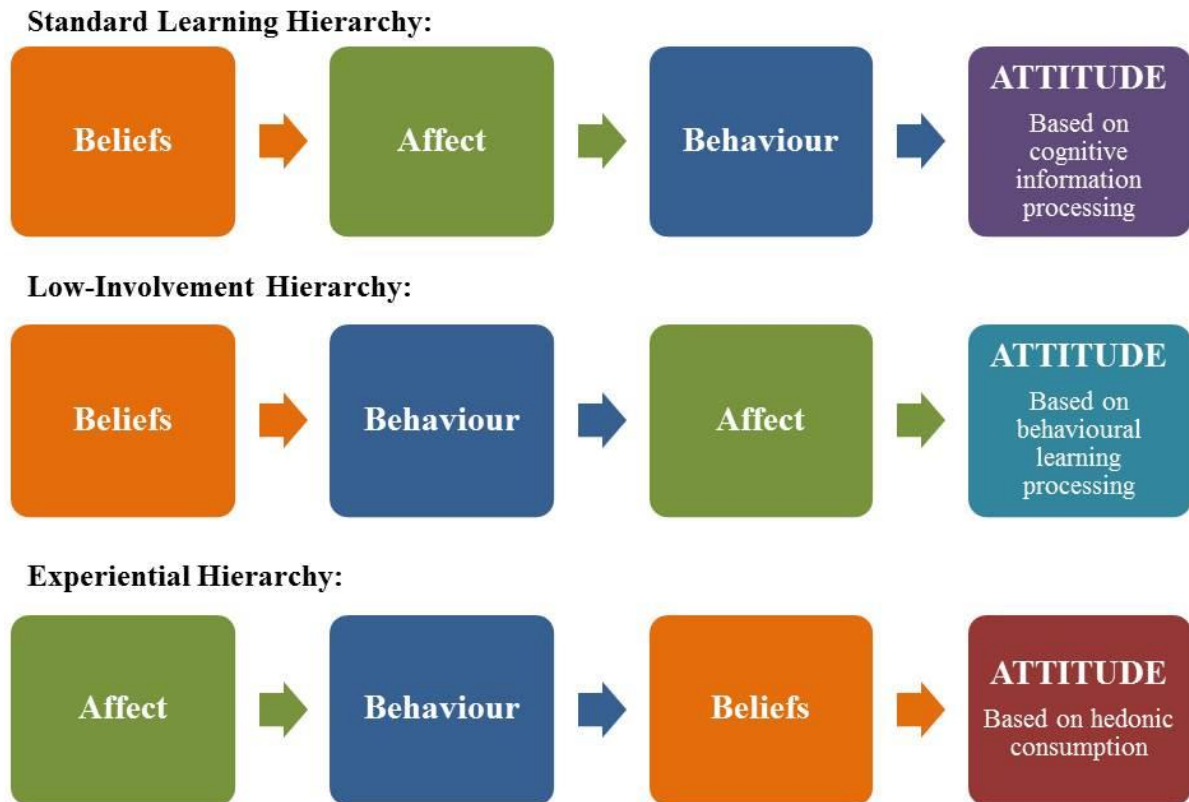


Figure 2.4: Hierarchy of effects (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:282)

Solomon and Rabolt (2009:281) indicate that the standard learning hierarchy's first stage comprises a consumer forming beliefs about a product by means of accumulating information regarding the product and its attributes. The consumer then evaluates these beliefs and forms a feeling or affect regarding the product. Based on these feelings, the consumer engages in an appropriate behaviour, such as making a purchase. As such, a consumer will form an attitude based on the beliefs or cognitive information regarding the product. Rath *et al.* (2008:107) explain that within this hierarchy, consumers make use of a problem-solving process to reach a purchase decision. When an attitude is formed by means of the low-involvement hierarchy of effects, the purchase decision is based on their knowledge about the product or service opposed to what they feel (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:281). The purchase involved in a low-involvement hierarchy is generally insignificant to the consumer and there are no brand preferences regarding the purchase (Rath *et al.*, 2008:108). Once the consumer has purchased the product, a feeling or affect concerning the product or service is formed, and the attitude being formed is grounded on this behavioural learning process (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:282). These kinds of purchases will

be out of habit or according to availability (Rath *et al.*, 2008:108). However, according to the experiential hierarchy, the decision to purchase a product or service is based completely on the consumer's feeling or affect concerning the specific product or service. Beliefs regarding the product or service follow the purchase and enforce the initial affect. Here, the formed attitude is contingent on the hedonic value of the product consumption (Rath *et al.*, 2008:110). According to Solomon and Rabolt (2009:282), a fashion product can either be a high-involvement or low-involvement product, depending on the ability of the product to aid in expressing the consumer's identity. Therefore, fashion-oriented consumers may use any of these hierarchies in the formation of an attitude.

Multi-attribute attitude models are popular among marketing researchers, as a simple response does not always explain why consumers have specific feelings concerning a product or service. In addition, these models provide information marketers and retailers can use to change consumers' attitudes toward products or services (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:151). A consumer's attitude towards an attitude object can be measured by means of multi-attribute models. These models are designed to understand and measure the consumer's perception and evaluation of key attributes or beliefs pertaining to a specific attitude object (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:199). The basic multi-attribute model comprises three elements, namely attributes, beliefs and importance weights. Attributes refer to the characteristics of the attitude object, where beliefs pertain to a measurement of a particular attribute, and importance weights denote the indications of the priority of a particular attribute (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:287). When a multi-attribute model is used, the beliefs a consumer has about numerous attributes of the object are combined to measure the overall attitude of the consumer towards the product or brand (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:151). Multi-attribute models are particularly applicable when studying attitudes pertaining to advertising (Belch & Belch, 2015:123), and are therefore exceptionally popular among marketing researchers (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:151). Some of the most widespread versions of the multi-attribute models used within the marketing field will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

2.5.3 Attitude-toward-object (Fishbein) model

The most prevalent and influential version of the multi-attribute model is the Fishbein model (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:153), also known as the attitude-toward-object model, which states that the number of attributes the consumer considers, signifies the set of salient beliefs used to form an

attitude (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:265). According to this model, an attitude is determined by the evaluative response to a salient property and the strength of belief connecting the salient property to the attitude (Athola, 1975:52-53). Therefore, this model suggests that when consumers perceive a product or brand to have an adequate number of favourable attributes, they will generally have a favourable attitude towards that specific product or brand, and vice versa (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:199). The model uses three components, namely the salient beliefs a consumer has about an attitude object, object-attribute connections that serve as an indication of the probable significance of an attitude object attribute, and the evaluation of each of the significant attributes (Hult *et al.*, 2014:190; Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:287-288). Salient beliefs consist of knowledge regarding the attitude object, generally collected from cognitive processing (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:265). The following equation indicates how these components are combined to determine a consumer's attitude:

$$A_b = \sum_1^n X_{ib}$$

where,

A_b = Consumer's attitude toward a particular brand b

X_{ib} = Consumer's belief about the brand b 's performance on attribute i

n = Number of attributes considered (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:265; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:385).

From this equation, it is evident that the purpose of Fishbein's model is to condense overall attitudes into a score. This version incorrectly assumes that all attributes included in the set of salient beliefs are equally important in determining the consumer's attitude score (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:385). Therefore, a new equation was developed, adding an importance weight to each attribute:

$$A_b = \sum_1^n W_i X_{ib}$$

where,

W_i = The importance the consumer attaches to attribute i .

According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:386), this version is adequate in various situations. However, there are certain situations where this version still has limitations. Therefore, a further refinement to the model was added by introducing an ‘ideal point’ and facilitating a comparison:

$$A_b = \sum_1^n W_i |I_i - X_{ib}|$$

where,

I_i = Consumer’s ideal level of performance on attribute i

$|I_i - X_{ib}|$ = The absolute difference between the ideal level and the actual rating of attribute I for brand b (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:266-267).

This version of the model will not provide information on the consumer’s actual attitude towards the product, but rather an estimate of the attitude difference from the ideal point. Therefore, it is of particular interest to marketers, as it indicates how a certain product or brand’s attributes are performing in comparison to other competing products or brands. According to this version, a low attitude score indicates that the particular product or brand is favourable, while a high attitude score describes a less favourable attitude towards the specific product or brand (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:267). The attitude-toward-object model is particularly appropriate to measure a consumer’s attitude towards a product or service category or even specific brands (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:199).

2.5.4 Attitude-toward-behaviour model

In comparison to the attitude-toward-object model, the attitude-toward-behaviour model is a measurement of a consumer’s attitude toward behaving or acting regarding a specific attitude object, rather than measuring the attitude toward the object itself (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:200). According to Svensson and Sjöberg (2012:9), this increases the model’s ability to predict a consumer’s behaviour. Moreover, Olivová (2011:24) underlines that a positive attitude towards an object will not necessarily result in a purchase, as the consumer might have a negative attitude towards purchasing the object. For that reason, this model has a unique appeal, as it relates more diligently to the actual behaviour of a consumer than the attitude-toward-object model (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:200). A consumer’s attitude toward a specific behaviour is determined by a set of behavioural beliefs connecting the specific behaviour to several attributes

and outcomes (Olivová, 2011:24). According to Bellman *et al.* (2009:47), the attitude-toward-object and the attitude-toward-behaviour models form the basis of the theory of reasoned action.

2.5.5 Theory of reasoned action

The original Fishbein model only measured the consumer's attitude towards a product, and not the consumer's behaviour as well. To improve its prognostic ability it was extended in several ways and is called the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:155). As such, the TRA now measures the consumer's attitude towards the product together with his or her attitude towards the act of purchasing, by focussing on the perceived consequences of a purchase (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:156). The TRA model is designed to assist in predicting and explaining consumers' intention and behaviour. This is done by integrating various attitude components into a structure (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:201). This model came into being when researchers realised that positive attitudes towards products or services do not always lead to purchases (Rath *et al.*, 2008:121).

The TRA is developed with the intention to explain almost any human behaviour and has a significant theoretical and practical approach (Maduku, 2013:79). Consequently, this theory has been used in a variety of contexts, including, among other, public land management (Bright *et al.*, 1993), recycling (Jones, 1990), voting (Singh *et al.*, 2001), food (Ackermann & Palmer, 2014), nutrition (Shepherd & Towler, 1992), environmental practices (Marshall *et al.*, 2010), social media (Kim *et al.*, 2015), safe sex (Bosomprah, 2001) and alcohol use (Codd & Cohen, 2003). Moreover, the TRA has also been employed to predict the buying intentions of females within the fashion industry (Bellman *et al.*, 2009). As this model has proven its prognostic ability, the TRA seems to be a worthy choice to examine the factors that may have an influence on both consumers' behavioural intention and actual behaviour. For that reason, a detailed discussion on the TRA is included in Chapter 3 (Section 3.2).

2.5.6 Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB), developed by Icek Ajzen (1991) is an extension of the TRA and is one of the most popular and powerful theories designed to predict and describe human behaviour. This theory proposes that the attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are independent variables that predict the behavioural intention of an individual (Ajzen, 2002:665). Conner and Armitage (1998:1430) describe the

TPB as a deliberative processing model, as it suggests that consumers make their behavioural decisions after carefully considering all available information. According to Chan and Bishop (2013:96), the willingness to perform a certain behaviour, namely behavioural intention, is a precursor of behaviour. Powell and Ham (2008:472) assert that the behaviour and behavioural intentions of consumers depend on the attitude towards the behaviour, the knowledge or beliefs regarding the outcomes of the behaviour and the social norms or pressures these individuals are subject to. The TPB has been used extensively to obtain an understanding of the various factors influencing the consumer's behavioural decision-making (Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013:44). The following figure depicts the TPB in the form of a structural diagram.

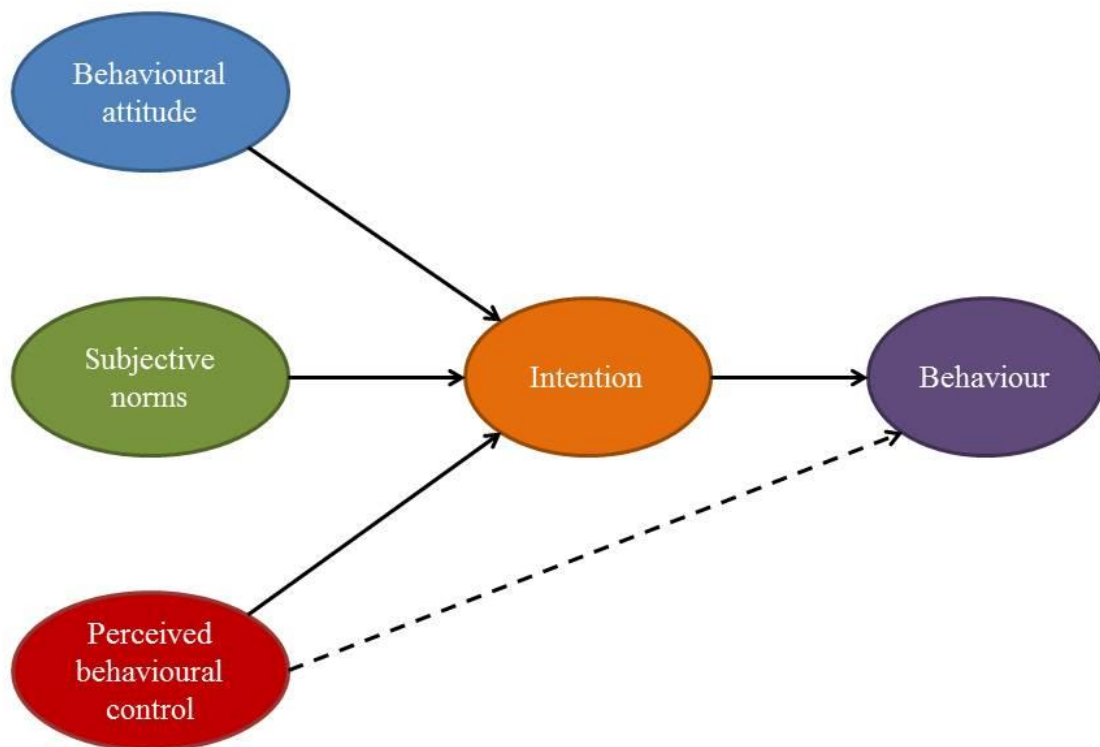


Figure 2.5: Theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:182)

The focal point of the TPB is the individual's intention to perform a certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181; Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013:44). The behavioural intention of a consumer reveals the factors that would motivate and influence a consumer to perform a behaviour. These motivational

factors depict the extent of a consumer's willingness to perform a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181). The stronger the consumer's motivation (behavioural intention), the more likely the consumer is to perform the behaviour (Kempen *et al.*, 2015:25). Behavioural intentions are described as the anticipated outcomes that precede planned behaviour (Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013:44), and are shaped by an individual's attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Kim, 2009:17; Liao *et al.*, 2010:239). Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005:811) posit that a consumer engaging in a behaviour is a joint function of the consumer's behavioural intentions and perceived behavioural control. As such, it is evident that perceived behavioural control and behaviour are correlated. According to Conner and Armitage (1998:1431), this link advocates that individuals are more prone to perform behaviours they have control over than those behaviours over which they have no control. As stated by Masser *et al.* (2012:1306), perceived behavioural control includes the perceptions of control over performing the behaviour. The perceived behavioural control measure was added in order to predict the behaviour over which consumers have incomplete control (Armitage & Conner, 2001:472; Olivová, 2011:28). Moreover, Conner and Armitage (1998:1430) explain that this measure extends the applicability of the theory with the prediction of the easily performed, volitional behaviours of individuals, as well as the complex behaviours of individuals.

The inclusion of the perceived behavioural control measure added significantly to the model, especially regarding the prediction of intention and actual behaviour for circumstances in which there are constrictions on action. (Belleau *et al.*, 2007:246). However, when a consumer's volitional control is high, it becomes irrelevant to measure perceptions of control, and the TPB becomes identical to the TRA (Ackermann & Palmer, 2014:532). Behaviours that are under volitional control or relatively straightforward can be effectively predicted by the TRA (Armitage & Conner, 2001:472). Belleau *et al.* (2007:246) opine that a consumer's intention to purchase a product is volitional, and therefore very little constraints exist. For that reason, using the TRA will display valid predictions pertaining to the purchase intentions of consumers.

2.6 CONCLUSION

Consumer behaviour plays an imperative role regarding the long-term success of businesses and their products. Consequently, in order to succeed and gain a competitive advantage, businesses need to understand consumers and the way they behave. This will assist businesses in producing products and services that satisfy consumer needs, and developing effective marketing strategies

that will appeal to their target market. Various factors influence the way consumers behave, as depicted in Figure 2.1 (Section 2.2.1). Accordingly, it is important for businesses to understand these factors and the role they play with regard to consumers' behaviour. Some of these factors play a more important role than others do, and according to the literature, one factor that enjoys a considerable amount of attention in the marketing field is attitude. Research suggests that the acquisition of a product or service, and the success of a business's marketing strategy are dependent on the consumer's attitude towards the product, service or even the store. As such, attitudes are considered a precursor of consumer behaviour, and central to understanding consumer behaviour, and therefore significantly influence the marketing strategy of a business. For that reason, investigating consumer attitudes is of great importance to businesses. In order for businesses to investigate consumer attitudes, behavioural scientists have developed conceptual models in an attempt to better describe and understand consumer attitudes. These attitude models are utilised to identify the different factors that influence consumers' evaluation of various attitude objects.

The succeeding chapter, Chapter 3, relates to one of these models, the theory of reasoned action, focussing on the antecedents that influence consumers' purchase behaviour, and provides a review on fashion, with special reference to beauty products. A detailed discussion on the Generation Y cohort as a whole, with specific reference to the female Generation Y cohort in South Africa is also included in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION AND GENERATION Y

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, the first two theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1 were addressed. This chapter addresses the remaining five theoretical objectives. Accordingly, the purpose of this chapter is to review the literature pertaining to the theory of reasoned action and the factors that influence the purchase intention of consumers towards beauty products to propose a model of the antecedents of female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products. Therefore, this chapter includes a discussion on the fashion industry, and the beauty product industry. The characteristics of the Generation Y cohort in general are outlined in this chapter, with specific reference to the female and South African portion of this cohort.

For retailers and marketers to develop effective marketing strategies they need to have a complete understanding of consumers' behaviour (Solomon, 2013:33). As consumer behaviour is a complex process that comprises numerous steps, which are influenced by a number of factors (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:6), it is imperative for marketers and retailers to determine the factors that influence consumers' behaviour. One of the influencing factors of consumer behaviour that enjoy a considerable amount of attention is attitude (Belch & Belch, 2015:122) because consumers' attitude play an integral role in everyday life, determining the way in which they react towards objects, people and events (Joubert, 2013:80). In addition, consumers' attitudes are a determining factor of their purchase behaviour, and therefore the measurement of these attitudes is important to marketers (Blythe, 2013:159). Various conceptual models have been developed by behavioural scientists in an attempt to better describe and understand consumer attitudes (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007:261) and to identify the different factors that influence consumers' evaluation of various attitude objects (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:286). The most widespread models include the tri-component attitude model, the hierarchy of effects, the attitude-toward-object model, the attitude-toward-behaviour model, the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour. However, for the purpose of this study, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) was used and adapted to investigate the factors that influence female consumers' purchase intention of beauty products. This is because behaviours under volitional control or relatively straightforward can be effectively predicted by the TRA (Armitage & Conner, 2001:472).

Accordingly, this chapter commences with a review of the literature relating to the TRA (Section 3.2) and the possible factors that influence consumers' purchase intention (Section 3.3), which is in keeping with the third and fourth theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1. These factors include variety-seeking (Section 3.3.1), status consumption (Section 3.3.2), media influence (Section 3.3.3), group influence (Section 3.3.4), celebrity influence (Section 3.3.5), physical vanity (Section 3.3.6), price consciousness (Section 3.3.7) and beauty product innovativeness (Section 3.3.8). An overview of the fashion industry is provided in Section 3.4, followed by an overview of the literature on beauty products in Section 3.5. The target market of this study, Generation Y, is defined in Section 3.6, by focussing on the characteristics of this cohort (Section 3.6.1), and the female portion of this cohort (Section 3.6.2). Section 3.7 provides an explanation of the proposed model for this study.

3.2 THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) is utilised to predict behavioural intention, covering the prediction of both attitudes and behaviour. This model was developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen (1975), resulting from attitude-toward-behaviour research. According to Hoewe and Sherrick (2015:238), the development of the TRA started in the 1960s. It was only when Fishbein and Ajzen specified the name and components forming part of this theory that it gained momentum. The model of the TRA is depicted in the following figure.

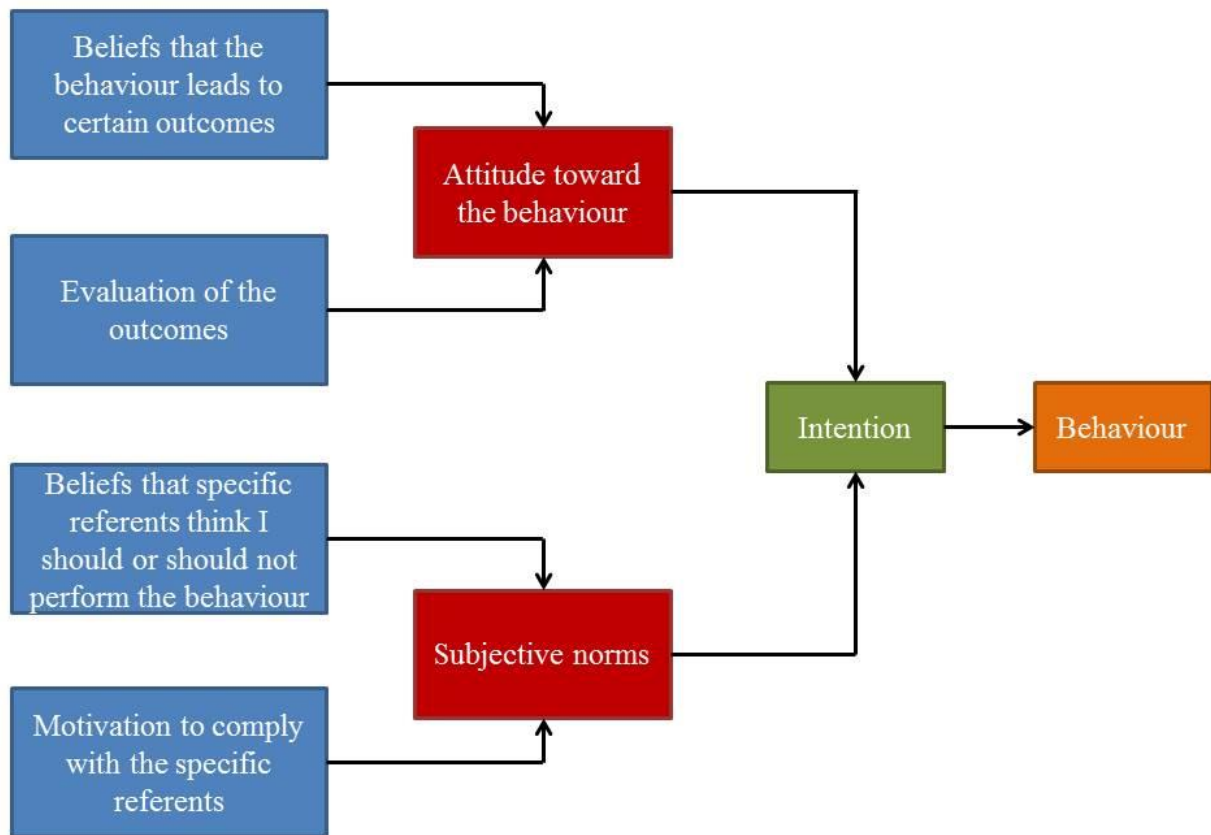


Figure 3.1: Theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)

The TRA describes the relationship between attitude and behaviour by explaining how, when and why consumers' attitudes predict their behaviour (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:133). Consequently, this model suggests that the attitude towards performing a behaviour and the influence of subjective norms determines the intent to behave, which in conclusion determines the consumer's behaviour (Olivová, 2011:24). The TRA concurs with other expectancy-value models that have been used to an extensive degree in the consumer behaviour field, especially to explicate how consumer attitudes form and change. Thus, similar to the basic tri-component model, the TRA integrates the cognitive, affective and conative components. Nonetheless, these components are arranged differently when compared to the tri-component model (Ramdhani *et al.*, 2012:36; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:201). These three components form a consumer's attitude, which, together with subjective norms, influences the consumer's intention to act (Hanekom, 2013:67). An attitude toward a specific behaviour is moulded by the beliefs an individual has regarding the consequences of performing the behaviour, multiplied by the

individual's evaluation of the consequences (Olivová, 2011:24). Beliefs are divided into two subsections, namely belief strength and belief evaluation, where belief strength refers to the confidence with which an individual holds a specific belief, and belief evaluation is regarded as the degree to which an individual positively or negatively evaluates an attribute (Hoewe & Sherrick, 2015:239). Furthermore, subjective norms are based on the beliefs regarding the thoughts of reference groups and the motivation of consumers to comply with these reference groups (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:133). Kim *et al.* (2015:324) state that these accessible, normative beliefs influence consumers to believe that individuals forming part of noteworthy reference groups expect them to perform a specific behaviour.

The TRA is a simple additive model, proposing that the overall attitude of a consumer will become more positive as the number of favourable beliefs increases. The positive attitude influences the consumer's intention, which in turn influence the actual behaviour (Kardes *et al.*, 2011:91). The TRA incorporates the principle attitude specificity, suggesting that consumers' attitudes will be related to their behaviour to a greater extent when the attitude is based more specifically on the behaviour of interest (Olivová, 2011:25). Thus, for marketers to understand consumers' behaviours regarding the acquisition, usage, and disposal of products, consumers' attitudes toward engaging in these behaviours should be examined, rather than their attitudes toward the overall offering. Accordingly, Olivová (2011:25) conclude by stating that consumers' attitude towards purchasing a product is a better predictor of purchase behaviour than their attitude towards the product itself. Furthermore, Maduku (2013:79) explains that, together with attitude, behavioural intention is influenced by the social pressure the consumer feels to engage or not engage in the behaviour, namely subjective norms. Kim *et al.* (2015:323) reiterate, asserting that consumers with attitudes that are more favourable and who perceive stronger subjective norms pertaining to a certain behaviour will most likely show greater intent to engage in the behaviour.

Subjective norms are defined as the social pressure an individual perceives, with regard to performing or not performing a certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:188; Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013:46; Kim & Chung, 2011:47). This social pressure individuals feel is a result of significant others' perceptions of the norms and conventions of the behaviour in question (Oreg & Katz-Gerro, 2006:463). Those individuals whose preferences concerning a certain behaviour are important to an individual can be classified as significant others in this domain (Conner & Armitage, 1998:1431). Therefore, subjective norms are described as the extent to which individuals are

aware of, or influenced by the opinion of a salient referent regarding how they should behave (Jin & Kang, 2010:220). Not only do subjective norms pressurise individuals to behave in a certain way, it also affects the individual's perception pertaining to the simplicity or difficulty of executing a behaviour (Kim & Karpova, 2010:83). Al-Debei *et al.* (2013:46) theorise that individuals are inclined to behave in a way that is accepted and encouraged by their circle of influence. According to Kim *et al.* (2013:205) and Thorbjørnsen *et al.* (2007:771-772), subjective norms are determined by the individual's normative beliefs concerning others' expectations, together with the individual's motivation to conform to these beliefs. Furthermore, Thorbjørnsen *et al.* (2007:770) opine that these perceived norms or subjective norms concerning a behaviour are developed through external and interpersonal influences, and constitute a fundamental part of the TRA and the TPB, which have been applied extensively across a vast array of studies. As such, subjective norms are integral with reference to purchase behaviour, as purchase behaviour is a function of purchase intention, which, in turn, is a function of subjective norms (Polonsky *et al.*, 2012:47). The importance of this concept is supported by previous studies (Al-Debei *et al.*, 2013; Chen, 2007; Kim, 2009; Kim & Chung, 2011; Summers *et al.*, 2006), that found subjective norms to be significantly prognostic to behavioural intentions. Conversely, some studies found subjective norms to be a weak predictor of purchase intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Liao *et al.*, 2010). In addition, studies done by Schepers and Wetzels (2007:100) and Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005:817), report that subjective norms have a significant influence on attitude, differing from the original TRA and TPB. Consequently, it should be noted that the role subjective norms play in the prediction of intentions, whether directly or indirectly, should be examined astutely.

Behavioural intention is a measurement of the level to which a consumer is willing to go, or the strength of the intended effort to perform a behaviour (Kempen *et al.*, 2015:25). Intention represents the motivational factors that influence a consumer to conduct a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181; Conner & Armitage, 1998:1430). According to Nirmala and Dewi (2011:68), purchase intention is described as a psychological state, reflecting the consumer's decision to acquire a product or service in the near future. Furthermore, Ajzen (1991:203) posits that purchase intention is regarded as the immediate determinant of purchase behaviour and the precursor of future purchasing decisions. Consumers develop an intention or predisposition to purchase a certain product as an outcome of the alternative evaluation stage (Section 2.3.3) (Belch & Belch, 2015:124). A stronger behavioural intention generally delivers a consumer that

is more likely to perform the specific behaviour (Conner & Armitage, 1998:1431; Kempen *et al.*, 2015:25). When purchase intention is present, the consumer generally acts on the intention and purchases the product or service (Khan, 2006:177). Accordingly, Holst and Iversen (2011:17) propose that intention may be used as a proximal measure of behaviour. This is confirmed, as Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:369), who developed the TRA, posit that the measure of consumers' intention is the best single predictor of their behaviour.

The behavioural intention measure of this theory will predict any voluntary behaviour, provided that the intent does not change prior to the act, and the intention measure corresponds with the behavioural criterion, in terms of the context, period of time and particularity (Sheppard *et al.*, 1988:325). According to the TRA, individuals are rational beings, ordinarily acting the way they intend to and, therefore, this model is utilised to predict behaviours of individuals' free will and behaviours within their control that correspond with their intentions. Furthermore, behaviours predicted by the TRA occur within the conscious awareness of the consumer, and can therefore be controlled by the consumer (Hoewe & Sherrick, 2015:238-239). One of the main contributions of the TRA is the accurate prediction of an individual's attitude towards an object, grounded on the knowledge of the relationship between attitude and behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1974:1), as well as the knowledge of the individual's beliefs about the attitude object and the evaluative aspects of those beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1969:402). According to Teich (2001:39), the TRA not only predicts behavioural intention but also determines the interaction between internal and external factors, and the influence these interactions have on consumers' actual behaviour. Conner and Armitage (1998:1432-1433) opine that the TRA has a limitation, as it only illustrates the processes by which attitudes and beliefs determine a consumer's behaviour, and not the effect of other variables on these processes. Ajzen (1991:199) agrees, stating that both the TRA and the TPB are open to further elaboration when additional factors are identified as possible predictors of consumers' intent or behaviour. As such, the classic TRA model used for this study was extended to include external variables that do not form part of the original theory, in order to obtain a better understanding of the different factors that may have an influence on consumers' attitude towards and intention to purchasing beauty products.

3.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING BEAUTY PRODUCT PURCHASE INTENTION

In order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that drive female Generation Y students' attitudes towards beauty products and the consequent purchase intentions, an attitude-intention model, based on the TRA, was extended to include eight consumer-oriented variables. These variables include variety-seeking, status consumption, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness. These factors were added as various researchers found them to be influential with reference to either Generation Y, female or fashion consumers (Durvasula & Lysonski, 2008; Jin & Suh, 2005; McCrindle, 2003; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2009; Mishra *et al.*, 2012; Moschis, 1976; Noble *et al.*, 2009; O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Parment, 2013). The following sections review these potential factors influencing attitude towards and intention to purchasing beauty products.

3.3.1 Variety-seeking

Variety-seeking is described as consumers having a need for varied behaviour (Rohm & Swaminathan, 2004:752), a need to reduce boredom or a need for sensory stimulation, and satisfying this need by exploring new product variants (Jensen & Hansen, 2006:444). Variety-seeking plays an imperative role in the purchase decisions of consumers, and is described as consumers' propensity to seek variety in their choices (Kahn, 1995:139). Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:110) differentiate between various types of consumer variety-seeking, namely, exploratory purchase behaviour, vicarious exploration and use innovativeness. Exploratory purchase behaviour refers to consumers switching among brands to experience innovative, varied and possibly improved alternatives, while vicarious exploration is described as consumers securing information about novel or diverse alternatives and then considering the alternatives, and use innovativeness denotes consumers using a previously approved product in a novel way. Wee *et al.* (1995:22) assert that consumers occasionally seek variety to satisfy the need for curiosity. This is referred to as novelty-seeking, and defined as a consumer searching for something new, extraordinary and unfamiliar. Furthermore, Trivedi and Morgan (2003:411) posit that consumers with a high variety-seeking tendency gain value from the act of switching among brands. Van Trijp *et al.* (1996:282) agree, stating that variety-seeking behaviour is a function of consumers engaging in brand switching, also known as brand experimentation (Coulter *et al.*, 2003:153).

Brand experimentation, as described by Broderick (2007:352) is the switching among brands, in order to gain information about the product, brands, and brand features. According to Trivedi and Morgan (2003:411), consumers with a variety-seeking orientation switch among brands to avoid boredom or to gain excitement or stimulation from varying experiences, and not necessarily as a result of disliking a brand. However, Tang and Chin (2007:8) list a number of drivers from both psychological and consumer behaviour disciplines that may act as initiator of a consumer's variety-seeking behaviour. These drivers include individual factors, comprising satiation, need for excitement, and uncertainty about future preferences; external factors, such as a price alteration, introduction of a new product, and marketing mix elements; and product category factors, for example, involvement, perceived risk, and inter-purchase frequency. From the seminal work of Faison (1977:173), the theory of optimal stimulation level (OSL) together with interconnected concepts, such as need for variety, may also explain why certain consumers are more prone to demonstrate variety-seeking behaviour. The optimal stimulation level of consumers determines the degree of exploratory and variety-seeking behaviour they will exhibit in various situations, such as shopping (Rohm & Swaminathan, 2004:750). According to this theory, in order for consumers to function effectively, their stimulation level needs to be at a certain level. However, the stimulation level differs with each individual, as some individuals need more stimulation when compared to others (Van Trijp *et al.*, 1996:282). When the level of stimulation is below the optimum level, as a result of boredom or satiation, the consumer can then use behavioural response through variety-seeking or exploration to increase stimulation to the ideal level (Tang & Chin, 2007:9). Consumers may also want to try something new or diverse, just for the fun or thrill of it, and not because of being unsatisfied with their current choices. They may engage in this type of behaviour to satisfy a longing for novelty or complexity in brand consumption or just because of curiosity (Kahn, 1995:141; Raju, 1980:280). As such, it can be said that variety-seeking plays an important role in the decision-making process (Niininen *et al.*, 2004:441). For that reason, it is imperative for marketers to know the extent to which consumers' purchase intention is influenced by the tendency to seek variety.

The direct and indirect influence of variety-seeking on the purchase intent and purchase behaviour of consumers has been tested and validated by various studies (Coulter *et al.*, 2002; Wee *et al.*, 1995). A study done by Coulter *et al.* (2002) found that variety-seeking plays a significant role regarding the purchase behaviour of consumers within the cosmetic product category. In addition, Jang and Feng (2007:582) report that consumers' novelty-seeking

behaviour might influence their attitude towards a destination. Various studies suggest that consumers with a tendency to seek variety are more innovative consumers, and, as such, there is a connection between innovativeness and variety-seeking behaviour (Muzinich *et al.*, 2003; Raju, 1980; Robertson & Kennedy, 1968; Workman & Johnson, 1993). Therefore, in accordance with these studies, and for the purpose of this study, it is theorised that variety-seeking has an influence on consumers' beauty product innovativeness, attitude and purchase intention towards beauty products.

3.3.2 Status consumption

Consumer behaviour researchers opine that the attainment of a high rank or status in the social hierarchy is a prevailing motivator regarding the behaviour of an individual (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2010:324). As such, status and prestige considerations play a significant role in shaping the consumption behaviour of a consumer (Kim & Jang, 2014:39). Within the marketing and consumer research field, status consumption is a vital concept, as most consumers treasure their social status and try to signal it to those around them. Accordingly, they spend a substantial amount of their disposable income on status related products, and these researchers are of the opinion that status consumption is a growing phenomenon (Heaney *et al.*, 2005:84). Eastman *et al.* (1999:42) demarcate status consumption as “the motivational process by which individuals strive to improve their social standing through the conspicuous consumption of consumer products that confer and symbolise status both for the individual and surrounding significant others.” Goldsmith *et al.* (2010:325) concur, describing status consumption as a process by which individuals gain status or social prestige by acquiring or consuming products they, and their surrounding significant others, perceive to have a high status value. According to O’Cass and Frost (2002:69), the concept of status consumption pertains to consumers being motivated by the desire for status, craving the attainment of various status symbols. These symbols include products, brands or even the mode of consumption. For the purpose of this study, status consumption refers to the process that motivates consumers to gain or improve their social or status prestige by purchasing products that symbolise status to them and surrounding others.

Individuals will take part in this consumption-related need for status, irrespective of their income or social class level (Eastman *et al.*, 2013:58). Status-seeking is a noteworthy source of motivation that drives individuals to obtain certain products and services with the aim of signalling their success to others (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:62). Furthermore, they use such

status products to express themselves to their reference groups and to form part of a desirable group (Eastman *et al.*, 2014:457). Some individuals also use status consumption to impress superior work colleagues, social connections and potential spouses, among others (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012:1409).

It is of great importance for status seekers to surround themselves with observable evidence in order to support the superior status rank they claim to be a part of (Eastman *et al.*, 2014:457). Status consumption affects the way in which consumers evaluate and choose the brands to purchase, especially in determining whether brands are appropriate and adequate for displaying status (Phau & Cheong, 2009:3-4). Heaney *et al.* (2005:85) report on a previous study, which indicated that women who engaged in status consumption were more educated, had a higher disposable income, resided in urban and suburban areas and were Caucasian. Furthermore, it was evident that quality was not the determining factor regarding the purchase of brands for these individuals, but rather the image of the brands. According to Goldsmith *et al.* (2010:324), various economic studies indicate that the desire for higher social standing or status motivates consumers' purchase behaviour, especially with reference to visible products such as women's cosmetics. Goldsmith *et al.* (2010:334) add that status consumption has a significant direct influence on innovativeness. As such, this study theorises that status consumption has a direct influence on beauty product innovativeness, which in turn is a determining factor of beauty product purchase intention.

3.3.3 Media influence

Media is defined as communication channels, used by businesses, through which news, entertainment, education, data, or promotional messages are distributed (refer to Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1). Media involves every broadcasting and narrowcasting medium, and comprises various formats, such as print media (books, magazines, newspapers), television, movies, video games, music, cell phones, several kinds of software and the Internet (BusinessDictionary.com, 2016). Belleau *et al.* (2007:247) add mass media to the TRA in a study conducted on the purchase intention of Generation Y consumers and fashion merchandise made of emu leather. They decided to add this construct because consumers generally require additional information regarding products to assist them when making purchase decisions. Consequently, the necessary information may emanate from mass media sources. According to Solomon and Rabolt (2009:347), such fashion information is usually visual, or nonverbal, and delivered by

impersonal sources such as the media, which might include magazines and the Internet, as well as personal sources such as friends, family, salespeople, and sometimes strangers on the street. Anderson and Gabszewicz (2005) posit that media forms an important part of consumers' lives, as they devote a large portion of their leisure time to radio, magazines, newspapers, the Internet, and television. Accordingly, most businesses spend a significant amount of their advertising expenditures on these types of media.

It is imperative to identify the type of media that best suits the product being advertised to ensure that the target audience will be reached cost-effectively. These target markets are defined by age, ethnic group, social class, or stage in their family life cycle, and therefore differ in terms of their media preferences (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:298). In order to reach these target markets, a message should be transmitted through a medium or channel, which could be television, radio, magazines, billboards, Web sites, personal contact, or even matchbook covers (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:347). In today's world, the majority of consumers are influenced by some sort of advertisement or promotions to a certain extent (Arshad & Aslam, 2015:2). When consumers are exposed to advertisements pertaining to the latest fashion trends, it encourages them to recognise a problem because of a change in their desired state (Workman & Studak, 2006:76), which initiates the decision-making process (refer to Chapter 2 Section 2.3). Media has proven to be a good source of product relevant and brand information, especially when it comes to cosmetics (Coulter *et al.*, 2002:1294). In a study conducted to determine the influence parents, peers and the media have on emerging adults, Craig (2013) found media to have the strongest direct influence on behaviour. In addition, a study done by Brewer *et al.* (2003) concludes that the media influences individuals' attitude toward foreign nations. Moreover, a study conducted in Hungary by Coulter *et al.* (2002) concludes that female consumers are more active users of media, most likely to choose catalogues, brochures, and newspaper, magazine and television advertisements as information sources. As such, it was decided to determine the influence media has on the female portion of South African Generation Y students pertaining to their beauty product purchase intentions. For the purpose of this study, media is described as the medium or communication channels that beauty product businesses use to deliver an advertising or promotional message to their target market, including television, radio and magazines.

3.3.4 Group influence

The influence consumers' social environment has on their behaviour has received a significant amount of attention from sociologists and social psychologists (Ford & Ellis, 1980:125; Luo, 2004:431). This may be due to informal social or reference groups (refer to Chapter 2 Section 2.4.2) having a significant direct influence on their members' purchasing and consumption behaviours (Leigh, 1989:65; Moschis, 1976:240; Madahi & Sukati, 2012:153). These groups also influence the sentiment consumers have towards certain products or brands (Schulz, 2015:212). Some groups exert a greater influence when compared to others. For example, group members with a high level of similarity between them influence one another more significantly (Mangleburg *et al.*, 2004:104; Moschis, 1976:240). Accordingly, a consumer acting in accordance with prescribed norms or standards set out by a group is subject to that group's influence (Leigh, 1989:65). Although the influence of groups is identified in most consumers' behaviour, young consumers are more exposed to reference group influence persuading their consumption behaviour (Park & Lessig, 1977:107). Mascarenhas and Higby (1993:54) and Mangleburg *et al.* (2004:102) agree, stating that adolescents generally consult with their peers before purchasing a product or service, in order to uphold group identity. Bearden and Etzel (1982:184) add that consumers are more susceptible to reference group influence when their purchase behaviour involves products or services noticeable by other.

Some reference groups exist solely around the consumption of certain brands or products (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001:414). However, Joubert (2013:26) asserts that reference groups are more typically composed of friends, colleagues, family members and celebrities. Feltham (1998:384) found that friends or peers might include people in close proximity, such as roommates, especially for individuals pursuing tertiary education away from home. According to a study conducted by Luo (2004:431), a reference group comprising close friends has a more significant influence on consumers' impulse purchase behaviour than a family reference group. Barry and Wentzel (2006:153) agree, stating that friendship is more egalitarian than other relationships between consumers. Furthermore, Barry and Wentzel (2006:154) add that friends influence one another by way of observational learning. This occurs when the interaction time and the affective quality between friends are high.

There are three group influences, namely informational, value-expressive, and utilitarian reference group influences. Consumers are susceptible to informational reference group

influence when they actively seek information from individuals they perceive as well-informed. This influence can be in the form of asking knowledgeable people (opinion leaders) for advice, or observing the behaviour of acknowledged experts or significant others (Bearden & Etzel, 1982:187; Mangleburg *et al.*, 2004:102; Park & Lessig, 1977:103). The susceptibility of a consumer to information group influence increases when the consumer is uncertain about the purchase or lacks experience regarding the current purchase situation (Park & Lessig, 1978:41). Value-expressive reference group influence is described as consumers behaving in such a way as to improve their self-image or to signal their belonging to the specific group (Bearden & Etzel, 1982:187; Flynn *et al.*, 1996:138). There are two ways in which value-expressive reference group influence is observed. First, consumers can use a reference group to express themselves or boost their egos. For this value-expressive reference group influence to work, the consumer's desire to express him or herself, and the group's psychological image should be consistent with each other. Secondly, consumers may be influenced by a value-expressive reference group simply because they are fond of the specific group (Park & Lessig, 1977:103). Consumers who are susceptible to utilitarian reference group influence want to comply with group norms and standards to acquire rewards or to avoid punishments issued by the specific group (Bearden & Etzel, 1982:187). In a purchasing situation, the consumer has to comply with the group's preferences or the expectations of the group members who issue the rewards or punishments (Mangleburg *et al.*, 2004:103; Park & Lessig, 1978:42). Consumers only comply with these norms and standards when actions are visible or will be known.

Ford and Ellis (1980:125) assert that the consumption of various products is susceptible to group influence, ranging from bread (Stafford, 1966) to suits (Venkatesan, 1966). Furthermore, Fernandez (2009:81) is of the opinion that today's youth, also known as Generation Y, seek acceptance from their peers in order to blend in with their social environments and to uphold their self-confidence. A study conducted by Madahi and Sukati (2012) reports that group influence, especially friends, has a significant influence on young consumers' purchase intention. As subjective norms refer to social influence, which is a function of how referent others' opinions influence a consumer (Lim & Dubinsky, 2005:836), it is theorised that group influence will have a significant influence on consumers' subjective norms, which, in turn, will influence their purchase intention. Therefore, this study aims to determine whether group influence, directly or indirectly, influences the purchase intention of the female portion of the Generation Y cohort towards beauty products.

3.3.5 Celebrity influence

Including celebrities in the marketing strategy of a product affects the advertising efficiency, brand awareness, brand preference and finally the purchase intention of consumers (Chan *et al.*, 2013:167; Khatri, 2006:28; Roozen, 2008:2). Carrol (2008:146,150) asserts that celebrity endorsement is a potentially powerful marketing communication tool, and states that consumers perceive celebrities as being more influential than anonymous models, commercial actors or experts regarding the advertising of products and brands. Celebrities, defined by Young and Pinsky (2006:464), are individuals who have achieved a noteworthy level of fame, making them popular in society. According to Khatri (2006:26), celebrities are easily noticeable within a corresponding social group, as these individuals are usually not characterised by the social standard. Kim *et al.* (2014:131) reiterate that celebrities are deemed an essential part of contemporary culture and a powerful force in twenty-first century life. Sridevi (2014:277) and Worthen (2014:1) posit that celebrities enjoy public recognition and endorse a product or brand by utilising the recognition to advertise, and subsequently benefit the product, brand or business.

Celebrities form part of the marketing strategy of various products and brands for numerous reasons. These reasons include to differentiate them from other competing products or brands, to assist in cutting clutter from competing businesses (Worthen, 2014:2), and to increase the advertising message's appeal to the target audience (Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2009:173). Advertisers believe that celebrities and famous personalities who deliver brand communication messages generate messages with a higher appeal, attention and recall than those produced by non-celebrities (Sridevi, 2014:277). Celebrities' worth to the business they are hired by, is determined by the level of appeal they have to specific markets. Furthermore, marketers can use celebrities to the advantage of the business, product or brand, as consumers identify with celebrities on many levels (Kim *et al.*, 2014:131). Using celebrities to endorse brands increases the brand's reliability, trust and image, and, in turn, has an effect on a consumer's belief, attitude and behaviour towards the brand (Jain *et al.*, 2009:9). As such, consumers perceive products or brands endorsed by a celebrity as having a higher value than those not endorsed by a celebrity, and opine that celebrity endorsed products or brands are purchased more regularly (Khatri, 2006:27-28). Therefore, employing celebrities to advertise products or brands is said to have a positive influence on the target audience, especially pertaining to their ability to recall products or brands and, subsequently, their purchase intentions (Carrol, 2008:150). This is particularly true regarding Generation Y consumers, as Pilskin (2014) indicates that this cohort is

characterised by being obsessed with celebrities. Latz (2015) concurs, stating that Generation Y members are preoccupied with celebrity image and will go to extreme lengths in an attempt to imitate celebrity styles. This is a result of having access to celebrities' day-to-day life and subsequently having a close relationship with celebrities by means of social media (Anon, 2014). According to Chan *et al.* (2013:168), celebrity endorsements have a greater impact on female than male consumers. However, consumers may be sceptical towards the use of celebrities as part of the marketing strategy, or as a simple marketing tactic used by celebrities to improve the credibility of their personal brand (Branigan & Mitsis, 2014:319). Present consumers are smart, well-educated and knowledgeable in terms of celebrity endorsement, which makes them more suspicious about the products and brands endorsed by celebrities (Dzisah & Ocloo, 2013:207). Nonetheless, Schaefer and Keillor (1997) argue that, although some marketers deem the use of celebrity endorsers a good basis for effective marketing, the influence on the target market's attitude and behavioural intentions is not as significant. A study conducted by Sridevi (2014) concludes that making use of celebrities in advertisements creates a significant impact on fast moving products like shampoo, soap, hair oil, and tooth paste. Although Dzisah and Ocloo (2013:207) found that celebrities influence consumers regarding their purchases, this alone does not guarantee the success of a product or brand, but rather a combination of several factors. As there are discrepancies regarding the influence celebrities have on the purchase intention of consumers, it is important to test whether female Generation Y consumers are subject to celebrity influence.

3.3.6 Physical vanity

Vanity has become an important prevalent aspect in practically all lifestyles (Thiyagarajan & Shanthi, 2012:17), and is described as an individual being concerned with his/her physical appearance or personal achievements to an excessive amount (Hung *et al.*, 2011:459). Another dimension of vanity is to have a positive or exaggerated view of one's physical appearance or personal achievements (Watson *et al.*, 1999:445). Vanity is categorised into two components, namely physical vanity and achievement vanity. Physical vanity pertains to an individual's physical appearance, whereas achievement vanity refers to an individual's personal achievements (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1995:612). Vanity is regarded as individuals highlighting outward appearance because of physical concerns (Park *et al.*, 2008:246). Consumers' excessive concern for self-advancement and physical appearance can be observed from their usage of cosmetic products, clothing products, and general conspicuous consumption (Netemeyer *et al.*,

1995:623). Vanity is concerned with the use of self-altering products, such as clothing, grooming aids, cosmetics or various accessories. These products are used to modify an individual's appearance for him/her to become a different or improved self. In addition, consumers also use these self-altering products to express their individualism or uniqueness, or to conform to or adopt the appearance of a certain type of person, such as a celebrity (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:124).

Vanity is an important variable to consider when investigating consumer behaviour (Workman & Lee, 2013:206). Previous studies indicate that vanity has a significant influence on the purchase intention and purchase behaviour of consumers (Feiereisen *et al.*, 2009; Hung *et al.*, 2011). The impact of physical vanity or physical appearance on the consumption of products is indeed noteworthy, as a Commerce Department survey found that the sales of female cosmetic products surpassed 13 billion USD in 1986. Accordingly, a concern with one's physical appearance can be observed from their use of cosmetics, as well as clothing products (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1995:613). Moreover, because young consumers care about their physical appearance and use cosmetics to enhance their physical appearance, it is noted that there is a relationship between physical vanity and cosmetics usage (Chang *et al.*, 2008:422). As such, marketing strategies that exploit consumers' physical vanity seem to be effective, especially pertaining to the diet-related and cosmetic industry, with annual sales of 50 billion USD and 18 billion USD respectively (Durvasula *et al.*, 2001:182). According to research conducted by Aune and Aune (1994), Jackson (1992), Striegel-Moore *et al.* (1986) and Thiagarajan and Shanthi (2012), women are generally more concerned about appearance vanity, while men are generally more concerned about achievement vanity. In addition, vanity may be associated with fashion innovators, especially female fashion innovators, as females are socialised to be more interested in their appearance and fashion than males (Workman & Lee, 2011:309). Therefore, as this study is focused on the female portion of the Generation Y cohort, it is theorised that physical vanity has an indirect influence on the purchase intention of female consumers towards beauty products.

3.3.7 Price consciousness

A factor that plays a major role in the marketplace is the price of a product or service, as the price is a topic of deliberation in virtually all purchases (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 1993:234). This factor determines a consumer's willingness to purchase a product or service based solely on the price of the product or service (Solka *et al.*, 2011:400). Price consciousness is defined as how

focussed a consumer is on paying a low price (Alford & Biswas, 2002:777; Kukar-Kinney *et al.*, 2007:212), or a consumer's tendency to be oriented towards the price of a product or service when shopping (Nirmala & Dewi, 2011:69). Hansen (2013:238) describes price consciousness as an individual trait that consumers use to evaluate price information. This trait categorises consumers into various groups based on the level of importance they attach to the price when evaluating or purchasing products or services. However, according to Solka *et al.* (2011:393), price consciousness is a combination of price and quality, and price conscious consumers prefer to pay the lowest possible price for the highest quality product or service. Alford and Biswas (2002:781) concur, asserting that price conscious consumers may overlook other consumer judgements as they are exclusively focused on paying a low price. Campbell *et al.* (2014:42) state that the price consciousness of different consumers is essentially associated with their sensitivity towards price changes, as well as their overall purchase behaviour and characteristics. According to Hansen (2013:238), there may be a difference in the reaction of consumers towards the price on the tag of a product because each individual differs in terms of how they evaluate price information. Consequently, the price evaluation of a product or service is a vital determinant pertaining to the decision-making process and consumers are conscious of the limits regarding the price of a product or service (Gauzente & Roy, 2012:81).

According to a study conducted by Alford and Biswas (2002:781), price consciousness has no influence on consumers' purchase intention. However, Gauzente and Roy (2012:81) and Hansen (2013:243) reports that price consciousness has a negative effect on the purchase intention of consumers with significant product category knowledge. This is evident as price conscious consumers will refrain from purchasing a product when the price exceeds the acceptable price in their mind, even when the product has unique features (Campbell *et al.*, 2014:42). Alford and Biswas (2002:782) add that these consumers will not settle and purchase any discounted product but rather continue to search for a cheaper priced product. Even when clear price information is absent, price consciousness will influence the purchase intention of these consumers. For that reason, the price consciousness trait is directly correlated to product demand fluctuations according to price changes. However, Kukar-Kinney *et al.* (2007:218-219) find price consciousness to be a significant consumer trait, interacting with all of the price-matching characteristics influencing the consumer's price perceptions, price search or purchase behaviour. Furthermore, Gauzente and Roy (2012:85) are of the opinion that consumers who are price-conscious usually spend more time on the process of collecting and evaluating price-related

information and other product information. Accordingly, it is imperative for marketers to understand this trait pertaining to their target market (Hansen, 2013:238). For the purpose of this study, price consciousness is referred to as the degree to which consumers are focused on the price of a product or service when shopping and the trait consumers use to evaluate price information. Furthermore, this study seeks to determine whether price consciousness has a direct influence on the purchase intention of female consumers towards beauty products.

3.3.8 Beauty product innovativeness

Consumer innovativeness is described as the tendency of consumers to willingly embrace change and try novel things, engage in the early adoption of an innovation, and purchase new products more frequently and more rapidly than other consumers (Eun Park *et al.*, 2010:438). Consumer innovativeness can also be described as consumers having a curiosity concerning novel products, motivating and predisposing them to be among the first to purchase these new products. As such, innovative consumers are known to have a high level of involvement with and knowledge of the product category, heavy product use, the tendency to seek out information about the product category, and being an opinion leader regarding the specific product category (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2010:326). Therefore, innovative consumers are generally referred to as early adopters of new products (Jin & Shu, 2005:65), and socially active individuals, spreading favourable word-of-mouth communication to others, and thereby assisting in the promotion of new products (Phau & Lo, 2004:401). Marketers have directed much attention to reach those who are high in innovativeness as these consumers play an imperative role in the lifecycle of new products (Mathur, 2012:376), especially by providing the marketers with valuable feedback (Phau & Lo, 2004:401). The commercial success of a new product is dependent on the acceptance of innovators, as that may lead to amplified visibility and improved acceptance by other consumers (Phau & Lo, 2004:399). Accordingly, McCarthy *et al.* (1999:842) posit that a comprehensive understanding of these innovative consumers will also assist marketers in developing the ideal launch strategy for new products, reducing product failure rates. As such, these researchers emphasise that identifying the consumers who are more receptive to a given innovation, and focusing the initial marketing efforts on them, are important for accelerating the adoption of the new products.

Some studies have found domain-specific innovativeness to be a better predictor of behaviour in specific situations (Goldsmith & Hofacker 1991; Goldsmith *et al.*, 1995). Different techniques

have been utilised to measure consumer innovativeness; however, two main categories of innovativeness are apparent, these are general or open-processing innovativeness and domain-specific innovativeness. General or open-processing innovativeness is described as consumers who are mentally open to new experiences. These consumers will seek out new products or experiences that are meaningful, as opposed to those that offer only thrills (Citrin *et al.*, 2000:295). Domain-specific innovativeness is defined as consumers with a tendency to learn about and adopt new products, within specific domains of interest (Midgley & Dowling, 1978:230). Furthermore, domain-specific innovativeness focuses on the consumer's innovative attitude and behaviour within a specific domain rather than on the product itself (McCarthy *et al.*, 1999:844).

Morgan and Birtwistle (2009:195) state that fashion innovativeness is a predictor of purchase behaviour pertaining to fashion products, especially with regard to young female consumers. Stith and Goldsmith (1989:259) reiterate that female consumers are more likely than their male counterparts to be innovators. Furthermore, a study conducted by Park *et al.* (2007:211) reports that fashion innovativeness has a direct positive influence on consumers' attitude towards purchasing fashion products online. For that reason, this study aims to establish whether South African female Generation Y consumers' beauty product innovativeness is a determining factor of their attitude and purchase intention towards beauty products.

Examining the attitudes and purchase intention pertaining to a specific market assists in the development of effective marketing strategies. Given that the fashion industry is such a lucrative market and is regarded as a significant part of the economy (Section 1.1), marketers and retailers should pay special attention to this industry and the marketing strategies aimed at their target audience.

3.4 FASHION

The fashion industry is a billion-dollar industry accounting for the employment of a multitude of people around the world. This industry affects most consumers because of the globalisation of our economy (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:5). Consequently, the fashion industry is becoming a global industry with worldwide competition. This industry is worth investigating because of the uncertain environment in which fashion businesses compete (Macchion *et al.*, 2015:174). Fashion is defined as a significant portion of consumers adopting a specific style, trend or design (Jackson & Shaw, 2009:88), and describes the society and culture of consumers as a symbolic

innovation, as consumers use fashion to define themselves. Therefore, fashion products are aesthetic items and they originate from art and history (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:545). The term fashion is complex, and is associated with appearances, the superficial or pretence and provocation or momentary consumer trends, or the historical development of style (King & Vickery, 2013:395). In addition, fashion comprises consumption behaviour that signals consumers' tastes and values to others, and signifies social identification and distinction, as fashion styles are generally accepted by a large group of people, at a specific time (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010:44). As such, consumers change their wardrobes, music systems, furniture, and the cars they drive according to their desired fashion (Solomon & Rabolt, 2009:5).

Fashion is often described as an instrument used to disguise the true nature of the body or person, which is labelled as a superficial gloss (Craig, 1993:1). The term fashion deals with the way consumers visually portray themselves to others (Evans, 1989:10), and their need to be diverse and to be perceived differently (Alpat & Aksu, 2013:68). Moreover, fashion is used for social diffusion, where various consumer groups adopt new styles (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:543). Accordingly, fashion is a complex process, which operates on many levels, including the macro societal level that influences many consumers simultaneously and the micro personal level (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:545). Solomon and Rabolt (2009:4) assert that fashion is comparable to a spoken language which is context-dependent. In other words, a specific item can be perceived differently by consumers, as situational factors affect their interpretation.

An extensive range of consumer products are associated with fashion, namely clothing, footwear, food, housing, music, automobiles, perfumery and beauty products (Hines & Bruce, 2007:2; Macchion *et al.*, 2015:173). Therefore, fashion is a broad term, typically encompassing any product or market in which style is a key component (Macchion *et al.*, 2015:173). The most recognised category of fashion is clothing (Rath *et al.*, 2012:8), as well as items applied to the body (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010:44), such as beauty products. Consequently, it is said that fashion is connected to all the aspects of a consumer's personal appearance that provide the consumer with hedonic and utilitarian value (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010:44). Guthrie *et al.* (2008:164) concur, positing that all aspects forming part of outward appearance management are included in the fashion process. Consequently, beauty products form part of the fashion industry, as they are connected to the presentation of the self (Coulter *et al.*, 2002:1292).

3.5 BEAUTY PRODUCTS

Cosmetics have been used for thousands of years, as women and men have made use of creams, lotions and preparations throughout history in an attempt to modify their bodies to conform to the aesthetic standards of situation and social position (Black, 2004:20). The word cosmetics originated from the Greek word *Kosmetikos*, which means "skilled at decorating" (Jawahar & Tamizhjyothi, 2013:1). Cosmetics can be traced back to 4000 B.C. in Egypt, where the remains of artefacts that were used for eye makeup and for the application of scented unguents have been found (Britannica, 2016). Given the hot Egyptian sun and the dry sandy weather, cosmetics such as oils, creams and other skin care products were produced for personal hygiene and health (Eze *et al.*, 2012a:52). Beauty products have been viewed as an integral part of fashion since the 1920s (Davis-Bundrage & Kim, 2012:196). From the 1930s, there was a significant increase in the popularity of cosmetics (Ting, 2010:37), and by the middle of the twentieth-century, the use of cosmetics was a common phenomenon in nearly all societies worldwide (Eze *et al.*, 2012a:52). Consequently, cosmetics have long been an integral part of human society (Sahota, 2014:31).

Beauty products, also referred to as cosmetics, include any product utilised to care for, clean and enhance the beauty of the human body (Ergin *et al.*, 2005:5). It refers to all preparations, excluding soap, applied to the human body for beautifying, preserving or modifying the appearance, or for cleansing, colouring, conditioning or protecting the skin, hair, nails, lips, eyes or teeth (Britannica, 2016). According to Solomon and Rabolt (2009:545), this definition includes skin-care, creams, lotions, perfumes, lipsticks, nail polish, eye and facial makeup, permanent waves, hair colours, deodorants, bath oils and mouthwashes. Ergin *et al.* (2005:5) posit that consumers use these products to maintain the body in a good condition, protect it from environmental effects and the aging process, as well as to change or enhance the appearance and odour of the body. Sahota (2014:31) points out that the role of cosmetics in society is often understated, as most of these products, like soap, shampoo, and toothpaste, are a critical part of basic hygiene. Sunscreens and lotions for rashes are included in skin protection and wellbeing, and make-up products such as mascara and foundation increase self-confidence by improving the appearance of consumers and, therefore, contribute to society.

Using the arguments of Ergin *et al.* (2005:5) and Britannica (2016), the inclusion of the term beauty products in this research refers to any product or preparation applied to the human body

to preserve, care for, clean, beautify, or modify the appearance. This comprises products used for cleansing, colouring, conditioning, or protecting the skin, hair, nails, lips, eyes, or teeth, such as skin-care, creams, lotions, perfumes, lipsticks, nail polish, eye and facial makeup, permanent waves, hair colours, deodorants, bath oils, and mouthwashes.

Although the overall economy was weak and signalled minimal growth in 2014, the European cosmetics industry still exhibited a growth of 0.5 percent (Premium Beauty News, 2015). The global cosmetics industry maintained an industry growth of five percent in 2014 (Euromonitor International, 2015). The global cosmetics market has rapidly grown as a result of people progressively aspiring to look like beauty advertisements. This trend is connected to consumers' perception that looking younger and more beautiful will bring happiness (Joubert, 2013:80). In 2013, the South African cosmetics industry accounted for six percent (R17 billion) of the manufacturing industry (Vorster, 2014:4), with an annual growth of 4.1 percent between 1995 and 2013. Lifestyle improvements and the increase of disposable income will result in future growth in the global cosmetics market (Allied Market Research, 2015). The millions consumers spend on beauty products, clothing, health clubs and fashion magazines, prove that consumers want to conform and adhere to the current beauty standards (Solomon *et al.*, 2006:225). In a market that has reached such a level of dynamic development, it is imperative to understand consumers' beauty product purchasing behaviour (Chen *et al.*, 2011:11630). The young female market's significant interest in cosmetics are perceived to be salient to fashion marketers and retailers (Nezakati *et al.*, 2013:127), as the influence of female consumers has been dominant in this industry for many years (Pudaruth *et al.*, 2015:180).

The application of cosmetics is a universal component of women's consumer culture, forms an integral part of their contemporary life, and is one of the primary ways they present and modify their public identity (Coulter *et al.*, 2002:1290). One of the most recognized and prominent reasons for the use of cosmetics, especially among women, is to improve physical attractiveness (Guthrie *et al.*, 2008:165; Hansen *et al.*, 2012:477). In addition, consumers also use cosmetics as a means of self-invention (Coulter *et al.*, 2002:1290), to gain recognition from peers, and to strengthen their self-esteem (Ting, 2010:38). Consequently, cosmetics have become increasingly important for younger consumers (Nezakati *et al.*, 2013:127), such as Generation Y consumers, as their peers serve as an inspirational and persuading factor (Gluck, 2009:5). Amaidas and Chiweshe (2015:4) concur, stating that Generation Y females are predisposed to peer pressure and the desire to fit in, both of which influence their beauty product purchase intention. The

female section of these consumers associate beauty and the act of applying beauty products with fun, and think that it is worth the expense, as it makes them feel good and confident (Ciccatelli, 2014). The confidence women derive from wearing make-up or beauty products encourages them to continue using these products (Guthrie *et al.*, 2008:165).

The limited published literature on the South African female Generation Y cohort's purchase intention of beauty products created a need to propose and empirically test a model of potential factors that may influence the purchase intention of these individuals pertaining to beauty products.

3.6 GENERATION Y DEFINED

Marketers often use the age of individuals to divide them into different segments. These market segments prove to be valuable as individuals forming part of the same age cohort are experiencing similar situations, and have communal needs, symbols and memories, which can bring about similar consumption patterns (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:330). According to Quester *et al.* (2011:396-397), marketers opine that today's youth differ from the youth of previous generations, especially in terms of augmented disposable income and a willingness to spend. Markert (2004:21) describes Generation Y as the youth of today, comprising individuals born between 1986 and 2005. These individuals are the progeny of the Baby Boomers (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:125), and are referred to as Generation Y, the Millennial generation or the Echo Boomers (Joubert, 2013:47). This generation is divided into three subcategories, namely the adults, teens, and tweens or children (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:135). The individuals pertaining to each of these segments within the Generation Y cohort differ in terms of their motivations for purchasing. Therefore, marketers need to develop different strategies to target the various segments within this cohort (Noble *et al.*, 2009:618). For marketers to develop effective marketing strategies to target the different age cohorts, they need to have a profound understanding of the different generation cohorts and their characteristics (Ma & Niehm, 2006:622).

3.6.1 Characteristics of Generation Y

Having grown up in an era focused on materialism, subject to expeditious global communication and fragmented media, members of Generation Y are sophisticated and technology wise. Furthermore, these individuals are described as being realistic, well informed, conscious on

social and environmental front, and open to new experiences (Joubert, 2013:47). Quester *et al.* (2011:398) characterise Generation Y as self-confident, self-reliant, innovative and curious individuals, with a strong sense of individuality and autonomy, while being emotionally and intellectually expressive. Socialising with their peers is an important activity for Generation Y members (Mafini *et al.*, 2014:2), and consequently they are easily influenced by these peers (Fernandez, 2009:93). Although these individuals respect authority, they will not hesitate to question it (Bleedorn, 2013:26). Generation Y members are empowered through the availability of information at the click of a button (Bevan-Dye & Surujal, 2011:47). These individuals grew up with computers and online access and therefore use and trust the Internet as their primary source of information, especially regarding product research and purchasing (Novak *et al.*, 2006:317).

Generation Y is regarded as the largest generational cohort since their parents, the Baby Boomers, and will most likely be the driving economic force by 2022 (Weidauer, 2012:18). Ma and Niehm (2006:622) assert that Generation Y members enjoy the act of purchasing, have ample time to shop and are prone to spend easily and quickly. This is the result of these members possessing a sufficiently large amount of disposable income (Martin & Turley, 2004:466). According to Joubert (2013:48), these individuals have sophisticated decision-making skills and greatly influence household spending. Moreover, the family or household spending influenced by Generation Y individuals is estimated at 300 to 400 billion USD annually (Martin & Turley, 2004:464), and the amount they spend themselves is between 153 and 155 billion USD per year (Lazarevic, 2012:45). Within the South African context, individuals up to the age of 23 spend more than R104 billion per year (HDI Youth Marketers, 2013). This generational cohort continues to entice marketers, due to the size and evident market potential they possess (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:126). Kühn (2013:10) opines that Generation Y will dominate every industry for the next few years, as they are the largest economically empowered age cohort. Marketers are especially interested in the adult segment, including individuals between the ages of 19 and 24, as Martin and Turley (2004:464,466) opine that they are the wealthiest members pertaining to this cohort, spending approximately 300 USD per month on personal or discretionary products or services.

A previous study revealed that Generation Y consumers generally purchase and consume an extensive assortment of products and services, including branded retail products, designer clothing, beauty products, orthodontic treatments, cosmetic surgery, fitness centre membership,

exercise apparatus, diet products, and facial and body treatments and massages (Durvasula & Lysonski, 2008:231). Generation Y consumers are more consumption-oriented as they are exposed to a vast array of communication technologies, mass media and the Internet (Kim & Jang, 2014:40). Modern media encourages hedonism and excessive concern with the self and, consequently, Generation Y consumers are being lured to consume products and services that signal their material or social status (Durvasula & Lysonski, 2008:231). Compared to previous generations, Generation Y members are more concerned with status consumption (Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2012:5582). The consumption of generational cohorts seems to become more conspicuous with each passing generation (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:97). This is due to the media reinforcing the belief that obtaining material goods and wealth is valuable and desirable (Kim & Jang, 2014:40). Generation Y consumers attempt to define themselves based on their purchase consumption or experiences (Kim & Jang, 2014:40).

Concerned about what the other individuals in their community or group think of them, Generation Y members believe that the consumption of certain products creates self-identity and these products convey this to others (Lazaveric, 2012:47). With heightened social awareness (Kruger & Saayman, 2013:368) and a high public self-consciousness, Generation Y consumers' purchasing decisions are influenced by the opinions of their peers (Giovannini *et al.*, 2015:23). Lebel and Danylchuck (2014:321) verify this, as the majority of this cohort believe that they have an influence on the decisions of the people around them. Given the importance of conformity and peer pressure, purchasing the correct products at the right time is vital for social acceptance, acquiring and maintaining relationships and, therefore, self-esteem (Giovannini *et al.*, 2015:26). Accordingly, Generation Y consumers' purchase intentions are influenced as they attempt to signal their belonging (Kim & Jang, 2004:40), and will only search for and purchase products that will be accepted by their peers (Hughes, 2008:15). These individuals are subject to social comparison as they compare themselves, especially their fashion choices, to their peers as well as celebrities (Noble *et al.*, 2009:623). This comparison is done to demonstrate that they are keeping up with their peers and to show their trendiness. As such, reference groups play an important role in shaping the Generation Y cohort, as a study conducted by Park and Lessig (1977) depicts that students are inclined to be influenced by reference groups concerning a variety of products. Furthermore, individuals forming part of this cohort constantly strive to make a connection with their parents, unlike the Baby Boomers acting rebellious towards their parents (O'Halloran, 2008:28). Botha (2009) agrees, stating that these individuals use the strong

connection with their parents for advice and guidance. As such, family plays an important role in the lives of Generation Y consumers (Hewitt & Ukpere, 2012:6002).

Generation Y members are particularly aware of present trends (Kinley *et al.*, 2010:563), exhibit a positive attitude towards fashion, and are inclined to be fashion fans (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:135). Noble *et al.* (2009:622) reiterate by averring that Generation Y consumers are familiar and concerned with fashion trends. These consumers tend to shop on a regular basis in order to keep up with today's fast moving trends (Hill, 2011:26) and satisfy their desire to own all the latest trends (Runyan *et al.*, 2013:326). Koksai (2014:434) theorises that Generation Y consumers may be fashion conscious and very interested and involved in fashion due to their concern about their appearance and being accepted by their peers. As such, it is evident that these consumers consider the searching for and purchasing of new and fashionable products to be an important part of their lives (Radder *et al.*, 2006:24). Consequently, when consumers are purchasing or consuming luxury products publicly, their purchase intention is more likely to be influenced (Kinley *et al.*, 2010:566).

According to Generation Y, shopping is a highly prioritised activity (Kinley *et al.*, 2010:564). Therefore, they are more likely to be exposed to short-term marketing efforts, and respond to these marketing efforts, as they visit retail malls frequently (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:135). Given that Generation Y members have been exposed to intense marketing efforts for many years, they tend to respond differently to marketing communication messages when compared to members of previous generations (Branigan & Mitsis, 2014:316). Mass-marketing approaches of a traditional nature are ineffective with regard to Generation Y members, as these advertisements do not capture their attention (Schawbel, 2015). Hewitt and Ukpere (2012:6001) concur, by averring that these individuals are not influenced by conventional media. Therefore, businesses must continually push the creative envelope with respect to media and promotional themes to capture this audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:126; Joubert, 2013:48). Belleau *et al.* (2007:245) posit that more information regarding these consumers' purchase intention is necessary to develop a broad, multifaceted approach for targeting them effectively.

Within the South African context, the Generation Y cohort is the first generation to experience an era of freedom and democracy, where discrimination as well as segregation is absent, which expands the divergence between them and previous generations (Bevan-Dye, 2013:158). According to Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012:5582), a substantial number of the South African

Generation Y members were the first in their families to enjoy the freedom of mixing with other racial groups and attending multiracial schools. This generation grew up during times South Africa experienced major transitions, including political transition, accelerating urbanisation, and increasing globalisation (Mosupyoe, 2014:57-58). As such, Kühn (2013:5) asserts that Generation Y members within South Africa are more acquiescent regarding diversity, and they display this trend in their choices of products and social crowds. Mosupyoe (2014:58) agrees, stating that the majority of these members are culturally tolerant and unprejudiced. With this generational cohort being South Africa's first multicultural cohort, these individuals are exposed to more opportunities than preceding generations (Hewitt & Ukpere, 2012:6001). In 2016, the Generation Y cohort within South Africa comprises individuals aged from 11 to 30, which accounts for an estimated 20 879 723 or 37.35 percent of the country's 55 908 900 population, while the female Generation Y cohort constitutes 49.66 percent of the total South African Generation Y cohort (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

3.6.2 Female Generation Y

Gender roles have changed over the past two decades. This is due to an increasing number of females entering the workforce since the 1980s (O'Halloran, 2008:6). According to Hawkins and Motherbaugh (2013:126), there is a trend of more Generation Y female members having a tertiary education than the male segment of this cohort. This trend pertains to the older Generation Y members. As such, females, especially Generation Y females, are becoming an emerging financial force as they have well-paid jobs, significant spending power and desirable lifestyles (Newman, 2015). Women generally find shopping to be an important activity and something they are involved with to a substantial amount, as they have primary care-giving responsibilities for others and find themselves purchasing on behalf of everyone else in their lives, such as their family. Accordingly, they are seen as the gateway to everyone else (Brennan, 2013). They find the process of browsing and researching choices enjoyable and take delight in finding specific items (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009:137). As such, women are content with spending a considerable amount of time and energy on shopping, while men avoid shopping or attempt to do it as quickly as possible (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:96; Hanzaee & Aghasibeig, 2008:521; Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009:137). Furthermore, women consider the whole experience as being important, including the product, the hunt and the experience, and they use these aspects to fuel their conversations with others. Van der Merwe *et al.* (2008:60) contend that retailers

deem female consumers their best clients, as they do not hesitate to spend a lot of time and energy on the purchasing process, especially with regard to fashion shopping.

Females pertaining to the Generation Y cohort are dependent on obtaining information, whether they obtain it from the Internet, their peers or other resources. Accordingly, 46 percent of them utilise the Internet to obtain information regarding businesses, services and products. It has been noted that the entire Generation Y cohort consult six sources on average, before purchasing a product or service (Brunot, 2016). Social media is classified as their primary source of information because it provides valuable consumer reviews on product and service recommendations. In addition, they tend to use blogs as well, as they state that blogs are their favourite information source. These individuals find non-professionals' opinions to be just as valuable as those of experts and believe the advice from their peers to be unbiased and true, and are sceptical of expert advice and marketing messages (Gluck, 2009:2, 5-6). Peer opinions are very influential when it comes to Generation Y females. For these individuals the term peer is far more comprehensive and includes online acquaintances, blog writers, anonymous reviewers, co-workers, as well as online and real-life friends (Brunot, 2016; Gluck, 2009:5). An estimated 33 percent of females pertaining to the Generation Y segment share their experiences regarding products and services online, in order to assist fellow shoppers (Brunot, 2016). Moreover, 42 percent of these consumers have conveyed that the discovery of new products or brands is generally a result of friends mentioning it, face-to-face or on social media (Gluck, 2009:3). As such, Gluck (2009:10) further asserts that these individuals consult their online peers for inspiration, especially regarding fashion, entertainment, music, and beauty. Consequently, Brunot (2016) infers that advertising messages have little effect on Generation Y females, and they will not purchase a product or service without recommendations from a consumer with first-hand experience.

Generation Y females see themselves as influential trendsetters, influencing one another as well as older generations. This is evident as approximately 66 percent of Generation X females also define Generation Y females as trendsetters (Gluck, 2009:3). According to Weidauer (2012:18), the young, educated, Millennial moms will be the trendsetters regarding the entire Generation Y's shopping behaviour. These individuals not only have an influence on their family members, but also on their friends, acquaintances, and the public through social media (Leelakulthanit, 2013). Female Generation Y members are advancing at a fast pace and this encourages them to spend more than usual (Newman, 2015). These individuals are also passionate about celebrities

and celebrity gossip. They thrive on celebrities' lives, following their romances, scandals, and embarrassments on social media (Gluck, 2009:11). Chan *et al.* (2013:168) assert that attractive celebrity endorsers can assist brand managers in improving the brand's image in order to inspire consumers to purchase that specific brand. This may be due to the fact that consumers, especially female consumers, tend to spread more positive word-of-mouth communication about products or brands endorsed by their favourite celebrity (Bush *et al.*, 2004:115). Within the South African context, a study conducted by Makgosa (2010) indicates that there is a significant relationship between celebrity endorsement and purchase intention among the teen segment of Generation Y in Botswana.

For the purpose of this study, the student portion of the female Generation Y cohort was investigated as this segment includes a sufficiently large portion of this cohort (Kinley *et al.*, 2010:563) and spends a notable percentage of their disposable income on personal care products (Gardyn, 2002:19). In addition, Kinley *et al.* (2010:563) assert that these individuals will most likely have a high standard of living after graduation, indicating high future purchasing power.

3.7 PROPOSED MODEL OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING FEMALE GENERATION Y STUDENTS' PURCHASE INTENTION OF BEAUTY PRODUCTS

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 serves as a basis for investigating possible factors that are likely to influence the purchase intention of consumers towards beauty products. The primary purpose of this section is to propose a model of these factors. Furthermore, the preceding literature review outlines existing theories, models and empirical studies that may aid in supporting the postulated model. Figure 3.2 is a representation of the proposed model and theorises a number of factors that serve as antecedents of female consumers' purchase intention towards beauty products.

The proposed model seeks to investigate whether female consumers' attitude towards beauty products, variety-seeking and status consumption orientation, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness are significant predictors of their purchase intention towards beauty products.

The proposed model illustrated in Figure 3.2 depicts the antecedents that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products, as per the literature.

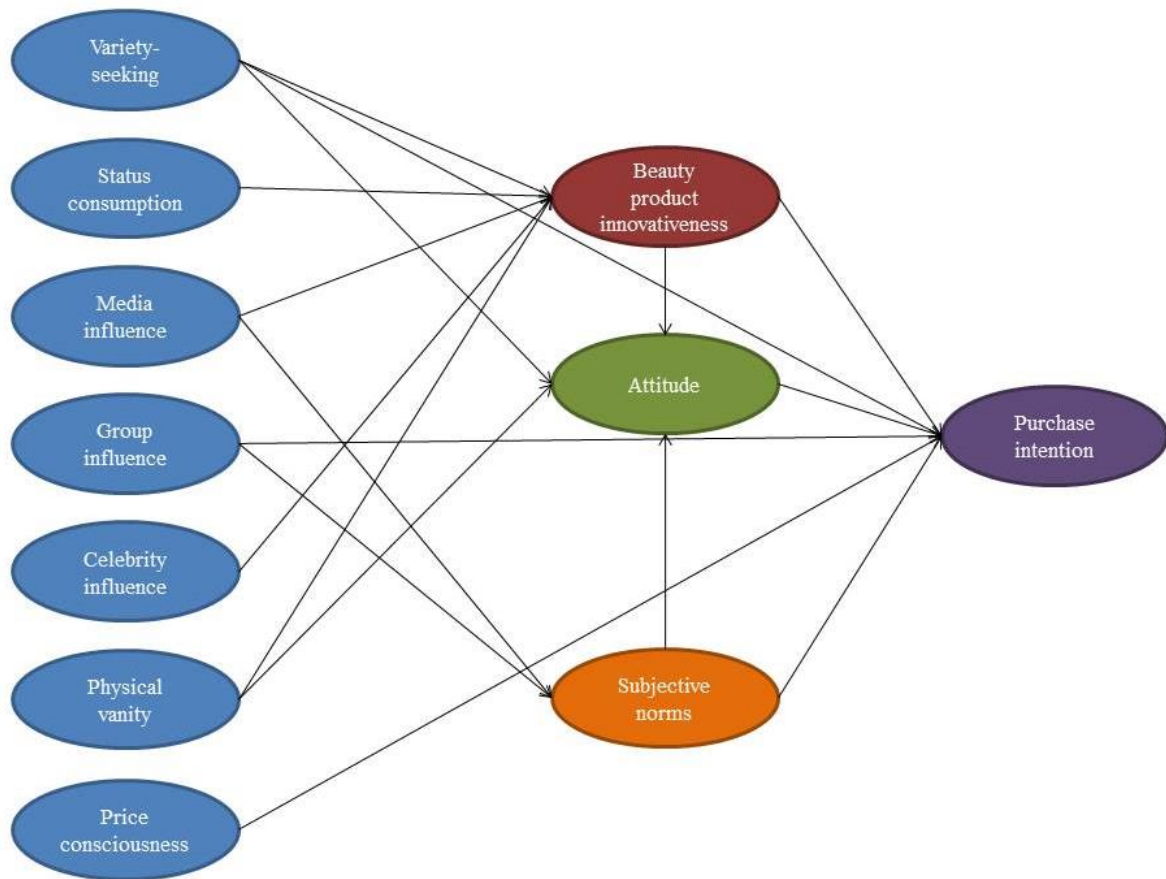


Figure 3.2: Proposed model of the factors influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products

In order to determine the relevance of these factors in determining the consumers' purchase intention towards beauty products, the hypothesised relationships suggested by the research model in Figure 3.2 will be tested empirically, as reported on in Chapter 5.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter comprised a discussion on the theory of reasoned action, as the TRA is utilised to predict behavioural intention, covering the prediction of both attitudes and intention. Given that the TRA is limited, as it only illustrates the processes by which attitudes and beliefs determine a consumer's intention, additional factors may be added when they are identified as possible predictors of consumers' intent. Accordingly, the classic TRA model used for this study was extended to include variables external to the theory, in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the varied factors that may influence consumers' attitude towards and intention

to purchasing beauty products. As such, these factors were discussed in this chapter, together with a discussion on the fashion industry, with specific reference to the beauty product industry. In addition, this chapter included a literature review on the Generation Y cohort with specific reference to the female portion of this cohort in South Africa. Focus is placed on the female portion of this cohort, as females, especially Generation Y females, are becoming an emerging financial force because they have well-paid jobs, significant spending power and desirable lifestyles. This highlights the need for marketers to understand this market and the factors influencing their purchase intention.

Based on various attitude theories and models, a conceptual model was constructed that proposes factors that will possibly influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products in South Africa. It is important to identify these factors in order to create effective marketing strategies or make changes to existing strategies to target this market. Chapter 5 reports on the empirical testing of the proposed model of factors of female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products presented in Figure 3.2. The subsequent chapter entails a discussion on the research methodology employed in this study to empirically test the degree to which the abovementioned factors influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. Chapter 4 includes a description of the sampling procedure, as well as a discussion pertaining to the research instrument and the statistical analysis techniques employed in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Bradley (2013:7,24) asserts that marketing research is a powerful tool, as it helps marketing management to refine the marketing mix and assists to establish an equal level between supply and demand. Marketing research is described by Malhotra (2015:28) as the methodical and objective identification, collection, analysis, propagation, and use of information in order to identify and resolve problems and opportunities in marketing, with the end goal of improving marketing related decision-making. Clow and James (2014:4) agree, stating that the information gained from marketing research is used for the purpose of making more informed decisions related to various marketing functions. Accordingly, this type of research aids in market segmentation, consumer behaviour analysis and need analysis, customer satisfaction tracking, product development, and the assessment of different advertising methods and pricing strategies. Burns and Bush (2014:34-35) reiterate, stating that the gathered information is used to improve the understanding of marketing as a process and links the consumer, customer, and public to the marketer.

The purpose of this study was to determine and model the factors influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products in South Africa. The information emanating from this model may be used as a guide to develop marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market segment. In keeping with the primary objective (Chapter 1, Section 1.3.1), a literature review pertaining to consumer behaviour, the consumer decision-making process and the factors influencing this decision-making process, together with various attitude models, was conducted in Chapter 2. The focus of the literature review in Chapter 3 was on the theory of reasoned action and the possible antecedents of consumers' purchase intention, followed by a review on the Generation Y cohort. Chapter 3 concluded with a proposed model of factors influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products, which is based on the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3. Included in these two chapters was a review of studies of a similar nature. The empirical testing of this model is explained in Chapter 5.

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the research methods used to gather and analyse the required data, as well as the methods used to empirically test the proposed model. Included in

this chapter is a review on the research design and research approach utilised in this study, together with the sampling strategy, data collection, pre-testing and administration of the questionnaire. The techniques and statistical procedures employed to analyse the data, including reliability analysis, validity analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis, hypotheses testing and structural equation modelling are discussed in this chapter. The subsequent section, Section 4.2, comprises a review on the research design selected for this study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design, as defined by Malhotra (2015:84), is a framework for conducting marketing research, giving details of the procedures used to gather the information needed to identify and solve marketing problems. Clow and James (2014:34) describe the research design as a plan used to address the research problem, question and/or hypotheses. This framework guides the research process and varies according to the problem under study, as well as the constraints imposed by management. According to Malhotra (2015:32), the purpose of the research design is to design a study that will test the hypotheses of interest, determine possible answers to the research questions, and provide the information needed for proper decision-making. Burns and Bush (2014:74) assert that there are three widely recognised research designs, namely exploratory, descriptive and causal research.

Clow and James (2014:27) define exploratory research as an introductory examination of a problem or situation with the goal of identifying factors that need to be studied further. Shukla (2008:32) agrees, stating that exploratory research deals with the exploring of a phenomenon. Within marketing research, exploratory research is used when a problem needs to be defined more precisely. According to Burns and Bush (2014:74), this form of unstructured research is employed in order to learn terms and definitions or to identify research priorities. The above-mentioned unstructured form pertains to the flexible approach utilised for the collection of data for exploratory research purposes (Cant *et al.*, 2008:30). Hair *et al.* (2013:36) add that exploratory research can also be utilised to deepen the understanding of consumer motivations, attitudes, and behaviour that are not easily accessed by other research methods. Primarily this research requires data of a qualitative nature, and therefore the findings are tentative and should be followed by further exploratory or conclusive research (Malhotra, 2015:86).

Causal research is based on the concept of cause and is used to establish whether, and to what extent, a change in one variable causes a change in some other variable (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013:135). Zikmund and Babin (2013:51) refer to causal research as the research utilising data to obtain evidence and conclude the cause-and-effect relationship between dependent and independent variables. Therefore, Burns and Bush (2014:74) explain that this type of research attempts to reveal the factors that are the cause of some event. Researchers make use of causal research when there is a need to understand which variables cause a dependent variable to move (Hair *et al.*, 2013:37). According to Malhotra (2015:88), the main method used when conducting causal research is experimentation. As such, causal research usually provides a researcher with a higher level of information, at a higher level of cost and time (Clow & James, 2014:35).

Descriptive research is conducted when questions of who, what, where, when, and how need answering (Burns & Bush, 2014:74). This type of research is used to portray a situation to the most accurate and comprehensive degree. Consequently, this process can be particularly complex and frequently involve the use of statistical methodology (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013: 133-134). Marketers generally utilise a descriptive research design when they have already defined the marketing problem or situation, and just need additional information to enable them to make a well-informed decision (Clow & James, 2014:28). Researchers also use descriptive research for the purpose of projecting the findings of a study to a larger population (Burns & Bush, 2014:74), as well as to define characteristics of objects, people, groups, organisations or environments (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:49). According to Malhotra (2015:87), the purpose of descriptive research is to describe something, usually market characteristics or functions. Examples of descriptive information within the marketing field comprise consumer attitudes, intentions, preferences, purchase behaviours, evaluations of current marketing mix strategies, and demographics (Hair *et al.*, 2013:36). Descriptive research is classified into two categories, namely longitudinal and cross-sectional research design (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:86). A study that follows a longitudinal research design repeatedly collects data from the same sample units in a population on the same variables over a certain period (Burns & Bush, 2014:105). Cross-sectional research designs, however, collect data from a single sample of population elements only once (Malhotra, 2015:87). Cross-sectional research designs are categorised into single and multiple cross-sectional designs (Malhotra, 2010:103). A multiple cross-sectional design involves the collection of data from two or more samples only once, whereas in a single

cross-sectional design, data are collected from a single sample of participants only once (Malhotra, 2010:108).

For the purpose of this study, a descriptive research design was implemented as this study seeks to uncover the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products within the South African context. A single cross-sectional approach was used in this study, as the data were drawn from one sample of the population only once.

This section provided insights into the research design followed in this study. The following section describes the research approach employed in this study.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Within a research study, there are two basic research approaches, namely quantitative research, that is an approach used to determine the relationship between independent and dependent variables, and qualitative research, which is an approach used to explore issues and understand reasons and motivations (Wiid & Diggins, 2013:59). Clow and James (2014:41) explain that qualitative research uses unstructured methods for the collection of data, and provides results that are subjectively interpreted. Burns and Bush (2014:146) opine that collecting, analysing and interpreting data by means of observations and statements are unstructured methods, utilised when qualitative research is conducted. Shukla (2008:32) adds that this technique focuses on asking questions and observing the behaviour of a small number of participants. As such, these methods are open-ended, and are therefore classified as free form, and non-standardised. Qualitative research is dedicated to understanding rather than measurement and, consequently, places emphasis on words, narrative, images, and concepts, rather than focusing on numerical values (Bradley, 2013:15). According to Clow and James (2014:41), this research approach is typically utilised when exploratory research is conducted. Some popular qualitative techniques include focus groups, depth interviews, and word association. Focus groups can be described as group interviews, whereas depth interviews are one-on-one interviews that investigate the participant's thoughts in detail. Word association is described as researchers asking participants to indicate their first responses to stimulus words (Malhotra, 2015:61). Results from qualitative research can be quantified by making use of a translation process (Burns & Bush, 2014:146).

Quantitative research is used for descriptive and causal research (Shukla, 2008:32). The data collection procedure pertaining to this type of research is formal and structured and the results

can be converted to numbers and analysed by making use of statistical procedures (Clow & James, 2014:43; Malhotra, 2015:120). Quantitative research is employed to test hypotheses that involve a set of structured questions with predetermined response options to a large number of participants (Hair *et al.*, 2013:77). Researchers conduct quantitative research when they want to generalise findings to a larger population (Struwig & Stead, 2001:5), or when precise information is needed (Burns & Bush, 2014:146). According to Shukla (2008:32), the focal purpose of quantitative research is to provide specific facts that will aid in making well informed decisions.

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research approach was applied, because this study lends itself to statistical analysis of large numbers of cases. The following section relates to the sampling strategy used in this study.

4.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

Sampling strategy involves any procedure used to draw conclusions about an entire population based on the measurements of a portion of the population (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:312). Shukla (2008:55) opines that sampling plays an important role within marketing research. According to Clow and James (2014:225), the process utilised to choose the portion of the population under study is called sampling, whereas the individuals chosen are called the sample. A researcher can obtain the required information from either a census or a sample (Hair *et al.*, 2013:38). With a census, the entire population is surveyed to obtain the required information (Hair *et al.*, 2013:136). Sampling is utilised when obtaining the required information from the entire population is impossible or unreasonable (Malhotra, 2015:226). Wiid and Diggines (2013:182) assert that time and financial limits are constraints that favour the use of sampling. The following figure illustrates the sampling strategy used to select a sample:

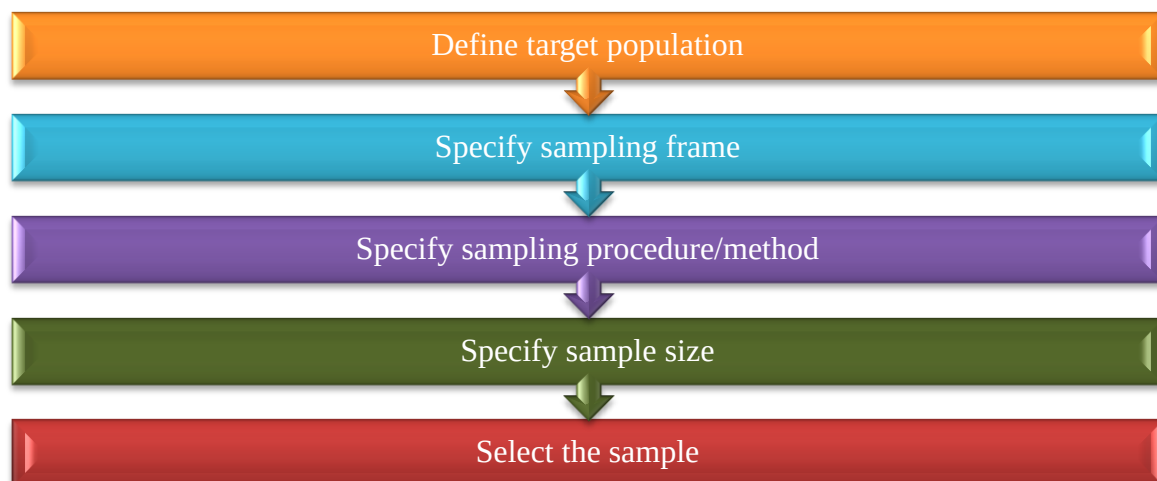


Figure 4.1: Sampling strategy (Clow & James, 2014:227)

The following sub-sections explain the sampling strategy used in this study, providing a detailed description of the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling method and the sample size.

4.4.1 Target population

The first step in the sampling process is to define the target population (Clow & James, 2014:226; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:279). A population is an identifiable group of elements that share a general set of characteristics and are of interest to the researcher, as they are key to solving the marketing research problem (Burns & Bush, 2014:75). The population should be determined before the target population can be defined. The target population comprises a collection of a complete unit of elements that have the data the researcher needs to investigate and solve the research problem (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:312). In order to avoid obtaining ineffective or misleading results and to ensure that the participants have the required information, the target population should be defined precisely (Kolb, 2008:180). Malhotra (2015:272) explains that when defining the target population, a precise statement should be inferred from the problem definition. This statement must confirm who should and should not be included in the sample (Malhotra, 2015:272).

The target population relevant for this study comprised female Generation Y students between the ages of 18 and 24 years who were enrolled full-time at registered public South African HEIs within the Gauteng province during 2016.

4.4.2 Sampling frame

Once the target population has been defined, the researcher develops a sampling frame, which is described as a list comprising all appropriate sampling units (Hair *et al.*, 2013:138). Clow and James (2014:227) define a sample frame as a listing of people or objects from which the sample will be drawn. Examples of a sampling frame may include a telephone book, an association directory listing the firms in an industry, a mailing list purchased from a commercial organisation, a list of registered voters, a city directory, or a geographic map (Bradley, 2013:155; Malhotra, 2015:272; Shukla, 2008:57). The sampling frame for this study comprised the 26 registered South African public HEIs (Universities South Africa, 2015), which included 11 traditional universities, nine comprehensive universities and six universities of technology (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). Table 4.1 presents a summary of the 26 registered South African public HEIs.

Table 4.1: Registered South African public HEIs

Name of University	Location	Website
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Western Cape	www.cput.ac.za
Central University of Technology	Free State	www.cut.ac.za
Durban University of Technology	KwaZulu-Natal	www.dut.ac.za
Mangosuthu University of Technology	KwaZulu-Natal	www.mut.ac.za
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Eastern Cape and Western Cape	www.nmmu.ac.za
North-West University	North-West and Gauteng	www.nwu.ac.za
Rhodes University	Eastern Cape	www.ru.ac.za
Sol Plaatje University	Northern Cape	www.spu.ac.za
Sefako Makgatho Health Sciences University	Gauteng	www.smu.ac.za

Name of University	Location	Website
Stellenbosch University	Western Cape	www.sun.ac.za
Tshwane University of Technology	Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and North-West	www.tut.ac.za
University of Cape Town	Western Cape	www.uct.ac.za
University of Fort Hare	Eastern Cape	www.ufh.ac.za
University of Johannesburg	Gauteng	www.uj.ac.za
University of KwaZulu-Natal	KwaZulu-Natal	www.ukzn.ac.za
University of Limpopo	Limpopo and Gauteng	www.ul.ac.za
University of Mpumalanga	Mpumalanga	www.ump.ac.za
University of Pretoria	Gauteng	www.up.ac.za
University of South Africa	All provinces	www.unisa.ac.za
University of Venda	Limpopo	www.univen.ac.za
University of Zululand	KwaZulu-Natal	www.unizulu.ac.za
University of the Free State	Free State	www.ufs.ac.za
University of the Western Cape	Western Cape	www.uwc.ac.za

Table 4.1: Registered South African public HEIs (continued ...)

Name of University	Location	Website
University of the Witwatersrand	Gauteng	www.wits.ac.za
Vaal University of Technology	Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Northern Cape	www.vut.ac.za
Walter Sisulu University	Eastern Cape	www.wsu.ac.za

Source: Department of Higher Education and Training (2015); Universities South Africa (2015)

For the purpose of this study, a non-probability judgement sampling method was used to narrow down the initial sampling frame of 26 HEIs to three HEI campuses, located in the Gauteng province. These three HEIs include one traditional university, one university of technology and

one comprehensive university. The Gauteng province comprises the largest portion of the South African population, and also the highest number of Generation Y population group (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Table 4.2 illustrates the population estimates by province.

Table 4.2: Mid-year population estimates by province

Province	Population estimates
Eastern Cape	7 061 700
Free State	2 861 600
Gauteng	13 498 200
KwaZulu-Natal	11 079 700
Limpopo	5 803 900
Mpumalanga	4 328 300
Northern Cape	1 191 700
North West	3 790 600
Western Cape	6 293 200
Total	55 908 900

Source: Statistics South Africa (2016)

The following table, Table 4.3, illustrates the population estimates within various age brackets as set out by Statistics South Africa's mid-year population estimates.

Table 4.3: Mid-year population estimates within 10-29 year old age brackets

Province	Population estimates
Eastern Cape	2 876 668
Free State	1 082 955
Gauteng	4 480 907
KwaZulu-Natal	4 371 108
Limpopo	2 378 167

Mpumalanga	1 729 635
Northern Cape	448 458
North West	1 387 782
Western Cape	2 124 042
Total	20 879 723

Source: **Statistics South Africa (2016)**

Accordingly, the Gauteng province was selected for the final sampling frame of this study. One group of participants, namely full-time registered female students, was then selected by means of convenience sampling.

4.4.3 Sample method

The sample method or procedure is described as the process used to select or recruit the sample units (Bradley, 2013:155). Sample methods can be classified into two broad categories, namely probability and non-probability sampling (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:282). The different sampling techniques included in both probability and non-probability sampling are illustrated in the following figure.

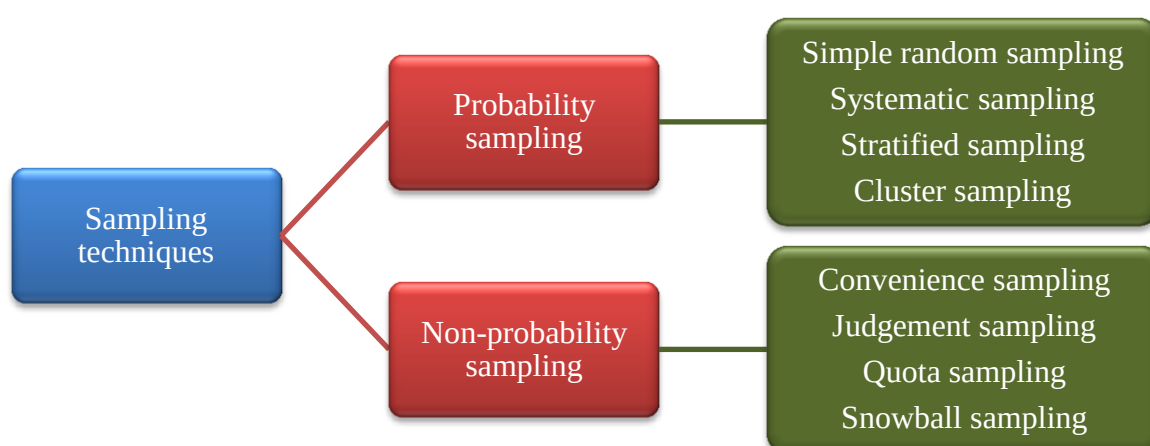


Figure 4.2: Probability and non-probability sampling methods (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:189)

In probability sampling, each population element has a known and nonzero chance of being selected to form part of the sample under study (Clow & James, 2014:229). As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the various methods that can be used to select a probability sample comprise simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:287) explain that with simple random sampling each sample element has a known and equal chance of being selected. These sample elements are selected independently and in a random manner (Malhotra, 2015:280). With systematic sampling, the researcher is presented with a complete list of the entire population and all the sample elements are drawn systematically from this list (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:175). The first element is selected randomly, followed by the selection of the sample elements at predetermined intervals (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:195). The stratified sampling technique divides the target population into subgroups, called strata, based on some characteristic. Thereafter, the sample elements are randomly selected from each subgroup (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:326). The first step in cluster sampling is similar to the stratified sampling technique, as the target population is divided into mutually and comprehensive subgroups, called clusters. The sample elements are then selected by means of another probability sampling technique (Hair *et al.*, 2013:143-144).

Selecting participants using non-probability sampling depends on the personal judgement of the researcher alone and does not involve random selection techniques (Clow & James, 2014:231). As depicted in Figure 4.2, the types of non-probability sampling techniques comprise convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:189). Convenience sampling is the selection of sample elements based primarily on the accessibility of the population to the researcher (Clow & James, 2014:231). With judgement sampling, the sample elements are drawn from the target population based on the judgement of the researcher. These elements are selected because the researcher believes they are representative of the population under study (Malhotra, 2015:277). The quota sampling technique entails the division of the target population into subcategories based on predetermined criteria, such as specific demographic characteristics. This is done to ensure the representativeness of the sample (Hair *et al.*, 2013:146). According to Burns and Bush (2014:256), snowball sampling, also known as referral sampling, is a method of judgement sampling as the researcher selects an initial sample of participants, fulfilling a certain set of

required characteristics. The initial participants are then asked to act as an informant, providing information of other individuals with the same characteristics, who will ultimately also participate in the study (Bradley, 2013:168).

For the purpose of this study, a non-probability convenience sample of full-time female Generation Y students aged between 18 and 24 years and registered at three South African HEIs was drawn from the sample frame between April 2016 and May 2016. The reason for employing a convenience sampling method is that the selection of the sample depended on the accessibility of the students.

4.4.4 Sample size

Malhotra (2015:274) describes a sample size as the number of sample elements included in the research study. According to Bradley (2013:177), several studies depend on the researcher to determine the sample size based on feasibility regarding time and financial constraints. However, Clow and James (2014:239) state that the sample size can be determined by having an equal sample size to those of previous studies of a similar nature.

A sample size of 780 full-time undergraduate female Generation Y students was selected for this study. This sample size is in line with previous studies of a similar nature such as those conducted by Ergin *et al.* (2005) (sample size of 600), Kaushal (2011) (sample size of 700) and Kamal *et al.* (2013) (sample size of 400). According to Hair *et al.* (2010:662), studies making use of structural equation models comprising seven or more dimensions, such as this study, should have a sample size of more than 300; subsequently, this sample was considered sufficiently large. The following section entails a detailed discussion on the data collection method used for the purpose of this study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

According to Berndt and Petzer (2011:202), the data collection method specifies how the required research data will be collected from the identified sample, which can be obtained by making use of observation or communication techniques (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:186). Quantitative studies utilise two typical data collection methods, namely the survey method and/or the observation method (Malhotra, 2015:149). When the observation method is used, the participant's behaviour is observed and recorded by the researcher, with no communication

between the researcher and the participant (Clow & James, 2014:35). Alternatively, mechanical devices, such as checkout scanners or Internet activity records can also be utilised to observe and record the required data (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:190). Berndt and Petzer (2011:92) opine that by using this technique, the researcher can determine the origin of the action, behaviour and conditions in a vast amount of social settings. However, according to Wiid and Diggines (2013:131,133), this method is limited to the observed behaviour of the participant, and therefore provides little information regarding the participant's decision-making process. Shukla (2008:48,52) asserts that the observation method depends on the observation abilities of the researcher, while the survey method relies less on the skills of the researcher.

According to Wiid and Diggines (2013:110), the survey method is the most widespread method utilised to collect primary marketing information. Survey methods are used when information needs to be collected in an economical and efficient way from a large number of participants (Burns & Bush, 2014:172). Clow and James (2014:35) describe the survey method as a technique used for collecting data from participants by means of asking a series of questions about the topic under study. Malhotra (2015:149) documents that this is the most popular method used for collecting research data. The survey method can be classified into four broad categories, according to the mode utilised to administer the questionnaire. These modes include interviewer-administered surveys, traditional self-administered surveys, computer-assisted self-administered surveys and hybrid surveys (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:135). The following figure illustrates the various categories and subcategories of survey methods.

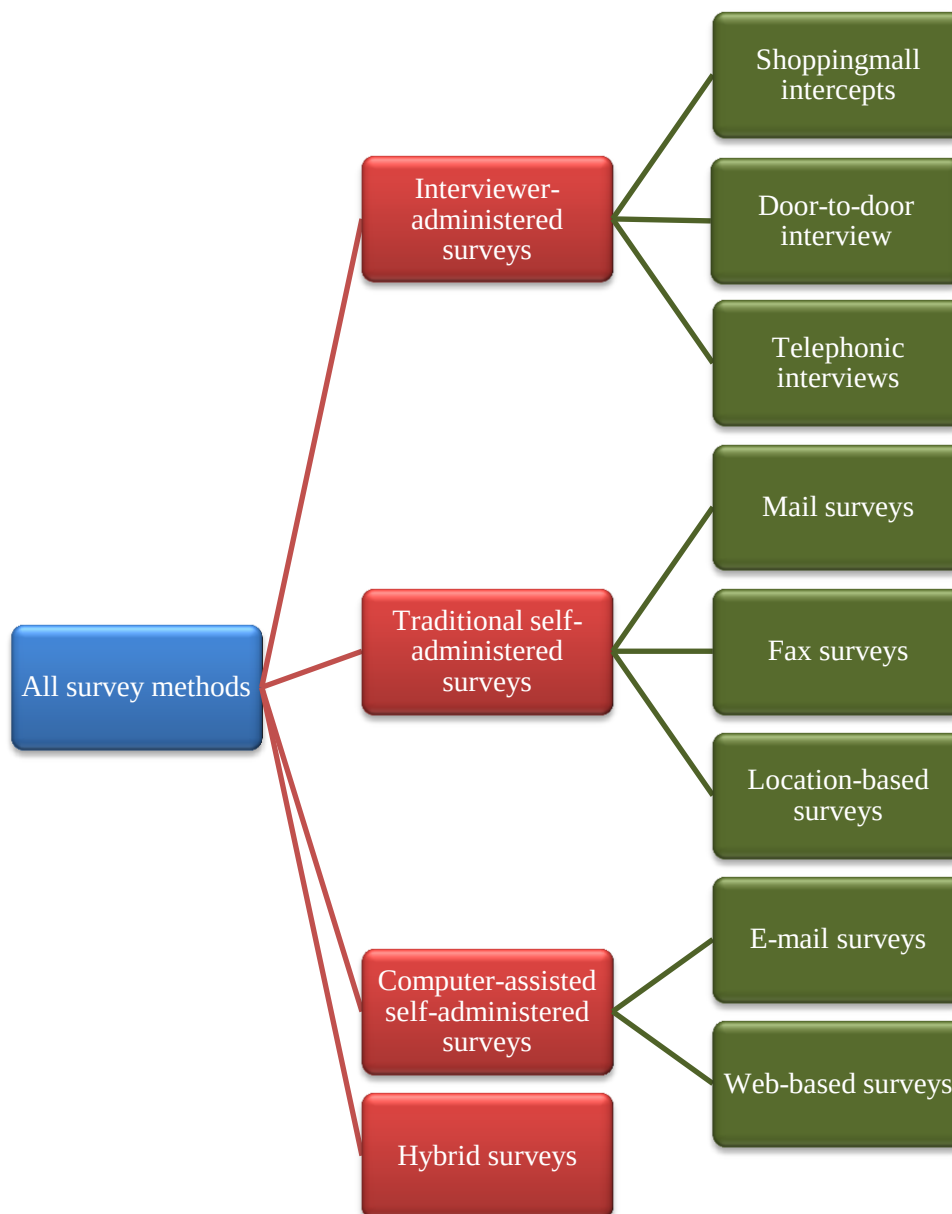


Figure 4.3: Types of survey methods (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:135)

As seen in Figure 4.3, a survey can be interviewer-administered, self-administered (traditional or computer-assisted) or a hybrid survey. With interviewer- or person-administered surveys, an interviewer usually reads the question to the participant, face-to-face or telephonically and records the response of the participant (Burns & Bush, 2014:175). Self-administered surveys rely on the participant to read and complete the survey without the presence of an interviewer (Hair *et al.*, 2013:115). Hybrid survey methods combine elements from both interviewer- and self-administered survey methods, as well as using different types of technology in order to collect

data. Examples include a researcher asking visitors at a trade show to complete a short questionnaire on a smart device (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:146). Another method included in the self-administered surveys is the drop-off survey. This method involves the researcher physically leaving the questionnaire with the participant, and arranging a time to collect the completed questionnaire (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:176). According to Malhotra (2015:161), drop-off surveys are more expensive than the normal mail survey, as they generate higher response rates.

For the purpose of this study, the data collection method applied to collect the required data was a self-administered questionnaire using the drop-off survey method. The questionnaire was submitted for approval and ethics clearance to the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Information Technology at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus). Once the ethics clearance certificate was issued (Ethics Clearance Number: ECONIT-ECON-2016-027), permission to deliver the self-administered questionnaires was solicited from lecturers at each of the three participating HEIs. Thereafter, the questionnaires were hand-delivered to the participating academic staff members, who then distributed the questionnaires to be completed voluntarily by their students during or after class. As this was a structured questionnaire, the administration of the questionnaire was less complicated for the participating academic staff members. After a two-week period the relevant academic staff members were contacted to arrange for the collection of the completed questionnaires. This was the approach followed for all three participating HEIs. The following section pertains a discussion on the research instrument used in this study.

4.5.1 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is a structured measuring instrument comprising a set of questions used to collect the required data from the sample elements in order to achieve the survey and research objectives (Clow & James, 2014:323). Questionnaires are required to meet specific objectives (Malhotra, 2015:240; Shukla, 2008:86). Included in these objectives is the ability of a questionnaire to ask questions in such a way that participants will understand and be willing to answer them. Another objective is to convert the information needed from the research into questions (Shukla, 2008:86). Malhotra (2015:241) adds that a questionnaire should have an uplifting nature, motivating and encouraging the participant to cooperate and get involved in the completion of the questionnaire. According to Bradley (2013:191), questionnaires are regarded as the interface between the researcher and participant, as well as the connection between the

client and the researcher. Burns and Bush (2014:214) concur, stating that the design of a questionnaire has a direct and significant influence on the quality of the data collected; therefore, spending a sufficient amount of time and effort on this process is recommended, as the questionnaire design is imperative in motivating consumers to complete the questionnaire, and subsequently obtaining a good response rate.

Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:221) explain that the physical appearance of a questionnaire determines the participant's cooperativeness; therefore, it is necessary to ensure a professional, well-structured questionnaire. A cover letter is used to introduce and explain the purpose of the study, as well as to give clear instructions pertaining to the completion of the questionnaire (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:197). Bradley (2013:194) accentuates the importance of a cover letter when self-administered questionnaires are used. Furthermore, the cover letter should be formulated with care as it can influence the response rate. Struwig and Stead (2001:91) advise the researcher to use simple language that is familiar to the participants and questions should be direct, short and unambiguous. Pallant (2013:10) reiterates that a questionnaire should not contain complicated wording, as this will result in either unanswered questions or incorrect information provided by the participants. According to Burns and Bush (2014:218), a research question should not be loaded, leading, double-barrelled or overstated, as it may influence the participant's answer. A loaded or biased question uses emotionalism or presuppositions to skew the response of participants. Clow and James (2014:350) indicate that leading questions may guide the participant to a specific answer. A double-barrelled question may confuse participants, as such a question attempts to obtain a participant's opinion of two issues simultaneously (Malhotra, 2015:243), while an overstated question unnecessarily accentuates a certain aspect of the question (Burns & Bush, 2014:220). Another aspect to consider is the average time required to complete the questionnaire, or the length of the questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:121). Kolb (2008:205) explains that a lengthy questionnaire might discourage participants, and the length of the questionnaire should therefore be kept to a minimum. According to McDaniel and Gates (2013:262), the administration of a questionnaire should not surpass 20 minutes.

The aforementioned recommendations guided the design of the questionnaire used for the purpose of this study. Due care was taken to ensure that the questionnaire was easily understandable to the participants. This was done by using simple English terminology and constructing questions in an unambiguous, clear and concise manner. Furthermore, the length of the questionnaire was deemed acceptable, as the pilot testing confirmed that it could be

completed within 15 minutes. The questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research study, providing the relevant contact details, as well as requesting participation. The questionnaire used in this study is presented in Annexure A.

4.5.2 Questioning format

The study utilised 10 previously validated scales to obtain the necessary data. The scaled items developed and utilised in this study were in accordance with the primary objective (Section 1.3.1) and empirical objectives (Section 1.3.3) stipulated for this study. In accordance with these objectives, the questionnaire included the adapted scales of Coulter *et al.* (2002a), Eastman *et al.*, (1999), Eze *et al.* (2012b), Goldsmith and Hofacker (1991), Kim and Karpova (2010), Lichtenstein *et al.* (1993), Mascarenhas and Higby (1993), Moschis (1976), Netemeyer *et al.* (1995) and Song *et al.* (2014). These scales were included to measure participants' attitudes (four items), variety-seeking (three items), status consumption (five items), subjective norms (four items), media influence (five items), group influence (four items), celebrity influence (seven items), physical vanity (five items), price consciousness (five items), beauty product innovativeness (five items) and purchase intention (three items). These constructs were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) based on the participant's level of agreement or disagreement to the statements.

Once the information required has been specified, the researcher needs to determine the type of questions to include in the questionnaire (Shukla, 2008:88). According to Wiid and Diggines (2013:166), the researcher should determine the question or response format by considering the participant's possible reaction or expected answer. Question types can be classified into two major categories, namely unstructured (open-ended) or structured (close-ended or fixed-alternative) questions (Pallant, 2013:7). Unstructured or open-ended questions allow the participant to answer the question in their own words (Shukla, 2008:88). This type of question might be used when the researcher does not have a clear indication of the responses to expect from the participants, or when the researcher wants to capture the spontaneous opinion or attitude of the participant (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:187). Structured, close-ended or fixed-alternative questions provide the participant with a set of response alternatives from which they should choose the response closest to their own viewpoint (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:282). When structured questions are used, specific questions are asked in order to obtain the required information needed to solve the research question (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:187). Hair *et al.*

(2013:190) highlight that the major benefits pertaining to the use of structured questionnaires are the simple administration, completion and capturing of the results. Furthermore, Cant *et al.* (2008:151) opine that the willingness of a participant to complete a self-administered questionnaire will be higher when questions are structured. Malhotra (2015:246) asserts that a structured question can be a multiple-choice, dichotomous or scale question. A multiple-choice question requests a participant to select one or more option from a set of multiple possible answers to a question (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:254). A dichotomous question requires the participant to choose from only two possible answers provided, while scaled questions provide the participant with various options to choose from in a scale form, for example, indicating their level of agreement or disagreement regarding a specific question (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:214). According to Wiid and Diggins (2013:168), scaled questions are developed to capture participants' attitudes and perceptions. When making use of scaled questions, means and standard deviations can be obtained as well, and the means can then be compared across the demographics of the participants (Clow & James, 2014:333).

In addition to the questionnaire format, the researcher is faced with the decision whether to formulate disguised or undisguised questions. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:188) explain that a disguised questionnaire is aimed at hiding the purpose of the study, whereas, with an undisguised questionnaire the researcher makes the purpose of the study evident by the questions asked.

After the research design is determined, the researcher can focus on the measurement and scaling (Cant *et al.*, 2008:132). According to Clow and James (2014:255), measurement entails the process of assigning numerical values to the phenomena or characteristics of the object being measured. Such characteristics may include perceptions, attitudes, preferences, opinions or behaviour of consumers toward the object being measured (Malhotra, 2010:282). In order to measure these characteristics, the researcher must adapt or develop rating scale formats to use in the measuring instrument (Burns & Bush, 2014:205). Bradley (2013:203) advises researchers to adapt existing scales, as various scales have been developed for marketing application. Aaker *et al.* (2011:249) highlight the importance of selecting a suitable scale for the study, as it may influence the interpretation and analysis of the data.

Within the marketing research field, scales are categorised into two groups, namely comparative and non-comparative scales, as illustrated in Figure 4.4.

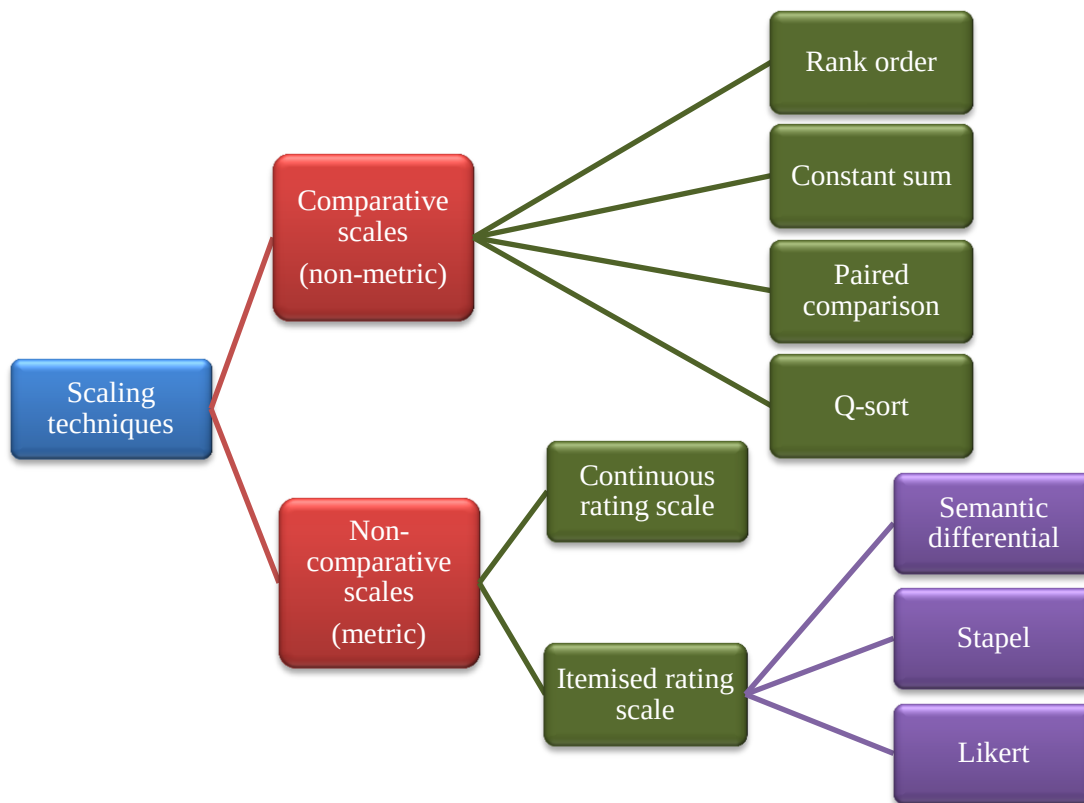


Figure 4.4: Scaling techniques (Malhotra, 2010:289)

Wiid and Diggines (2013:153) describe a comparative scale as a scale requiring participants to compare two or more objects, in order to interpret the data in relative terms. In contrast, a non-comparative scale requests participants to make judgements regarding an object or concept without using another reference for comparison (Clow & James, 2014:287). For the purpose of this study, focus will be directed towards non-comparative scaling techniques.

Non-comparative scales encompass continuous rating scales and itemised rating scales. The continuous rating scale requires a participant to rate an object or concept, by means of making a mark on a line that stretches from one bipolar end to another (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:156). Itemised rating scales provide the participant with categories from which they are required to select the category that best describes their perceived opinion or attitude towards the object or concept. These categories are accompanied by a number and/or a brief description (Shukla, 2008:77). Malhotra (2015:219) states that this scaling technique is one of the most prevalent techniques within the marketing research field. The Likert scale is the most frequently applied

itemised rating scale within the consumer behaviour field because it is easily prepared and interpreted by researchers, and simple for consumers to answer (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:38).

Berndt and Petzer (2011:192) explain that the semantic differential scale comprises descriptive words or adjectives placed at the opposite ends of the scale. Clow and James (2014:298) advise that the descriptive words at the opposing ends should be bipolar in nature. The participants are required to indicate a location along its continuum that best describes their perceptions or feelings (Burns & Bush, 2014:209). According to McDaniel and Gates (2013:227), this scale is the most appropriate scale to use when conducting research on the strengths and weaknesses of a product or brand image, as it is quick to use, sufficiently reliable and effective. Malhotra (2015:222) points out that it has also been used in the development of advertising and promotion strategies, as well as studies pertaining to new product development.

The Stapel scale is a vertical scale with ten categories, typically numbered from -5 to +5 with a single adjective in the middle, and used to measure the attitudes of participants (Malhotra, 2015:222). This scale is a simplified modification of the semantic differential scale, as the statements or descriptive phrases are measured separately, and the scale categories are identified by number (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:242). According to McDaniel and Gates (2013:229), using this scale provides the researcher with the advantage of measuring both the direction and intensity of the participants' attitudes toward the objects at the same time. However, Shukla (2008:79) opines that participants may misunderstand the Stapel scale, providing biased responses; therefore, it is the least used scale within the field of marketing research.

The Likert scale, also known as the summated scale (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:259), is defined as a scale requiring participants to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each of the provided statements (Clow & James, 2014:303). Cant *et al.* (2008:142) explain that each statement is assigned a numerical number for analysing purposes, where the most positive statement will have the highest number and the most negative statement will have the lowest number. Burns and Bush (2014:208) suggest that the researcher should use simple statements, allowing participants to indicate the intensity of their feelings by their response. With the Likert scale, the researcher can decide on the range of the response categories, which Berndt and Petzer (2011:189) assert may range from three- to seven-points. This type of scale enables the researcher to do an item-by-item or a profile analysis, where the participants' overall attitude towards the subject being researched can be determined by calculating the total score of each

participant (Malhotra, 2010:309). According to Zikmund and Babin (2013:265), this scale is the most widespread scale used in marketing research. This might be a result of the ease of developing and understanding the scale (Shukla, 2008:78). Hair *et al.* (2013:172) add that a Likert scale is best applied in studies making use of personal interviews, online or self-administered surveys.

After considering all the abovementioned techniques and effects in determining the question format, this study formulated structured-undisguised questions by means of a self-administered questionnaire. The questions that were used in obtaining the participants' demographic information (Section A of the questionnaire) comprised three dichotomous questions, where the participants had to indicate their country of origin, gender, and whether they were registered full-time or part-time. In addition, six multiple-choice questions requested the participants to indicate their university, province of origin, year of study, ethnic group, mother tongue language and age. Furthermore, there were one dichotomous and two multiple-choice questions pertaining to their beauty product purchase information (Section B of the questionnaire), where the participants had to indicate whether they purchase beauty products, how often they purchase beauty products and how much money, on average, they spend on beauty products per month. The questions that relate directly to the topic of this study were organised in the form of a multi-item scale in Section C of the questionnaire of this study. A six-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6) was used to measure the participants' extent of agreement or disagreement with each specific item pertaining to the selected factors influencing their purchase consumption of beauty products. According to Wiid and Diggines (2013:160), it is the researcher's responsibility to decide whether it would be beneficial for the study to use forced response. This study made use of a forced response, and removed the midpoint, representing the indecisive attitude or perception.

4.5.3 Questionnaire layout

The order or flow of statements and questions included in a questionnaire is defined as the questionnaire layout (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:258). When using a self-administered questionnaire, the absence of the researcher during the completion process makes the questionnaire layout a critical issue (Struwig & Stead, 2001:96). Cant *et al.* (2008:156) highlight the importance of assembling the questions in a logical but interesting way, placing the easy questions first to ensure that the participants do not feel intimidated. Malhotra (2010:352)

advises that the questionnaire should be classified into several sections according to the topics. The different sections within the questionnaire should be numbered alphabetically, and the items or questions in the various sections, numerically (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:196). A well-organised questionnaire will motivate participants to be thorough and complete the questionnaire, whereas a poorly organised questionnaire may cause participants to be discouraged and frustrated, and even leave questions unanswered (Burns & Bush, 2014:222).

A questionnaire should start with an introduction, conveying the purpose of the research study, asking the participant's permission to take part in the study, ensuring confidentiality of the information provided, and conclude with the contact details of the researcher (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:197). Non-threatening questions, like the screening questions and the demographic questions should be placed in the first section of the questionnaire, which follows the introduction (Kolb, 2008:206). Scaled-response questions that are directly associated with the research objectives of the study should be placed in the middle of the questionnaire, also known as the body of the questionnaire (Clow & James, 2014:342). As advised by Berndt and Petzer (2011:197), the participant should always be thanked at the end of a questionnaire.

For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire (refer to Annexure A) included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research study, ensuring the confidentiality of participants and providing the researcher's contact details. Furthermore, the questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section, Section A (A1-A9) gathered the participants' demographic information. Demographic information is defined by Berndt and Petzer (2011:184) as those fixed characteristics of a participant that can usually not be changed by any marketing efforts. Three of the questions pertaining to the demographics of the participants were used as filter questions, ascertaining that the participants met the sample requirements. The first requirement included the participant's country of origin to ensure that only South African students' information was analysed and interpreted. The second requirement included the participant's gender, which was included to ensure that only female Generation Y participants' information was analysed and interpreted. The third requirement included the participant's age to ensure that the participants formed part of the defined target population of 18 to 24 years of age. Section B (B1, B1A & B1B) was employed to gather information regarding the participants' beauty product purchases. The first question in this section was designed to determine participants' interest in beauty products. This question concerned the participants' willingness to purchase beauty products and was used as a screening question to help achieve the research objectives.

The third section of the measuring instrument, Section C (C1-C50), was employed to obtain information pertaining to the research topic and objectives. The measuring instrument utilised to obtain the topic-related information for this study was adapted from various authors (Coulter *et al.*, 2002; Eastman, 1999; Eze *et al.*, 2012b; Goldsmith & Hofacker, 1991; Kim & Karpova, 2010; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 1993; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993; Moschis, 1976; Netemeyer *et al.*, 1995; Song *et al.*, 2014). This section measured the participants' attitude towards beauty products, the effect of variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness on the participants' beauty product purchase intentions. Table 4.4 outlines the 10 possible antecedents of consumers' purchase intention towards beauty products, as discussed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3).

Table 4.4: Antecedents of purchase intention towards beauty product purchasing

Antecedent	Author/s
Attitudes	Gao (2009); Khan (2012); Massoules (2011); Mihaela-Roxana (2010); Song <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Variety-seeking	Coulter <i>et al.</i> (2002); Faison (1977); Michaelidou and Dibb (2009)
Status consumption	Eastman <i>et al.</i> (1999); Liao and Hsieh (2012); Phau and Teah (2009)
Subjective norms	Kim and Karpova (2010); Kim <i>et al.</i> (2013); Lim <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Media influence	Craig (2013); Mascarenhas and Higby (1993); Xie and Singh (2007)
Group influence	Bearden and Etzel (1982); Moschis (1976); Park and Lessig (1977); Rayburn-Reeves <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Celebrity influence	Birtwistle and Moore (2006); Eze <i>et al.</i> (2012b); Rafique (2012)
Physical vanity	Chang <i>et al.</i> (2008); Hall and O'Mahony (2002); Netemeyer <i>et al.</i> (1995)
Price consciousness	Hansen (2013); Konuk (2015); Lichtenstein <i>et al.</i> (1993); Sinha and Batra (1999)
Beauty product innovativeness	Citrin <i>et al.</i> (2000); Goldsmith <i>et al.</i> (1995); Morgan and

The questionnaire was pre-tested before administering it to the main sample. The following section comprises a discussion on the methods used pertaining to the pre-testing of the questionnaire.

4.6 PRE-TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Aaker *et al.* (2011:292) assert that a questionnaire undergoes the pre-testing process to identify and correct possible problems with regard to the understanding and completion of the questionnaire. By pre-testing a questionnaire, the researcher can determine how the questionnaire will perform under real circumstances, as problems occurring in the pre-test sample will most likely occur in the main sample (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:183). Furthermore, the pre-testing process is utilised to test the terminology, language and layout employed in the questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010:354). According to Wiid and Diginnes (2013:171), the pre-test provides valuable feedback regarding the time it takes to complete the questionnaire, the clarity of the instructions, and the natural and conversational flow of the questionnaire. According to Burns and Bush (2014:229), the participants forming the pre-test sample should be representative of the target population. The pre-testing of the questionnaire is the most vital step in the questionnaire development process (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:223). Malhotra (2015:256) advises that the pre-test should be conducted by means of a personal interview, as interviewers can observe the reactions and attitudes of the participants forming part of the pre-test sample. Questionnaire pre-testing can be done by means of different methods, namely debriefing and pilot testing (Cant *et al.*, 2008:157). Debriefing pertains to the interviewer asking the researchers or participants to provide feedback regarding their interpretation of each question, problems experienced and any other concerns within the questionnaire. Furthermore, the results obtained from the debriefing are considered before conducting the pilot test (Malhotra, 2010:354). Subsequently, the questionnaire is generally administered to a pilot sample for further pre-testing. Shukla (2008:92) explains that with pilot testing, a small sample of participants, similar to those of the main sample, is asked to complete the questionnaire in order to assist in identifying and eliminating potential problems. According to Bradley (2013:216), the pilot testing process is the best way to determine whether the questionnaire will collect the information as expected. However, Aaker *et al.* (2011:294) opine that there is no assurance that all the problems in the questionnaire will be exposed by conducting the pre-testing procedures.

Once the questionnaire for this study had been designed, pre-testing was conducted by means of the debriefing and pilot testing approaches. First, the questionnaire was assessed by three experienced researchers. Thereafter, three academic staff members, one of which was a first language English speaker and the other two second language English speakers, were asked to participate in the debriefing process to pre-test the questionnaire. Since South Africa is a multilingual environment, this approach was used to ensure first language English- and non-first language English-speaking participants understood the questionnaire. The completion of the questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes, which, according to McDaniel and Gates (2013:122), was sufficiently short. The items in the questionnaire were refined based on the feedback received from the debriefing process.

After the questionnaire had been adjusted and refined, the pilot testing process was conducted. For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 48 undergraduate female Generation Y students who did not form part of the main sample. This process is conducted in order to ascertain the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The results obtained from the pilot study were analysed and reported on in Chapter 5. Adjustments and refinements were made to the questionnaire, according to the identified shortcomings and problems. Once this was completed, the final questionnaire (refer to Annexure A), was prepared for the main survey. The subsequent section encompasses a discussion on the administration of the questionnaire.

4.7 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The main survey for this research study was conducted between April and May 2016, using a self-administered questionnaire. The participating academic staff members at each of the selected HEIs were contacted to obtain permission to distribute the questionnaires to the full-time undergraduate students during class time. The questionnaire, together with the ethical clearance certificate was provided to the participating academic staff members prior to the distribution of the questionnaire. Once permission was solicited, a non-probability convenience sample of 780 full-time registered female Generation Y students was employed. The questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researcher to the participating staff members. These staff members were requested to inform the students that the completion is on a voluntary basis. A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire, explaining the purpose and nature of the study, as well as providing sufficient instructions regarding the completion of the questionnaire. A

single class period was deemed sufficient for the completion of the questionnaire, as it took approximately 15 minutes. Upon completion, the questionnaires were collected from the relevant staff members. The data congregated from the study were tabulated and analysed to facilitate the drawing of conclusions and the formulating of recommendations. The analysis and findings are reported on in Chapter 5. The preliminary data analysis employed in this study is expounded in the following section.

4.8 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

After the fieldwork to collect the data has been completed, the data have to be converted into a format suitable for interpretation and analysis (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:326). The main objective of data analysis is to extract meaning from the collected data (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:350). Zikmund and Babin (2013:64) reiterate, stating that the information content is mined from the raw data by means of data processing and analysis. According to Shukla (2008:94), the data analysis comprises data editing, coding, entry and cleaning. Malhotra (2010:453) describes data editing as the physical inspection of each completed questionnaire with the aim of identifying any errors made by either the interviewer or participant. Data coding involves the transformation of the raw data into symbols, usually numbers (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:351), to summarise and bring meaning to the data (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:363) and to facilitate and simplify the process of data capturing and calculation (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:223). Data entry is associated with the researcher physically capturing the data into a statistical software package, while the cleaning of the data involves error detection, consistency checks and dealing with missing responses (Shukla, 2008:97-98). The final step in the data analysis process is tabulation. By tabulating the data, the researcher determines the empirical distribution or frequency distribution of each item, and calculates the descriptive statistics, such as the mean or percentage (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:385). Clow and James (2014:374) state that tabulation encompasses the counting of the number of responses that fall into various categories. According to Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:352), tabulation can be classified into simple- or cross-tabulation, where simple tabulation involves the counting of individual variables, and cross-tabulation involves the counting of variables in two or more categories simultaneously.

The preliminary data analysis for this study comprised data editing to ensure that the questionnaires were error free, as well as data coding, to simplify the data capturing process. The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section, Section A (A1-A9), was

designated to gather the participants' demographic information. Section B (B1, B1A & B1B) was employed to gather information regarding the participants' beauty product purchases. The third section of the measuring instrument, Section C (C1-C50), was employed to obtain information pertaining to the research topic and objectives, measuring 10 dimensions pertaining to the antecedents of purchase intention of beauty products, namely attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness. The data relevant to this study was coded accordingly per construct as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Coding information

Data type	Variable	Question number
Demographic data	A1-A9	Section A: Questions A1-A9
Beauty product purchase information	B1-B1B	Section B: Questions B1-B1B
Beauty product consumption	C1-C50	Section C: Questions C1-C50
Attitude	C1-C4	Section C: Items C1-C4
Variety-seeking	C5-C7	Section C: Items C5-C7
Status consumption	C8-C12	Section C: Items C8-C12
Subjective norms	C13-C16	Section C: Items C13-C16
Media influence	C17-C21	Section C: Items C17-C21
Group influence	C22-C25	Section C: Items C22-C25
Celebrity influence	C26-C32	Section C: Items C26-C32
Physical vanity	C33-C37	Section C: Items C33-C37
Price consciousness	C38-C42	Section C: Items C38-C42
Beauty product innovativeness	C43-C47	Section C: Items C43-C47
Purchase intention	C48-C50	Section C: Items C48-C50

This study employed simple- or one-way tabulation, as the data were calculated and tabulated individually. After the tabulation of the data was done, the statistical analysis was conducted. The following section comprises a detailed discussion on the methods applied for the purpose of the statistical analysis.

4.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis includes various statistical procedures that assist a researcher with the processing and summarising of data, which in turn assists with understanding the entire set of responses (Hair *et al.*, 2013:268). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is a sophisticated software package, designed to assist the researcher with the analysis and presentation of the data (Malhotra, 2010:59). As such, for the purpose of this study, IBM SPSS Statistics, together with the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) package, Version 23, were used to analyse the captured data. The subsequent statistical methods were applied on the empirical data sets:

- Frequency analysis
- Factor analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive statistical analysis
- Correlation analysis
- Structural equation modelling.

The subsequent sections comprise an explanation pertaining to these statistical methods.

4.9.1 Frequency analysis

Clow and James (2014:116) state that frequency distribution of the variables included in a data set is one of the simplest forms of assembling and presenting data and, according to Malhotra (2010:484), the first analysis in the data analysis procedure. Frequency distribution can be described as the procedure used to organise and summarise data by recording the number of responses for every value of each variable (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:337). Pallant (2013:57) asserts that frequencies should be utilised to obtain descriptive statistics for categorical variables, such as the demographics of a sample. Malhotra (2015:331) explains that a frequency table includes frequency counts, percentages and cumulative percentages for all the possible values of each variable. Researchers use these calculations to present the data in charts or graphs, which are used to communicate findings to others (Burns & Bush, 2014:321). In this study, statistical tables, pie-, and bar charts are used to report on the frequency distribution.

4.9.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a tool for interdependence analysis and is defined as a statistical procedure used to summarise or reduce large sets of variables into manageable sets of factors (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:491). Aaker *et al.* (2011:490) assert that factor analysis can also be used to identify underlying constructs in a set of data. Malhotra (2010:636) points out that these factors or constructs are determined by examining the relationships between the various sets of interrelated variables. There are two approaches to factor analysis, namely exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (Wiid & Diggins, 2013:240). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to determine whether the variables of a scale load as predicted on their relevant factors, thus confirming the factor structure of the indicator variables (Malhotra, 2010:725). In contrast, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is conducted to determine which variables are either dependently or independently inter-correlated (Struwig & Stead, 2001:142). Malhotra (2010:739) explains that EFA detects the underlying constructs or dimensions among a set of variables. In order for factor analysis to be reliable, the ratio of participants to items should be no less than five to one (Pallant, 2013:190). The correlation matrix should be inspected to determine whether the inter-correlations among items are sufficient. Most of the correlations should be greater than 0.3 for factor analysis to be appropriate (Malhotra, 2010:640). Furthermore, Pallant (2013:190) asserts that the two measures utilised to determine the factorability of the data include Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO). For factor analysis to be appropriate, the Bartlett's test should generate a value smaller than 0.05 and the KMO measure should generate a value greater than 0.6.

Malhotra (2010:643) distinguishes between two general methods used to extract the underlying factors from a set of variables, namely principle components analysis and common factor analysis. With common factor analysis, the factors are based on the common variance, while the factors are based on the total variance when using the principle components analysis. According to Pallant (2013:189), the principle components analysis is the most widespread method, and used to summarise large sets of variables into fewer factors, accounting for maximum variance in the data. Aaker *et al.* (2011:490) assert that the purpose of the principle components method is to locate the factor with the maximum explained variance first, followed by a second factor that maximises the variance it explains. This process continues until all the variables are included in a factor or the number of useful factors is exhausted. When using the principle components method, Pallant (2013:191) indicates that all communalities are initially expected to have an

eigenvalue of 1.0 or more in order to retain further investigation. As such, the total variance of the variables may be measured by the factors or components, which signifies a no error variance. For that reason, the researcher needs to decide on the optimal number of factors that may be extracted to illustrate the interrelations between the variable sets effectively.

The number of factors to be retained is based on the variation displayed in the original data set that is described by each factor (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:379). Various techniques are utilised to retain factors. Amongst the most commonly used are the eigenvalue technique, the scree plot technique and the priori criterion technique (Hair *et al.*, 1998:103-104). With the eigenvalue technique, all factors with an eigenvalue greater than one are retained, and factors with an eigenvalue smaller than one are discarded (Malhotra, 2010:643). The scree plot method involves plotting the number of factors on the x-axis and the corresponding eigenvalues on the y-axis (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:242), and examining the plot to determine the point at which the curve changes direction. All the factors above the point where the curve changes direction should be retained, as these factors contributed to the variance in the data set (Palant, 2013:191). The priori technique is determined by the researcher's prior knowledge of the theory under study. The researcher often knows beforehand how many factors to extract and considers the number of factors to extract on a selective base (Malhotra, 2010:643).

Exploratory principle components analysis was used to determine the underlying factors of the measurement scale of this study. The reliability analysis is discussed in the following section.

4.9.3 Reliability analysis

A reliability analysis determines whether a measuring instrument returns consistent results in repeated measurements (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:238). As such, a scale or measuring instrument is deemed reliable when repeated measurements deliver consistent or even identical results (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:257) and are, therefore, free from random error (Pallant, 2013:6). According to Aaker *et al.* (2011:270), a measurement's total error encompasses random and systematic error. However, Shukla (2008:83) infers that random errors influence the reliability of a scale, while systematic errors do not. The reliability of a measurement can be assessed by using various methods, namely test-retest reliability, alternative form reliability and internal consistency reliability (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:259; Malhotra, 2010:318; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:216).

- **Test-retest reliability:** The test-retest reliability method involves administering identical sets of scale items to the same sample under similar conditions at two different points in time (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235). Calculating a correlation will indicate the degree of similarity between the two measures, which will indicate the level of reliability of the scale or measuring instrument (Malhotra, 2010:319). Pallant (2013:6) emphasises that a high correlation coefficient infers that the scale or measuring instrument is more reliable. According to Aaker *et al.* (2011:270), the interval between the two administrations of the measuring instrument may bias the reliability estimate. If the interval is too long, participants may have a change of mind and if the interval is too short, participants may recall previously provided answers. Pallant (2013:6) adds that the nature of the construct or study may also influence this type of reliability analysis, as measuring the participant's current state of mood may change over time. Another potential problem is that participants who participated in the first administration of the scale might be absent when the second administration takes place (Hair *et al.*, 2013:166).
- **Alternative-forms reliability:** The alternative-forms method and the test-retest method have similar principles, as both include the administration of two administrations of the measuring instrument. However, the difference with the alternative-forms technique is that the second administration should measure the same items by using a different version of the measuring instrument (Malhotra, 2010:319). According to McDaniel and Gates (2013:217), the reliability is analysed by means of calculating the correlation between the two tests. Furthermore, the interval between the two tests should be two weeks, as this may affect the reliability results. Struwig and Stead (2001:132) assert that using a different version of the measuring instrument may prevent participants from recalling the answers provided in the previous measurement. Clow and James (2014:267-268) identify three potential problems pertaining to this technique. First of all, the participants' responses to the second survey might be biased as they were exposed to similar questions in the first survey. Secondly, environmental changes may alter the responses of the participants, and the third problem might be the difficulty in locating the same participants to take part in the second survey. Furthermore, Malhotra (2010:319) adds that this technique is time-consuming, expensive and difficult to administer.
- **Internal consistency reliability:** Internal consistency reliability assesses the extent to which the items within a scale all measure the same underlying attribute (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:270).

The internal consistency reliability of a scale is measured by calculating scores on subsets of items forming part of a scale to obtain a total score (Malhotra, 2010:319). Internal consistency reliability can be measured by means of two different techniques, namely split-half reliability and the Cronbach alpha coefficient (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:259). Zikmund and Babin (2013:257) explain that with the split-half method, the scale items are divided into two halves and the scores from these subsets are correlated, whereby high correlations between the two halves indicate high internal consistency. However, Aaker *et al.* (2011:259) opine that the Cronbach alpha coefficient measures the internal consistency reliability of a scale more accurately. This may be due to the fact that, with the split-half method, the scale items are divided into halves randomly, and therefore the internal consistency reliability of the scale solely depends on how the items are divided (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:217). The Cronbach alpha coefficient measures the internal consistency reliability of a scale by calculating the average of all possible split-half coefficients. Furthermore, these split-half coefficients are represented as coefficient alpha (α), and these values vary from zero to one, where a value of 0.7 or less is an indication of low or unsatisfactory internal consistency (Pallant, 2013:6). However, according to Wiid and Diggins (2013:238), Cronbach alpha values ranging between 0.6 and 0.8 are considered acceptable, while any value above 0.8 indicates good reliability and a value below 0.6 is deemed unacceptable. Pallant (2013:6) advises that inter-item correlation should rather be used to measure the reliability of a scale comprising less than 10 items, as the Cronbach Alpha values may be small and therefore considered unacceptable. When making use of inter-item correlation, the value should range between 0.15 and 0.5 for the reliability to be acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). Pallant (2013:6) opines that the optimal level for inter-item correlations should be between 0.2 and 0.4.

In order to measure the reliability of the measuring instrument, a pilot study was undertaken. From the results of the pilot study, the internal consistency reliability was assessed by means of the Cronbach alpha coefficient and average inter-item correlations.

The validity of a scale is dependent on the scale's reliability. Clow and James (2014:269) state that for a scale to be valid, the reliability should be acceptable. However, when the reliability of a measuring instrument is considered acceptable, the validity should still be considered, as Hair *et al.* (2013:166), assert that a reliable measuring instrument does not infer that it is valid.

4.9.4 Validity analysis

The validity of a scale is the degree to which each construct accurately and truthfully measures what it is designed to measure (Hair *et al.*, 2013:166; Pallant, 2013:7; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:241). Validity includes internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to whether the manipulation of the independent variables actually causes the effects on the dependent variables (Clow & James, 2014:198). However, external validity refers to the degree that the findings of the research study can be generalised to the specific population under study or the population as a whole (Malhotra, 2015:199). Therefore, when a researcher wants to generalise findings, external validity is necessary (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:107). A measuring instrument that is free from random or systematic error signifies perfect validity (Malhotra, 2010:320). The validity of a scale may be investigated by means of three approaches, namely content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:258).

- **Content validity:** Content validity can be described as the extent to which the scale items included in a measuring instrument represent the intended construct's definition (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:258). According to Shukla (2008:82), content validity is also known as face validity. However, McDaniel and Gates (2013:218) differentiate between these, defining face validity as the degree to which the measuring instrument appears valid, which cannot be measured or tested, whereas content validity refers to the degree to which the content being measured represents the task at hand. The content validity of a scale is generally evaluated by a few expert judges, or the researcher (Malhotra, 2010:320). A high correlation between these evaluations signifies content validity (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235).
- **Criterion validity:** Criterion validity refers to the ability of the measuring instrument to perform as expected, in relation to the constructs of similar measuring instruments or criterion (Shukla, 2008:82). According to Malhotra (2010:320), these criterion variables are selected based on demographical and physical features, attitudinal and behavioural tendencies, or measures obtained from a related measuring instrument. Zikmund and Babin (2013:259) state that criterion validity consists of predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive validity refers to the ability of a current item to predict a future criterion variable, and concurrent validity refers to assessing the relationship between the measure and criterion that occur simultaneously (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:256).

- **Construct validity:** Construct validity determines whether the measuring instrument and the theory underlying the variable or construct are logically connected (Pallant, 2013:7). Malhotra (2010:321) asserts that construct validity can be divided into three subsets, namely convergent-, discriminant-, and nomological validity. Clow and James (2014:271) describe convergent validity as the internal consistency of a measuring instrument, or the degree of correlation between constructs. Conversely, according to Zikmund and Babin (2013:260), discriminant validity refers to the constructs within a measuring instrument showing a non-significant correlation to other constructs. Zikmund and Babin (2013:260) further explain that the various constructs within a measuring scale should not show high correlation. Nomological validity, as described by Shukla (2008:83), refers to the extent to which different, yet related constructs, correlate in a theoretically predicted way. Clark and Watson (1995:316) specify that an average inter-item correlation value within the range of 0.15 and 0.5 is necessary for both convergent and discriminant validity.

With regard to this study, the validity of the measuring instrument was assessed by means of content and construct validity. Two experienced academics in the particular field evaluated the content validity of the measuring instrument, followed by a pilot study to determine the internal consistency of the scaled items, as reported on in Chapter 5. Once the reliability and validity measurements of the scales were concluded, descriptive statistical analysis was employed to summarise the captured data. The following section includes a discussion on the descriptive statistical analysis applied in this study.

4.9.5 Descriptive statistical analysis

Descriptive statistical methods are utilised to provide a description and summarise the data obtained from a sample (Hair *et al.*, 2013:257), or as Zikmund and Babin (2013:364) explain, to transform large amounts of raw data into basic characteristics. Burns and Bush (2014:318) stipulate that researchers use this type of analysis to describe the typical participant and to reveal general patterns. Wiid and Diggines (2013:248) assert that the measurement type will determine the statistics that can be derived from it. The appropriate descriptive statistic for nominal and ordinal data is frequencies and percentages, whereas the mean (measure of central tendency or location) and standard deviation (measure of dispersion or variability) is the appropriate descriptive statistic for interval and ratio data (Clow & James, 2014:378). Using descriptive statistical methods also assist the researcher in answering and achieving research questions and

objectives (Shukla, 2008:99). The descriptive statistics used for the purpose of this study, and the most commonly used descriptive statistics, as stated by Malhotra (2010:486), include measures of location, measures of variability and measures of shape.

- **Measures of location:** The measure of location or the measure of central tendency is defined as the statistic that describes the centre of the distribution (Malhotra, 2015:332). Wiid and Diggines (2013:248) explain that this measure indicates the most probable or typical response to a question, by reducing all the responses to an average. The three most widespread used measures of central tendency include the mode, median and mean (Burns & Bush, 2014:319). The mode can be described as the value that occurs most frequently within a set of data (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:340), whereas the median is the value in the centre of a data set organised from the smallest to the largest value (Malhotra, 2010:486). Kolb (2008:254) explains that the mean is calculated by adding all the values of the responses and dividing the result by the total number of responses.
- **Measures of variability:** The measure of variability, also signified as the measure of dispersion, is described as the statistic that shows the diversity of the responses or the difference between the responses in a data set (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:340). The measures of variability used to determine the typical difference between the values in a data set comprise the range, the variance and the standard deviation (Struwig & Stead, 2001:158). The range is the simplest measure of dispersion and is used to measure the distance between the smallest and largest value (Malhotra, 2010:487). The variance is the mean squared deviation from the mean (Hair *et al.*, 2013:272), and the standard deviation describes the average distance of distribution values from the mean and is the square root of variance (Malhotra, 2010:487). Both the variance and standard deviation explain the distribution of responses around the mean value (Malhotra, 2015:333).
- **Measures of shape:** The measure of shape describes the nature and normality of the distribution of the data by examining the skewness and kurtosis (Malhotra, 2010:488). Skewness is an indication of the symmetry of the data distribution (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:249), while kurtosis is an indication of the peakedness or flatness of the data. For data to be classified as normally distributed, the skewness and kurtosis values need to be zero (Pallant, 2013:59). However, when the skewness value is less than zero, the data are skewed to the right side, indicating that the data are clustered at the high end values, whereas a skewness value of more than one indicates that the data are clustered at the left or low-end

values (Shukla, 2008:101). Figure 4.5 depicts examples of distribution with either a positive skew or a negative skew compared with a normal curve.

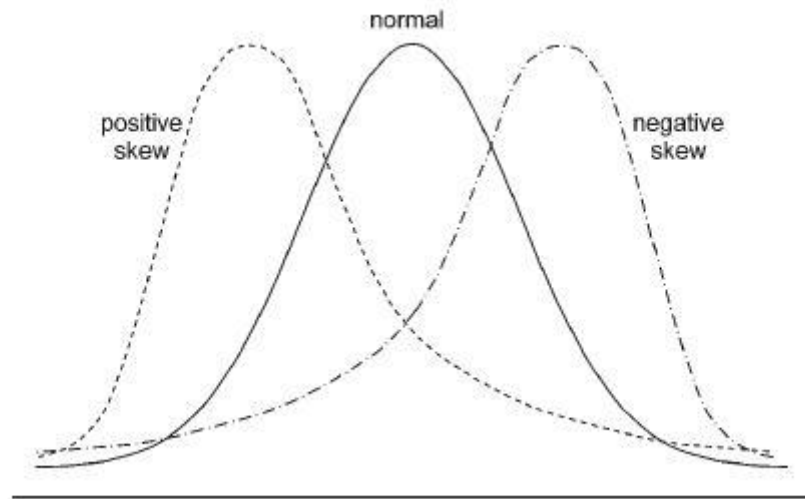


Figure 4.5: Skewness (Kline, 2011:61)

Positive kurtosis values specify that the data are clustered in the centre, resulting in a peaked distribution of data with heavy tails, while negative kurtosis values are an indication of flat data distribution (Pallant, 2013:59). This may be due to the higher kurtosis values indicating greater variability as there are a small number of extreme differences from the mean, compared to the lower kurtosis values indicating a vast amount of modest differences from the mean (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:250). The following figure is a representation of the three different kurtosis classifications, namely leptokurtic (more peaked distribution), mesokurtic (normal distribution) and platykurtic (more flat distribution) (Shukla, 2008:101).

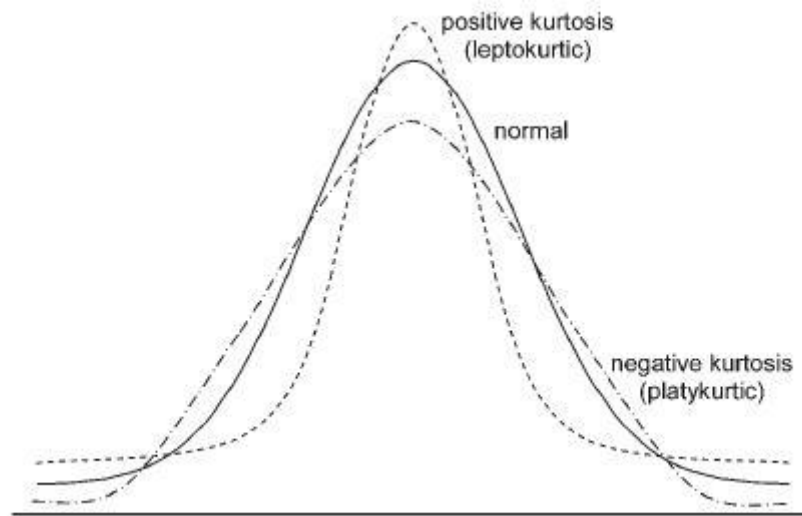


Figure 4.6: Kurtosis (Kline, 2011:61)

The statistics applied for the purpose of this study were descriptive in nature. The main descriptive statistics applied were the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values. These statistics were utilised in order to summarise the data sets, and to determine whether the data were normally distributed. The subsequent section encompasses a discussion on the correlation analysis.

4.9.6 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis can be defined as the statistical procedure utilised to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:282). According to McDaniel and Gates (2013:367), correlation analysis can also be used to determine the degree to which changes in one variable are directly associated with changes in another variable. Hair *et al.* (2010:710) point out that the construction of a matrix of construct correlations can be used to assess the nomological validity of a measurement model. Various methods can be employed to measure correlation, such as Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, Spearman rank order correlation, point-biserial correlation coefficient, and the phi coefficient (Pallant, 2013:133; Struwig & Stead, 2001:140). The most popular method to employ, especially when describing the strength of the relationship between two metric variables, is the Pearson product-moment correlation (Malhotra, 2010:562). Pearson correlation coefficients can vary from +1 to -1, where a value of +1 signifies an identical change or perfect

positive correlation indicating that an increase in one variable will result in an exact increase in the other variable (Clow & James, 2014:309). With a perfect negative correlation or a Pearson correlation coefficient value of -1, an increase in one variable will result in an exact decrease in the other variable (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:452). A higher correlation coefficient denotes a stronger relationship between the variables (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:367), and a correlation coefficient of zero signifies no relationship between the variables (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:239). According to Pallant (2013:139), a correlation value that ranges between 0.1 and 0.29 indicates a small relationship, a value between 0.3 and 0.49 signifies a medium relationship and a value between 0.5 and 1 represents a strong relationship.

For the purpose of this study, Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the correlation between variables and to assess the nomological validity of the proposed measurement model in structural equation modelling. In addition, these correlation coefficients were employed to determine possible multicollinearity among the independent variables of variety-seeking, status consumption, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity and price consciousness. Such multicollinearity could jeopardise the interpretation of these variables' influence on the dependent variables, namely attitude, subjective norms, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention of the participants towards beauty products. Multicollinearity is discussed in the following section.

4.9.7 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is important when multivariate statistical analysis is conducted (Hair *et al.*, 2010:201). Smith and Albaum (2010:337) describe multicollinearity as a situation where the inter-item correlation between the independent variables is remarkably high, making it challenging to determine regression coefficients for the correlated variables. Burns and Bush (2014:414) advise that it is the researcher's responsibility to determine whether multicollinearity is present, and to eradicate it.

A common measure of multicollinearity includes the tolerance test, which involves a regression analysis to explain the amount of variability of the independent variable that is not explained by the other independent variables in the model (Pallant, 2013:164). This measure provides each independent variable a chance to act as the dependent variable with respect to the other predictor variables (Malhotra, 2010:586). The calculated coefficients of determination (R^2) are deducted from one to compute the tolerance values, where a small value (less than 0.1) specifies a high

multiple correlation between the variables. A small tolerance value suggests a probability of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2013:164), while a high tolerance value indicates a smaller degree of multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010:201). Another commonly used method to determine multicollinearity is the VIF (Variance inflation factor), which is the inverse of the tolerance value (Pallant, 2013:164). Multicollinearity is not a concern when the VIF value is less than 10 (Burns & Bush, 2014:414).

Given that this study included a multivariate method in the data analysis, multicollinearity was assessed by means of conducting a tolerance test. Structural equation modelling is discussed in the succeeding section.

4.9.8 Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is described as a powerful statistical procedure that incorporates various statistical techniques into one simultaneous process (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:36). Covariance structure analysis, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis are included in these statistical techniques (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:36; Kline, 2011:7). SEM is generally used to investigate the interrelationships between observed (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables, along with relationships between two or more latent variables, either independent or dependent (Anglim, 2007:1; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:42; Ullman, 2006:35). SEM comprises two main facets, namely a casual procedure that is presented through structural equations and a graphic model representing these relationships (Byrne, 2012:3). According to Hoe (2008:76), SEM is particularly valuable in hypothesis testing where the configuration of interrelationships among the constructs under study is specified *a priori* and grounded on an underlying theory. The purpose of testing these causal relations among multiple variables is to determine whether the data collected are consistent with the hypothesised theoretical model (Lei & Wu, 2007:34).

The sample size is an important factor to consider when using SEM, as it is connected to the stability of the parameter estimates (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006:326). SEM is classified as a large sample technique, and therefore, necessitates larger sample sizes to analyse data sufficiently (Babin & Svensson, 2012:329; Kline, 2011:11; Ullman, 2008:41). The sample size required depends on the model complexity, the estimation method utilised, and the distributional characteristics of measured variables (Lei & Wu, 2007:34). Kline (2011:11) opines that the more complex a model, the more parameters the model has and the more participants are required to

maintain power and obtain reasonably stable results. According to Garver and Mentzer (1999:47), a sample of five to 10 participants for each parameter estimate or a minimum of 200 participants is deemed sufficient. However, Lei and Wu (2007:36) assert that a sample size of no less than 400 is preferred when using SEM. Although there is no precise rule for determining the correct sample size for SEM, the minimum sample size must be greater than the number of covariance or correlations in the input data matrix (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:52).

When SEM is conducted, the inter-correlations between the measured variables are first leveraged in order to identify the underlying factors. These factors are then used to predict other constructs (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:539). Accordingly, SEM comprises specifying the measurement model to conduct confirmatory factor analysis and developing the structural model for path analysis (Zappa, 2012:2). SEM analysis includes a process of individual construct definition, measurement model specification and assessment of measurement model reliability and validity, followed by the structural model specification, assessment of measurement and structural model fit, and conclusion drawing (Kline, 2011:92; Malhotra, 2010:729).

4.9.8.1 Defining individual constructs

A sound structural equation model is contingent on theory, which is based on findings in literature, knowledge in the field or educated guesses of causes and effects among variables (Lei & Wu, 2007:35). Measures used for the purpose of SEM should be valid, reliable and defined by prior theory (Kline, 2011:6). Hypotheses verified by conducting SEM signal that there is a relationship between the observed measures and the underlying factors, which are based on theory or empirical research (Byrne, 2012:6). For that reason, it is imperative that constructs are based on theory when conducting SEM (Bowen & Guo, 2012:7). Once the construct measures have been defined, both the measurement theory and structural theory are specified (Hair *et al.*, 2010:638). SEM is conducted with the aim of assessing the measurement theory, specifying how the constructs are represented, and the structural theory, specifying how the constructs are related (Malhotra, 2010:729).

4.9.8.2 Measurement model specification

The measurement model describes relationships embedded in the model, more specifically the relationships between the measurement variables and the constructs those variables are hypothesised to measure (Weston & Gore, 2006:724). This model is specified in order to indicate

the level of variance explained by the measured items, and to assess the overall model fit (Babin & Svensson, 2012:325; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:43). Indicators or dependent variables (questionnaire items) are assigned to a specific latent variable or construct when the measurement model is specified (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:36). Latent variables are described as theoretical constructs that cannot be observed or measured directly. For that reason, latent variables need to be linked to an observable variable (Byrne, 2012:4). Accordingly, arrows are drawn from the latent construct or variable to the dependent variables (Malhotra, 2010:730), indicating that the items are theoretically connected to the dependent construct (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:45). The arrows drawn between the latent variable and the construct represent the path or parameter (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:37; Weston & Gore, 2006:721). These parameters are the projected covariances, factor loadings and error variances in the model (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:49). Factor loadings for the parameters are calculated to indicate the level of relation between the measured variables and the constructs they are connected to (Malhotra, 2010:730). Reisinger and Mavondo (2007:44-45) advise that the specification of the measurement model must be correct to ensure that the structural model has meaning.

4.9.8.3 Measurement model assessment

Assessing the measurement model encompasses evaluating the standardised factor loadings (Lei & Wu, 2007:37). Evaluating these loadings may be done by a procedure called confirmatory factor analysis (Weston & Gore, 2006:724). These loadings should fall within the recommended range of zero and one, where higher values indicate better-observed variables for the latent variable (Lei & Wu, 2007:37). When conducting confirmatory factor analysis, the specific items are assigned *a priori* to their respective constructs, which are determined by the theory regarding the specific model (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:36). Parameter estimates or factor loadings are examined to determine whether the model is faulty or specified incorrectly. When parameter estimates exceed one or produce a negative value (Heywood case), the measurement model may be subject to sample size error (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:92), specification error, presence of outliers and the non-identification of the model, among others (Kline, 2011:158).

In SEM, it is important to assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model. The reliability is determined by calculating the composite reliability (CR) of the measurement model. Malhotra (2010:733) defines CR as “the total amount of true score variance in relation to the total score variance”. The formula used to calculate the CR is:

$$[(F1_1+F1_2+F1_3+\dots)^2 / (F1_1+F1_2+F1_3+\dots)^2 + (err_1+err_2+err_3+\dots)].$$

When the CR values of all constructs are 0.7 and above, the measurement model is suggestive of reliability. CR values of 0.6 are deemed acceptable, only if the AVE values are acceptable (Lee *et al.*, 2005:1100; Malhotra, 2010:734).

As specified in Section 4.9.4, construct validity comprises convergent-, discriminant-, and nomological validity. Although these terms were discussed in Section 4.9.4, this section explains how convergent and discriminant validity is measured when using SEM. Convergent validity is used to measure the level of association found amongst different measures that are developed to measure identical or similar constructs (Clow & James, 2014:271). When using SEM, the average variance extracted (AVE) is calculated to measure the validity of the measurement model, using the formula:

$$[(F1_1^2+F1_2^2+F1_3^2+\dots) / (F1_1^2+F1_2^2+F1_3^2+\dots) + (err_1+err_2+err_3+\dots)].$$

The AVE and factor loadings are generally used to measure convergent validity in SEM (Malhotra, 2010:734). Furthermore, the AVE tests the overall variance in the observed variables. An AVE value of 0.5 and higher is indicative of convergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2010:688, 709), while the values of the factor loadings should also be above 0.5, preferably above 0.7 (Malhotra, 2010:734). Discriminant validity determines the uniqueness of a measure and therefore evaluates the lack of correlation amongst different constructs or measures that are not developed to measure the same concept. In SEM, discriminant validity is determined by comparing the AVE value to the variance shared between constructs (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:47). Discriminant validity can also be determined in SEM by comparing correlation coefficients of the measurement model to the square root of the latent factor AVE values (Hair *et al.*, 2010:710). Malhotra (2010:741) further opine that when the square root of the AVE value is greater than the correlation coefficients, there is evidence of discriminant validity.

4.9.8.4 Structural model specification

In SEM, a structural model is a theoretical model, representing a combination of the measurement model and path model (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:43). This model is used to illustrate the interrelationships among the different constructs (Weston & Gore, 2006:724) and defines the causal relationship among these latent constructs or variables (Gefen *et al.*, 2000:29). The structural model stipulates the way in which particular latent variables directly or indirectly

cause changes in the values of other latent variables within the model (Byrne, 2012:14). While specifying the structural model, the measurement model is altered to indicate the relationship between the different constructs (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:64). Within the context of structural modelling, it is imperative to understand the difference between exogenous and endogenous variables or constructs. Exogenous or independent variables are those constructs that influence other constructs under study, and are not influenced by other factors in the model. Conversely, endogenous constructs, also known as dependent constructs, are affected by exogenous and other endogenous variables in the model (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006:325). According to Lei and Wu (2007:34), path analysis is used to model the relationships among these latent constructs or variables and includes the simultaneous estimation of multiple regression models or equations. The path analysis method is used for the purpose of evaluating whether a multivariate set of non-experimental data fits with a certain causal model (Wuenssch, 2015:1) and to determine the strength of each individual relationship by using a covariance or correlation matrix as input (Malhotra, 2010:748-749). In addition, this method is conducted to test models and to suggest ways to improve models, and not to build models (Streiner, 2005:121). Using path analysis is predicated by three main requirements, namely all the variables should be measured without error, error terms are not inter-correlated, and all causal relationships between variables must be linear and unidirectional, with a clear time-ordering as one variable cannot cause another, unless it precedes it in time (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006:326). Path analysis is a powerful statistical technique, as it allows the analysis of more complicated and realistic models, enabling researchers to test these models and do comparisons between different models (Streiner, 2005:122).

4.9.8.5 Measurement and structural model fit

SEM is not only used to determine the relationships among variables, but also to test the overall fit of the model (Pallant, 2013:109). This is done by making use of various goodness-of-fit indices, indicating the level of covariance matrix the specified model reproduces between the indicator items (Malhotra, 2010:731-732). The chi-square is the most widespread method used to test model fit, nevertheless, this method is subject to large sample sizes and therefore, the significance test may be misrepresentative (Garver & Mentzer, 1999:41). This method is conducted to assess actual and predicted matrices, by determining whether there is a statistical difference between the actual and predicted matrices (Hoe, 2008:78). Higher chi-square values indicate poor model fit, where a non-significant chi-square value signals a good model fit

(Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:56). Kline (2011:200) advises that more information regarding the model fit is needed, as using only the chi-square test may result in missing a single large covariance residual or a pattern of smaller systematic residuals. Malhotra (2010:732) concurs, suggesting that alternative model fit indices should be inspected with reference to absolute fit, incremental fit and parsimony fit.

Absolute fit indices measure the degree to which the specified model reproduces the sample covariance matrix (Kline, 2011:195) and comprises measures such as goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted GFI (AGFI), standardised root mean residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Lei & Wu, 2007:37) and root mean square residual (RMSR) (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:57). The incremental fit indices measure the degree to which the estimated model fits to a baseline model and involves measures such as the normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the relative non-centrality index (RNI) (Lei & Wu, 2007:37). According to Malhotra (2010:733), parsimony fit indices are used for comparing models of different complexities by using measures such as the parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) and the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). Reisinger and Mavondo (2007:58) advise that a combination of these fit indices should be used, as all of them are equally important. Hair *et al.* (2010:672) recommend using the chi-square value together with at least one absolute index and one incremental index to determine the model fit. For that reason, the model fit measures employed for this study include the chi-square, the standardised root mean residual (SRMR), the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA), the incremental fit index (IFI), the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). The model fit is deemed acceptable if the chi-square values are low, the SRMR value as well as the RMSEA value is less than 0.08 (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007:58), and the IFI, CFI and TLI values are above 0.9 (Malhotra, 2010:733).

4.10 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a description of the research methodology used for the empirical portion of this study. Hence, the chapter outlined the research design, research approach, sampling procedure and the data collection method. This chapter also included an overview of the pre-testing and the administration of the questionnaire, as well as the preliminary and statistical analysis. Given the nature of the study, a descriptive research design, using a single cross-sectional sample, was followed. The sampling frame comprised 26 public registered

HEIs in South Africa. The sample was drawn from three of these HEI campuses, located in the Gauteng province, including one traditional university, one comprehensive university and one university of technology. This sample, of 780 students, was drawn by means of a non-probability convenience sampling method.

The data required for the purpose of this study were collected by employing a self-administered questionnaire that encompassed questions requesting demographic information and questions that were directly related to the topic of this study. The captured data were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics and AMOS, Version 23. The statistical methods applied on the empirical data sets comprised frequencies, factor analysis, reliability and validity analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis and SEM.

The subsequent chapter, Chapter 5, reports on the findings emanating from the statistical analyses of the pilot and main study. In addition, the hypothesised relationships included in the proposed model of factors that influence South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products are tested in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 focused on the research methodology applied for the empirical portion of this study. Against the background of the aforementioned chapter, this chapter reports on and interprets the empirical findings of the study. The main purpose of Chapter 5 is to address the empirical objectives of this study set out in Chapter 1.

The chapter includes an overview of the results of the pilot test in Section 5.2, which is followed by a description of the data gathering process in Section 5.3. Section 5.4 provides a discussion on the preliminary data analysis, focussing on the coding and tabulation of the data. Section 5.5 comprises a description of the sample, while the results pertaining to the exploratory factor analysis are discussed in Section 5.6. This is followed by Section 5.7, which encompasses a discussion on the internal-consistency reliability of the factors extracted in Section 5.6. Section 5.8 outlines the descriptive statistics of the study and Section 5.9 outlines the correlation analysis conducted in the study. Section 5.10 includes the formulation and testing of the study's hypotheses. Section 5.11 outlines the structural equation modelling with specific reference to the results of the empirical testing of the model of the factors influencing South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention as proposed in Chapter 3.

The IBM SPSS and AMOS (Version 23) programs were utilised to perform the data analysis for the study. The data analysis was conducted in two stages. The first stage pertained to analysing the results of the pilot testing of the questionnaire, and the second stage pertained to analysing the main survey's findings. In the subsequent section the data analysis procedures involved in the pilot testing stage of the study are discussed.

5.2 PILOT TEST RESULTS

Preceding the pilot test, the questionnaire used for the purpose of this study was pre-tested by three experienced researchers and three academic staff members in order to establish face and content validity. The questionnaire was refined based on the feedback received from the pre-testing process. Subsequent to the pre-testing process, the questionnaire was piloted on a non-probability convenience sample of 48 female Generation Y students enrolled at a South African

HEI campus that did not form part of the main study's sampling frame. This pilot test was conducted to examine the internal-consistency reliability of the scale within the questionnaire prior to carrying out the main survey. Table 5.1 presents the results with regard to the reliability obtained in the pilot test.

Table 5.1: Summary of pilot test results

Items	Number of variables	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Cronbach alpha
C1 – C4	4	4.486	0.887	46	0.782
C5 – C7	3	2.979	1.268	48	0.829
C8 – C12	5	3.188	1.382	48	0.911
C13 – C16	4	4.021	1.121	48	0.879
C17 – C21	5	3.492	1.051	48	0.771
C22 – C25	4	3.385	1.202	48	0.888
C26 – C32	7	2.494	1.179	48	0.916
C33 – C37	5	5.222	0.754	47	0.852
C38 – C42	5	4.071	1.248	48	0.922
C43 – C47	5	3.025	0.988	48	0.750
C47 – C50	3	5.104	1.016	48	0.893

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to determine the internal-consistency reliability of the scale, and yielded values for all constructs that were above the recommended level of 0.6 (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:238), indicating acceptable internal-consistency reliability. The average inter-item correlation of 0.22 for the entire scale falls within the recommended range of 0.15 and 0.5 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). Therefore, none of the items included in the scale were deleted.

Following the pre-testing and pilot testing, the items from this scale were used to prepare the main survey questionnaire (refer to Annexure A), which was administered to a larger sample size. The following table provides an overview of the descriptions of these variables and constructs.

Table 5.2: Description of constructs and variables

Code	Variable	Construct
C1	I think using beauty products is a good thing to do.	Construct 1 - Attitude
C2	Using beauty products is valuable to me.	
C3	Using beauty products is beneficial to me.	
C4	I think using beauty products is a necessary thing to do.	
C5	I switch among brands of beauty products just to try something new once in a while.	Construct 2 – Variety-seeking
C6	When I am shopping for beauty products, I am likely to buy new brands just for the fun of it.	
C7	I get bored with buying the same brands of beauty products, and so I often try different brands.	
C8	I would buy a beauty product just because it has status.	Construct 3 – Status consumption
C9	I am interested in new beauty products with status.	
C10	I would pay more for a beauty product if it had status.	
C11	The status of a beauty product is important to me.	
C12	A beauty product is more valuable to me if it has some status appeal.	
C13	People who influence my behaviour would approve of me buying beauty products.	Construct 4 – Subjective norms
C14	People who are important in my life would approve of me buying beauty products.	
C15	People who influence my behaviour would encourage me to buy beauty products.	
C16	People who are important in my life would encourage me to buy beauty products.	
C17	I mostly buy those beauty products/brands that are advertised on TV, radio and magazines.	Construct 5 – Media influence
C18	Radio, TV and magazine advertisements determine my brand loyalties towards beauty products.	
C19	I continue buying the same beauty product brands as long as my favourite celebrity endorses them.	
C20	I usually consult the media to determine the best buys.	
C21	I usually look at the beauty advertisements before I buy.	

Table 5.2: Description of constructs and variables (continued ...)

Code	Variable	Construct
C22	I often decide to buy those beauty products that friends have told me about.	Construct 6 – Group influence
C23	I place a lot of confidence in friends' opinions when buying beauty products.	
C24	I often decide to buy those beauty products that I see my friends using.	
C25	Many beauty products I own are similar to those of my friends.	
C26	To make sure I buy the right beauty product or brand, I often observe what celebrities are using.	Construct 7 – Celebrity influence
C27	I often try to buy beauty products to be like celebrities.	
C28	I frequently gather information from celebrities about a beauty product before I buy.	
C29	I like seeing advertisements of what beauty product brands celebrities use.	
C30	Celebrities help me to be more confident in the beauty products I buy.	
C31	I can get ideas about beauty from seeing celebrities.	
C32	Celebrities show me that people, like myself use similar beauty products.	
C33	The way I look is extremely important to me.	Construct 8 – Physical vanity
C34	I am very concerned about my appearance.	
C35	I would feel embarrassed if I was around people and did not look my best.	
C36	Looking my best is worth the effort.	
C37	It is important that I always look good.	
C38	I am willing to go to extra effort to find lower prices.	Construct 9 – Price consciousness
C39	I will occasionally buy beauty products at more than one store to take advantage of low prices.	
C40	The money saved by finding low prices is usually worth the time and effort.	
C41	I will always shop at more than one store to find low prices.	
C42	The time it takes to find low prices is usually worth the effort.	

Table 5.2: Description of constructs and variables (continued ...)

Code	Variable	Construct
C43	Compared to my friends, I own few beauty products.	Construct 10 – Beauty product innovativeness
C44	In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to buy a new beauty product when it appears.	
C45	If I heard a new beauty product was available in store, I would be interested enough to buy it.	
C46	I will buy a new beauty product, even if I haven't tested it.	
C47	I know the names of new beauty products before other people do.	Construct 11 – Purchase intention
C48	I intend to buy beauty products in the future.	
C49	I will try to buy beauty products in the future.	
C50	I will make an effort to buy beauty products in the future.	

The subsequent section explains the data gathering process utilised for the purpose of this study.

5.3 DATA GATHERING PROCESS

As set out in the sampling plan in Chapter 4, the data required for this study were collected from 780 female Generation Y students enrolled in 2016 at three HEI campuses located in the Gauteng province. The data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire. Permission to allow the distribution of the questionnaire amongst students was solicited from lecturers at the three campuses. Once permission had been granted, the questionnaires were distributed to the students. It was made clear that participation was voluntary and all information provided would remain confidential, including the name of the HEI where they were registered. The completed questionnaires were collected from the participating lecturers after a two-week period.

The succeeding section describes the preliminary data analysis process undertaken in this study.

5.4 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

It is recommended to conduct a preliminary data analysis before the data set is analysed. This analysis is done by means of coding and tabulation. The following sections provide an overview of the coding, cleaning and tabulation of the collected data set.

5.4.1 Coding

The questionnaire used for the purpose of this study comprised three sections. Section A was designed to collect the demographical data of the participants, while Section B pertained to the participants' beauty product purchase information, and Section C measured the participants' beauty product consumption. All the participants forming part of the main sample received the same questionnaire. The variable codes and assigned values are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Coding information

Section A: Demographical data			
Question	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Question 1	A1	Name of institution	Traditional university (1); University of technology (2); Comprehensive university (3)
Question 2	A2	Country of origin	South Africa (1); Other (2)
Question 3	A3	Province of origin	Eastern Cape (1); Free state (2); Gauteng (3); KwaZulu-Natal (4); Limpopo (5); Mpumalanga (6); Northern Cape (7); North West (8); Western Cape (9); Other (10)
Question 4	A4	Registered	Full-time (1); Part-time (2)
Question 5	A5	Current year of study	1st (1); 2nd (2); 3rd (3); 4th (4) Post graduate (5)
Question 6	A6	Gender	Male (1); Female (2)
Question 7	A7	Ethnic group	Black African (1); Coloured (2); Indian/Asian (3); White (4); Other (5)
Question 8	A8	Mother tongue language	Afrikaans (1); English (2); IsiNdebele (3); IsiXhosa (4); IsiZulu (5); SePedi (6); SeSotho (7); SeTswana (8); SiSwati (9); Venda (10); Tsonga (11); Other (12)
Question 9	A9	Age at last birthday	<18 (1); 18 (2); 19 (3); 20 (4); 21 (5); 22 (6); 23 (7); 24 (8); 25 (9); >25 (10)

Table 5.3: Coding information (continued ...)

Section B: Beauty product purchase information			
Question	Code	Variable	Value assigned to responses
Question 1	B1	Do you purchase beauty products?	Yes (1); No (2)
	B1A	How often do you purchase?	Once a week (1); once every two weeks (2); Once a month (3); Once every two months (4)
	B1B	How much do you spend?	Less than R200 (1); R201 – R500 (2); R501 – R1000 (3); More than R1000 (4)
Section C: Beauty product consumption			
Item	Code	Construct measured	Value assigned to responses
Item 1 - 4	C1 – C4	Attitude	
Item 5 - 7	C5 – C7	Variety-seeking	
Item 8 - 12	C8 – C12	Status consumption	
Item 13 - 16	C13 – C16	Subjective norms	
Item 17 - 21	C17 – C21	Media influence	
Item 22 - 25	C22 – C25	Group influence	Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)
Item 26 -32	C26 – C32	Celebrity influence	
Item 33 - 37	C33 – C37	Physical vanity	
Item 38 - 42	C38 – C42	Price consciousness	
Item 43 - 47	C43 – C47	Beauty product innovativeness	
Item 48 - 50	C48 – C50	Purchase intention	

The following section describes the data cleaning that was conducted on the data set.

5.4.2 Data cleaning

Data cleaning was conducted in order to discard questionnaires completed by participants falling outside of the defined target population, or participants who do not purchase beauty products, as

well as questionnaires where more than 10 percent of the values were missing. Those scaled-responses within questionnaires with missing values of less than 10 percent were estimated, based on the mode of the particular item. From the 780 questionnaire that were administered, 767 completed questionnaires were returned, resulting in a response rate of 98 percent. However, the data cleaning procedure resulted in 610 complete and usable questionnaires, resulting in an actual response rate of 78 percent.

The tabulation of the data obtained by this questionnaire is discussed in the subsequent section.

5.4.3 Tabulation

Once the coding and cleaning of the data have been completed, the next step is to tabulate the data. Table 5.4 illustrates the frequency table of responses recorded in this study.

Table 5.4: Frequency table of responses

Scale item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Construct 1 – Attitude						
C1	10	7	30	148	252	163
C2	22	50	66	162	191	119
C3	20	33	69	172	193	123
C4	52	98	109	147	114	90
Construct 2 – Variety seeking						
C5	104	103	63	106	164	70
C6	172	159	78	81	91	29
C7	182	145	82	89	75	37
Construct 3 – Status consumption						
C8	173	143	84	87	76	47
C9	162	129	80	120	65	54
C10	178	135	77	93	83	44
C11	137	141	90	105	89	48

C12	114	129	108	113	105	41
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Table 5.4: Frequency table of responses (continued ...)

Scale item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Construct 4 – Subjective norms						
C13	62	90	87	166	150	55
C14	47	70	67	149	196	81
C15	53	93	91	146	165	62
C16	46	86	78	160	167	73
Construct 5 – Media influence						
C17	54	78	89	151	166	72
C18	64	82	100	162	143	59
C19	165	163	118	79	60	25
C20	121	141	99	117	92	40
C21	84	110	91	144	119	62
Construct 6 – Group influence						
C22	59	82	72	197	153	47
C23	100	104	104	139	122	41
C24	108	137	113	143	80	29
C25	95	129	106	144	107	29
Construct 7 – Celebrity influence						
C26	162	161	108	92	62	25
C27	279	153	89	50	23	16
C28	230	164	84	69	46	17
C29	175	147	104	84	76	24

C30	191	151	101	83	64	20
C31	143	133	101	100	101	32
C32	128	136	105	130	82	29

Table 5.4: Frequency table of responses (continued ...)

Scale item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Construct 8 – Physical vanity						
C33	6	14	35	70	150	335
C34	16	30	50	87	152	275
C35	35	39	56	107	156	217
C36	7	15	34	83	161	310
C37	7	17	45	87	153	301
Construct 9 – Price consciousness						
C38	26	49	73	138	165	159
C39	24	49	69	120	170	178
C40	27	47	61	124	178	173
C41	34	54	59	125	162	176
C42	38	47	81	129	165	150
Construct 10 – Beauty product innovativeness						
C43	49	58	77	101	154	171
C44	127	120	108	106	87	62
C45	95	132	115	151	73	44
C46	199	144	100	82	60	25
C47	172	152	107	92	59	28
Construct 11 – Purchase intention						

C48	25	21	30	116	202	216
C49	16	22	39	114	209	210
C50	17	14	33	100	199	247

The following section reports on the demographical attributes and the beauty product purchase information of the participants that took part in this study.

5.5 DEMOGRAPHIC AND BEAUTY PRODUCT INFORMATION ANALYSIS

This section first provides a description of the demographic characteristics of the sample, as well as a description of the sample's beauty product purchase information. This information is represented by means of frequency tables, pie charts and bar graphs.

5.5.1 Sample description

As indicated in Section 5.4.2, of the 780 questionnaires administrated, 767 were returned, of which 610 questionnaires were usable, translating a 78 percent actual response rate. Given that the sample only includes participants that fell in the defined target population, non-South-African, male and part-time registered students were excluded from this study and, therefore, no description of the participants' gender, country of origin and registration status are included in this section.

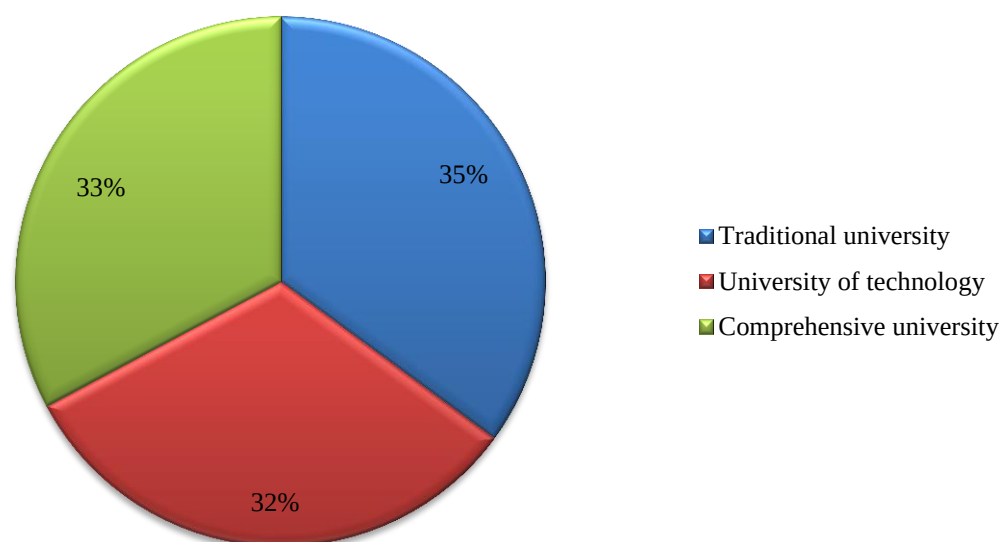
A general overview of the sample's demographic characteristics concerning their higher education institution, province of origin, current year of study, ethnicity, mother tongue language and age is represented subsequently. Note that the percentages in the charts and graphs have been rounded off.

In keeping with the topic of the study, screening questions pertaining to the country of origin, gender and age of the participant were used to ensure that all the information used in this study is from female South African Generation Y students. The data obtained from non-South African or male participants, or participants who did not form part of the Generation Y student segment were discarded. In addition, the questionnaires were screened based on whether the participants were registered as full-time or part-time students. As this study only included full-time participants, the data obtained from part-time participants were also discarded.

Table 5.5 provides a summary of the distribution of the participants between the three HEIs.

Table 5.5: Higher education institution

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Traditional university	214	35.1
University of technology	196	32.1
Comprehensive university	200	32.8
N	610	100

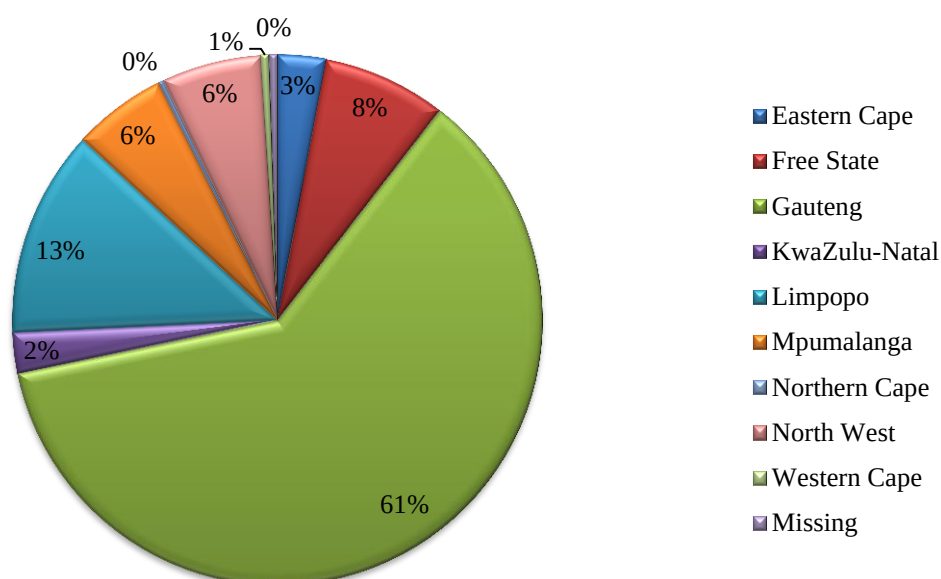


The total sample (N) of participants who participated in this study is one sample group made up of participants from three HEIs. This study aimed at attaining an equal proportion of responses from the three HEIs. As presented in Table 5.5, 35.1 percent of the participants were from a traditional university, 32.8 percent were from a comprehensive university, and 32.1 percent were from a university of technology.

The following table, Table 5.6, reports on the participants' province of origin.

Table 5.6: Province of origin

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Eastern Cape	18	3
Free State	46	7.5
Gauteng	374	61.3
KwaZulu-Natal	15	2.5
Limpopo	77	12.6
Mpumalanga	35	5.7
Northern Cape	2	0.3
North West	37	6.1
Western Cape	3	0.5
Missing	3	0.5
N	610	100

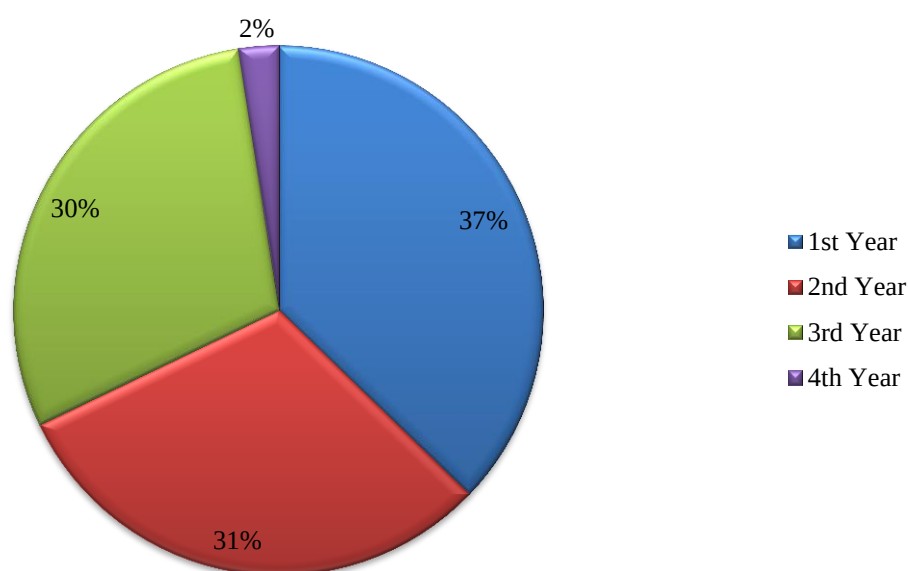


According to Table 5.6, the sample included participants from each of the nine South African provinces. The majority of the participants, 61.3 percent, indicated that their province of origin was Gauteng. The Limpopo province represented 12.6 percent, the Free State province represented 7.5 percent, and the North West province represented 6.1 percent of the sample. Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal represented 5.7, 3, and 2.5 percent of the sample.

respectively. The Western Cape and the Northern Cape provinces were the most poorly represented in the sample, with 0.5 and 0.3 percent. Three participants did not complete this question, signifying 0.5 percent of the responses.

Table 5.7: Current year of study

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
1st Year	227	37.2
2nd Year	187	30.7
3rd Year	181	29.7
4th Year	15	2.5
N	610	100



The distribution information concerning the participants' current year of study is presented in Table 5.7. First year students represented the largest portion of the sample at 37.2 percent, followed by second year students, that represented 30.7 percent, closely followed by the third year students, who represented 29.7 percent. The smallest portion of the sample, the fourth year students, represented 2.5 percent.

Table 5.8: Ethnicity profile

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Black/African	555	91
Coloured	22	3.6
Indian/Asian	5	0.8
White	27	4.4
Missing	1	0.2
N	610	100

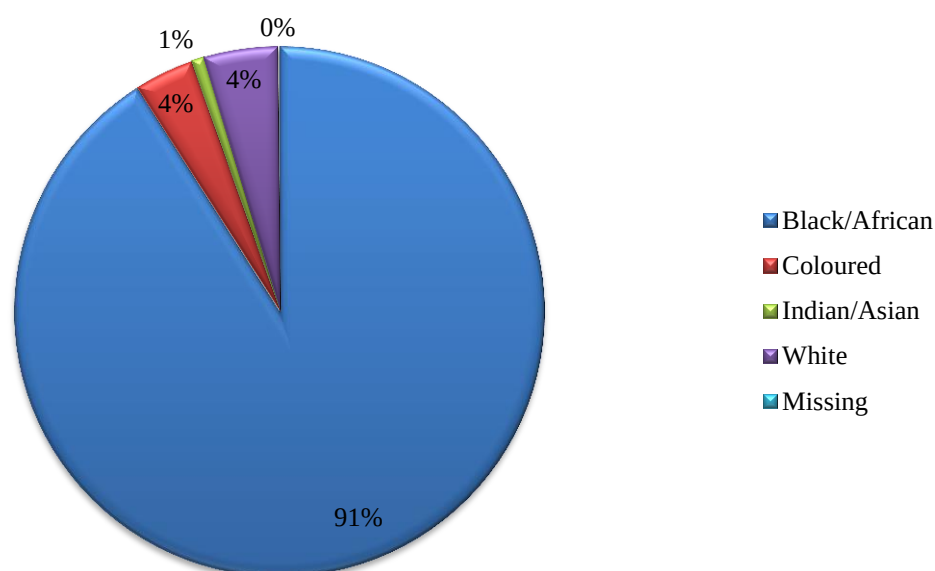
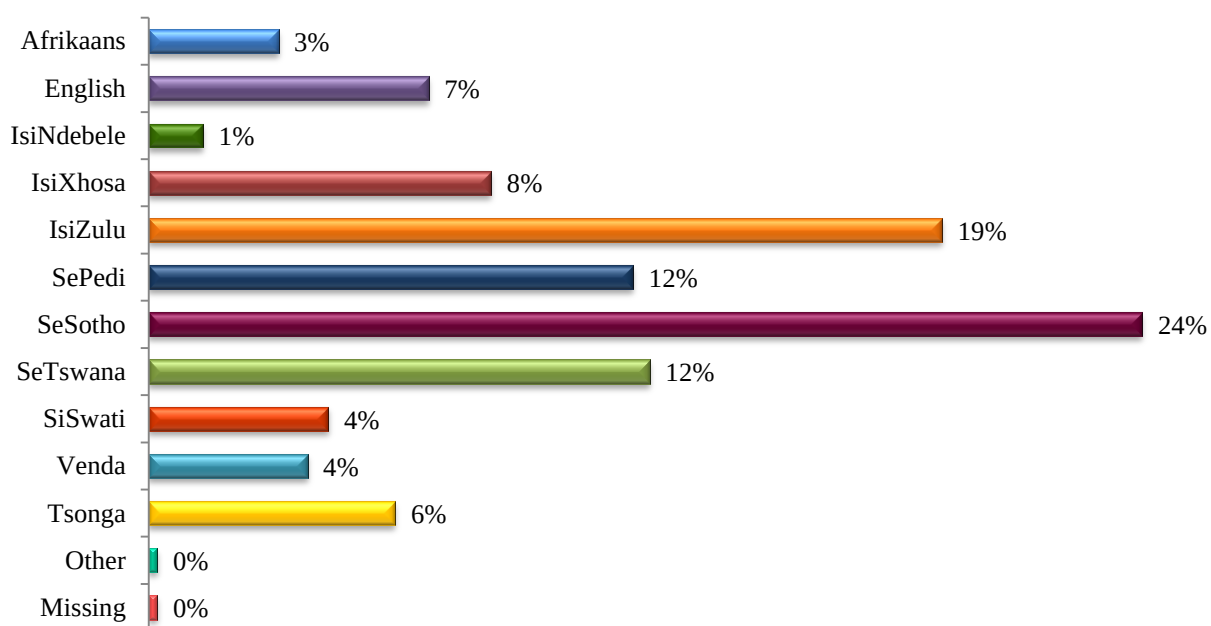


Table 5.8 illustrates the various ethnic groups that are represented in the sample. The majority, 91 percent, identified themselves as black Africans, followed by the 4.4 percent who identified themselves as White. The Coloured ethnic group represented 3.6 percent and the Indian/Asian ethnic group represented 0.8 percent of the sample. As previously stated (Section 3.6.1), the South African population totalled around 55 908 900 in 2016, of which an estimated 37 percent formed part of the Generation Y cohort. In terms of ethnicity, the African portion of this Generation Y cohort accounts for an approximate 84 percent of the South African Generation Y cohort, compared to the Coloured portion accounting for roughly eight percent, the Indian/Asian portion approximately two percent and the White portion in the region of six percent (Statistics South Africa, 2016). According to these statistics, the high percentage of African participants compared to the other ethnic groups is acceptable.

Table 5.9: Mother tongue language

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Afrikaans	19	3.1
English	41	6.7
IsiNdebele	8	1.3
IsiXhosa	50	8.2
IsiZulu	116	19
SePedi	71	11.6
SeSotho	145	23.8
SeTswana	73	12
SiSwati	26	4.3
Venda	23	3.8
Tsonga	36	5.9
Other	1	0.2
Missing	1	0.2
N	610	100

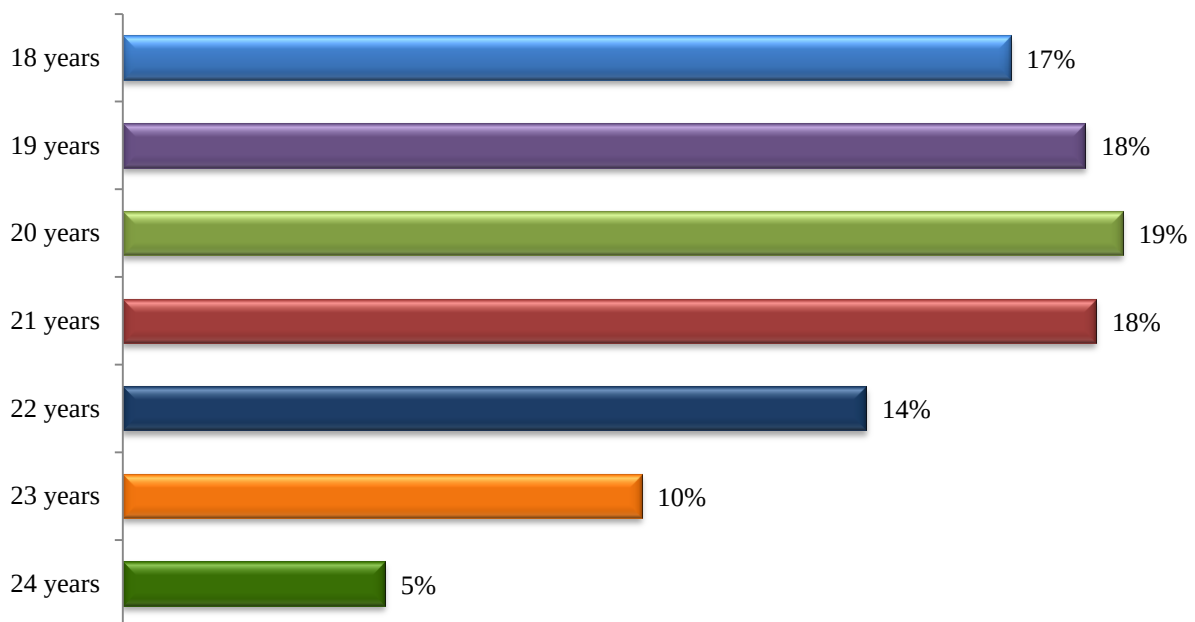


As indicated in Table 5.9, most of the participants indicated their mother tongue language as Sesotho (23.8%), followed by IsiZulu (19%), SeTswana (12%), SePedi (11.6%), IsiXhosa

(8.2%), English (6.7%), and Tsonga (5.9%). Of the remaining participants, 4.3 percent were SiSwati speaking, 3.8 percent Venda speaking, 3.1 percent Afrikaans speaking, and 1.3 percent IsiNdebele speaking. One participant (0.2%) indicated speaking a mother tongue language that was not listed among the options provided in the questionnaire, and specified this language as Portugese. Another participant (0.2%) failed to answer the question pertaining to mother tongue language.

Table 5.10: Participants' age distribution

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
18 years	101	16.6
19 years	110	18
20 years	114	18.7
21 years	111	18.2
22 years	85	13.9
23 years	59	9.7
24 years	30	4.9
N	610	100



The participants' age distribution ranged from 18 to 24, as can be seen in Table 5.10. Of the participants, 18.7 percent were 20 years of age, 18.2 percent were 21 years of age, 18 percent

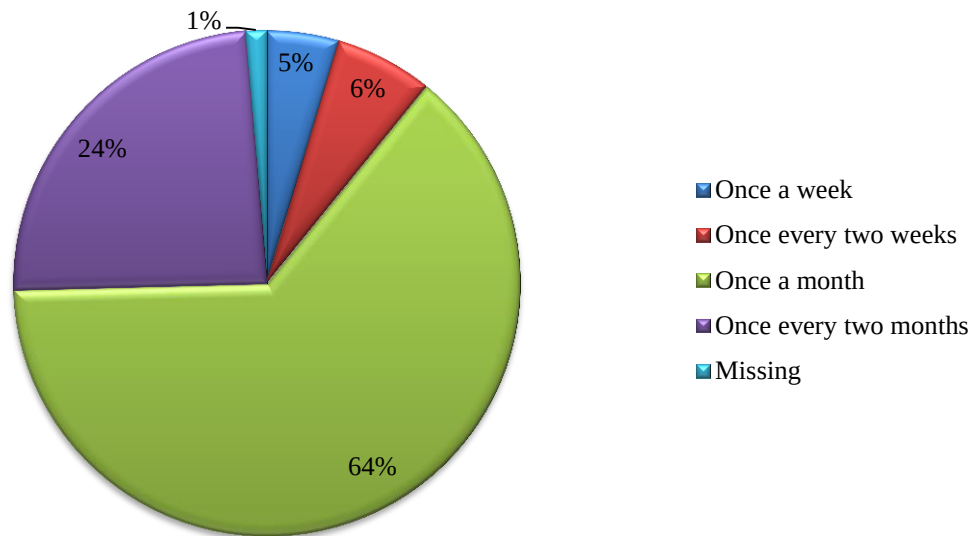
were 19 years of age, 16.6 percent 18 years of age, 13.9 percent 22 years of age, 9.7 percent 23 years of age and 4.9 percent 24 years of age. As such, all age groups specified in the target population were represented in the sample.

5.5.2 Sample's beauty product information

In addition to the demographic questions, Section B of the questionnaire included three questions designed to determine the participants' beauty product purchase information. The first question (B1) requested participants to indicate whether they purchase beauty products. This question was used as a screening question, as students that do not purchase beauty products were not of interest in this study. Question B1A requested participants to indicate how often they purchase beauty products, while question B1B requested the participants to report on the amount of money they spend on average on their beauty product purchases per month. These results are illustrated in Table 5.11 and Table 5.12, respectively. Note that the percentages in the charts have been rounded off.

Table 5.11: Beauty product purchase frequency

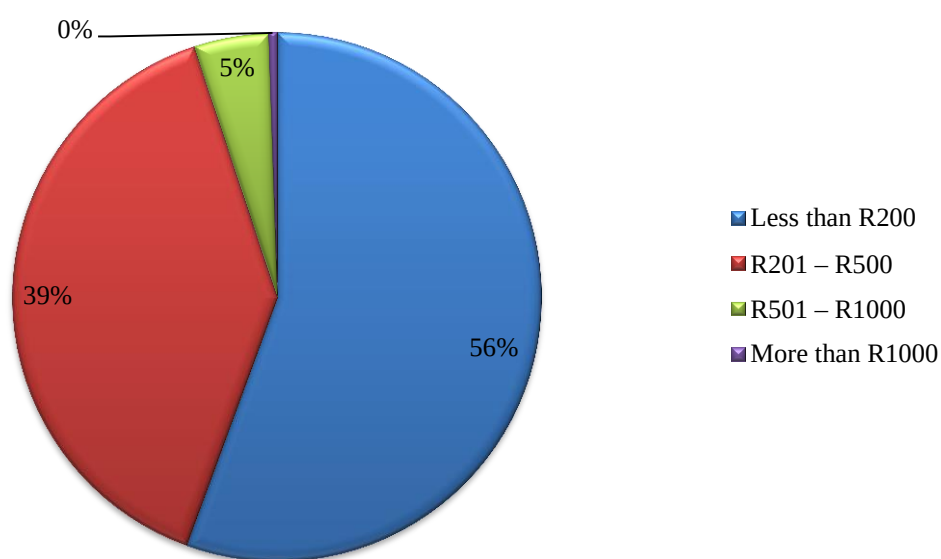
	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Once a week	28	4.6
Once every two weeks	38	6.2
Once a month	389	63.8
Once every two months	147	24.1
Missing	8	1.3
N	610	100



As indicated in Table 5.11, the majority of the participants (63.8%) indicated that they purchase beauty products once a month, 24.1 percent once every two months, 6.2 percent once every two weeks and 4.6 percent once every week. Eight participants (1.3%) did not indicate how often they purchase beauty products, and as such, were categorised as missing.

Table 5.12: Money spent on beauty product purchases per month

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Less than R200	339	55.6
R201 – R500	240	39.3
R501 – R1000	28	4.6
More than R1000	3	0.5
N	610	100



The third question in this section, pertains to the amount of money the participants spend on average on beauty product purchases per month. The results, as represented in Table 5.12, show that 55.6 percent of the participants spend less than R200 per month, 39.3 percent spend between R201 and R500 per month, 4.6 percent spend between R501 and R1000 per month, and 0.5 percent spend more than R1000 per month.

The above section provided the demographical information, as well as the beauty product purchase information regarding the total sample used in this study. The following section provides a discussion on the results of the exploratory factor analysis conducted for the purpose of this study.

5.6 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the scale-related items. In order to evaluate the factorability of the data, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy test, together with the Bartlett Test of Sphericity, was performed. According to Pallant (2013:190), values of above 0.6 for the KMO test and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity are an indication of sampling adequacy. Both of these tests returned satisfactory values [KMO=0.899, chi-square Bartlett test=17682.784 (df=1225), $p=0.000<0.05$], confirming the data's appropriateness for principal components analysis. Once the factorability of the data was established, principle components analysis, using varimax rotation, was performed on the construct-related items. Based on the literature 11 factors were specified for extraction. These 11 factors, which had eigenvalues greater than 1.0, explained 68.77 percent of the total variance.

All 11 factors aligned well with the specified scale. Of the items, two items (C19 and C43) cross loaded or loaded on the incorrect factor and, as a result, were deleted. Prior to the deletion, the items were examined to ensure that their elimination would not alter the original constructs' conceptualisation in any way. The rotated factors are depicted in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Rotated factors

Factors											
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
C1					0.762						
C2					0.812						
C3					0.814						
C4					0.774						
C5											0.754
C6											0.804
C7											0.781
C8			0.749								
C9			0.773								
C10			0.800								
C11			0.791								
C12			0.789								
C13							0.729				
C14							0.804				
C15							0.763				
C16							0.771				

Table 5.13: Rotated factors (continued ...)

Factors											
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
C17								0.749			
C18								0.729			
*C19	0.514							0.365			
C20								0.620			
C21								0.655			
C22						0.763					
C23						0.816					
C24						0.846					
C25						0.759					
C26	0.697										
C27	0.726										
C28	0.785										
C29	0.814										
C30	0.837										
C31	0.799										
C32	0.756										
C33				0.785							
C34				0.798							
C35				0.770							
C36				0.794							
C37				0.802							
C38		0.745									
C39		0.849									
C40		0.862									
C41		0.877									
C42		0.866									
*C43		0.354									
C44										0.655	
C45										0.650	
C46										0.683	
C47										0.763	
C48									0.839		
C49									0.859		
C50									0.787		

Note: * Bold items were deleted

The following section outlines the internal-consistency reliability of these factors.

5.7 INTERNAL-CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY OF MAIN STUDY

In order to determine the internal-consistency reliability of each factor, the Cronbach alpha was calculated. The Cronbach alpha is a commonly used method for establishing the reliability of multiple-item scales and ranges from zero to one. Malhotra (2010:319) advises that a value of 0.6 and above indicates acceptable internal-consistency reliability. Table 5.14 illustrates that the Cronbach alpha values of the factors ranged from 0.758 to 0.915, exceeding the recommended level of 0.6, thereby indicating satisfactory internal-consistency reliability.

Table 5.14: Reliability measures

Constructs	Number of items in scale	Cronbach alpha
Attitude	4	0.857
Variety-seeking	3	0.769
Status consumption	5	0.894
Subjective norms	4	0.870
Media influence	4	0.798
Group influence	4	0.863
Celebrity influence	7	0.915
Physical vanity	5	0.875
Price consciousness	5	0.911
Beauty product innovativeness	4	0.758
Purchase intention	3	0.891

The subsequent section reports on the descriptive statistics calculated in this study.

5.8 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Measures of location, variability and shape are the most commonly used descriptive statistics, and were calculated for all scaled items used for the purpose of this study. A six-point Likert

scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree, was used to measure the scaled responses. As such, higher mean values represents a greater agreement. Table 5.15 presents these descriptive statistics pertaining to the sample of this study.

Table 5.15: Descriptive statistics

Constructs	Valid N	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Attitude	610	4.32	1.081	-0.405	-0.244
Variety-seeking	610	3.01	1.340	0.250	-0.908
Status consumption	610	2.95	1.356	0.300	-0.881
Subjective norms	610	3.83	1.240	-0.359	-0.563
Media influence	610	3.51	1.196	-0.192	-0.511
Group influence	610	3.33	1.237	-0.111	-0.748
Celebrity influence	610	2.61	1.191	0.514	-0.485
Physical vanity	610	4.98	1.021	-1.087	0.742
Price consciousness	610	4.40	1.239	-0.677	-0.200
Beauty product innovativeness	610	2.89	1.163	0.226	-0.588
Purchase intention	610	4.86	1.123	-1.168	1.359

As indicated in Table 5.15, means above 3.5 were computed on the constructs of attitude, subjective norms, media influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and purchase intention. The highest mean value was recorded on physical vanity (mean = 4.98), which suggests that physical vanity plays a significant role in the lives of female Generation Y students. Purchase intention had the second highest mean (mean = 4.86), followed by price consciousness (mean = 4.40) and attitude (mean = 4.32), indicating that female Generation Y students display positive intentions and attitudes towards using and purchasing beauty products and that finding low prices is a priority to them. In addition, people who are important to them and influence their behaviour play a significant role regarding the purchasing of beauty products of female Generation Y students, as subjective norms reported a mean of 3.83. These students are subject to media and group influence, as both of these constructs reported mean values of 3.34 and 3.33, respectively. The score recorded on the variety-seeking construct (mean = 3.01) suggests that female Generation Y students are moderately influenced by the tendency to seek variety when

purchasing beauty products. The status consumption construct reported a mean value of 2.95, indicating that female Generation Y students are not driven to purchase beauty products because of the status connected to the product itself. Interestingly, beauty product innovativeness scored a low mean value (mean = 2.89), suggesting that female Generation Y students are not innovative regarding the purchasing of beauty products. The lowest mean (mean = 2.61) was recorded on celebrity influence, which suggests that female Generation Y students do not perceive themselves to be influenced by celebrities when purchasing beauty products.

The highest standard deviations, indicating more dispersion of agreement amongst participants, were computed for status consumption (Std. Dev. = 1.356) and variety-seeking (Std. Dev. = 1.340), followed by subjective norms (Std. Dev. = 1.240), price consciousness (Std. Dev. = 1.239) and group influence (Std. Dev. = 1.237). Lower standard deviations, which indicate less dispersion of agreement amongst participants, were recorded on media influence (Std. Dev. = 1.196) and celebrity influence (Std. Dev. = 1.191), followed by beauty product innovativeness (Std. Dev. = 1.163) and purchase intention (Std. Dev. = 1.123). The lowest standard deviation was computed for attitude towards beauty products (Std. Dev. = 1.081).

Furthermore, the data set may be classified as normally distributed, as Table 5.15 indicates that none of the skewness scores fall outside the -2 to +2 range. In addition, the kurtosis values suggest that the data set is relatively less peaked than normal, as the majority of the variables differ from zero.

Prior to performing structural equation modelling, it is required to conduct a correlation analysis in order to determine whether the relationships between the hypothesised antecedents of the purchase intention towards beauty products were significant. This is discussed in the following section.

5.9 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis is used to assess nomological validity of a proposed measurement model by measuring the strength of a relationship between two variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010:710). For the purpose of this study, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients between each pair of factors were computed and examined. This was done to assess the nomological validity of the proposed measurement model and to determine whether there is any evidence of multicollinearity. Table 5.16 reports on the correlation matrix.

Table 5.16: Correlation matrix

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Attitude										
Variety-seeking	0.189**									
Status consumption	0.226**	0.381**								
Subjective norms	0.511**	0.223**	0.354**							
Media influence	0.174**	0.226**	0.412**	0.315**						
Group influence	0.143**	0.268**	0.294**	0.282**	0.328**					
Celebrity influence	0.157**	0.260**	0.393**	0.236**	0.512**	0.375**				
Physical vanity	0.292**	0.056	0.126**	0.281**	0.204**	0.142**	0.087 *			
Price consiousness	0.091*	0.061	0.053	0.160**	0.171**	0.160**	0.134 **	0.308**		
Beauty product innovativeness	0.286**	0.336**	0.394**	0.322**	0.406**	0.264**	0.436 **	0.148**	0.111**	
Purchase intention	0.343**	0.202**	0.244**	0.341**	0.251**	0.144**	0.156 **	0.415**	0.207**	0.299**
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)										

As is evident from Table 5.16 at the 0.01 level of significance, there is a significant association between each of the pairs of latent factors proposed for inclusion in the model, thereby providing evidence of nomological validity. In addition, as this study comprises a multivariate method in the data analysis, a tolerance test was undertaken to examine multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010:201). Furthermore, given that all computed correlation coefficients were below 0.9, there are also no obvious signs of multicollinearity (Smith & Albaum, 2010:337).

The succeeding section, Section 5.10, outlines the hypotheses formulated and tested in this study.

5.10 HYPOTHESES TESTING

For the purpose of this study, structural equation modelling was used to address the final empirical objective. The significance level for the hypotheses testing was set at $\alpha = 0.05$ and the decision rule followed was:

- If P-value $> \alpha$, then conclude H_0
- If P-value $\leq \alpha$, then conclude H_a

In accordance with the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 and the observed significant positive relationships computed in Table 5.16, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- H_{01} : Antecedents of beauty product purchase intention is not an eleven-factor structure comprising attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention.
- H_{a1} : Antecedents of beauty product purchase intention is an eleven-factor structure comprising attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention.
- H_{02} : Variety-seeking (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.

- H_{a2}: Variety-seeking (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀₃: Status consumption (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_{a3}: Status consumption (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀₄: Media influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_{a4}: Media influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀₅: Celebrity influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_{a5}: Celebrity influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀₆: Physical vanity (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H_{a6}: Physical vanity (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.
- H₀₇: Media influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H_{a7}: Media influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H₀₈: Group influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.

- H_a8: Group influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- H_o9: Variety-seeking (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a9: Variety-seeking (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o10: Subjective norms (+) do not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a10: Subjective norms (+) have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o11: Physical vanity (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a11: Physical vanity (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o12: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_a12: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- H_o13: Attitude towards beauty products (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a13: Attitude towards beauty products (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_o14: Variety-seeking (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.

- H_a14: Variety-seeking (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_o15: Subjective norms (+) do not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a15: Subjective norms (+) have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_o16: Group influence (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a16: Group influence (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_o17: Price consciousness (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a17: Price consciousness (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_o18: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does not have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.
- H_a18: Beauty product innovativeness (+) does have a significant direct influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.

The following section discusses the structural equation modelling used to test the proposed model of the antecedents influencing female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products; that is, H_o1 to H_o18.

5.11 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

This section outlines the process undertaken to conduct structural equation modelling with reference to the measurement model and structural model for addressing the final empirical objective.

5.11.1 Measurement model specification

The first step in structural equation modelling is specifying the measurement model. Based on the model proposed in Chapter 3, the measurement model to be tested for the first hypothesis is an eleven-factor structure.

The hypothesised measurement model is presented in Figure 5.1.

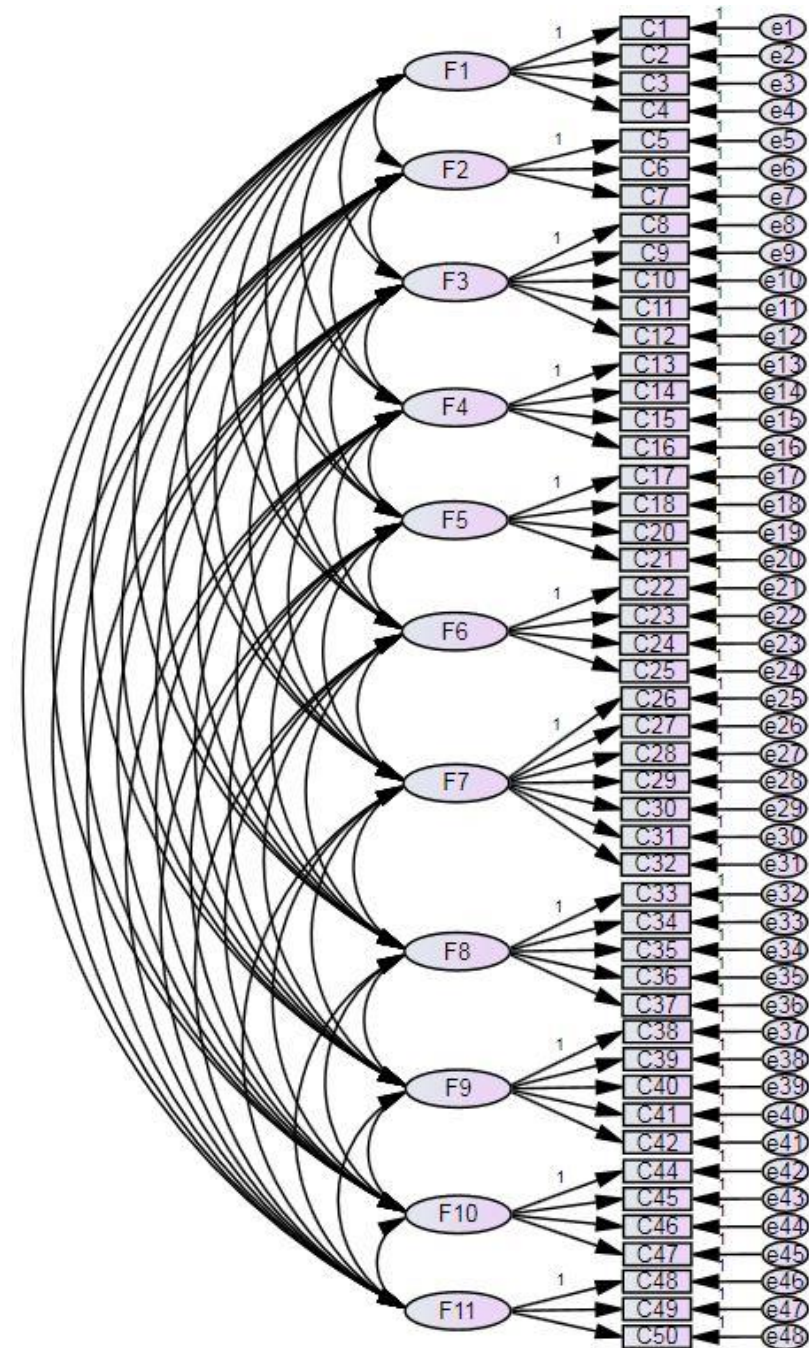


Figure 5.1: Specified measurement model

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, the hypothesised model comprises 11 latent or unobserved factors, namely attitude (F1) (four indicators), variety-seeking (F2) (three indicators), status consumption (F3) (five indicators), subjective norms (F4) (four indicators), media influence (F5) (four

indicators), group influence (F6) (four indicators), celebrity influence (F7) (seven indicators), physical vanity (F8) (five indicators), price consciousness (F9) (five indicators), beauty product innovativeness (F10) (four indicators) and purchase intention (F11) (three indicators). For model identification purposes, the first loading on each of the 11 factors was fixed at 1.0. Consequently, there are 1176 distinct sample moments, and 151 parameters to be estimated, which leaves 1025 degrees of freedom based on the over-identified model, and a chi-square value of 2209.788 with a probability level equal to 0.000.

The measurement model was assessed for any problematic estimates, such as negative error variances (Heywood cases), or any standardised factor loadings below -1.0 or above 1.0 (Hair *et al.*, 2010:706). The standardised coefficients of the measurement model are presented in the following table.

Table 5.17: Standardised coefficients of the measurement model

Latent factors	Factors	Indicators	Factor loadings		Error
F1	Attitude	C1	0.759	+	0.575
		C2	0.854	+	0.730
		C3	0.794	+	0.630
		C4	0.733	+	0.537
F2	Variety-seeking	C5	0.650	+	0.422
		C6	0.787	+	0.619
		C7	0.751	+	0.563
F3	Status consumption	C8	0.743	+	0.553
		C9	0.820	+	0.672
		C10	0.813	+	0.661
		C11	0.779	+	0.607
		C12	0.805	+	0.649

Table 5.17: Standardised coefficients of the measurement model (continued ...)

Latent factors	Factors	Indicators	Factor loadings		Error
F4	Subjective norms	C13	0.689	+	0.475
		C14	0.774	+	0.599
		C15	0.866	+	0.751
		C16	0.832	+	0.693
F5	Media influence	C17	0.753	+	0.567
		C18	0.780	+	0.608
		C20	0.609	+	0.371
		C21	0.683	+	0.467
F6	Group influence	C22	0.726	+	0.528
		C23	0.782	+	0.612
		C24	0.869	+	0.754
		C25	0.755	+	0.57
F7	Celebrity influence	C26	0.740	+	0.548
		C27	0.706	+	0.498
		C28	0.775	+	0.601
		C29	0.832	+	0.693
		C30	0.837	+	0.701
		C31	0.793	+	0.629
		C32	0.776	+	0.602
F8	Physical vanity	C33	0.752	+	0.565
		C34	0.743	+	0.552
		C35	0.710	+	0.504
		C36	0.831	+	0.69
		C37	0.823	+	0.677
F9	Price consciousness	C38	0.696	+	0.484
		C39	0.819	+	0.67
		C40	0.851	+	0.724
		C41	0.877	+	0.769
		C42	0.851	+	0.725

Table 5.17: Standardised coefficients of the measurement model (continued ...)

Latent factors	Factors	Indicators	Factor loadings		Error
F10	Beauty product innovativeness	C44	0.631	+	0.399
		C45	0.762	+	0.581
		C46	0.590	+	0.348
		C47	0.673	+	0.453
F11	Purchase intention	C48	0.841	+	0.708
		C49	0.879	+	0.773
		C50	0.850	+	0.722

As shown in Table 5.17, there were no problematic estimates in the model as all item loadings were above the 0.5 level, neither were there any factor loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0. Furthermore, no negative error variances were observed.

In order to measure the fit of the model, indices produced by AMOS, namely the absolute fit indices of the chi-square, the standardised root mean residual (SRMR), the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA), the incremental fit index (IFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) were used. A significant chi-square value of 2209.788 was calculated with 1025 degrees of freedom. While the chi-square suggests poor fit, it is known that this measurement is highly sensitive to sample size (Byrne, 2010:76; Malhotra, 2010:732). The remaining fit indices showed an acceptable degree of fit between the measurement model and the data, with SRMR=0.088, RMSEA=0.044, IFI=0.929, CFI=0.929, and TLI=0.921.

Subsequently, the reliability and validity of the measurement model were calculated and assessed.

5.11.2 Composite reliability and construct validity of the measurement model

The purpose of the measurement model is to investigate and determine whether each scale item used within a particular construct is reliable and valid (Malhotra, 2010:744). For the purpose of this study, reliability was measured by inspecting the composite reliability. As discussed in

Chapter 4, Section 4.9.8.3, the following formula was used to calculate the composite reliability for each of the 11 components:

$$[(F1_1+F1_2+F1_3+\dots)^2 / (F1_1+F1_2+F1_3+\dots)^2 + (err_1+err_2+err_3+\dots)].$$

The average variance extracted (AVE) is used to describe the overall variance in the indicators, which is accounted for by the latent construct. As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.9.8.3, the following formula was used to calculate the AVE for each of the nine components:

$$[(F1_1^2+F1_2^2+F1_3^2+\dots) / (F1_1^2+F1_2^2+F1_3^2+\dots) + (err_1+err_2+err_3+\dots)].$$

Table 5.18 presents the composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values for each construct.

Table 5.18: Measurement model: construct reliability, average variance extracted and correlation matrix

	CR	AVE	$\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Attitude	0.80	0.50	0.71										
Variety-seeking	0.75	0.50	0.71	0.22									
Status consumption	0.83	0.50	0.71	0.26	0.46								
Subjective norms	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.58	0.25	0.39							
Media influence	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.23	0.27	0.49	0.40						
Group influence	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.16	0.32	0.33	0.31	0.37					
Celebrity influence	0.88	0.50	0.71	0.18	0.30	0.43	0.25	0.57	0.41				
Physical vanity	0.83	0.50	0.71	0.35	0.06	0.15	0.31	0.24	0.14	0.09			
Price consciousness	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.18	0.20	0.17	0.15	0.34		
Beauty product innovativeness	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.35	0.44	0.48	0.39	0.52	0.33	0.52	0.18	0.14	
Purchase intention	0.75	0.50	0.71	0.40	0.23	0.28	0.37	0.31	0.16	0.17	0.48	0.23	0.37

As Table 5.18 illustrates, all CR values exceeded the recommended level of 0.7, indicating the reliability of the constructs. In addition, all factor loadings exceeded the 0.5 level (refer to Table 5.17) and AVE values were computed at 0.5, thereby signifying convergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2010:709). All the correlation coefficients were smaller than the square root of the AVE ($\sqrt{0.5}=0.71$), thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity.

The specified measurement model demonstrates acceptable reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. As such, the overall measurement model is considered valid and reliable, and exhibits acceptable fit, making it a suitable structural model for testing.

Owing to insufficient evidence to conclude the null hypothesis, H_{o1} , the alternative hypothesis, H_{a1} , was concluded, suggesting that the antecedents of beauty product purchase intention is an eleven-factor structure.

The hypothesised structural model is presented in the following section.

5.11.3 Structural model

In the hypothesised structural model, Structural Model A, which represents the relationship between the latent variables (Byrne, 2010:7), it was hypothesised that variety-seeking (F2), status consumption (F3), media influence (F5), celebrity influence (F7) and physical vanity (F8) have a direct positive influence on beauty product innovativeness (F10). Furthermore, it was hypothesised that media influence (F5) and group influence (F6) have a direct positive influence on subjective norms (F4) and variety-seeking (F2), subjective norms (F4), physical vanity (F8) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) have a direct influence on attitude towards beauty products (F1). As this model is an extended version of the theory of reasoned action (TRA), it is hypothesised that attitude towards beauty products (F1), variety-seeking (F2), subjective norms (F4), group influence (F6) and price consciousness (F9) have a direct influence on purchase intention towards beauty products (F11).

Structural Model A presented in Figure 5.2, illustrates the regression path estimates. In order to improve the visual comprehension, the covariance lines between the independent variables, the indicator variables of the latent factors, the residuals of the dependent variables and the modification indices are not presented in the structural model figure. A detailed structural model is presented in Annexure B.

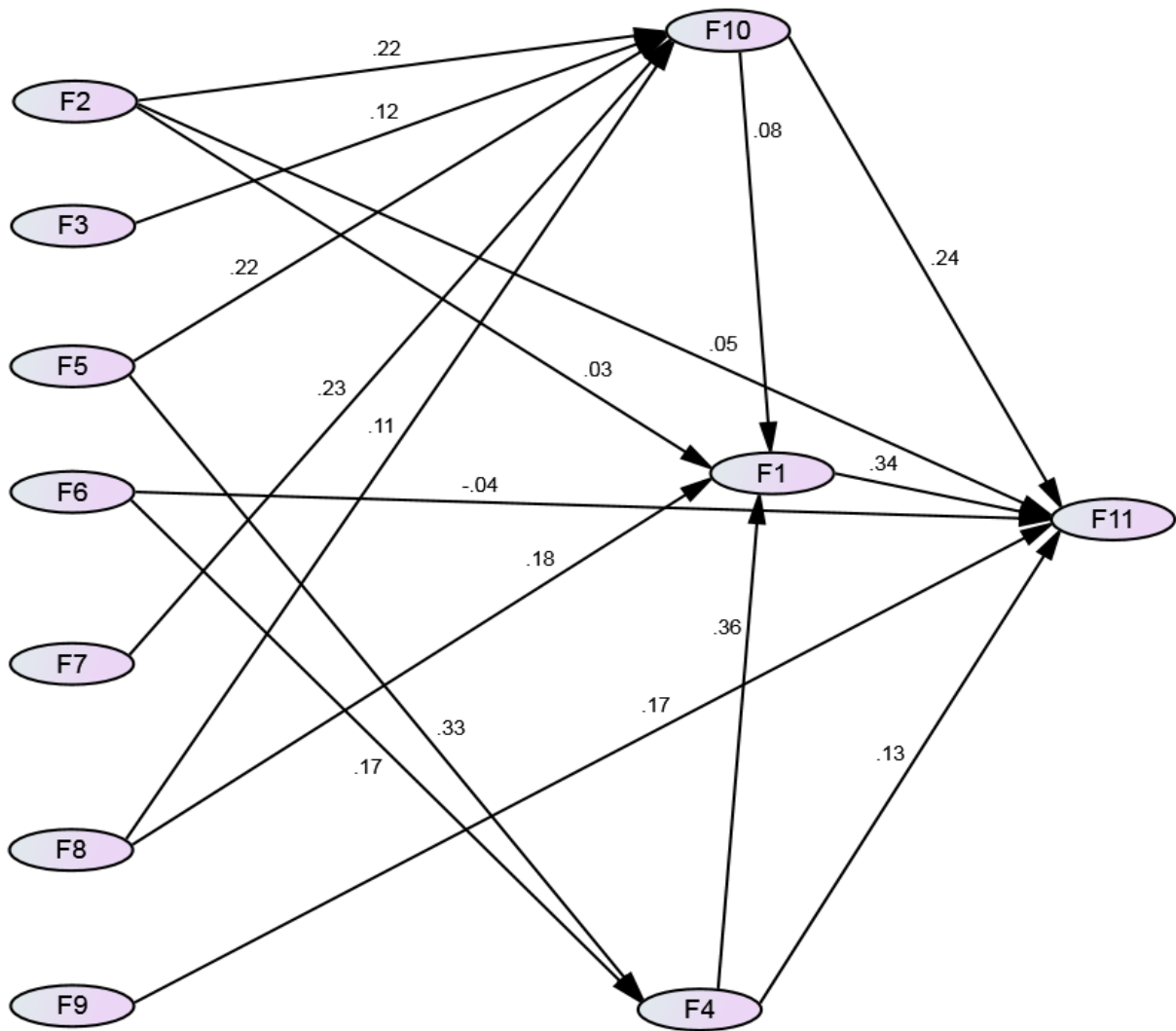


Figure 5.2: Structural Model A

While Structural Model A returned a problematic chi-square=2342.866 (df=1043) value, which may be due to this statistic being sensitive to sample size (Malhotra, 2010:732), the model produced other acceptable model fit indices of SRMR=0.112, RMSEA=0.045, IFI=0.922, TLI=0.915, CFI=0.922.

According to Structural Model A in Figure 5.2, variety-seeking (F2) (path estimate=0.22, $p=0.000<0.05$), status consumption (F3) (path estimate=0.12, $p=0.013<0.05$), media influence (F5) (path estimate=0.22, $p=0.000<0.05$), celebrity influence (F7) (path estimate=0.23, $p=0.000<0.05$) and physical vanity (F8) (path estimate=0.11, $p=0.047<0.05$) have a significant positive influence on the beauty product innovativeness (F10) of female Generation Y students.

Consequently, H_{02} , H_{03} , H_{04} , H_{05} , H_{06} are rejected and H_{a2} , H_{a3} , H_{a4} , H_{a5} , H_{a6} are concluded. Media influence (F5) (path estimate=0.33, $p=0.000<0.05$) and group influence (F6) (path estimate=0.17, $p=0.000<0.05$) have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms (F4), inferring that the null hypotheses H_{07} , H_{08} are rejected and H_{a7} , H_{a8} are concluded. However, the path between variety-seeking (F2) (path estimate=0.03, $p=0.385>0.05$) and female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products was not significant, suggesting that there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, H_{09} . Subjective norms (F4) (path estimate=0.36, $p=0.000<0.05$), physical vanity (F8) (path estimate=0.18, $p=0.000<0.05$) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) (path estimate=0.08, $p=0.027<0.05$) have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products. As such, the null hypotheses H_{010} , H_{011} , H_{012} are rejected and the alternatives H_{a10} , H_{a11} , H_{a12} concluded.

Female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products (F1) (path estimate=0.34, $p=0.000<0.05$) has a significant positive influence on their beauty product purchase intention (F11). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{013}) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_{a13}) is concluded; however, for variety-seeking (F2) (path estimate=0.05, $p=0.283>0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_{014}) cannot be rejected due to no significant direct influence of variety-seeking on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention (F11). Furthermore, subjective norms (F4) (path estimate=0.13, $p=0.021<0.05$) have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention, resulting in the rejection of the null hypothesis H_{015} , and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis H_{a15} . However, the path between group influence (F6) and female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention (F11) (path estimate=-0.04, $p=0.497>0.05$), was insignificant, suggesting that there is insufficient evidence to reject H_{016} . Moreover, both price consciousness (F9) (path estimate=0.17, $p=0.000<0.05$) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) (path estimate=0.24, $p=0.000<0.05$) have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention (F11), resulting in H_{017} and H_{018} being rejected and H_{a17} and H_{a18} accepted.

Given the insufficient evidence to reject the null hypotheses H_{09} , H_{014} , and H_{016} , it was decided to test a revised model based on the measurement model presented in Figure 5.1. According to Byrne (2010:82), Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and Bozdogan's consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) should be considered when two or more models are compared, where smaller

values are preferred as they indicate a better fitting model. The AIC and the CAIC indices for Structural Model A were 2608.87 and 3328.86 respectively. The following figure, Figure 5.3 illustrates the revised structural model (Structural Model B).

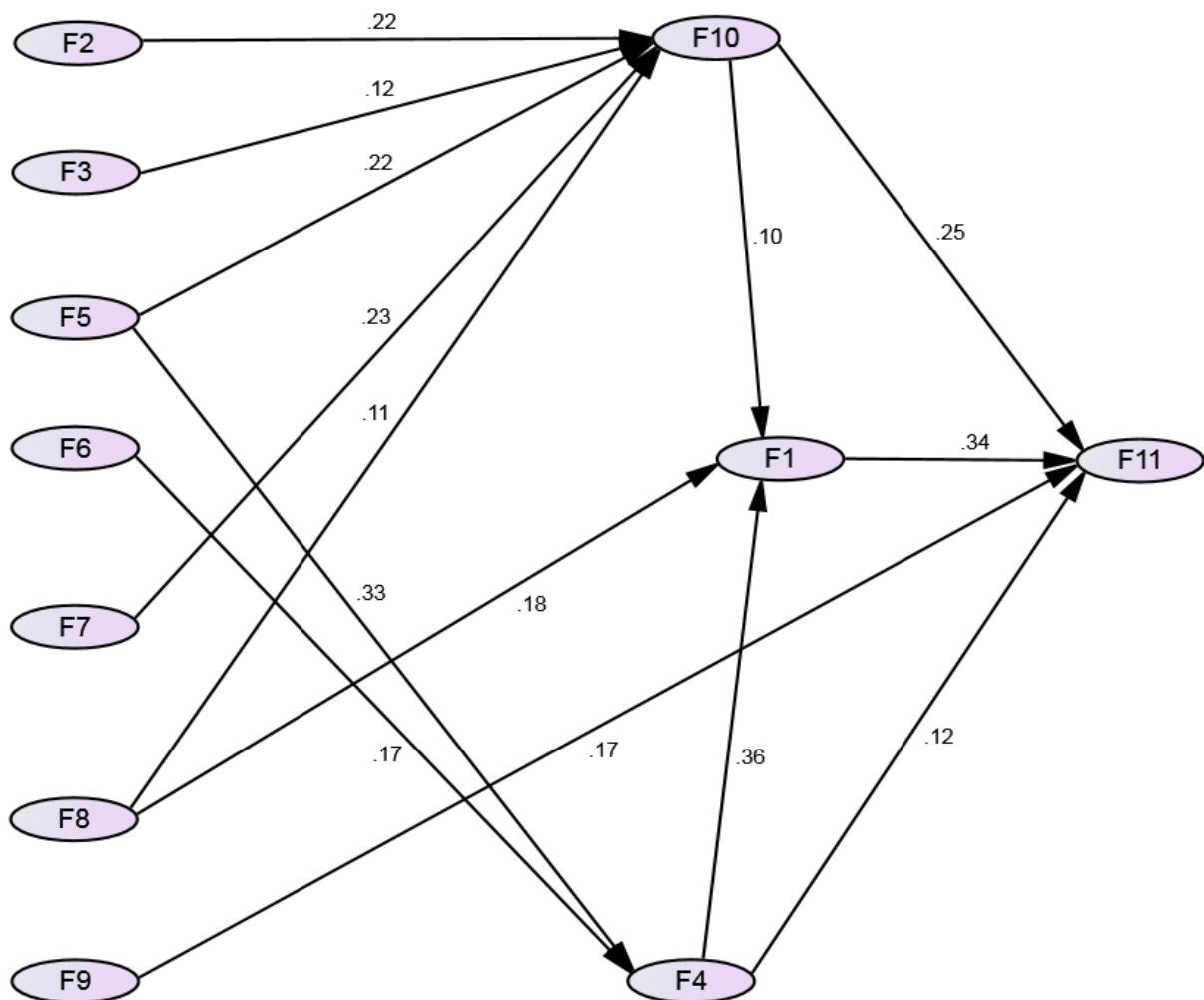


Figure 5.3: Structural Model B

In terms of model fit, Structural Model B delivered fit indices of chi square=2345.052 (df=1046), SRMR=0.113, RMSEA=0.045, IFI=0.922, TLI=0.915, CFI=0.922. The AIC and CAIC values of 2605.05 and 3308.80 for Structural Model B were lower than the AIC and CAIC values of Structural Model A, indicating better model fit. The chi-square of Structural Model B is marginally higher than the chi-square of Structural Model A. However, the difference between the chi-square values and degrees of freedom were 1.186 and 3 respectively, which indicates that there is a statistically insignificant difference based on the traditional criteria. Accordingly, the

problematic parameters can be removed and Structural Model B can be accepted (Werner & Schermelleh-Engel, 2010:3).

According to Structural Model B in Figure 5.3, variety-seeking (F2) (path estimate=0.22, $p=0.000<0.05$), status consumption (F3) (path estimate=0.12, $p=0.013<0.05$), media influence (F5) (path estimate=0.22, $p=0.000<0.05$), celebrity influence (F7) (path estimate=0.23, $p=0.000<0.05$), and physical vanity (path estimate=0.11, $p=0.042<0.05$) continue to have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness (F10). These findings are in keeping with the studies conducted by Birtwistle and Moore (2006), Goldsmith *et al.* (2010), Morgan and Birtwistle (2009), Muzinich *et al.* (2003), Raju (1980), Workman and Lee (2010) and Xie and Singh (2007). The squared multiple correlation (SMC) coefficient for beauty product innovativeness is 0.44, which indicates that variety-seeking, status consumption, media influence and celebrity influence collectively explain 44 percent of the variance in female Generation Y students' beauty product innovativeness.

Similarly, media influence (F5) (path estimate=0.33, $p=0.000<0.05$) and group influence (F6) (path estimate=0.17, $p=0.000<0.05$) continue to have a significant positive influence on female Generation Y students' subjective norms (F4). Previous studies also found that media (Limayem *et al.*, 2000; López-Nicolás *et al.*, 2008) and groups, such as friends (Lim & Dubinsky, 2005; Limayem *et al.*, 2000) have a significant influence on subjective norms or social influence. The SMC coefficient for subjective norms is 0.21, which indicates that media influence and group influence together explain 21 percent of the variance in female Generation Y students' subjective norms.

Subjective norms (F4) (path estimate=0.36, $p=0.000<0.05$), physical vanity (F8) (path estimate=0.18, $p=0.000<0.05$) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) (path estimate=0.10, $p=0.003<0.05$) still have a significant influence on female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products (F1). These results are consistent with Schepers and Wetzels's (2007) study, which found that subjective norms significantly influence consumers' attitude towards IT usage, and Chang *et al.*'s (2008) study, positing that physical appearance (vanity) has a significant positive effect on the importance consumers place on cosmetics. Furthermore, these results are also in keeping with studies conducted by Jin and Suh (2005), Limayem *et al.* (2000) and Park *et al.* (2007), who found innovativeness to significantly influence consumers' attitude towards purchase behaviour and online shopping. The SMC coefficient for attitude towards

beauty products is 0.35, which indicates that subjective norms, physical vanity and beauty product innovativeness jointly explain 35 percent of the variance in female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.

Attitude towards beauty products (F1) (path estimate=0.34, $p=0.000<0.05$), subjective norms (F4) (path estimate=0.12, $p=0.024<0.05$), price consciousness (F9) (path estimate=0.17, $p=0.000<0.05$) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) (path estimate=0.25, $p=0.000<0.05$) continue to have a significant influence on female Generation Y students' beauty products purchase intention (F11). These findings are in keeping with previous studies, which found that attitude (Belleau *et al.*, 2007; Limayem *et al.*, 2000), subjective norms (Chen, 2007; Summers *et al.*, 2006), price consciousness (Jin & Suh, 2005) and innovativeness (Jin & Suh, 2005; Limayem *et al.*, 2000) significantly influence consumers' purchase intention. The SMC coefficient for purchase intention towards beauty products is 0.25, which indicates that attitude towards beauty products, subjective norms, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness collectively explain 25 percent of the variance in female Generation Y students' beauty product purchase intention.

5.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter reported on the empirical findings of the study, firstly reporting on the outcomes of the pilot study, which indicated that the scale used in this study was reliable and valid. The data gathering process was discussed, followed by an overview on the preliminary data analysis, with reference to the coding, cleaning and tabulation of the data. Subsequently, the demographic and beauty product purchase information analysis was discussed. The descriptive statistics, comprising the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, was also calculated to summarise the antecedents relating to female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products. Thereafter, correlation analysis was computed in order to determine whether the relationships between the hypothesised antecedents of purchase intention towards beauty products were significant, and to establish the nomological validity of the proposed model. From the relationships observed in the correlation analysis, hypotheses were formulated, which were subsequently tested with the use of structural equation modelling and path analysis.

In Chapter 6, further interpretations pertaining to the empirical findings will be specified. These interpretations are based on the findings that are reported on in Chapter 5, together with the background provided in Chapters 2 and 3. Subsequently, the research objectives will be re-

examined to evaluate whether they have been answered. Furthermore, this chapter concludes with recommendations emanating from this study, together with an overview of the contributions and limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As highlighted in Chapter 1, the rapid growth in the fashion industry, especially the beauty product industry, internationally and in South Africa, makes it an important industry to penetrate. This significant growth has resulted in increased competition, causing beauty product marketers and retailers to pay close attention to their marketing strategies. In order to gain a competitive advantage, marketers need to focus on effectively targeting their target market by developing and adapting marketing strategies that will attract the attention of their target market, and persuade them to purchase their products. As such, beauty product marketers and retailers need to understand the factors influencing the consumers' purchase intention of beauty products.

The youth, currently considered as Generation Y, are an important segment to fashion marketers, as these consumers are the early adopters of new fashion trends. This cohort represents an approximate 37 percent of the total population of South Africa, with most of these consumers being students. The higher future earning potential of university students, together with an increased disposable income and total spending, demonstrates the importance of this market segment. Female Generation Y members spend a substantial amount of money and time on shopping, especially fashion shopping, including products such as jewellery, clothing and cosmetics. In addition, female consumers also place a lot of emphasis on their physical appearance and make use of fashion items to signal their identity. As such, a need was identified to propose and empirically test a model of possible factors that may influence the female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products.

Understanding the antecedents of female Generation Y students' purchase intentions of beauty products is likely to make a valuable contribution to developing and adapting marketing strategies aimed at effectively targeting this market segment. Based on this assumption, the primary objective of this study was to determine and model the factors that may influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products in South Africa.

This chapter serves as the conclusion of the study, starting with an overview of the study, which is followed by an outline of the main findings of the study, set out in accordance with the

empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1. Furthermore, the contributions of this study are discussed, followed by the recommendations, which are based on the findings of the study. The chapter ends with an overview of the limitations of the study, as well as recommendations for further research, together with the final concluding remarks of the study.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this study was to determine the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products in South Africa. In order to achieve this objective, a review of the literature relating to consumer behaviour, the consumer decision-making process, the factors influencing the consumer decision-making process, various attitude models and theories and the possible antecedents of purchase intention was conducted. In order to aid in the understanding of the main findings (Section 6.3) and applicable recommendations (Section 6.4), this section provides a synopsis of the previous five chapters.

Chapter 1 introduced the study by providing a background to the research and by identifying the research problem. The problem statement highlighted the necessity to investigate the factors influencing the purchase intention of consumers towards beauty products, in order to assist in the development of effective marketing strategies. Furthermore, this chapter explained the reasons for using Generation Y students as the target population in this study. Based on the identified problem, one primary objective, seven theoretical objectives and 12 empirical objectives were formulated in Section 1.3. The hypotheses that were formulated in Chapter 5 were also presented in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4). This chapter concluded with a summary of the proposed research design and methodology (Section 1.5), followed by the empirical portion of the study, and the ethical considerations (Section 1.6) of the study.

The primary purpose of Chapter 2 was to address the first two theoretical objectives indicated in Section 1.3.2, in the form of a literature review. Accordingly, this chapter started with a detailed discussion on consumer behaviour (Section 2.2), focussing on the consumer behaviour model (Section 2.2.1). Section 2.3 provided an overview of the consumer decision-making process, with special reference to the different stages of the process, namely problem recognition (Section 2.3.1), pre-purchase search (Section 2.3.2), evaluation of alternatives (Section 2.3.3), purchase (Section 2.3.4) and post-purchase evaluation processes (Section 2.3.5). Furthermore, the factors pertaining to the consumer decision-making process were outlined and discussed in Section 2.4. The last section of this chapter, Section 2.5, introduced various attitude models and theories,

specifically the tri-component attitude model (Section 2.5.1), the hierarchy of effects (Section 2.5.2), the attitude-toward-object model (Section 2.5.3), the attitude-toward-behaviour model (Section 2.5.4), the theory of reasoned action (Section 2.5.5), and the theory of planned behaviour (Section 2.5.6). The main finding emanating from the literature reviewed in this chapter is that various factors play a contributing role towards the decision-making of consumers, which is the driving force behind consumers' purchase intention. Of these factors, one enjoys a considerable amount of attention in the marketing field, namely attitude. Research suggests that the acquisition of a product or service, and the success of a business's marketing strategy are dependent on the consumer's attitude towards the product, service or even the store. As such, attitudes are considered as a precursor of consumers' purchase intention, and therefore, significantly influence the marketing strategy of a business. Behavioural scientists have noticed the increased attention being given to attitudes, and developed attitude models for the purpose of better understanding consumer attitudes and intentions.

The purpose of Chapter 3 was to address the remaining five theoretical objectives of the study. Consequently, this chapter started with a comprehensive literature review on the theory of reasoned action (Section 3.2), focussing on the possible antecedents of consumers' purchase intention (Section 3.3), providing an overview on these factors namely, attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness. Furthermore, this chapter includes a review on the literature pertaining to beauty products and the role it plays in the fashion market and in everyday life (Section 3.4 & Section 3.5). Owing to the target population specified in this study, this chapter included a description of the Generation Y cohort, and more specifically the South African and female Generation Y cohort (Section 3.6). The chapter concluded with a proposed model of the antecedents of female Generation Y students' purchase intention toward beauty products (Figure 3.2).

The literature review suggests that the theory of reasoned action is a good predictor of behavioural intention, covering the prediction of attitudes and purchase intention, and determining the interaction between internal and external factors. In addition, research suggest that both the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour are open to further elaboration when additional factors are identified as possible predictors of intent. Accordingly, the main findings that emanated from this chapter are that a number of factors can be added to the theory of reasoned action, such as variety-seeking, status consumption, media influence,

group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness, as various researchers found them to influence either Generation Y, female or fashion consumers' purchase intention.

Chapter 4 comprised a discussion on the research methodology followed in the empirical portion of the study. A descriptive research design was implemented (Section 4.2) and a quantitative research approach was followed (Section 4.3) for the purpose of this study. The target population for this study was defined as female Generation Y students aged between 18 and 24 years who were enrolled full-time at South African registered public HEIs in 2016 (Section 4.4.1). From the sample frame of 26 South African registered public HEIs, three HEIs were selected by means of judgement sampling. These HEIs comprised a traditional university, a comprehensive university and a university of technology, all located in the Gauteng province (Section 4.4.2). Subsequently, a non-probability, convenience sample of 780 Generation Y students (260 per HEI campus), as defined by the target population, was taken (Sections 4.4.3 & 4.4.4). Following the survey approach, a self-administered questionnaire that included existing validated scales was used to collect the required data (Section 4.5). The statistical techniques applied in this study were outlined in Section 4.9. These included frequency analysis (Section 4.9.1), factor analysis (Section 4.9.2), reliability analysis (Section 4.9.3), validity analysis (Section 4.9.4), descriptive analysis (Section 4.9.5), correlation analysis (Section 4.9.6), a collinearity diagnostics (Section 4.9.7) and structural equation modelling (Section 4.9.8).

Against the background of Chapter 4, Chapter 5 reported on the empirical findings of the study. Accordingly, the results presented in this chapter are in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1, Section 1.3.3.

6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This section discusses the main findings of this study, in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1:

- Determine female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' variety-seeking orientation concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' status consumption orientation concerning beauty products.

- Determine female Generation Y students' subjective norms concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived media influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived group influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' perceived celebrity influences concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of physical vanity concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of price consciousness concerning beauty products.
- Determine female Generation Y students' level of beauty product innovativeness.
- Determine female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products.
- Empirically test a proposed model of the extent to which attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness influence female Generation Y students' intention to purchase beauty products.

In accordance with the literature, an exploratory factor analysis (Section 5.6) on the C-scale resulted in the extraction of 11 factors identified as having a potential influence on South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products. These factors are primarily related to attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness. These 11 factors explained 68.77 percent of the total variance.

Descriptive statistics (Section 5.8) were calculated to address the second to the eleventh empirical objectives set out in Chapter 1. The means of each dimension-related item in the six-point Likert scale were recorded. This infers that South African female Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards beauty products, that they exert variety-seeking behaviour towards beauty products, and that they take into account the opinions of their friends and family. Media and group influence seems to affect South African female Generation Y students'

purchase intention concerning beauty products. Furthermore, the results infer that these consumers exert a high level of physical vanity, they are price conscious when purchasing beauty products and they intend to purchase beauty products in the future.

Correlation analysis (Section 5.9) was conducted based on the factors extracted from the exploratory factor analyses in order to guide the structural equation modelling analysis, where both a measurement and structural models were developed for the purpose of establishing the causal relationships amongst these constructs. The results from the correlation analysis indicated that there was significant positive correlation between the 11 constructs, thereby signifying nomological validity. In addition, a test for multicollinearity indicated a negligible degree of multicollinearity between the constructs. As such, structural equation modelling was deemed appropriate.

Structural equation modelling (Section 5.11) was performed to address the twelfth empirical objective of testing a proposed model of the South African female Generation Y students' antecedents of beauty product purchase intention. The measurement model comprised 11 latent factors, namely attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention. Based on the fit indices, it was established that the measurement model generated acceptable levels of model fit as presented in Section 5.11.1. In addition, there was evidence of composite reliability and construct validity (Section 5.11.2). Thereafter, a structural model (Structural Model A) was tested based on the measurement model.

In the first structural model in Figure 5.2, the path between variety-seeking (F2) and attitude (F1) was not significant. Likewise, the path from variety-seeking (F2) to purchase intention (F11) was not significant. Furthermore, the path between group influence (F6) and purchase intention (F11) was also found not significant. Table 6.1 provides a summary of the unsupported hypotheses and their paths.

Table 6.1: Summary of unsupported hypothesised relationships

Hypothesis	Path	Conclusion
H _a 9	Variety-seeking → attitude	Not supported
H _a 14	Variety-seeking → purchase intention	Not supported

H _a 16	Group influence → purchase intention	Not supported
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A revised model (Structural Model B) as presented in Figure 5.3 was tested by removing the insignificant paths. The model fit indices of Structural Model B suggested improved model fit compared to Structural Model A. Structural Model B proposed that variety-seeking (F2), status consumption (F3), media influence (F5), celebrity influence (F7) and physical vanity (F8) have an indirect influence on beauty product purchase intention (F11) via their influence on beauty product innovativeness (F10). Furthermore, media influence (F5) and celebrity influence (F7) also have an indirect influence on beauty product purchase intention (F11) via their influence on subjective norms (F4). Subjective norms (F4) and beauty product innovativeness (F10), in turn, together with physical vanity (F8), have a direct influence on attitude towards beauty products (F1). Moreover, subjective norms (F4), attitude towards beauty products (F1), price consciousness (F9) and beauty product innovativeness (F10) directly influence beauty product purchase intention (F11). These results are in keeping with previous studies (Belleau *et al.*, 2007; Birtwistle & Moore, 2006; Chang *et al.*, 2008; Chen, 2007; Goldsmith *et al.*, 2010; Jin & Suh, 2005; Lim & Dubinsky, 2005; Limayem *et al.*, 2000; López-Nicolás *et al.*, 2008; Morgan & Birtwistle, 2009; Muzinich *et al.*, 2003; Park *et al.*, 2007; Raju, 1980; Schepers & Wetzel, 2007; Summers *et al.*, 2006; Xie & Singh, 2007). Table 6.2 summarises the supported hypothesised relationships and their paths.

Table 6.2: Summary of supported hypothesised relationships

Hypothesis	Path	Conclusion
H _a 2	Variety-seeking → beauty product innovativeness	Supported
H _a 3	Status consumption → beauty product innovativeness	Supported
H _a 4	Media influence → beauty product innovativeness	Supported
H _a 5	Celebrity influence → beauty product innovativeness	Supported
H _a 6	Physical vanity → beauty product innovativeness	Supported
H _a 7	Media influence → subjective norms	Supported
H _a 8	Group influence → subjective norms	Supported
H _a 10	Subjective norms → attitude	Supported

H _a 11	Physical vanity → attitude	Supported
H _a 12	Beauty product innovativeness → attitude	Supported
H _a 13	Attitude → purchase intention	Supported
H _a 15	Subjective norms → purchase intention	Supported
H _a 17	Price consciousness → purchase intention	Supported
H _a 18	Beauty product innovativeness → purchase intention	Supported

Therefore, the findings of this study infer that the model presented in Figure 6.1 may explain the antecedents of South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products.

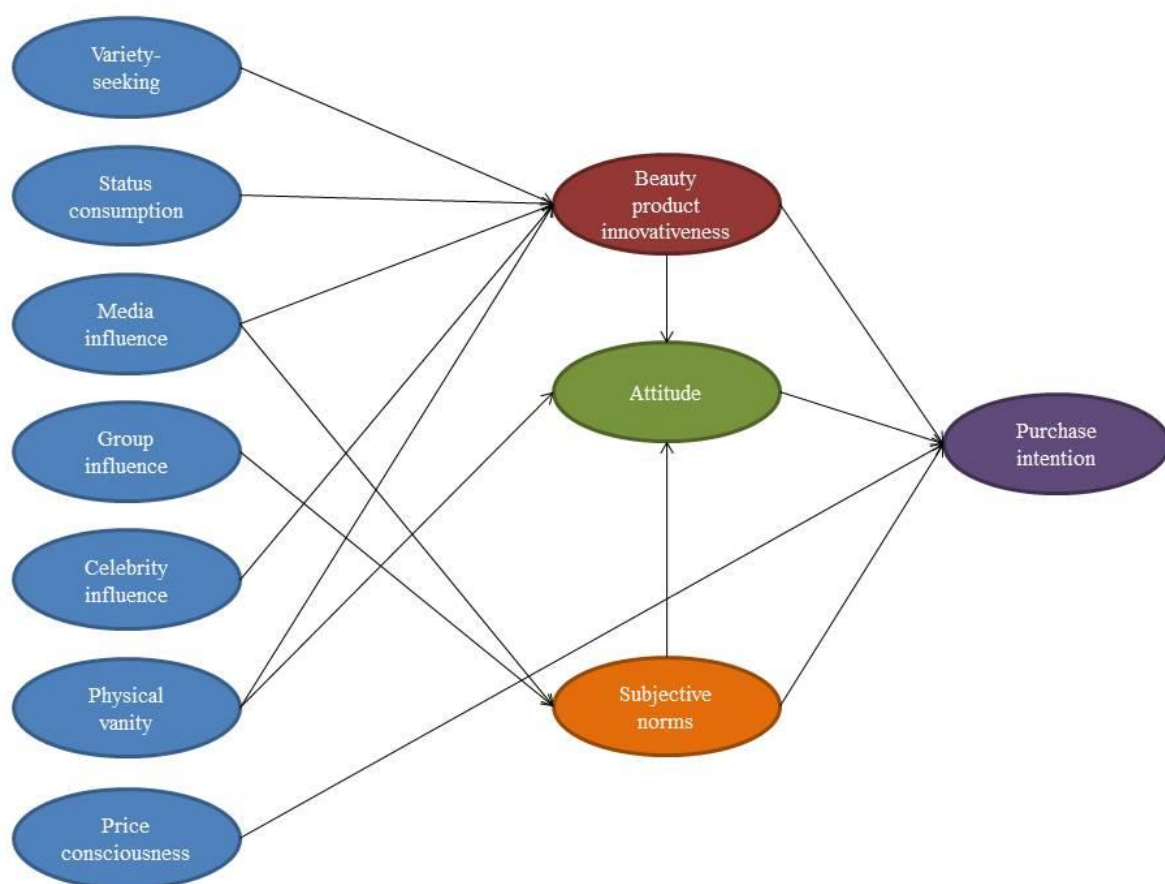


Figure 6.1 Antecedents of South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention towards beauty products

The following section provides an overview on the contribution made by this study.

6.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study contribute to the limited literature available on consumers' purchase intention towards beauty products in the South African market, with specific reference to the factors that influence the female Generation Y cohort's purchase intention of beauty products. One of the main purposes of this study is to add information and theory to the literature of South Africa and enhance beauty product purchase intention literature internationally. This was done by empirically testing a model of factors that influence female South African Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. The hypothesised model postulated an eleven-factor structure composed of attitude, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness, beauty product innovativeness and purchase intention. This model represents an important tool for predicting the female Generation Y cohort's purchase intentions across a range of beauty product categories in the South African context. The model may also have value in predicting the beauty product purchase intention of male consumers and other age cohorts. In addition, the findings of this study contribute to the proGenY research project at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus), aimed at profiling the consumer psychology of Generation Y in South Africa.

The results of this study have important implications for South African and international marketing practitioners and retailers involved in beauty product retailing, given that they can use the model proposed by this study to understand the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. This study offers guidance for selecting, developing or adapting effective marketing strategies to target the female portion of the Generation Y cohort within the South African beauty product industry.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The insights gained from the preceding chapters highlight that various factors influence the purchase intention of consumers. Therefore, marketers need to have a comprehensive understanding of their target market, especially in terms of their needs and preferences. Marketers can only then alter their marketing strategies to reach their target market effectively. In accordance with the findings of this study, the section that follows outlines a number of

recommendations to assist beauty product marketers in targeting female Generation Y students effectively.

6.5.1 Continue to monitor female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products

Owing to the rapid growth of the beauty product industry (Premium Beauty News, 2015), it is imperative for marketers to differentiate themselves from other competitors. Marketers need to understand that attitudes have a direct positive influence on consumers' intention to purchase (Jin & Suh, 2005:66-67). Accordingly, marketers that make an effort to understand their target market's attitudes may have a better chance of effectively reaching these individuals by developing marketing strategies that will attract the attention of their target market.

The findings indicate that female Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards beauty products. However, this study only provides a snapshot in time, and the factors influencing female Generation Y students' attitude towards beauty products may change over time. Therefore it is recommended that beauty product marketers continuously monitor female Generation Y students' overall attitude towards beauty products.

6.5.2 Incorporate digital media platforms to reach female Generation Y members

Having grown up in an era where the Internet is easily accessible, Generation Y members are technologically savvy and well informed. As such, individuals forming part of this cohort, especially the females, spend a sufficient amount of time online in order to obtain information regarding businesses, services and products (Section 3.6.2). According to the results of this study (Figure 5.3), traditional media platforms are effective in reaching this segment. However, because they are technologically savvy and spend a sufficient time online, digital media platforms should be included in the marketing strategies aimed at targeting this segment. These digital media platforms might include Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram, among others. Beauty product marketers can also direct their attention to designing mobile apps that consumers can use to test beauty products on a photo of themselves, or where celebrities explain the function, value or effectiveness of various beauty products and show consumers how to use and apply these products for the best results. Such digital media vehicles, along with the use of the traditional advertisements on the radio, television or in magazines, may be used to reach this target market.

6.5.3 Make use of celebrities to reach female Generation Y members

Consumers make use of groups, such as friends, family, and celebrities as reference when they develop certain values, attitudes and behavioural patterns (Section 2.4.2). Moreover, the use of models or well-known celebrities is another technique used to target female consumers, as female consumers may spread more positive word-of-mouth communication about a product or brand that is endorsed by their favourite celebrity (Bush *et al.*, 2004:115). Furthermore, every woman would like to look beautiful and attractive, as reflected in the images of these models or celebrities in the advertisements (Kaur *et al.*, 2013:70). Given that Generation Y females are passionate about celebrities and celebrity gossip, and thrive on celebrities' lives, following their romances, scandals, and embarrassments on social media (Section 3.6.2), marketers targeting this segment should include celebrities in their marketing strategies. This is confirmed by the findings of this study, depicted in Figure 5.3. Accordingly, beauty product marketers and retailers can include celebrities by using them as endorsers of their products. This may include using celebrities as the face of the product, placing their name and image on the product advertising, or having them attend beauty product workshops, where these celebrities, together with beauty product experts, teach consumers about various beauty products and how to apply and optimally use these products.

6.5.4 Incorporate friends and family into marketing strategies aimed at targeting female Generation Y members

As stated in Chapter 3 (Section 3.6.1), and confirmed by this study (Figure 5.3), Generation Y individuals are influenced by their peers (group influence). In addition, Generation Y members strive to make a connection with individuals who are important in their lives, such as family members. As such, marketers need to focus their attention on incorporating family and friends into their marketing strategies. Such strategies may include having a rewards program, where consumers who refer family and friends receive rewards, which can be redeemed in the form of products. This strategy encourages consumers to spread positive word-of-mouth communication, and persuade other consumers to try certain products. Ultimately, this may lead to new and existing consumers purchasing more products. Marketers can focus their advertising material on social interaction with family and friends, where it is portrayed that friends and family will approve of the product being advertised. Beauty product marketers can also encourage consumers who are attending beauty workshops, makeovers or consultation sessions to invite

someone to join them, by agreeing to a discounted fee when two or more individuals are attending the workshop together. In addition, when beauty product marketers develop an app for certain beauty products, they can include a feature where the consumer using the app can send the photo, on which they tested the beauty products, to a friend or family member in order to attain their opinion.

6.5.5 Develop unique marketing strategies to attract Generation Y beauty product innovators

Innovative consumers are early adopters of new products and socially active individuals, assisting with the promotion of new products, as they spread favourable word-of-mouth communication to others. Therefore, marketers need to include these consumers in their marketing strategies, as they play an imperative role in the lifecycle of new products (Section 3.3.8). In order to attract beauty product innovators, marketers and retailers need to convey a message to consumers that their products have status, and that they have a wide variety of products available, as this study found both variety-seeking and status consumption to have a direct positive influence on beauty product innovativeness (Figure 5.3). Given that vanity may be associated with fashion innovators, especially female fashion innovators, as females are socialised to be more interested in their appearance and fashion than males (Section 3.3.6), beauty product marketers also need to focus on physical vanity, making use of enhanced physical appearance in their advertisements. These advertisements should be placed in various media marketing vehicles, given that the results of this study propose that these consumers generally consult the media before purchasing beauty products (Figure 5.3). Making use of celebrities when marketing beauty products will also attract beauty product innovators (Figure 5.3), and therefore celebrities should be included in the marketing strategies of beauty products, especially the marketing strategies of new and innovative products.

6.5.6 Focus beauty product marketing strategies on physical vanity (appearance)

The most obvious theme in the advertisements is the ideal appearance or look for women (Kaur *et al.*, 2013:70). Entire industries rely on female consumers' quest for physical beauty (Durvasula *et al.*, 2001:182). This is due to female consumers being influenced by vanity. This study also found physical vanity to have a direct positive influence on female consumers' attitude towards beauty products (Figure 5.3). For that reason, beauty product marketers should

focus their marketing strategies on images of enhanced physical appearance, making use of attractive models or celebrities in their advertisements. In addition, marketers can include photos of these models or celebrities before and after applying the beauty products, in the beauty product advertising. Furthermore, marketers and retailers can make use of in-store demonstrations, where beauty product experts can apply beauty products to models, or even consumers. This may persuade consumers to purchase the beauty products, as they are provided with evidence of the actual value of the beauty products.

6.5.7 Incorporate price discounts into marketing strategies aimed at targeting female Generation Y members

According to the results of this study (Figure 5.3), Generation Y female students' purchase intention towards beauty products is influenced by price consciousness, indicating that these consumers will go to extra effort to purchase beauty products at a discounted price. As such, beauty product marketers and retailers should incorporate price discounts in the marketing strategies aimed at targeting this segment. Such price discounts or promotions may include offering a discounted price when consumers buy a certain amount of products or spend a certain amount of money in one shopping trip, or offering price discounts on certain products for a short period of time. These price discounts or promotions should be well advertised in order to be successful in reaching and informing all consumers.

6.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study determined the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase behaviour of beauty products. As with any other study, this study had certain limitations that may present several future research opportunities.

This study made use of a non-probability convenience sampling method to select the sample. Despite the inclusion of a several demographic questions to determine the representativeness of the sample of the target population, care should be taken in generalising the results to the population (Section 4.4.3). Furthermore, a single cross-sectional research design was undertaken (Section 4.2). Future research, implementing a longitudinal study, may provide a more precise reflection of the extent to which the factors identified in this study influence female Generation Y students' purchasing intention and behaviour towards beauty products.

Three HEIs in the Gauteng province were used in this study (Section 4.4.2). Despite the fact that the sample represented sample elements from all of the nine South African provinces (Section 5.5.1), an opportunity is available to conduct a more extensive study by determining the antecedents of female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products at HEI campuses in each of the nine provinces. Additionally, this study can be conducted in other countries for comparative purposes to determine whether there are any differences between the antecedents of South African and international students' purchase intention of beauty products.

The sample of this study was female full-time Generation Y undergraduate students aged between 18 and 24 years (Section 4.4.1). Consequently, opportunities exist to investigate the factors that influence male, as well as part-time and post-graduate students' purchase intention of beauty products. In addition, opportunities exist to investigate the non-student population or consumers forming part of another generational cohort. Such a study might produce different results since these consumers earn their own money.

6.7 CONCLUSION

It cannot be disputed that the growth in the beauty product industry has led to increased competition within this industry. Accordingly, for beauty product retailers to be successful, both effective differentiation and a competitive advantage are required. In order to gain a competitive advantage, retailers and marketers need to have a comprehensive understanding of their target market to develop and adapt marketing strategies that will appeal to them. The youth are the current trendsetters within the fashion industry, influencing a substantial number of consumers regarding their purchases. In addition, this Generational cohort accounts for a significant portion of the population worldwide and represents the future. As such, it is imperative to be acquainted with the factors influencing Generation Y consumers' purchase intention.

This study proposed a model of the factors influencing South African female Generation Y students' purchase intention of beauty products. Attitude towards beauty products, variety-seeking, status consumption, subjective norms, media influence, group influence, celebrity influence, physical vanity, price consciousness and beauty product innovativeness emerged as the factors that influence female Generation Y students' purchase intention, which in turn influences their purchase behaviour of beauty products. This model may be applied to predict purchase intention across a wide array of beauty products amongst different segments of the population.

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ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Factors influencing South African female Generation Y students' purchase behaviour of beauty products

Dear participant,

I am currently working towards my thesis under the supervision of Prof. Natasha de Klerk and co-supervision of Prof. Ayesha Bevan-Dye as part of the requirements for completing my PhD in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

The purpose of my research project is to determine the factors influencing South African female Generation Y students' purchase behaviour towards beauty products.

Please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you most sincerely - your assistance and contribution is highly appreciated.

Riané Dalziel

rianezeeman@yahoo.com

Faculty of Economic Sciences & IT

SECTION A: Demographical information

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X) or write down your answer.

A1	Name of your institution:	Traditional university	University of technology	Comprehensive university							
A2	Country of origin:	South Africa	Other (please specify):								
A3	Province of origin:	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal						
		Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West						
	Other (please specify):										
A4	Registered:	Full-time	Part-time								
A5	Current year of study:	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	4 th year	Post graduate					
A6	Gender:	Male	Female								
A7	Ethnic group:	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White						
	Other (please specify):										
A8	Please indicate your mother tongue language:	Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa						
		IsiZulu	SePedi	SeSotho	SeTswana	SiSwati					
	Other (please specify):										
A9	Age at your last birthday:	<18	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	>25

**A BEAUTY PRODUCT IS ANY PRODUCT UTILISED TO CARE FOR
CLEAN AND ENHANCE THE BEAUTY OF THE HUMAN BODY**

SECTION B: Beauty product purchase information

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X).

B1	Do you purchase beauty products?			Yes	No
B1A	If yes, please indicate how often:	Once a week	Once every two weeks	Once a month	Once every two months
B1B	If yes, please indicate how much money you spend (on average) per month on beauty products:				
	Less than R200	R201 – R500	R501 – R1000	More than R1000	

SECTION C: Beauty product consumption

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with each of the following statements by placing a mark in the appropriate box; 1 being strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree.

Beauty product consumption		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
C1	I think using beauty products is a good thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2	Using beauty products is valuable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C3	Using beauty products is beneficial to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C4	I think using beauty products is a necessary thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C5	I switch among brands of beauty products just to try something new once in a while.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C6	When I am shopping for beauty products, I am likely to buy new brands just for the fun of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C7	I get bored with buying the same brands of beauty products, and so I often try different brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C8	I would buy a beauty product just because it has status.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C9	I am interested in new beauty products with status.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C10	I would pay more for a beauty product if it had status.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C11	The status of a beauty product is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C12	A beauty product is more valuable to me if it has some status appeal.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C13	People who influence my behaviour would approve of me buying beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Beauty product consumption		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
C14	People who are important in my life would approve of me buying beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C15	People who influence my behaviour would encourage me to buy beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C16	People who are important in my life would encourage me to buy beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C17	I mostly buy those beauty products/brands that are advertised on TV, radio and magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C18	Radio, TV and magazine advertisements determine my brand loyalties towards beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C19	I continue buying the same beauty product brands as long as my favourite celebrity endorses them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C20	I usually consult the media to determine the best buys.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C21	I usually look at the beauty advertisements before I buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C22	I often decide to buy those beauty products that friends have told me about.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C23	I place a lot of confidence in friends' opinions in buying beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C24	I often decide to buy those beauty products that I see my friends using.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C25	Many beauty product items I own are similar to those of my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C26	To make sure I buy the right beauty product or brand, I often observe what celebrities are using.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C27	I often try to buy beauty products to be like celebrities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C28	I frequently gather information from celebrities about a beauty product before I buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C29	I like seeing advertisements of what beauty product brands celebrities use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C30	Celebrities help me to be more confident in the beauty products I buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

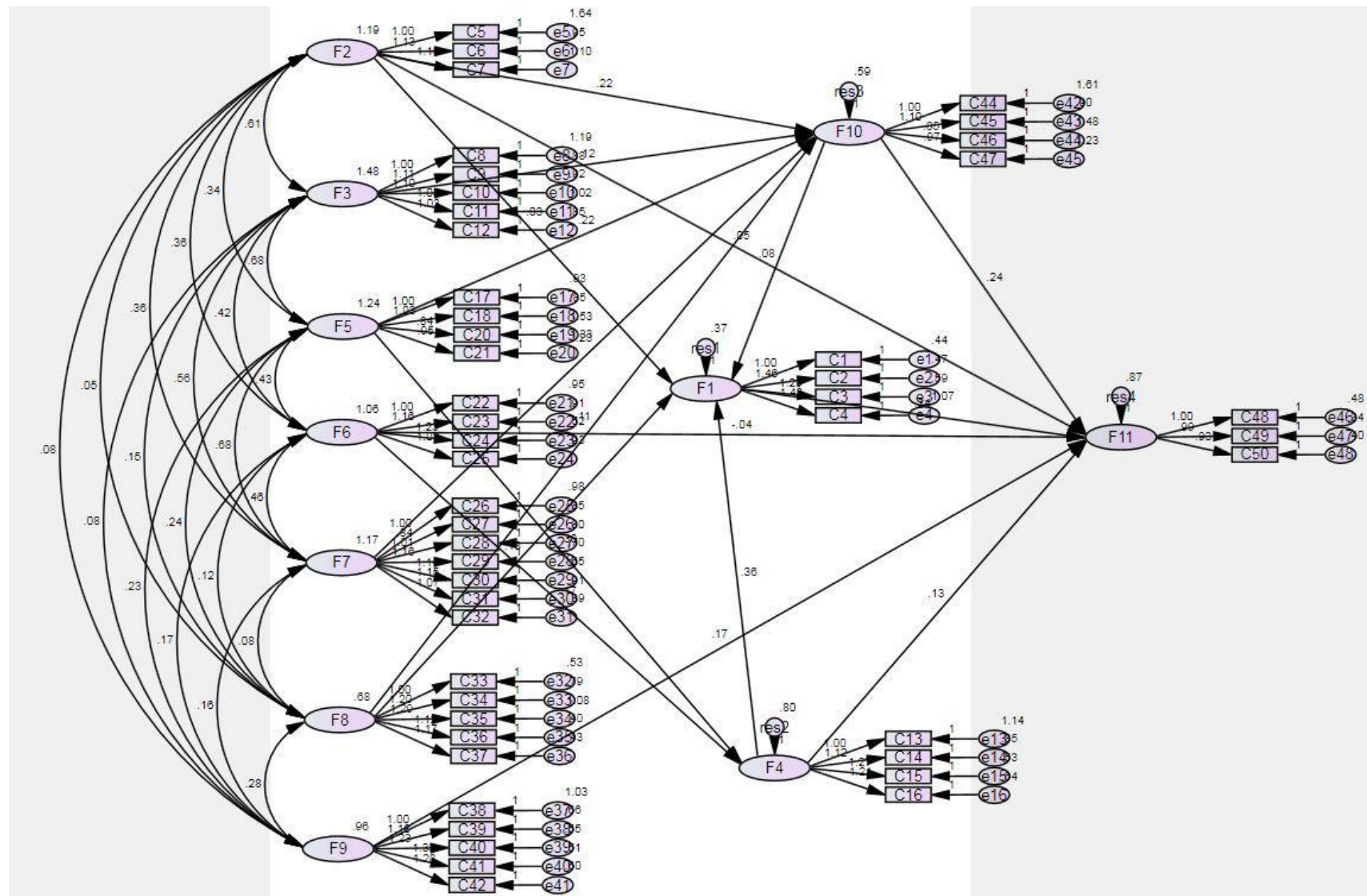
Beauty product consumption		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
C31	I can get ideas about beauty from seeing celebrities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C32	Celebrities show me that people like myself use similar beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C33	The way I look is extremely important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C34	I am very concerned about my appearance..	1	2	3	4	5	6
C35	I would feel embarrassed if I was around people and did not look my best..	1	2	3	4	5	6
C36	Looking my best is worth the effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C37	It is important that I always look good.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C38	I am willing to go to extra effort to find lower prices.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C39	I will occasionally buy beauty products at more than one store to take advantage of low prices.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C40	The money saved by finding low prices is usually worth the time and effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C41	I will always shop at more than one store to find low prices.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C42	The time it takes to find low prices is usually worth the effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C43	Compared to my friends, I own few beauty products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C44	In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to buy a new beauty product when it appears.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C45	If I heard a new beauty product was available in store, I would be interested enough to buy it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C46	I will buy a new beauty product, even if I have not tested it yet.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C47	I know the names of new beauty products before other people do	1	2	3	4	5	6
C48	I intend to buy beauty products in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C49	I will try to buy beauty products in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C50	I will make an effort to buy beauty products in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6

THANK YOU!

ANNEXURE B

STRUCTURAL MODELS

STRUCTURAL MODEL A



STRUCTURAL MODEL B

