THE IMPACT OF IN-STORE MARKETING STIMULI ON
IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOR AND POST-PURCHASE EVALUATION:
A STUDY OF SELF-SELECTED MASS COLOR COSMETICS IN BANGKOK

By

WANWISA CHAROENNAN

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND ECONOMICS

Assumption University
Bangkok, Thailand
December 2016

THE IMPACT OF IN-STORE MARKETING STIMULI ON IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOR AND POST-PURCHASE EVALUATION: A STUDY OF SELF-SELECTED MASS COLOR COSMETICS IN BANGKOK

By

WANWISA CHAROENNAN

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND ECONOMICS

Assumption University

Bangkok, Thailand

December 2016

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND ECONOMICS
Ph.D. IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY
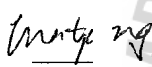
This Study by: Ms. Wanwisa Charoennan

Entitled:

**"The Impact of In-Store Marketing Stimuli and Post-Purchase
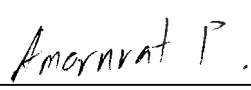Evaluation of Impulse Buying: A Study of Mass Color Cosmetics in Bangkok"**

has been approved as meeting the dissertation requirement for the:

DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Asst. Prof Dr. Nopphon Tangjitprom,
Chairperson, Dissertation Committee

Asst.Prof.Dr.Chatpong Tangmanee,
Dissertation Committee Member (MOE)

Asst.Prof.Dr. Sirion Chaipoopirutana,
Dissertation Committee Member

Dr.Amornrat   Pattarakitham,
Dissertation Committee Member

Asst.Prof.Dr.Theingi,
Dissertation Advisor

Date of Defense: December 20, 2016

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND ECONOMICS
Ph.D IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY

Form signed by Proofreader of the Dissertation

1. STEPHEN CANNELL, have proofread this dissertation entitled "The Impact of In-Store Marketing Stimuli and Post-Purchase Evaluation of Impulse Buying: A Study of Mass Color Cosmetics in Bangkok"

and hereby certify that the verbiage, spelling and format is commensurate with the quality of internationally acceptable writing standards for a PhD in Business Administration.

Signed_____

(STEPHEN CANNELL)

Contact Telephone Number/Email address: 089 893 9170/ stevec_12   hotmail.com

Date: 20th February 2017

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT
AND ECONOMICS
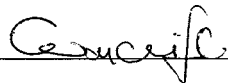## **Ph.D** IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Declaration of Authorship Form

I, Wanwisa Charoennan declare that this dissertation and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

"The Impact of In-Store Marketing Stimuli and Post-Purchase Evaluation of Impulse Buying: A Study of Mass Color Cosmetics in Bangkok"

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for the PhD degree at this University;

2. Where any part of this dissertation has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;

3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;

4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this dissertation is entirely my own work;

5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;

6. Where the dissertation is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;

7. Either none of this work has been published before submission, or parts of this work have been published as: [please list references in separate page]:

Signed: _____   Date_____ 07/ _b17-_____

MARTIN DE TOURS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT
AND ECONOMICS
PHD IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Student Name: __Wanwisa Charoennan__

ID: __541-9812__

ADVISOR'S STATEMENT

I confirm that this dissertation has been carried out under my supervision and it represents the original work of the candidate.

Signed: _____

Advisor: Asst.Prof.Dr.Theingi

Date _____ I R-I 17

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My special thanks go to my Ph.DBA colleagues for their shared knowledge, advice, generosity, and support throughout the program. I am also in debt to all my best friends for their friendship, encouragement, shared laughter and tears, and enjoyable companionship so that I could recharge my positive energy and finish this dissertation.

Above all, I would like to convey my deepest gratitude to my parents for their unconditional and never-ending support throughout my life. Even though we never show affection, I do realize that I am blessed, I am loved, and I am a proud daughter of the family. Whenever I feel down, I am lifted up by just thinking that two persons are happy simply because I exist. My appreciation also goes to my sister for her true understanding of my sensitivity, and being truly happy for me whenever I have a good day. I am also thankful for my little two nephews whose playful and innocent personalities always brighten up my days.

Invaluable supports from the aforementioned and other concerned people have made this dissertation possible, and their contributions will always be remembered.

Wanwisa Charoennan

May, 2017

ii
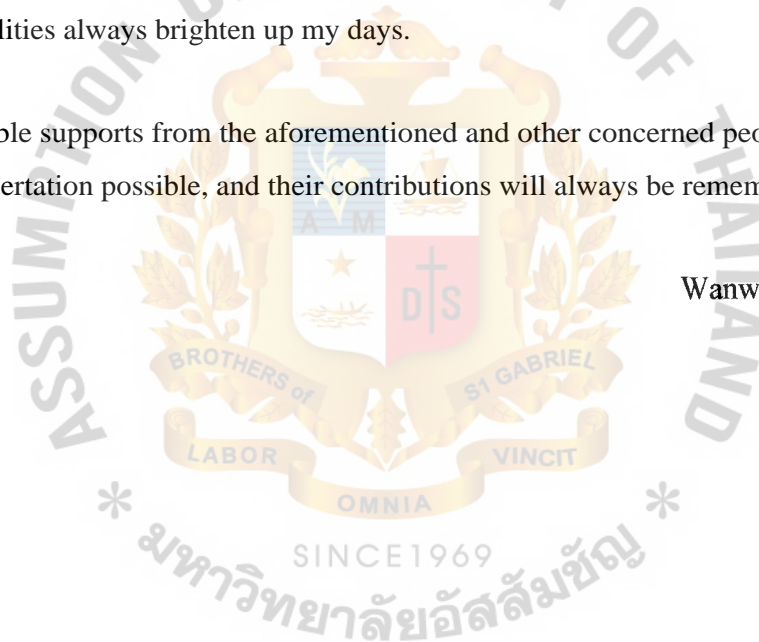
ABSTRACT

Impulse buying plays an essential role in consumer buying behavior as nearly ninety percent of consumers at least occasionally engage in impulse buying. Moreover, it accounts for a massive volume of products sold across categories and prices. Therefore, it clearly creates selling opportunities, and subsequently is a crucial source of revenue and profit. Thailand is the biggest color cosmetics market in Southeast Asian countries, and Thai consumers are now more image-conscious and willing to invest in beauty products. Currently, mass color cosmetics are mostly available through self-selection stores where customers purchase inexpensive or mid-priced cosmetics items in a self-service environment, which encourages customer to engage in impulse buying.

Despite significant interest among marketing academicians and practitioners, most previous impulse buying-related studies primarily focused only on its antecedents; few addressed its consequences, and a great deal of them were conducted in western countries, especially in low-involvement shopping environments. Hence, this study aims to identify the in-store marketing stimuli of impulse buying behavior, as well as its potential consequences, in terms of cognitive dissonance, the level of satisfaction, and the post-purchase behavioral intentions of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

This study utilized a two-stage process, where Stage one involved qualitative research by conducting 21 in-depth interviews with mass color cosmetics consumers to gain insights into their impulse buying behavior. Stage two involved quantitative research by conducting a person-administered survey with 900 female low-to-middle income consumers who were 18 to 45 years old, and purchased mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok within the last thirty days. In total, 780 respondents remained, which represented 87 percent of the response rate.

The data analysis of structural equation modeling (SEM) indicated that music, the salesperson and the acceptance of a credit card significantly and respectively influenced impulse buying. Even though impulse buying did not have an impact on cognitive dissonance, it had a positive direct impact on the level of satisfaction, which

further positively influenced the post-purchase behavioral intention to repurchase, cross-buy and spread positive word-of-mouth. Moreover, product performance positively influenced the level of satisfaction. In addition, cognitive dissonance was positively influenced by post-purchase information and attractive alternatives, while it was negatively influenced by purchase involvement and product performance.

Regarding its potential theoretical implications, this study provided a fuller theoretical understanding of the mechanisms of impulse buying by incorporating both influential factors and potential consequences. Furthermore, it illustrated the relative importance of in-store marketing stimuli, and the findings were thus of pragmatic value for marketing practitioners as a reference in planning resource allocation as well as providing guidelines in developing compelling marketing strategies that create impulsive selling opportunities. Moreover, this study revealed that the level of satisfaction could be reduced by cognitive dissonance, and thus suggested that companies should actively participate in customer dissonance reduction processes by utilizing after-sale communication campaigns to help customers maintain their positive attitude towards the product. Lastly, it was revealed how impulse buying influenced the level of satisfaction, which further motivated positive post-purchase behavioral intentions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ix

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

xi

CHAPTER I
GENERALITIES OF THE STUDIES

1.1 Introduction

In the current competitive market, companies are becoming more customer-oriented and spending a considerable amount of resources in managing customer satisfaction (Law, Hui and Zhao, 2004). To maximize customer satisfaction, there has been a paradigm shift from transactional customer satisfaction towards relational customer satisfaction, which focuses on long-term customer satisfaction (Clark and Das, 2009). Relational customer satisfaction is a better predictor of positive post-purchase behaviors (Johnson, Gustafsson, Andreassen, Lervik and Cha, 2001), such as repurchase, positive word-of-mouth and cross-buying (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder and Iacobucci, 2001; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996). Such behaviors yield companies several competitive advantages, such as preventing customer churn, reducing marketing costs, enhancing business reputation (Fornell, 1992), and subsequently enhancing profitability (Chiu, Chang, Cheng, and Fang, 2009).

Regarding the purchase decision, conventional wisdom points out that a consumer is supposed to go through five rational stages in the buying process: (1) being aware of a need, (2) searching for information, (3) evaluating the alternatives, (4) making a purchase decision, and (5) evaluating the outcomes (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1982); nevertheless, a consumer regularly skips certain steps and rather purchases on impulse (Meng and Xu, 2012).

Impulse buying plays a dominant role in consumer buying behavior (Park and Kim, 2008). Two-thirds of all purchases are decided in the retail environment (Solomon, 2001), and nearly 90 percent of consumers at least occasionally engage in impulse purchasing (Welles, 1986). Therefore, impulse buying has also accounted for a very significant volume of products, which are sold across categories and prices (Bellenger, Robertson and Hirschman, 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Rook, 1987; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Hausman, 2000). Approximately seventy percent of unplanned buying is aroused by in-store stimuli (Abratt and Goodey, 1990; Rook and

1

Fisher, 1995; Liao, Shen and Chu, 2009), which are under the control of marketers (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998) to arouse a favorable response from customers (Hill, 2009). Hence, it is crucial to understand the influence of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying behavior.

Nevertheless, since impulse buying lacks proper planning and consideration compared to a normal rational planned purchase, there is greater likelihood of cognitive dissonance that may further hinder customer satisfaction (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). However, some studies argue that customer express good feelings and do not display significant dissatisfaction after making an impulse purchase (Gardner and Rook, 1988), and they may even remain satisfied despite the regret that results from overspending (Dittmar and Drury, 2000).

Impulse buying behavior exists in every selling environment for any product and at any time (Dittmar, Beattie and Friese, 1995; Duarte et al., 2013). Typically, shopping for color cosmetics, which are high-involvement items (Ueacharoenkit, 2011), generally involves hedonic considerations for impulsive customers (Verplanken et al., 2005; Apaolaza-Ibáñez, Hartmann, Diehl and Terlutter, 2011). Over seventy percent of cosmetics product sales, which are sensory and symbolic items that bolster a customer's self-image and encourage hedonic shopping motivation (Dittmar, Beattie and Friese, 1995), are the consequences of unplanned purchase (Kang, 2013).

Thailand is one of the world's significant emerging beauty markets (Łopaciuk and Łoboda, 2013) as Thai consumers are now more image-conscious and willing to invest in beauty products (Euromonitor, 2014a). In the Thai beauty product market, color cosmetics products have the greatest potential with a growth rate of 6.5 percent and a value of 14 billion Baht (Marketeer, 2016b; Positioning, 2016). Furthermore, as mass color cosmetics brands have high growth potential, certain luxury brands have extended their product range into the mass market, such as Shiseido and Kose (Reungsinpinya, 2011). These products are generally available at self-selection stores (Reungsinpinya, 2011), where customers purchase inexpensive or mid-priced cosmetics items in a self-service environment, in which they have more freedom to select a product, and subsequently are encouraged to engage in impulse buying (Sirhindi, 2010).

2

Since impulse buying is a crucial source of profit (Brici, Hodkinson and Sullivan-Mort, 2013), implementing the right marketing strategies to encourage impulse buying in the high potential context of mass color cosmetics products could yield competitive advantages for a company. Therefore, marketing factors that encourage impulse buying behavior is a critical topic to investigate. Nevertheless, impulse buying involves a certain degree of jeopardy that might hinder customer post-purchase satisfaction (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Hence, the study on how impulse buying creates customer satisfaction and encourages positive post-purchase behavioral intentions is even more of an intriguing area of study.

1.2 Context of the Study: Mass Color Cosmetics Products Available in Self-Selection Stores in Thailand

In contemporary society, consumers are extensively exposed to "idealized" body images, which are portrayed to promote various products and services, especially cosmetics products, throughout the consumer culture (Featherstone, 1993). Cosmetics products are then used pervasively by consumers as an instrument to elevate their physical attractiveness and exhibit their various ideal selves (Beausoleil, 1994; Thompson and Haytko, 1997). More than 90 percent of female consumers worldwide apply at least one cosmetics item daily, using an average of 7.4 items and 4.4 brands (Guthrie and Kim, 2009).

Thailand is one of the emerging cosmetics markets in which constant rise in sales have a compelling impact on the world market's growth rate (Stelb, Giraldo and Eggleton, 2013). Cosmetics products were forecasted to be the business with the second greatest potential for Thailand in 2015 (UTCC, 2014). The industry has continuously expanded due to the growing middle-income population (Yano Research Institute, 2014) and modern beauty and health-conscious lifestyles (Manager, 2015).

Currently, the Thai cosmetics product market is worth approximately 81 billion Baht with the annual growth rate of around four to six percent (Positioning, 2016); and it can be generally categorized into five main segments, which are (1) skin care (46

3

percent) – including facial cream, skin lotion, and cleansing foam, etc., (2) hair care (22 percent) – including shampoo, conditioner, hair treatment, and hair dye, etc., (3) color cosmetics products (16 percent) – including foundation, lipstick, eye shadow, and blusher, etc., (4) toiletries (13 percent) – including body wash, toothpaste, etc. and (5) fragrances (3 percent) – including perfume, cologne, etc. (Marketeer, 2016a).

Even though the Thai cosmetics product market is dominated by skincare products, color cosmetics products has the highest potential with a value of 14 billion Baht and a growth rate of 6.5 percent, which is the highest growth rate in the beauty products market (Marketeer, 2016b; Positioning, 2016). Currently, the Thai color cosmetics products market is the biggest market in Southeast Asian countries (Forbes Thailand, 2014), and the value is expected to exceed 20 billion Baht by 2017 (Manager, 2014). The market can be divided into four main segments, which are (1) face-related products (59 percent), (2) lip-related products (22 percent), (3) eye-related products (17 percent), and (4) nail-related products (2 percent) (Positioning, 2016) (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Thailand's Beauty Product Market Share in 2016
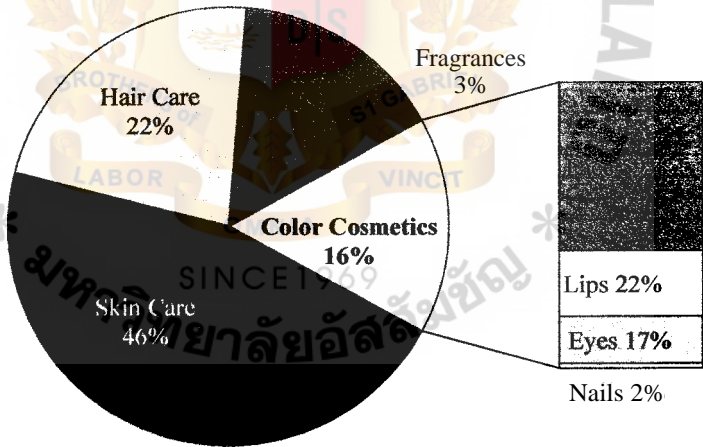
Sources:

Marketeer (2016a). *Beauty Product Market.* Retrieved April, 4, 2016, from: http://marketeer.co.th/2016/03/beauty-mkt-share-0316/

Positioning (2016). *Beauty Products Market in Thailand in 2016.* Retrieved April, 4, 2016, from: http://www.positioningmag.com/content/62883

Macro-Environmental Analysis

The cosmetics products industry has continuously expanded as a consequence of the country's economic development, which has been encouraged by the government. For instance, the government has encouraged international investors through the relaxation of foreign investment laws and regulations, and infrastructure development (Ueacharoenkit, 2011); it has enforced Free Trade Agreement (FTA) on cosmetics products from Southeast Asian countries (Kasikorn Research Center, 2010), and has increased consumer purchasing power with minimum wage policy (Jarurungsipong and Rakthum, 2012).

As a result of the modernizing society, the average age to start applying cosmetics products has fallen from 18 years old to 15 years old, and usage among young consumers has been increasing dramatically (Phupoksakul, 2005; Positioning, 2014). Moreover, Euromonitor (2014a,b,c) revealed that Thai consumers with increased disposable income, sophistication and educational level have become more image-conscious and are thus willing to invest in cosmetics products to enhance their appearance, which coincides with a strong correlation between beauty spending and GDP per capita in various countries as indicated in previous study (Stelb et al., 2013).

Micro-Environmental Analysis

To maintain market share, new cosmetics products from existing companies are continuously introduced onto the market (Ueacharoenkit, 2011). Hence, cosmetics products manufacturers and distributors are advised to steadily develop and elevate their production technology and innovation to match consumer demand while marketers should attempt to craft differentiation strategies to build an outstanding and unique product image to encourage market expansion and increase product value (Beauty Community Public Company, 2013).

Hence, consumers are offered an abundance of cosmetics choices at different price levels (Reungsinpinya, 2011). Many international luxury brands are entering the market to attract medium- to high-end cosmetics customers. Yet, mass brands still prevail in the market because consumer income is still low relative to Singapore,

5

Hong Kong and China, and customers believe that the product quality of these brands is comparable to counter brands (Euromonitor, 2014a; Marketeer, 2014b). Due to higher growth potential, even high-end brands have started to launch mass cosmetics product lines to match consumer purchasing preferences (Reungsinpinya, 2011).

Regarding product distribution, color cosmetics products are generally distributed through three main types of retailors, which are counter sales, self-selection stores, and direct sales. Among the various channels, self-selection stores, especially hypermarkets, supermarkets and drugstores, have been dominant channels over time because they offer more comfortable product pick-up channels and a more comprehensive product portfolio (Euromonitor, 2014a). They also provide customers with the freedom to choose their own preferred products, and give beauty advice upon request (Reungsinpinya, 2011; Siamturakij, 2015). Even though luxury cosmetics brands commonly distribute products via counter sales at department stores with value added counseling, they also increasingly distribute products at certain high-end specialty stores (Reungsinpinya, 2011; Cuyvers, Chamroenprucks, Maninopparatana, Chumasaratul and Thananan, 2013).

According to Jarurungsipong and Rakthum (2012), the increase in cosmetics products sales has been partly a consequence of the continuous introduction of promotional campaigns, which have then been hugely invested in by all players in the market to encourage demand, and to retain their market share (Beauty Cosmetic, 2014). In addition to traditional media channels such as magazines, in-store promotions, and road shows, various brands have increasingly implemented promotional strategies via social media by hiring beauty bloggers to introduce and review their products in order to create positive informal and credible word-of-mouth effects (Reungsinpinya, 2011; Euromonitor, 2014a)

1.2.1 Rationale of the Study Context

Since a wide range of cosmetics choices is available at different price levels to serve the different levels of demand in all market segments (Reungsinpinya, 2011; Manager, 2015), the consumers' purchase and consumption behavior in each segment should be different (Wu and Chen, 2012). Therefore, among various beauty product

6

types, the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores in Bangkok are deemed to be an interesting context in which to undertake this study with the following supporting reasons:

1. **Cosmetics products have a substantial impact on the Thai consumer culture and economy** - Cosmetics is considered as having a significant influence on consumer culture by facilitating consumers to exhibit their "idealized" selves (Beausoleil, 1994; Thompson and Haytko, 1997), and on the country's economics with its high market value (Marketeer, 2014a) and continuous expansion (Yano Research Institute, 2014). They are also one of 12 products promoted by the Department of Export Promotion (Leelahongjudha, 2007); while foreign investment is encouraged through the relaxation of related laws and regulations and by infrastructure development (Ueacharoenkit, 2011).

2. **Thailand has the largest color cosmetics market in ASEAN** - Thailand has the largest color cosmetics product market (14 billion Baht) in the region with great potential and a constant growth rate (6.5%), which is higher than the whole cosmetics market growth rate (4-6%) (Marketeer, 2016b; Positioning, 2016).

3. **Mass color cosmetics products and the self-selection stores encourage impulse buying** - Color cosmetics can be counted as sensory and symbolic products that bolster a consumer's self-image and are likely to arouse a customer's hedonic motivation to purchase on impulse (Dittmar, Beattie and Friese, 1995). In particular, mass color cosmetics have high growth potential and certain luxury brands have started to extend their product range into mass color cosmetics lines (Reungsinpinya, 2011). Furthermore, mass color cosmetics brands are mostly available through the extensive channels of self-selection stores, such as drugstores, specialty stores, stand-alone stores, supermarkets and hypermarkets (Reungsinpinya, 2011), where customers experience and purchase inexpensive or mid-priced cosmetics items in a self-service environment, in which a customer has more freedom to browse and try a product, which subsequently encourages customers to engage in impulse buying more than in clerk-serviced counters (Sirhindi, 2010).

7

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Over the last sixty years, the study of impulse buying has generated substantial interest among marketing academicians as one of the most essential characteristics of consumer behavior (Clover, 1950; Stern, 1962; Bellenger *et al.*, 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kim, 2003; Park and Kim, 2008). However, it has been a challenge for researchers because it conflicts with a consumer's personal best judgment (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991) by being less compatible with existing rational behavior models or economic utility theories, such as the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Verplanken, Herabadi, Perry and Silvera, 2005; Silvera, Lavack and Kropp, 2008; Činjarević, 2010). That is, it rather brings complicated hedonic psychological motivations, low effort, and feelings into their decision- making (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Hoyer and MacInnis, 2001).

Many previous impulse buying-related studies have given much attention to the role of its antecedents, which consist of personal characteristics (Weun, Jones and Beatty, 1998), situational (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Tinne, 2011; Shapiro, 1992), economic (Stern, 1962; Mihić and Kusan, 2010), cultural (Stern, 1962) and demographic factors (Yang, Huang and Feng, 2011), to identify which factors could encourage this profitable purchasing behavior. However, it is rather difficult to study the influences of these exhaustive antecedents. Therefore, this study focuses only on the in-store marketing stimuli, which are practically helpful for marketers because these factors are entirely under their control, and can be arranged in an appropriate way to arouse positive response from the customers, such as purchase decision (Hill, 2009), and the fact that the majority of unplanned purchases are motivated by these in-store factors (Abratt and Goodey, 1990; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Liao, Shen and Chu, 2009).

In the post-purchase stage, impulsive buyers normally experience overspending (Mansfield, Pinto and Parente, 2003), and even long-term financial problems (Rook, 1987). As a result, many studies have related impulse buying with cognitive dissonance, (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010), post-purchase dissatisfaction, regret (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013), and guilt (Rook, 1987). However, impulse buying is still a pervasive purchasing behavior (Silvera et

8

al., 2008) as consumers also purchase on impulse due to economic reasons, for instance, to take advantage of discounted items (Rook and Fisher, 1995). Therefore, some studies argue that impulse buyers express good feelings and do not display significant dissatisfaction (Gardner and Rook, 1988), and they may remain satisfied even though they may feel regret towards their overspending (Dittmar and Drury, 2000). Hence, the relationship between impulse buying and post-purchase evaluation is still vague and needs further explicit investigation, which is crucial for marketers to build long-term relationships with these profitable impulsive customers.

Furthermore, impulse buying occurs in every selling circumstance across a wide range of product types and price levels (Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Rook, 1987; Rook and Fisher, 1995), yet a great deal of research has been conducted in low-involvement shopping environments, especially food retailing (Duarte, Raposo and Ferraz, 2013), which requires little cognitive effort (Rook and Hoch, 1985; Winzar, 1992; Duarte et al., 2013). However, the study of impulse purchase motivated by high involvement and hedonic experience, particularly color cosmetics products, has unfortunately been limited (Park, Kim and Forney, 2006).

Although Rook (1987) accurately claimed that impulse buying is universal in its nature, and a considerable amount of research on the subject has been conducted in the United States and other Western countries (Park and Choi, 2013), Kacen and Lee (2002) believed that local market circumstances in terms of exchange system and cultural forces influence a consumer's impulse buying behavior. Therefore, it is essential to explore the impulse buying behavior in non-Western countries, especially in a transitional economic context, like the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), where markets are emerging with great growth potential (Batra, 1997; Shultz and Pecotich, 1997) and retail environments are changing. This suggests the need to understand the shopping behavior in these particular retail settings (Mai, Jung, Lants and Loeb, 2003).

In conclusion, despite the growth potential of mass color cosmetics products through self-selection stores (Reungsinpinya, 2011), and the impact of the retail environment on impulse buying behavior (Sirhindi, 2010), most related studies have been conducted in the the food retail sector (Duarte et al., 2013). Furthermore, even though

9

impulse buying creates selling opportunities, how it influences customer satisfaction and positive future behavioral intentions is still understudied but is a compelling topic.

1.4 Research Objectives

This study attempts to investigate the impact of in-store marketing stimuli on actual impulse buying behavior, and how impulse buying has an influence on post-purchase evaluation in terms of cognitive dissonance, the level of satisfaction, repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention in the context of mass color cosmetics products available in self-selection stores in Bangkok. Thus, the research objectives of this study are as follows:

Objective 1: To investigate the in-store marketing stimuli influencing the impulse buying behavior of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Objective 2: To examine the influence of impulse buying on cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Objective 3: To find out the influence of cognitive dissonance on the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Objective 4: To examine the influence of post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance on cognitive dissonance of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Objective 5: To study the influence of the level of satisfaction on post-purchase behavioral intentions (repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention) of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

1.5 Research Questions

To achieve the main purpose of this study on the examination of the relationship between in-store marketing stimuli, impulse buying behavior, cognitive dissonance, the level of satisfaction, repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-

mouth intention of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok, the following research questions are proposed:

Research Question 1: What are the in-store marketing stimuli determining the impulse buying behavior of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Research Question 2: How does impulse buying influence cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Research Question 3: How does cognitive dissonance influence the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Research Question 4: How do post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance influence cognitive dissonance of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Research Question 5: How does the level of satisfaction influence post-purchase behavioral intentions (repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention) of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

1.6 Scope of the Research

Since impulse buying is a sudden purchase decision that lacks proper consideration, a customer may suffer from cognitive dissonance and dissatisfaction, and could perform certain negative post-purchase behaviors (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Nevertheless, impulse buying is still prevalent in consumer buying behavior (Park and Kim, 2008) and a crucial source of profitability (Brici et al. 2013). Some studies argue that a customer could be satisfied with their impulsive buying decision (Chen, 2002). Therefore, the relationship between impulse buying and its post-purchase evaluations is still vague and needs further investigation. Hence, this study aims to investigate the in-store marketing stimuli of impulse buying, as well as to clarify its potential consequences in terms of cognitive dissonance, and the level of satisfaction, which is expected to be influenced by product performance, and has a direct impact on post-purchase behavioral intentions, namely repurchase intention,

11

cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention, in the high potential context of mass color cosmetics.

This study employed a qualitative research methodology by conducting in-depth interviews with 21 participants, and also applied quantitative research methodology by conducting a person-administered survey with 780 female consumers who were 18 to 45 years old, from the social economic classes B, C and D, and impulsively purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores in Bangkok in the last 30 days. The samples were selected by stratified three-stage sampling, and the data were collected in around six shopping centers in Bangkok. The research findings not only provide marketing academicians with a more complete understandings of impulse buying mechanisms by incorporating both the antecedents and consequences, but also benefit marketing practitioners with the references in prioritizing resource allocation and developing compelling marketing strategies that generate impulse buying opportunities, which would likely create customer satisfaction and positive post-purchase behavioral intentions.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Acceptance of a credit card
It can be regarded as a payment method that eliminates the instant need for cash to buy something, and provides certain incentives to increase the purchasing temptation (adopted from Schor, 1998; Coley and Burgess, 2003; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

Attractive alternatives
It denotes the anticipation of acquiring more satisfaction from unchosen or foregone alternatives (Kuo, Hu and Yang, 2013).

Brand reputation
 It can be denoted as the perception of the product quality attached to the brand name (Seines, 1993).

12

Cognitive dissonance

It represents the psychological discomfort after choosing from a set of alternatives, each of which has its own enticing attributes (Festinger, 1957).

Color cosmetics

It is also known as 'make-up', and is used to color or beautify the face and body (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). It is composed of four categories: face, eye, lip and nail make-up (Mintel, 2011).

Cosmetics

It refers to the substances applied to the human body to enhance appearance (Wu and Chen, 2012; Cuyvers et al., 2013).

Cross-buying intention

It can be defined as the intention to purchase additional different products from the same provider (adopted from Verhoef, Franses and Hoekstra, 2001; Reinartz, Thomas and Bascoul, 2008; Ngobo, 2004).

Impulse buying

It is an unplanned buying behavior, which is a result of being exposed to stimuli, and is spontaneously decided. After the purchase, the customer has cognitive and/or emotional reactions (Parboteeah, 2005).

Level of satisfaction

It can be described as an evaluation of the perceived performance of a certain consumption experience (Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins, 1983).

Mass Color Cosmetics

It refers to value pricing or non-prestige color cosmetics that are widely distributed through self-selection stores, such as chain drugstores, supermarkets and hypermarkets, convenience stores, etc. (adapted from US Commercial Service Hong Kong, 2015)

Post-purchase behavioral intentions

It can be defined as a series of intentional actions taken by customers to compare their expectation with their perception of the actual product performance, and they act in accordance with their evaluations (Adopted from Andreasen, 1976; Gilly, 1979).

Post-purchase information

It refers to the choice-confirmatory or inconsistent information that a customer encounters in the post-purchase stage (adopted from Mao and Oppewal, 2010).

Price promotion

It can be described as a monetary incentive utilized to instantly encourage a customer to buy a product or behave in a favorable way toward a brand (adopted from Shimp, 2003).

Product performance

It is the product utility evaluated after the product is consumed (Adopted from Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010).

Prominent display

It can be defined as an eye-catching display that encourages a consumer to notice a product (adopted from Desmet and Renaudin, 1998).

Purchase involvement

It can be described as the relevance of the purchasing behavior to a consumer (Slama and Tashchian, 1985).

Repurchase intention

It can be defined as a customer's decision to continue engaging in an activity provided by the certain retailer (Hume, Mort and Winzar, 2007).

Self-service

It reflects a service transaction that is undertaken by the customers themselves (Globerson and Maggard, 1991).

Store environment

It can be described as the physical and non-physical components of a store, which are under the control of retailers with an attempt to enhance customers' in-store shopping experience (Eroglu and Machleit, 1990).

Variety of products

It refers to the wide range of product selections available in a certain store (adopted from Nguyen, Nguyen and Barrett, 2007).

Word-of-mouth intention

It is an evaluation of a product, brand or company without commercial intention, and is intended to be initiated through certain communication channels (adopted from Kuo et al., 2013).

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

This chapter presents a review of literature and theories on impulse buying and other related concepts. The previous literature and theories are the groundwork in establishing the relationships between impulse buying, in-store marketing stimuli and post-purchase evaluation. This chapter begins with the definitions, classifications, and antecedents (in-store marketing stimuli), followed by the theories related to impulse buying. Furthermore, cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction are reviewed and presented in the sequence of their definitions, influencing factors, and theories. Lastly, post-purchase behavioral intentions, which consist of repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention, are also illustrated with their definitions and related theories.

2.1 Impulse Buying

Impulse buying has been widely referred to as unplanned purchase (Stern, 1962; Bellenger et al., 1978; Engel and Blackwell, 1982; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986), which is one of the most crucial features to understand the buying behavior and the customers themselves (Park and Kim, 2008). The concept has been regarded as simple but is actually complex and incompatible with existing rational behavior models (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Verplanken et al., 2005; Silverra et al., 2008; Harmancioglu, Finney and Joseph, 2009; Činjarević, 2010).

The study of impulse buying was initiated over sixty years ago by Clover (1950), who suggested that some products can be purchased on impulse. Applebaum (1951) introduced the concept of stimulus into the study and suggested that consumers encountered stimuli to purchase on impulse once they entered a store. Later in 1962, Stern proposed that impulse buying was synonymous with "unplanned purchase", but Rook and his colleagues (Rook, 1987; Rook and Hoch, 1985; Rook and Gardner, 1993; Rook and Fisher, 1995) later argued that impulse buying was beyond unplanned purchase, and it also involved personal characteristics and environmental stimuli.

16

2.1.1 Definitions of Impulse Buying

Even though Applebaum (1951) claimed that impulse buying involved an exposure to a stimulus in a store, the definition of impulse buying as simply "unplanned purchase" has been extensively employed by numerous scholars (Stem, 1962; Bellenger et al., 1978; Engel and Blackwell, 1982; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986). It was defined as a purchase decision that is not planned or without a pre-buying intention before entering a store. However, some scholars argued that all impulse buying is unplanned, but not all unplanned buying is decided impulsively (Iyer, 1989). That is, impulse purchase is a type of unplanned purchase that is decided quickly, in a shorter time span than unplanned purchase (Dholakia, 2000), and is made when a customer encounters a product and other stimuli (Rook and Hoch, 1985; Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991). Nevertheless, there are some other dimensions of impulse buying that need to be clarified (Rook, 1987; Rook and Hoch, 1985; Rook and Gardner, 1993).

According to Hausman (2000), subsequent to 1982, various researchers identified the behavioral dimensions of impulse buying, and many recognized that it involves hedonic or affective component (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982; Rook, 1987; Piron, 1991; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998; Parboteeah, 2005).

Therefore, Weinberg and Gottwald (1982) defined impulse buying as a purchase behavior with high emotional motivation, low cognitive control, and mostly reactive behavior. The analysis of Rook and Hoch (1985) suggested five main elements to differentiate impulse purchase from non-impulse purchase, which were: (1) a feeling of an immediate and spontaneous motive for action, (2) temporary lack of self-control, (3) psychological conflict and struggle, (4) lower cognitive assessment, and (5) spending without consideration of the consequences.

In addition, based on the psychological aspect, Rook (1987) further described impulse buying as a purchasing behavior that happens when a consumer encounters a sudden, generally compelling and persistent urge to immediately buy something. Rook also claimed that the impulsivity is hedonically complicated, might generate emotional conflict, and tends to happen with a diminished degree due to its consequences.

17

Even though impulse buying is generally characterized as an irrational purchasing behavior involving a hedonistic shopping motivation or an affective component (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982; Rook, 1987; Piron, 1991; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998; Parboteeah, 2005), it is not free from cognitive processing (Shen and Khalifa, 2012). That is, upon the impulsive purchase, cognitive deliberation does actually take place, yet its influence is smaller than the affective component (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982). Moreover, the buying decision made by those with a high tendency for impulsive buying can still be considerably influenced by social norms and situational factors (Chen, 2008), namely the availability of time and money, or the characteristics of the product (Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

In order to consolidate the conceptualizations of impulse buying, Piron (1991) suggested a definition that embraces four main criteria, which are (1) unplanned purchase, (2) immediate decision-making, (3) the consequence of being exposed to a stimulus, and (4) involvement with emotional and/or cognitive reactions.

Various researchers have adopted the definition of Piron (1991) while some (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Madhavaram and Laverie, 2004; Meng and Xu, 2012) extended the definition and revealed that impulse buying is not engaged with certain shopping tasks, such as purchasing a reminder item or a gift, etc. Furthermore, other studies identified two main aspects of impulse buying, which are (1) a lack of planning and thorough consideration, and (2) decision making based on emotional aspects (Verplanken et al., 2005; Činjarević, 2010; Verhagen and Van Dolen, 2011).

In addition, the difference between impulse buying and compulsive buying should also be clarified. Compulsive buying can be described as a chronic loss of impulse control to make a repetitive and obsessive purchase, and is motivated by internal triggers, such as anxiety, to make a purchase not only to acquire a product itself, but also to relieve their negative mood (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Kim, 2014). In addition, immediate gratification from product possession is experienced after the purchase, but a compulsive buyer is not really interested in the product itself (Kim, 2014). On the other hand, an impulsive buyer experiences a momentary loss of impulse control and makes a sudden purchase after being motivated by external triggers, such as sales promotion, to experience the immediate gratification from

18

product possession (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Kim, 2014). Therefore, impulsive consumers can sometimes be compulsive if they make an impulsive purchase repeatedly (Kim, 2014). The chronological development of the definition of impulse buying is shown in the table below (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: The Chronological Development of the Definition of Impulse Buying

Authors	Definitions of Impulse Buying
Applebaum (1951)	A buying behavior that a customer does not plan before entering the store, and a result of a stimulus generated by sales promotions available in the store.
Stern (1962)	An unplanned purchase, which can be described as a purchase decision that has not been planned beforehand.
Bellenger et al. (1978)	It can be defined in regards to whether a customer makes a purchase decision before or after entering the store
Engel and Blackwell (1982)	A purchase made without either problem recognition or a pre-buying intention prior to entering a store.
Weinberg and Gottwald (1982)	A purchasing behavior with high emotional activation, low cognitive control, and a predominantly reactive behavior
Cobb and Hoyer (1986)	An unplanned purchase that occurs when one makes a purchase decision in the store.
Rook (1987)	A purchase decision when a consumer encounters a sudden, generally powerful and persistent urge to buy something instantly. It is hedonically complicated and might stimulate emotional conflict; it also tends to happen less thereafter due to its consequences.
Piron (1991)	An unplanned purchase, which is a consequence of an exposure to a stimulus, and decided on the spot. A customer also experiences emotional and/or cognitive motivations.
Rook and Gardner (1993)	An unplanned purchase with two conditions: (1) rather rapid decision-making, and (2) a subjective bias in order to gain immediate possession.
Beatty and Ferrell (1998)	A sudden and prompt buying behavior without pre-purchase intentions to buy a certain product category or to fulfill a certain buying task. The behavior occurs after being exposed to an urge and it is likely to be spontaneous and without much reflection. In addition, the purchase of a reminder item is excluded from impulse purchasing.
Bayley and Nancarrow (1998)	A sudden, compelling and hedonically complicated purchasing behavior in which the rapidity hinders a thoughtful and deliberate reflection of alternative information and choices.

Table 2.1 (Continued): The Chronological Development of the Definition of Impulse Buying

Authors	Definitions of Impulse Buying
Madhavaram and Laverie (2004)	A consequence of a sudden reaction to external stimuli, which are mostly hedonically charged. An impulse purchase indicates a change in a customer's intention to purchase that particular item before and after being exposed to stimuli. The stimuli are not limited to only the product, and the change of a customer's intention excludes a reminder item that is out of stock at home.
Parboteeah (2005)	A buying behavior that is unplanned, resulting from being exposed to an urge, and is decided on the spot. After the purchase, a consumer engages in cognitive and/or emotional reactions.
Maymand and Ahmadinejad (2011)	A complex, spontaneous, immediate and unnecessary action with a high speed decision-making process that restrains the rational and wise investigation of the details and other alternatives.
Muruganantham and Bhakat (2013)	A hedonic buying decision, which is made of the buying environment and excludes reminder purchasing activities.

Source: Author

Based on the aforementioned definitions, impulse buying has been defined by various academicians as a sudden, spontaneous and unplanned purchase dominantly aroused by a highly emotional or hedonistic shopping motivation and affective components, and lack of self-control and without much consideration of the consequences. On the other hand, certain academicians argued impulsive purchasers could still be influenced by cognitive processing. The definition of impulse buying in this study is mainly based on Piron (1991) because it was the first and seminal groundwork that embraced the comprehensive aspects of impulse buying, and it included the exposure to stimulus, which is relevant to this study as this study aims to examine the impact of stimuli on impulse buying behavior. Hence, the definition of impulse buying in this study is: **"an unplanned purchase undertaken in a sudden or immediate manner after being exposed to certain stimuli, and influenced by emotional and/or cognitive motivation".**

2.1.2 Classification of Impulse Buying

Impulse buying was first classified by Stern (1962) into four main types, which are pure impulse buying, reminder impulse buying, suggestion impulse buying, and planned impulse buying. First, **pure impulse buying** is an escape purchasing behavior that breaks a regular buying pattern to satisfy the immediate gratification generated by an emotional appeal; however, a relatively small number of purchases can be regarded as pure impulse purchases (Stern, 1962; Sirhindi, 2010). In the color cosmetics context, pure impulse buying exists when, for example, a customer who hardly ever applies red lipstick sees a newly-launched beautiful red lipstick in a prominent display while shopping for skincare products in a drugstore and decides to make a purchase because of its beautiful and vibrant color.

Second, **reminder impulse buying** occurs when customers see a product or recall an advertisement, product information or a previous buying experience and make a purchase decision because they remember that the stock at home is running out (Stern, 1962). In this case, they already know the product's attribute because of their prior purchasing experience or an awareness of an advertisement (Sirhindi, 2010). For instance, a customer purchases the pressed powder that she regularly uses after seeing it on display while making a store visit and recalling that she is running out of it.

Third, **suggestion impulse buying** happens when a customer is exposed to a product for the first time and imagines a need for it without prior knowledge or experience of it (Stern, 1962). This type of impulse buying is different from pure impulse buying in that the product being purchased on suggestion impulse can be rational or functional, rather than emotional and is different from reminder buying in that a customer has no previous knowledge of the product to assist in decision-making (Stern, 1962). For instance, a salesperson introduces a newly launched cream blusher and the steps for applying it to a customer, who decides to buy it because it is easier, smoother and lasts longer than the powder blusher that she is already using.

Finally, **planned impulse buying** happens when a customer enters a store with a certain pre-shopping intention that depends on other factors, such as sales promotions (Stern, 1962). For example, a customer makes a drugstore visit to buy a bottle of

21

shampoo, but she sees that the eyeliner she uses everyday is on sale on her way to the cashier counter. Even though she is not running out of it, she still decides to buy two of them to stock up to take advantage of the sales promotion.

It is obvious that impulse buying behavior occurs on various occasions – from purely emotionally aroused purchasing to rather rational impulse purchasing when taking advantage of sales promotion – once customers enter the arousing selling environment. Hence, it is interesting to identify the factors that encourage these pervasive buying behaviors, which is described in the following section.

2.1.3 Antecedents of Impulse Buying

Previous studies suggested that impulse buying is stimulus driven (Rook and Fisher, 1995), where heightened exposure to certain stimuli increases the tendency for impulse buying behavior (Iyer, 1989). Retailers and marketers thus utilize certain stimuli to encourage impulse buying (Dawson and Kim, 2010). According to the literature, numerous factors assumed to have an impact on impulse buying have been illustrated.

Stern (1962) identified nine major factors believed to facilitate the ease of making a purchase, including low price, a marginal need for the item, mass distribution, self-service, mass advertising, prominent store display, short product life, small size or light weight, and ease of storage while other researchers also pinpointed other meaningful factors, including product placement, effective price strategy (Ahmad, 2011), sales promotion (Applebaum, 1951), store environment (Kotler, 1973), salesmanship (Duarte et al., 2013; Lehtonen and Maenpenaa, 1997; Stern, 1962), social environment (Mattila and Wirtz, 2008), brand (Tinne, 2011), time pressure (Sehrawet and Kundu, 2007), money availability (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998), a consumer's emotional state (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982; Rook and Gardner, 1993; Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn and Nesdale, 1994; Rook and Fisher, 1995), impulse buying tendency trait (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Puri, 1996; Weun et al., 1998), normative evaluation of the appropriateness of engaging in impulse buying (Rook and Fisher, 1995), self-identity (Dittmar et al., 1995), demographic factors, such as age

22

(Bellenger et al., 1978; Wood, 1998; Lee and Kacen, 2008), gender (Lee and Kacen, 2008), income (Wood, 1998) and various other factors.

Furthermore, some researchers claimed that certain products are more likely to be purchased on impulse than others (Bellenger et al., 1978; Dittmar et al., 1995) and suggested some product-related factors such as product aesthetics (Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001), and packaging (Dempsey, 1959) while others believe that not only different customers purchasing the same item are influenced by different factors, but also that the same customer purchasing the same item can be influenced by different factors under different buying situations (Stern, 1962). Therefore, besides product related factors (Jones, Reynolds, Weun and Beatty, 2003), the latter group assumes that personal (Weun et al., 1998), situational (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Tinne, 2011; Shapiro, 1992), economic (Stern, 1962; Mihić and Kusan, 2010), cultural (Stern, 1962) and demographic (Yang et al., 2011) factors are also significant.

Since influential variables are scattered, many previous researches have implied that impulse buying is the interplay of two key factors: external and internal factors (Wansink, 1994; Youn and Faber, 2000; Činjarević, 2010). External factors, also referred as 'marketing stimuli', are the environmental and sensory stimuli that are initiated, conducted and controlled by marketers attempting not only to lure new customers, but also to promote upgraded selling to existing customers through an engagement in an impulse purchase (Youn and Faber, 2000; Dawson and Kim, 2009; Dawson and Kim, 2010; Činjarević, 2010; Maymand and Ahmadinejad, 2011). On the other hand, internal factors are the customers' characteristics that reflect their internal cues and make them engage in impulse purchasing (Dawson and Kim, 2009; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013), such as the degree of impulse-buying tendency, emotional states, and normative evaluation towards impulse buying (Kacen and Lee, 2002).

Similarly, Chen (2001) identified four factors influencing impulse buying, which are (1) external stimuli, including displays, advertising, promotion and store atmosphere, (2) internal stimuli, including a customer's personality traits, emotion, money and time pressure, and lifestyle, 3) buying behavior, including payment method and the

23

time of payment, and 4) demographic variables, including age, gender, marital status, education, social status, and household income.

Furthermore, Meng and Xu (2012) also divided the antecedents into three main groups, which are (1) personal factors, including a consumer's perception towards the appropriateness of engaging in impulse buying (Rook and Fisher, 1995), past experience (Dittmar et al., 1996), self-image definition and the state of mind when a buying opportunity arises (Elliot, 1994), (2) product factors, including price, involvement, seasonality, ease of storage and size, and (3) situational factors, including store environment, display, the purchase occasion, and the task environment.

Muruganantham and Bhakat (2013) compiled the influencing factors from previous studies and classified them into four broad categories, which are external stimuli, internal stimuli, situational and product-related factors and demographics and socio-cultural factors (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Four Categories of Influencing Factors on Impulse Buying

External Stimuli	**Internal Stimuli**
• Store Characteristics • Sales Promotions • Employee Attendants • Presence of Peers and Family • Perceived Crowding • Sensory Stimulation • Shopping Channel • Self-Service Technology • Retail Merchanding	• Impulsiveness • Enjoyment • Hedonism • Fashion • Normative Evaluation • Variety Seeking • Self Identity • Product Involvement
Situational Product Related Factors	**Demographics and Socio-Cultural Factors**
• Time Available • Money Available • Product Characteristics • Fashion Products • New Products	• Gender • Age • Income • Education • Socioeconomic • Culture

Source: Muruganantham, G. and Bhakat, R. S. (2013). A review of impulse buying behavior. *International Journal of Marketing Strategies,* 5(3), 149-160.

2.1.4 Antecedents of Impulse Buying in This Study

One of the main objectives of this study is to examine the in-store marketing stimuli influencing the impulse buying behavior for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores. Due to the numerous aforementioned influencing factors on impulse buying, it is rather difficult to study the exhaustive antecedents suggested by previous studies. Therefore, this study will include only in-store marketing stimuli that are available in mass color cosmetics self-selection stores with the following supporting reasons.

Firstly, approximately two-thirds of purchase decisions are made in the retailing environment (Solomon, 2001), and around seventy percent of unplanned purchases are aroused by in-store stimuli (Duarte et al., 2013). Since several buying decisions are made at the point-of-purchase (Cobb and Hoyer, 1986), it implies the need to comprehend impulse buying in the buying environment (Tinne, 2010) because customers are aroused to exhibit impulse buying once they enter the store (Applebaum, 1951).

Secondly, increased exposure to in-store stimuli increases the possibility of recognizing product needs and purchasing on impulse (Duarte *et al.,* 2013). Moreover, impulsive buyers give more thought to in-store displays and offerings (Hulien and Vanyushyn, 2011) as they count on the buying environment for heuristic cues to facilitate them in making purchase decisions (Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998; Chen-Yu and Seock, 2002). Hence, the buying environment has an impact on the customers' current and future store behavior (Hulien, 2012).

Thirdly, since these in-store marketing stimuli are under the authority of retailers and marketers, they can control the customer's perception towards these factors (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). That is, if the retailing circumstance is arranged in the right way, a favorable response by customers, such as a purchase decision, is more likely to occur (Hill, 2009). Therefore, it is interesting to investigate the relative importance of these factors, and the findings are subsequently useful for marketers and retailers in framing suitable retailing strategy to lure potential consumers into the store and to make a purchase (Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

25

Lastly, according to DeSarbo and Edwards (1996) and Kim (2014), impulsive buying is evidently motivated by external factors, while compulsive buying is mostly motivated by internal factors (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Kim, 2014). However, certain previous studies have used the terms interchangeably (Brici et al., 2013). Therefore, to clearly differentiate impulse buying from compulsive buying, only external stimuli are addressed in this study.

Therefore, only the in-store marketing stimuli expected to have an impact on mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores are addressed in this study, and are listed as follows:

Brand Reputation

Brand reputation can be referred to as the perception of the product quality attached to the brand name (Selnes, 1993). From a promotional perspective, selecting a brand name is crucial because it conveys a product's meaning and characteristics as well as its position in a consumer's mind (Belch and Belch, 2007). Especially in the current competitive and dynamic market conditions where product quality is becoming more homogenous and consumers have less time to make a choice, reputed or well-known brands certainly possess a huge competitive advantage (Court, French and Knudsen, 2006; Belch and Belch, 2007). That is, brand name, which is an extrinsic cue that indicates the product attributes, facilitates the product choice decision when intrinsic cues, which are the product's physical characteristics, are difficult to be evaluated (Selnes, 1993). Therefore, a brand implies a perception of the product's overall quality that is not necessarily based on knowledge of the specific qualifications of the product. Besides implying product quality, a brand also assures risk minimization when a customer is exposed to a situation in which similar product alternatives are available (Hill, 2009). Therefore, the importance of a brand being included in a consumer's evoked set has long been the ultimate consideration of a marketer because it is one of the key indicators of the brand's success (Keiningham, Cooil, Aksoy, Andreassen and Weiner, 2007).

Due to the objective of branding in differentiating a company's product from those of its competitors (O'Cass and Lim, 2002; Jevons, 2005), the degree of brand preference

26

relative to competitive alternatives shapes consumer behavior (Rousseau, 2008), satisfaction, and loyalty (Rundle-Thiele and Mackay, 2001; Keiningham, Aksoy, Perkins-Munn, Vavra, 2005). Therefore, brand is inevitably one of the most compelling and valuable marketing factors (Gbadamosi, 2009) where different values are offered to customers, which can be satisfied by the consumption of the brand's product (Dibley and Baker, 2001; Duarte et al., 2013). The need to satisfy these values can encourage customers to purchase a product on impulse (Duarte et al., 2013). Furthermore, according to several studies (Tinne, 2010; Duarte et al., 2013), a successful brand strategy in developing brand reputation could maximize brand recall on the product shelves, and subsequently trigger impulsive buying behavior.

Currently, the mass branded cosmetics market in Thailand has high growth potential so that even luxury cosmetics companies have started to launch mass cosmetics brands into the market (Reungsinpinya, 2011). Moreover, Sae-Jiu (2007) revealed that Thai cosmetics consumers are brand conscious, and rather prefer international brands to domestic brands because they perceive that the international branded cosmetics products are superior in terms of quality, durability, attractiveness, and fashionableness. Therefore, the brand, especially well-reputed and regularly-used brands (Reungsinpinya, 2011), is one of the most significant and influential factors for Thai consumers in making a color cosmetics purchase decision (Phoosangthong and Sermsiriwiwat, 2006).

Price Promotion

Sales promotions are marketing tools implemented to motivate a consumer to act positively towards the products offered by the marketers (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990; Berman and Evans, 1995; d'Astous and Landreville, 2003; Peattie and Peattie, 2003; Brassington and Pettit, 2006). These tools can be divided into monetary (price-based) and non-monetary (non-price-based) sales promotions; the former provides customers with immediate rewards, such as special discount, price reduction or coupons while the latter are used to maintain the relationship with them, such as free promotional gifts and loyalty programs (Kwok and Uncles, 2005). According to Liao et al. (2009), the instant-reward promotion has a greater impact on impulse buying than delayed-

27

reward promotion. This study thus focuses on promotional stimuli that generate immediate action, such as price promotion.

Among various marketing stimuli, price is probably the most compelling factor arousing impulse buying behavior (Stern, 1962; Parboteeah, 2005). An in-store promotion related to price discount arouses product trial by customers (Brandweek, 1994) because it reduces the perceived risk of trying new or less familiar items (Ndubisi, 2005). Moreover, it triggers impulse purchase (Piron, 1991; Dholakia, 2000) because it is also related to the value of saving money as a customer will feel that they spend less than they originally planned, which is a logical economic decision (Stern, 1962; Kim, 2014). Therefore, the mental barrier against impulse purchase will be lowered by a lower-price stimulus (Hultén and Vanyushyn, 2011), which subsequently convinces them to spend more than they had actually planned before entering the store (Sirhindi, 2010). Obviously, a customer tends to be more impulsive when products are cheap or on sale (Stern, 1962; Maymand and Ahmadinejad, 2011).

Regarding previous studies (Abratt and Goodey, 1990; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Liao et al., 2009), approximately seventy percent of unplanned purchases are the result of promotional tools, such as sales promotions, point of purchase (POP) advertising, and product displays, etc. In addition, according to a survey conducted by Synquera (MarketingCharts, 2013), among 1,108 respondents, 86 percent regularly purchased promotional products, 62 percent usually made an unplanned purchase, 50 percent defined themselves as impulsive buyers; and among self-defined impulsive buyers, 89 percent were influenced by discounts.

Even though Thai cosmetics consumers are willing to invest in cosmetics products to enhance their appearance (Euromonitor, 2014a), they still prefer products at a reasonable price (Johri and Sahasakmontri, 1998). Therefore, in-store promotions, such as price related promotions, have been widely utilized by mass cosmetics brands (Reungsinpinya, 2011).

Even though previous researches revealed that the higher the level of discount, the more attractive the deal is, and the higher the level of purchase intention and perceived value (Inman et al., 1997; Alford and Biswas, 2002); an inverted U-shaped

28

of consumer reaction to price discounts should also be considered (Grewal et al., 1996). That is, a customer will perceive an increase in monetary value when a price discount moves from a low to moderate level, but they will perceive product uncertainty when the price discount is high (Kim, 2014). In addition, a study conducted by Ehrenberg et al. (1994) revealed that the promotional brand's short-term peak in sales was mainly a result of purchases made by occasional users who took advantage of the price reduction and would rather return to their favorite brand after the promotion activity is over. Therefore, a marketer is required to be more conscious of their promotional strategies.

Acceptance of a Credit Card

Availability of money is one of the most significant facilitators of impulse buying (Mai et al., 2003) because it enhances the customers' purchasing power (Tinne, 2011). With the growth of marketing innovations like credit cards and ATM, impulse buying has become a prevalent consumer behavior in the retail environment (Rook, 1987; Dittmar and Drury, 2000).

Specifically, the use of credit cards eliminates the instantaneous need for money to buy something, and subsequently encourages customers to overspend (Schor, 1998). That is, credit cards are perceived to be a more convenient and less painful method to spend money (Karbasivar and Yarahmadi, 2011) because customers do not actually feel like they are spending money (Dittmar and Drury, 2000). Even many big cosmetics companies, such as Kose, frequently apply promotional strategies in co-promotions with certain credit card companies to motivate consumers to make more frequent purchases (Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

Compared to cash, a credit card encourages greater imprudence (Karbasivar and Yarahmadi, 2011). Previous studies suggested that heavy credit card users are less price-conscious (Tokunga, 1993), and more related to higher priced items (Deshpande and Krishnan, 1980). In addition, it is generally the case that numerous retailers increase temptation and impulse buying by accepting credit cards or having co-promotions with credit card companies (Coley and Burgess, 2003; Muruganantham

29

and Bhakat, 2013). Therefore, it is justifiable to claim that the acceptance of credit card is closely associated with impulse buying (Robert and Jones, 2001).

Variety of Products

An increasing number of consumers make purchases without a plan in advance (Stern, 1962) because shopping is much simpler now as products are promptly available in the store, allowing customers to postpone their buying decision until they are in the shopping environment and the shopping plan has become less vital (Stern, 1962; Bowlbey, 1997; Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998). That is, mass merchandise or the great variety of products provides customers a favorable environment for impulse buying (Stern, 1962; Dawson and Kim, 2010). For instance, the introduction of scrambled merchandising allows customers to purchase products on impulse because they do not have to anticipate product availability (Stern, 1962).

Specifically, stores like supermarkets, hypermarkets, drugstores, and convenience stores, where a large number of multi-brand color cosmetics are available (Jarurungsipong and Rakthum, 2012), or stand-alone stores where a wide selection of a single brand is available (Reungsinpinya, 2011) are likely to encourage impulse buying behavior as the product is readily available whenever they choose to purchase that particular item (Hodge, 2004; Sirhindi, 2010).

Prominent Display

The product display is one of the crucial marketing elements attracting customers' attention to certain products (Zhuang et al., 2006). Hultén & Vanyushyn (2011) observed that impulsive customers pay more attention to product displays, and the growth of innovative product displays in the context of airports has accustomed customers to purchase on impulse. The exposure to in-store displays increases the likelihood of recalling the need for a product (Duarte et al., 2013), which subsequently increases a customer's tendency to purchase that particular item on impulse (Rook, 1987; Jones et al., 2003; Huhen, 2012).

30

Since a prominent or eye-catching display makes a consumer notice a product (Desmet and Renaudin, 1998), and enhances the likelihood of impulse buying, retailers put substantial effort into eye-catching product displays to portray the brand personalities (Reungsinpinya, 2011), attract customer attention (Lee and Kacen, 2008) and create store traffic (Manzur, Olavarrieta, Campos and Farías, 2013).

However, there are numerous prominent displays of products that a customer is repeatedly exposed to in the current competitive market, so they may become immune to these prominences (Sirhindi, 2010). Therefore, a marketer is required to be more refined in their display strategy (Sirhindi, 2010).

Self-Service

Self-service can be defined as a part of a transaction that is undertaken by the customers themselves (Globerson and Maggard, 1991). That is, it can be referred to as the proportion of time that the transaction is performed by the customer, and it can range from a small proportion up to nearly 100 percent, but it can never be 100 because there are always some activities performed by a service provider (Globerson and Maggard, 1991).

Self-service is more likely to encourage a customer to engage in impulse buying than clerk-serviced counters because they do not have to rely on a sales person in their shopping experience (Sirhindi, 2010). With anonymity in a self-service shopping environment, customers are not rushed, delayed or restricted by a salesperson, but rather they have more freedom to browse through or try out products (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Lee, Podlaseck, Schonberg and Hoch, 2001). That is, a customer gains benefits in terms of convenience, pervasive availability, timesaving and less anxiety when dealing with a judgmental salesperson (Bitner, 2001; Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree and Bitner, 2000).

It is also interesting to note that shopping for color cosmetics in an environment that promotes the freedom to touch and try a product stimulates feelings of fun, sensory pleasure and enjoyment, and subsequently increases the tendency of a customer to purchase on impulse (Peck and Childers, 2006; Soars, 2009).

31

Store Environment

The store environment or atmosphere is defined as the physical and non-physical components of a store that are provided under the control of retailers in an attempt to enhance customers' in-store shopping experience (Eroglu and Machleit, 1990). The store environment-related variables have been found to produce an urge to engage in impulse buying behavior (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993; Mitchell, 1994; Donovan *et al.*, 1994). The store environment – representing heuristic cues (Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998; Chen-Yu and Seock, 2002) – has been confirmed to have an influence on how a customer perceives a store image (Chang, Yan and Eckman, 2014) and merchandise quality (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004), and may have an impact on the customer's purchasing decision process (Underhill, 1999). That is, a positive shopping environment can significantly encourage a customer to stay longer, spend more money, and consequently, engage in impulse buying behavior (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Sherman, Mathur and Smith, 1997; Foxall and Greenley, 2000).

Moreover, previous studies suggested that a highly arousing and stimulating, or exciting, store environment lessens customers' self-regulation and the ability to think through their buying behavior, which could further increase their opportunities to engage in impulse buying (Baumeister, 2002; Mattila and Wirtz, 2008).

Regarding the self-selection store environment, products are displayed, and freely tried and selected by customers (Siamturakij, 2015), and salespersons or beauty advisors are available as needed (Reungsinpinya, 2011). According to the study of Johri and Sahasakmontri (1998), the store environment plays a crucial role in cosmetics purchases in a Thai context because consumers prefer to spend their time browsing and trying cosmetics products in a relaxing atmosphere while being attended to by friendly sales staff.

The store environment is composed of three main components, namely, ambient, design and social factors (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). Ambient factors can be described as non-visual conditions such as lighting, scent and music (Baker, Grewal and Parasuraman, 1994; Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal and Voss, 2002). Design factors are the visual and physical components of the store including layout and assortment

32

(Baker et al., 1994; Baker et al., 2002). Lastly, social factors include a salesperson's attendance and effectiveness (Baker et al., 2002). As suggested by Mohan, Sivakumaran and Sharma (2013), the store environment is defined as a perception of the store in terms of the combination of music, lighting, layout, and employees.

Music – It is a non-verbal communication (Milliman, 1982; 1986) and a crucial ambient factor (Bitner, 1992) shaping a customer's psychological and behavioral reaction in the retail environment (Milliman, 1982; 1986; Yalch and Spangenberg, 1990). That is, pleasant music creates a positive emotional state by increasing a customer's pleasure level and satisfaction with the shopping experience (Morrison, Gan, Dubelaar and Oppewal, 2011), and consequently makes customers spend extra time and money in the store (Milliman, 1982; 1986), where some of the extra money spent can be unplanned and impulsive (Turley and Milliman, 2000; Mattila and Wirtz, 2001). Therefore, music is considered a significant stimulus that triggers an urge to purchase on impulse (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993).

Lighting – It has a positive arousing influence (Sherman et al., 1997). A well-designed lighting system creates an interior dimension and directs a customer to the essential sales points, and subsequently creates an exciting atmosphere and a positive impact (Smith, 1989). That is, a store with appropriate lighting will generate the right ambience, enhance the customers' experience in the store, and, consequently, create a desire to purchase a product on impulse (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993; Mohan et al., 2013).

Layout – It can be defined as the way products and aisles are arranged (Mohan et al., 2013). It is another crucial component of a store atmosphere because it helps a store to present its products in an effective manner (Aghazadeh, 2005). A positive customer affect can be created and elevated by an appropriate layout that facilitates a customer to find a product easily and quickly (Bitner, 1992; Spies, Hesse and Loesch, 1997) and reduces the information rate (Spies et al., 1997) by assisting a customer in terms of information access and decision-making (Mohan et al., 2013). Consequently, it produces an enjoyable shopping experience by reducing perceived stress (Baker et al., 2002) and arousing positive feelings (Yoo, Park and MacInnis, 1998). Even utilitarian

33

customers are encouraged to buy additional items where there is a good layout (Sherman et al., 1997).

Salesperson – Even though self-service is more likely to encourage impulse buying than salesperson-service (Sirhindi, 2010), the role of salespersons in the context of color cosmetics products is crucial. That is, the social interaction between customers and salespersons is one of the most essential factors in the store environment and is found to have a direct impact on impulse buying (Mattila and Wirtz, 2008; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013). The perception towards a salesperson has an impact on a customer's attitude towards a product and service quality (Hu and Jasper, 2006); and a customer is reassured by salespersons perceived to be trustworthy (Chang et al., 2014b). In addition, salespersons assist customers to explore the store and the product, create an emotional attraction to a desired product, encourage the purchase of more products, and subsequently persuade them to purchase on impulse (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991; Park and Lennon, 2006; Mohan et al., 2013).

2.1.5 Theories Related to Impulse Buying

Impulse Buying Process

Regarding the Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell (E-K-B) model proposed by Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1982) and the buyer decision process presented by Churchill and Peter (1995), the consumer decision making process can be divided into five main stages, which are (1) problem awareness or need recognition, (2) information search, (3) alternative evaluation, (4) purchase, and (5) outcome or post-purchase evaluation, as shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Buyer Decision Process
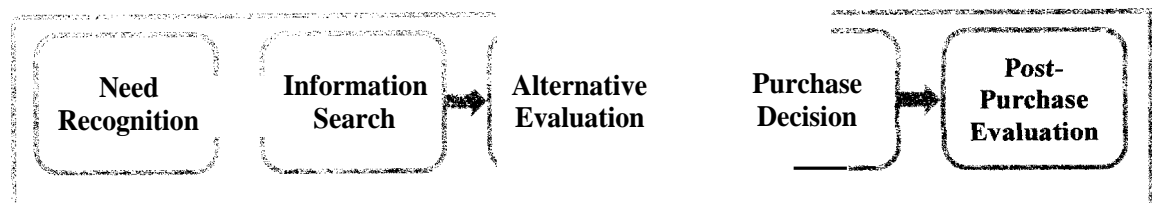
Source:
Engel, J. F., Kollat, D. T. and Blackwell, R. D. (1982) *Consumer behavior* New York: Rinehart and Winston. 4th edition
Churchill, A. G. and Peter, J. P. (1995) *Marketing: Creating value for customers.* Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin.

34

However, this particular model cannot fully describe the decision-making process in the context of impulse buying. Unlike the planned buying process shown above, Kim (2003) proposed an impulse buying process model and suggested that impulse buying begins when customers browse through products without an intention to purchase a specific item. While browsing, they are aroused by various internal and external stimuli, which motivate and urge them to make an impulsive purchase decision. When they have a desire to buy, they are expected to make a purchase in accordance with their impulsivity without a proper information search or alternative evaluations. Hence, customers may experience positive or negative consequences in their post-purchase evaluation stage, as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Impulse Buying Process

Source: Kim, J. (2003): "College students' apparel Impulse buying behaviors in relation to visual merchandising", Thesis, University of Georgia.
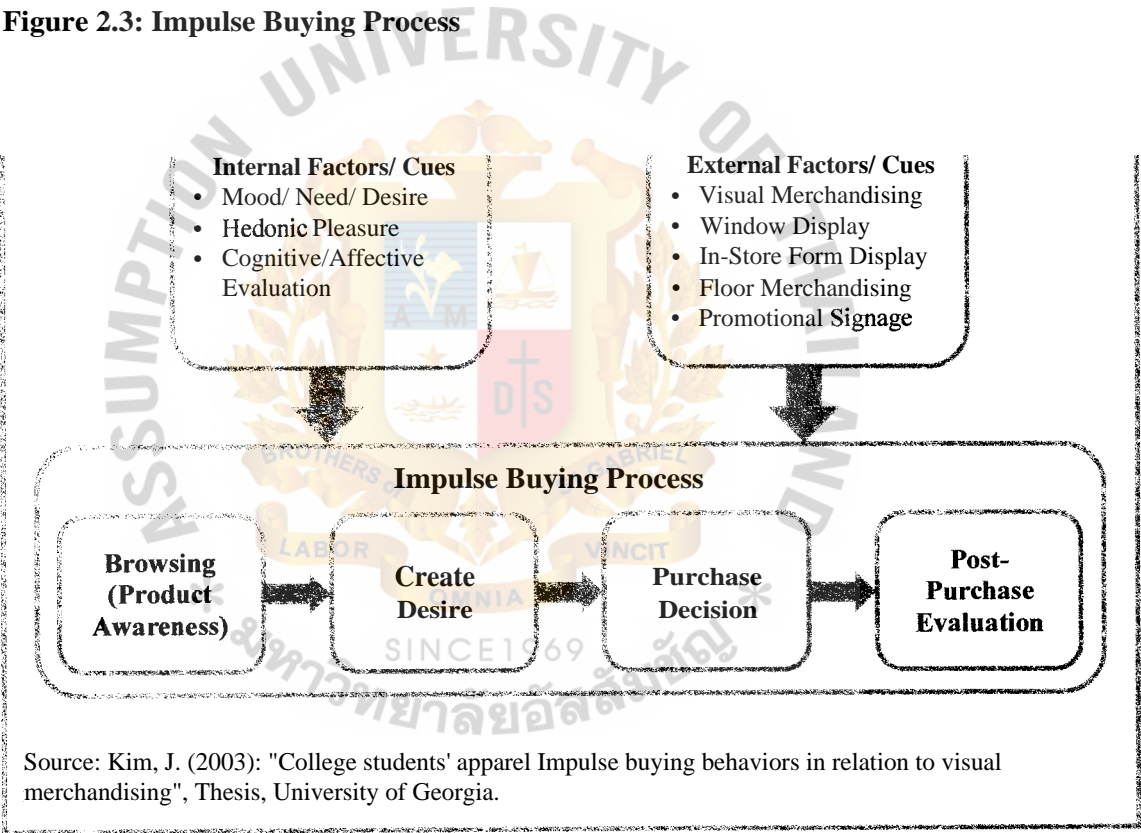
Nevertheless, it is crucial to note that the above model may not fully reflect the actual impulse purchase. That is, it might only reflect some types of impulse buying behavior. Specifically, while a pure and suggestion impulse buying process begins when a customer is exposed to a product while browsing without any pre-shopping intention for a specific item, product information, or alternative evaluation (Stern,

35

1962; Tinne, 2010), reminder and planned impulse buying can take place after the information recall/ search and the alternative evaluation, but is undertaken based on lower standards than a planned buying decision (Stern, 1962; Hirschman, 1992; Kang, 2013).

Therefore, in comparison to non-impulsive buying, impulse buying occurs with less cognitive effort and is undertaken over a shorter time span than a general planned buying process because it goes through a more simplified buying decision-making process (Rook, 1987; Dholakia, 2000; Hausman, 2000).

Self-Control

Self-control can be described as one's capacity to change one's own state or response; that is, it supersedes one's response and replaces it with another, including controlling impulses, by resisting temptation and changing or persisting with certain actions (Baumeister, 2002). The strength or effectiveness of self-control varies with three crucial components, which are standards, the monitoring process and the capacity for behavioral change, as follows (Baumeister, 2002).

Standards can be described as goals, norms, or guidelines that define a consumer's response. If consumers know exactly what they want to achieve, they will be less likely to engage in impulse buying or be less influenced by marketing stimuli to purchase on impulse. On the other hand, those who go to a department store without a certain purchasing goal would probably end up purchasing on impulse.

Monitoring can be defined as keeping track of related behavior. When one loses track of their behavior, they will likely lose their self-control. Therefore, when a customer carefully monitors their expenses or money, they are less likely to be aroused by stimuli, and less likely to purchase on impulse.

Capacity to change is the capability to change the self, and is negatively related to the ego-depletion of a consumer. Ego-depleted consumers are unable to control themselves towards the long-term goal of saving money, and are more likely

to be aroused by temptation and, consequently, are more likely to engage in impulsive purchases.

Previous studies revealed a close association between the failure of self-control and impulse buying (Baumeister, 2002; Strayhorn, 2002; Vohs and Faber, 2007). One of the main elements to differentiate impulsive buyers from non-impulsive ones is the temporary loss of self-control (Rook and Hoch, 1985). When consumers have more self-control, they are less likely to make a purchase on impulse. On the other hand, when they lack self-control, their purchase is likely to result from impulsivity (Dittmar et al., 1995).

According to the study of Mattila and Wirtz (2008), over-stimulation in a store environment, such as a high level of excitement, can encourage a loss of self-control for a customer because it reduces their ability to reflect on their actions. In addition, a customer is more likely to overspend or lose self-control when buying on impulse than when buying with a shopping list (Hultén and Vanyushyn, 2011).It is frequently proven to be irresistible (Rook, 1987), and a consumer sometimes experiences losing control of their buying behavior, which results in excessive purchasing (Thompson, Locander and Pollio, 1990). Even consumers who perceive impulse buying to be inappropriate may report that they fail to control their impulse tendency and behavior (Hausman, 2000).

Stimulus – Response Model

Based on the stimulus-response model, a stimulus is a factor that stimulates a customer's behavior, while response is the outcome of a customer's interest (Chang et al., 2014b). If the buying environment is arranged with the right set of circumstances, it is likely that a marketer or a retailer will induce a customer to react in the desired way (Hill, 2009).

Exposure to stimulus was introduced to the context of impulse buying by Applebaum in 1951, and is referred to as an unplanned purchase resulting from a stimulus, namely a sales promotion, in the retail environment. A highly stimulating, exciting or pleasant retail environment is likely to promote impulse buying behavior (Hoyer and

37

MacInnis, 1999). In an extreme case of pure impulse purchase, impulsive behavior is almost exclusively stimulus driven (Rook and Fisher, 1995) because the urge is powerful and persistent (Rook, 1987).

In the study of the environmental characteristics of apparel stores by Chang et al. (2014b), stimulus refers to the store's environmental characteristics, which are comprised of ambient, design and social characteristics, while a consumer's impulse buying behavior is counted as a behavioral response. Consistent with this idea, in the context of color cosmetics products available in self-selection channels in this study, stimulus refers to the in-store marketing stimuli, serving as an information instrument facilitating customers to recall their forgotten needs or to get an idea of what they want to buy after browsing in the store. Hence, impulse buying is the response resulting from being exposed to the in-store marketing stimuli that encourage them to make an impulse purchase once they have entered the store (Maymand and Ahmadinejad, 2011).

2.1.6 Critical Analysis of the Theories Related to Impulse Buying

The impulse buying concept has been misconceived to be simple but is actually complicated and incompatible with rational behavior concepts (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Verplanken et al., 2005; Silverra et al., 2008; Harmancioglu et al., 2009). Due to its important influence on consumer behavior and its large contribution to company profits, impulse buying has received substantial interest from several marketing academicians over the last sixty years (Clover, 1950; Stern, 1962; Bellenger et al., 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Rook, 1987; Piron, 1991; Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Parboteeah, 2005; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

Due to its characteristics of being unplanned and highly driven by external and internal stimuli (Piron, 1991), many studies suggest it as a result of low or lack of self-control and cognitive assessment (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982; Rook and Hoch, 1985). Nevertheless, not all types of impulse buying are irrational purchasing behavior. Even though pure impulse buying is an escape purchase to satisfy a sudden gratification, other types of impulse buying can be produced from logical purchase decisions. For instance, suggestion impulse buying can be performed based on

product utility, planned impulse buying can be performed in order to take advantage of sales promotion, and reminder impulse buying can be performed based on known satisfactory product attributes (Stern, 1961).

Regarding the difficulty of measuring actual impulse buying behavior, many studies have measured the "urge to buy impulsively" or "impulse buying tendency" to explain and represent actual impulse buying behavior (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Wells, Parboteeah and Valacich, 2011; Kim, 2003), rather than actually measuring "impulse buying behavior". Hence, the results might not precisely illustrate actual impulse buying behavior.

Furthermore, instead of investigating the entire impulse buying process, many studies (such as Beatty and Ferrell 1998; Kacen and Lee, 2002; Mattila and Wirtz, 2008; Harmancioglu et al., 2009) focused on its antecedents, while only a few (such as Zhang and Wang, 2010, George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010) focused on the consequences. Hence, previous studies might not be able to provide a holistic view of the impulse buying process. In addition, the antecedents suggested by previous studies were exhaustive and scattered. Hence, this study includes only in-store marketing stimuli that are available in mass color cosmetics self-selection stores because more than seventy percent of cosmetics purchases are a consequence of unplanned purchase (Kang, 2013). Therefore, it can be implied that color cosmetics products are likely be purchased through impulsive buying behavior. For more details on the summary of articles related to impulse buying, see Table 1 in Appendix I.

2.2 Cognitive Dissonance

Since an impulse purchase results from an unplanned or sudden purchase decision without proper consideration, it conflicts with customers' best personal judgment and may cause cognitive dissonance (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991). Previous studies have consistently suggested a significantly higher level of cognitive dissonance resulting from impulse buying when compared with planned purchasing (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010). Nevertheless, some studies argued that customers are satisfied after they purchase on impulse (Chen, 2002). Therefore, the relationships between

impulse buying, cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction are still vague, and need further investigation.

2.2.1 Definitions of Cognitive Dissonance

According to the seminal definition of Festinger (1957), cognitive dissonance can be referred to as the psychological discomfort resulting from the conflict between what a person believes and information that calls it into question (Festinger, 1957). It regularly occurs in certain decision-making, for example, after selecting one alternative where a consumer is concerned about the attractiveness of the rejected alternatives (Festinger, 1957), or after making a purchase decision where the decision is significant (Ivy, Hill and Stevens, 1978).

Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000) further classified cognitive dissonance into three main dimensions, which are emotional, wisdom of purchase and concern overdeal. The definition of each dimension is illustrated in the table below (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Dimensions and Definitions of Cognitive Dissonance

Dimensions	Definitions
Emotional	An individual's psychological discomfort resulting from the purchase decision
Wisdom of purchase	An individual's recognition that they might not have chosen the appropriate alternative after the purchase has been made
Concern over deal	An individual's recognition after the purchase has been made that they may have been influenced against their own beliefs by a salesperson

Source: Sweeney, J. C., Hausknecht, D. and Soutar, G. N. (2000). Cognitive dissonance after purchase: A multidimensional scale. *Psychology & Marketing,* 17(5), 369-385.

While most studies refer to it as a phenomenon arising in the post-purchase stage where a customer encounters mental discomfort from the product's real performance (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard and Hogg, 2006; Lake, 2009; Telci, Maden and Kanthur, 2011; Lancaster and Massingham, 2011), Oliver (1997) suggested it could actually occur at any stage in the consumer consumption process. Whenever a consumer makes a decision, they regularly experience some degree of cognitive dissonance (Chen, 2011). However, consumers have different degrees of dissonance and not all purchases will lead to cognitive dissonance (Sweeney et al., 2000).

40

Several previous studies indicated that cognitive dissonance can be aroused as a consequence of impulse buying behavior (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010; Imam, 2013). That is, since impulse buying is the behavior of an unplanned or spontaneous purchase decision (Rook and Fisher, 1995), an uninformed purchase decision, which characterizes impulse buying, is more likely to generate cognitive dissonance in the post-purchase or post-consumption stage (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010).

In addition, certain previous researches also suggested that cognitive dissonance frequently occurs in the purchase decisions of high-involvement products, namely a shopping product or a specialty product (Kaish, 1967; Oshikawa, 1969; Kotler, 2000; Solomon et al., 2006; Chen, 2011). However, Gbadamosi (2009) argued that cognitive dissonance can also occur in the purchase decisions for low-involvement products.

As mentioned previously, cognitive dissonance does not occur in every purchasing situation; it may exist in one purchasing situation, and not in another (Holloway, 1967). Consumers have different dissonance thresholds (Sweeney et al., 2000) and the magnitude of cognitive dissonance can vary (Oshikawa, 1969). In the post-decision process, a customer's cognitive dissonance can be aroused by various factors, most of which are relevant to the buying decision (Holloway, 1967). The following section will elaborate the antecedents of cognitive dissonance.

2.2.2 Antecedents of Cognitive Dissonance

Post-decision dissonance can be aroused by various factors, and Holloway (1967) suggested ten factors that could have an impact on dissonance, which are the desirability of rejected alternative(s), the unfavorable attributes of the chosen alternative, the number of alternatives, cognitive overlap, the significance of cognitions involved, positive inducement, conflicting or negative action, information availability, expected dissonance, and familiarity and knowledge.

Furthermore, Ivy et al. (1978) also indicated four main antecedents of dissonance, which are (1) the similarity of alternatives – the grater the similarity between alternatives, the higher the magnitude of dissonance, (2) the significance of the

41

decision – the more significant the decision, the greater the amount of dissonance generated after the decision, (3) the quantity and quality of information about each alternative prior to the decision – the greater the amount of available information and the more usable the information is, the lower the magnitude of dissonance, and (4) the degree of the alternatives' functional overlap – the higher the degree of functional overlap, the lower the magnitude of dissonance.

According to Ivy et al. (1978), the factors that determine cognitive dissonance are related to three main attributes, which are product alternatives, product information, and the significance of the decision. Moreover, as suggested by Festinger (1958), the importance of the decision and the attractiveness of the forgone alternatives have an impact on the magnitude of cognitive dissonance. Mao and Oppewal (2010) also indicated that customers are inevitably influenced by the information they are exposed to after the purchase decision. Therefore, in this study, three factors that are expected to have an influence on cognitive dissonance are:

1. Post-purchase information
2. Purchase involvement
3. Attractive alternatives

Post-Purchase Information

According to the study of Mao and Oppewal (2010), post-purchase information can be referred to as either the choice-confirmatory or inconsistent information that a customer is exposed to in the post-purchase stage. Festinger (1957) assumed that a customer would rather read promotional information in the post-consumption stage than in the pre-consumption stage in order to justify their purchase decision and change the inconsistent information by focusing only on the positive aspects of the product purchased.

The above premise is widely supported by various subsequent studies which claimed that a dissonant customer might search for an advertisement or information that positively confirms their purchase decision (Engel, 1963), that is, they are engaged in the avoidance of dissonance-increasing information (Oshikawa, 1969). Therefore, the

42

provision of post-purchase reinforcing information will have an impact on dissonance reduction (Hunt, 1970).

According to Mao and Oppewal (2010), a customer may adopt a dissonance reduction strategy by being selectively exposed to reinforcing or confirmatory information about their chosen alternative and by avoiding any information that will activate their dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Engel, 1963; Donnelly and Ivancevich, 1970). For instance, the study of Donnelly and Ivancevich (1970) revealed that automobile purchasers exhibited a higher readership of car-related advertisements in order to reduce their dissonance. On the other hand, with the same logic, a customer who is exposed to or provided with choice-inconsistent information will experience psychological discomfort about their chosen alternative (Mao and Oppewal, 2010).

It is noteworthy that reinforcing messages may not play an equally strong role in reassuring a customer. That is, a post-purchase advertisement may significantly reinforce a customer who purchases an expensive specialty product and experiences strong dissonance when compared to those who purchase low-involvement or frequently purchased products where the dissonance is not significant (Oshikawa, 1969). Furthermore, Engel (1963) suggested that advertising might not play a significant role for a new purchaser or a prospective customer who is not dissonant (Engel, 1963).

Clearly, cognitive dissonance reduction can be achieved through the actions of marketers or other providers where a customer's more favorable attitude is a goal (Hunt, 1970). On the other hand, if a customer feels mental discomfort about their purchase and does not have information to rationalize their decision, it is likely that they might count on the fundamental attribution error and blame the company (Robbins and Judge, 2009; Sharifi and Esfidani, 2014).

Various cognitive dissonance reduction techniques have been implemented by marketers, including increasing confirmative post-purchase communication (Chen, 2011). In addition, the predictability of cognitive dissonance helps a marketer to prevent and, consequently, reduce it. Therefore, an understanding of the mechanism of cognitive dissonance and its reduction will certainly assist a marketer in preventing

43

and/or reducing post-purchase dissatisfaction among their customers to some extent (Sharifi and Esfidani, 2014).

Based on the aforementioned paragraphs, it is clear that dissonance theory has shed light on the influential role of advertising on repurchase intention (Oshikawa, 1969). That is, a post-purchase advertising message that reassures a customer by emphasizing how the desirable attributes of the purchased product will play an essential role in reducing dissonance, and subsequently in creating satisfaction and repurchase intention for customers (Engel, 1963; Oshikawa, 1969; Hunt, 1970). Therefore, it is crucial for a marketer to convey reassuring messages by highlighting the product's desirable features (Oshikawa, 1969).

On the other hand, Hunt's (1970) study indicated that customers who were exposed to post-purchase information experienced more cognitive dissonance, less favorable attitudes towards the store, and less repurchase intention. That is, these post-purchase information did not appear to be ineffective, but worsened the situation. Hunt (1970) also suggested that these customers might suspect an ulterior motive with such post-purchase information.

Purchase Involvement

Purchase involvement can be described as the relevance of the purchasing behavior to a consumer (Slama and Tashchian, 1985). The level of purchase involvement can be determined by the importance a customer attaches to the purchase and the intensity of interest an individual has in a product in a particular situation (Sharma, 2014). In general, high purchase involvement is associated with the purchase of unfamiliar, infrequently purchased or expensive products, or products that are visible to others or related to personal, social or economic risks (Sharma, 2014). On the other hand, low purchase involvement normally requires little search and decision effort and is almost automatically decided (Sharma, 2014). That is, a customer spends a lot of time seeking information when making a high purchase involvement decision while low purchase involvement is routine purchasing where a customer exercises little effort in their purchase decision-making (Sharma, 2014).

44

Regarding cognitive dissonance mechanisms, high involvement decisions are likely to shape consumer behavior (Bowen and Chaffee, 1974; Burnkrant, 1978; Krugman, 1965; Krugman, 1970; Ray, 1973; Wright, 1974). Several researchers (Festinger, 1957; Hunt, 1970; Ivy et al., 1978; Korgaonkar and Moschis, 1982) suggested that when the decision an individual makes is irreversible or involves a significant amount of time, money and/or psychological cost, or when the purchase decision is important or relevant, cognitive dissonance is likely to occur.

Wong (1996) also suggested that cognitive dissonance is likely to be presented when the decision is highly valued by a consumer; for instance, the purchase decision for a product that is central to their self-concept. Furthermore, Langner (1996) pointed out that when a consumer is personally involved with the decision, or when they anticipate critical results, generally negative results, from their decisions or actions, cognitive dissonance will likely exist. Therefore, the purchase decision of expensive specialty products (Oshikawa, 1969), durable goods (Hibbs, 2000), or products that have long-term consequences generally yields disconfirmation (Hibbs, 2000).

Ivy et al. (1978) pointed out that dissonance can also be aroused in decisions related to small amounts of money. Specifically, the "importance" here can be defined in terms of psychological importance, and the significance of the decision is considered by the perceived risk (Bauer, 1960). That is, an important decision here involves the anticipated presence or absence of radical consequences or certain personality patterns (Bauer, 1960). For instance, the price of color cosmetics products is obviously lower than other luxury items, such as a house or automobile, yet color cosmetics are significant for a consumer by facilitating the portrayal of their idealized selves (Beausoleil, 1994; Thompson and Haytko, 1997).

On the other hand, Dholakia (2001) claimed that a higher perception of risk encouraged customers to become highly involved with their purchase, which in turn led to a lower perception of risk in the post-purchase stage. This continued lower perception of risk in the post-purchase scenario indicated a lower degree of cognitive dissonance (Dholakia, 2001). In addition, George and Edward (2009) explained that the degree of cognitive dissonance experienced by highly involved customers was less than that experienced by low involved customers.

45

Therefore, it is justifiable to claim that the magnitude of post-purchase cognitive dissonance is a function of the importance or the involvement of the decision (Milliman and Decker, 1990).

Attractive Alternatives

Products available in the market are designed by marketers who basically incorporate a combination of product attributes, which are not exactly what consumers would want if they had an opportunity for customization (Kaish, 1967). Especially in the current competitive market, where numerous alternative brands are available to confuse consumers in their purchase decision (Shankar, Cherrier and Canniford, 2006; Simpson, Siguaw and Cadogan, 2008), customers will utilize the available limited resources to make the most appropriate decision in order to achieve the highest possible satisfaction (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2007; Saleh, 2012).

Consumers who voluntarily choose a product from alternatives and who are committed to their chosen one, will normally experience post-purchase dissonance when they encounter doubt as to whether they have made the right choice (Festinger, 1957) and they realize that they cannot enjoy the favorable aspects of the unselected products (Brehm, 1956). For instance, after purchasing an automobile, a customer who is aware of some significant advantages of the deselected alternatives will suffer from the psychological pain known as cognitive dissonance (Engel, 1963, Saleh, 2012).

Sheth (1970) revealed that the degree of cognitive dissonance is greater in a high-conflict situation where alternatives are equally attractive, than in a low-conflict situation where one alternative is far superior to the others (Festinger, 1957). Specifically, when alternatives are similarly attractive, rejecting alternatives would yield an internal conflict for a consumer and subsequently increase cognitive dissonance; on the other hand, if one alternative is far superior to the others, rejection would yield little conflict and cognitive dissonance would be less likely to be experienced (Liang, 2014).

When a customer is aware of an advantage of foregone alternatives, even when the chosen one performs well, they will inevitably feel dissonance, which will subsequently have a unfavorable impact on satisfaction (Inman, Dyer and Jia, 1997), and even the intention to switch (Bui, Krishen and Bates, 2011).

Therefore, after a consumer makes a purchase decision by choosing a product from various alternatives, the attractiveness of the foregone alternative determines the magnitude of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Mittelstaedt, 1969) because selecting one product means the rejection of other enticing alternatives (Liang, 2014).

2.2.3 Theories Related to Cognitive Dissonance

Regret Theory

There are two main features associated with post-purchase dissatisfaction: post-purchase dissonance and post-purchase regret. While cognitive dissonance reflects the pressure of the conflicting consumption that requires a change to reduce the dissonance (Festinger, 1957), regret can be an emotion that a consumer experiences when they realize that their present condition could have been better if the decision had been made differently (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2007). Specifically, regret has been identified as an outcome of cognitive dissonance (Bell, 1982; Loomes and Sugden, 1982). Wong (1996) further explained that dissonance theory posited regret as a cognitive element in the decision-making process, and is experienced if a consumer does not adopt a dissonance-reducing technique.

Regret theory has also been applied to explain consumers' decision-making and behavior (Keinan and Kivetz, 2008). Regret apparently plays a crucial role in shaping the buying decision-making process for future purchases (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2007). In addition, it has been found to have a negative direct impact on the consumer satisfaction level and repurchase intention, and a positive impact on brand switching intention (Inman et al., 1997; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2007; Keaveney, Huber and Herrmann, 2007).

47

Self-Affirmation Theory

Related affirmations are mechanisms implemented to assert an individual's self-worth (Steele, 1988) or self-concept (Aronson, 1968). According to Steele (1988), self-affirmation theory has been applied to support an individual's interpretation of self-concept in an occurrence of dissonance, which has been assumed to harm one's perception of competency (Steele, 1988).

Based on self-affirmation theory, the fundamental premise of dissonance reduction is to maintain a positive view of self-integrity (Spangeberg, Sprott, Grohmann and Smith, 2003). Therefore, the theory assumes that when an individual endures a cognitive discrepancy and strives to assert the value or a positive perception of the self, any cognitive or behavioral change resulting from discrepancies shall be disregarded (Moore, 2003).Previous experiments have also revealed and supported the existence of cognitive dissonance in the operation of the self-affirmation process (Steele, 1988; Aronson, Cohen and Nail, 1999).

2.2.4 Theories Related to Antecedents of Cognitive Dissonance

Affect-as-Information Theory

Affect-as-information theory posits that affective aspects can be practiced as informational functions (Wyer and Carlston, 1979). That is, it states that an individual makes a judgment based on their subjective experiences, such as moods, emotional state, metacognitive experiences and physical sensations (Schwartz, 2010). The theory proposes that an individual exhibits their feelings, or affective aspects, as a source of information (Schwartz, 2010), and likely incorporates those feelings into the subsequent process of attitude formation (Schwartz and Clore, 1983; Wyer, Clore and Isbell, 1999).

Therefore, based on affect-as-information theory, when a customer adopts dissonance-reducing techniques, namely being exposed to reinforcing (inconsistent) post-purchase information, the changes in affect will shift a customer towards satisfaction (dissatisfaction) (Mao and Oppewal, 2010).

48

Reinforcement Model

Ehrenberg's Reinforcement model (1974) indicated that advertising is a strong scheme of persuasion that is capable of changing a consumer's attitude by reinforcing an opinion based on what a consumer experiences with a product. That is, advertising can emotionally, rather than informatively, reinforce the feelings of satisfaction in the post-purchase or post-consumption stage (Heath and Feldwick, 2008).

The experimental findings of Braun (1999) also confirmed the reinforcing power of advertising in the post-purchase stage. In the study, subjects were provided with orange juice of various quality; the findings revealed that subjects who were exposed to advertising after consuming orange juice rated the product at a high level and could judge the product quality correctly. This led to the conclusion that exposure to advertising after product experience could change a consumer's memory in terms of both objective and affective elements of that experience (Braun, 1999).

Information Integration Theory

The Information Integration theory of Anderson (1971) was introduced to illustrate how an individual gathers different pieces of information, and the impact of each informational stimulus in the evaluation process. Specifically, this theory demonstrates the inconsistent information discounting process, by which the averaging model suggests that the early information is given more attention, is better remembered, and influences how later or inconsistent information is interpreted (Anderson, 1965; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

Furthermore, the Integrated Information Response Model (IIRM) indicates that trial-based information is perceived to produce a significant expected value (EV) and is an influential base for attitudinal development; on the other hand, the trustworthiness of advertising is discounted because it is perceived to be a vested-interest source (Smith, 1993). Smith and Swinyard (1983, 1988) further noted that the information's credibility depends on a consumer's strength of belief and confidence in a brand (Bennett and Harrell, 1975; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Marks and Kamins, 1988).

Generally, when the trial and advertising information are consistent, the trial information is more weighted as previously mentioned; nevertheless, the model is more complicated when the trial and advertising information is inconsistent (Smith, 1993). When a consumer is exposed to advertising before they experience a negative trial, the averaging model suggests that the advertising will be given more weight, and the later negative trial experience will be discounted while the IIRM suggests that the advertising may produce a discounting effect (Smith, 1993).

Cost-Benefit Trade-Off

Based on the concept of cost-benefit trade-off, a comparison of the costs and benefits of certain behaviors is undertaken (Verhallen and Van Raaij, 1986). Therefore, to achieve particular goals, an individual will generally go through the process of consideration by trading-off the pros and cons of various alternatives, each of which has its own set of positive and negative aspects (Verhallen and Van Raaij, 1986).

A certain alternative is selected when it possesses the most promising ratio of cost and benefit, and the purchase decision is made when the sum of all positive aspects outweighs the sum of all negative aspects (Verhallen and Van Raaij, 1986). Verhallen and Vanraaij (1986) also suggested that while a consumer will carefully consider the trade-off between the costs and benefits of an unfamiliar product; they will again make an overall cost-benefit evaluation on a repeated purchase.

2.2.5 Critical Analysis of the Theories Related to Cognitive Dissonance

The definition of cognitive dissonance in this study is based on the seminal definition of Festinger (1957) who defined it as an uncomfortable feeling or state when a consumer encounters conflicting cognitions between what a consumer believes and information that calls it into question during the purchase decision-making process. Therefore, the concept of cognitive dissonance is consistent in much research.

As previously mentioned, impulse buying behavior is a consequence of a purchase decision that lacks proper planning and consideration, and is rather influenced by various factors in an enticing selling environment (Piron, 1991). Furthermore, George

50

and Yaoyuneyong (2010) suggested a significantly higher level of cognitive dissonance results from impulse buying than from planned purchase. Therefore, in order to elaborate the role of cognitive dissonance in relation to impulse buying behavior, this study includes only the occurrence of cognitive dissonance after the color cosmetics products are purchased until they are evaluated after consumption, even though it may occur at any stage along the buyer's decision making process (Oliver, 1997).

In addition, post-decision cognitive dissonance can be aroused and diminished by various factors. Generally, the antecedents of cognitive dissonance suggested by previous studies are mostly associated with certain attributes, which are information, the significance or relevance of the decision and alternative products (Holloway, 1967; Ivy et al., 1978; Festinger, 1958; Mao and Oppewal, 2010). Therefore, this study expects post-purchase information, purchase involvement and attractive alternatives to be antecedents of cognitive dissonance. For more details on the summary of articles related to cognitive dissonance, see Table 2 in Appendix I.

2.3 Level of Satisfaction

In the current competitive and dynamic business environment, acquiring new customers is essential, but retaining existing ones is also crucial (Saleem, Ali and Ahmad, 2012) because it is five times cheaper (Peters, 1988). Customer satisfaction is thus a key prerequisite for a company to create a sustainable competitive advantage and long-term profitable relationships with their customers through repeated purchase, brand switching cost and recommendation (Shemwell et al., 1998; Sureshchandar et al., 2002). A company that realizes the significance of satisfaction level thus heavily invests in understanding and measuring customer satisfaction to secure their future profits and to sustain business viability (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004).

Under the context of impulse buying where the purchase is unplanned and less deliberative than a normal rational planned purchase, there is a greater likelihood of cognitive dissonance that further hinders a consumer from being satisfied (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Nevertheless, other studies

51

revealed customer satisfaction as a consequence of impulse buying (Chen, 2002). Therefore, these relationships are still inconsistent and need further investigation.

2.3.1 Definitions of Level of Satisfaction

The most widely accepted definition of satisfaction is by Oliver (1980) who referred to it as an affective reaction from an expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm, which involves a cognitive process. Hence, this definition introduces affective and cognitive components into the disconfirmation paradigm; where the cognitive component refers to the comparison of expectation and perceived performance, and the affective component refers to the feeling of pleasure or disappointment towards the product (Moliner, Sanchez, Rodriguez and Callarisa, 2007). If the performance meets the expectation, a consumer will be satisfied, which thereby leads to repurchase intention (Chang, Chou and Lo, 2014). On the other hand, if performance is below expectations, a consumer will be dissatisfied and will eventually suffer from unfavorable outcomes (Mitchell and Boustani, 1994).

Furthermore, Johnson, Anderson and Fornell (1995) suggested that satisfaction can be defined in terms of cumulative characteristics as an affective assessment of consumption accumulated over time (Oliver, 2009), and in transaction-specific characteristics with a context-specific assessment of a product (Johnson et al., 1995). Consistent with this, Kuo et al. (2013) claimed that it is better to evaluate the performance in a cumulative manner because it is more effective in forecasting a customer's post-purchase behavior.

In addition, Johnson (2001) indicated that satisfaction can be conceptualized as two main aspects: (1) the satisfaction derived from the assessment of the perception, attitude or belief towards the product (Oliver, 1980); and (2) the satisfaction derived from the experience with a company or a product (Anderson, Fornell and Lehmann, 1994; Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Bolton, 1998; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Mittal, Kumar and Tsiros, 1999). The chronological development of the definition of satisfaction is shown in Table 2.3.

52

Table 2.3: The Chronological Development of the Definition of Satisfaction

Authors	Definition of Satisfaction
Howard and Sheth (1969)	A cognitive state of being sufficiently or insufficiently rewarded for the cost a customer forgoes.
Hunt (1977)	An evaluation that the consumption experience is as good as it should be.
Oliver (1980)	The attitude towards the comparison of expectation and perceived performance of the product.
Engel and Blackwell (1982)	An evaluation that the selected product alternative is consistent with the pre-purchase beliefs.
Bearden and Teel (1983)	A post-purchase circumstance illustrating how much a customer likes or dislikes the product/service experience.
Oliver (1992)	A post-purchase evaluation and affective response towards the overall product experience.
Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1993)	An evaluation of the consistency of product performance before making a purchase and after consuming it.
Mitchell and Boustani (1994)	A function of the congruence between the expectation and perceived performance of a product.
Rust and Oliver (1994)	The degree to which a consumer perceives that a product evokes positive feelings.
Oliver (1997)	A pleasure feeling from the product consumption that fulfills certain needs.
Wirtz and Bateson (1999b)	An evaluation on the perceived outcome of a certain consumption experience.
Kotler (2000)	Pleasure or disappointment from the comparison of the products' perceived performance and expectation.
Sarangapani and Mamatha (2009)	A feeling of pleasure or disappointment from the comparison between the product's perceived performance and expectation.
Kuo et al. (2013)	An overall evaluation accumulated overtime on the product purchased.
Chang et al. (2014a)	A consumer's expectation towards an offering; if a product or service matches the expectation, satisfaction and repurchase intention will be realized.

Source: Author

Satisfaction has been consistently found to have a strong impact on future purchase decisions (Sheth, 1973; Ferguson and Johnston, 2011), both attitudinal and behavioral loyalty (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schroder, 2002; Bodet, 2008; Homburg and Giering, 2001; Kassim and Abdullah, 2010; McAlexander and Roberts, 2003; Olsen, 2007; Szymanski and Henard, 2001; Tuu and Olsen, 2009). It is posited that customer satisfaction is a significant antecedent of repurchase behavior (Sambandam and Lord,

1995; LaBarbera and Muzursky, 1983), repurchase intention (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000), intention to purchase other products (Cardozo, 1965), positive word-of-mouth (Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989), customer retention (Bolton, 1998), and continuous patronage (Bolton and Lemon, 1999).

Furthermore, a customer with a different satisfaction level is likely to have different post-purchase behavior. Sarangapani and Mamatha (2009) indicated that a customer with a low satisfaction level tends to abandon the brand and even engages in negative word-of-mouth; a customer who is fairly satisfied may switch brand if a better offering is found, and a customer with a high level of satisfaction is likely to make a repurchase, express positive word-of-mouth towards the product and the company, and have an emotional bond with the company. Moreover, they further elaborated that a completely satisfied customer is six times more likely to make a repurchase than very satisfied customers.

In the study of Apaolaza-Ibáñez, Hartmann, Diehl and Terlutter (2011) on women's satisfaction with cosmetics brands, the results revealed that both utilitarian and hedonic brand benefits have a significant impact on satisfaction with a cosmetics brand. Furthermore, Ueacharoenkit's (2012) investigation revealed that satisfaction in a cosmetics brand significantly leads to brand loyalty in Thailand.

It is crucial to recognize the distinction between satisfaction and cognitive dissonance. That is, cognitive dissonance has been studied to be an antecedent of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Solomon et al., 2006; Lake, 2009; Chen, 2011; Shao and Shao, 2011; Park, Cho and Rao, 2012; Sharifi and Esfidani, 2014). High cognitive dissonance arouses dissatisfaction, while reduced cognitive dissonance motivates satisfaction (Cooper, 2007; Lake, 2009).

Based on previous definitions, satisfaction is derived from a process of comparison between pre-consumption expectations and perceived performance. Unfortunately, its universal applicability is questionable (Wirtz and Bateson, 1999a; Shukla, 2004), and several studies indicated that product performance has a sole or dominant direct impact on satisfaction (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Tse and Wilton, 1988; Patterson, 1993; Shaffer and Sherrell, 1997; Kristensen, Martensen and Gronhold,

54

1999; Shukla, 2004). Furthermore, many academicians (Gronroos, 1993; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Kristensen et al., 1999) revealed that expectation is a difficult concept because of its different conceptualizations in different studies, and a complicated concept because it is difficult to achieve reliable and valid measures.

Therefore, only perceptions of the utility of products are the concern of this study, and the definition of the level of satisfaction applied in this study is based on Wirtz and Bateson (1999b) as **"the evaluative reaction regarding the perceived performance of the product consumption experience".**

2.3.2 Product Performance

Over the last three decades, product performance has been considered as the major source of a company's competitive advantage (Forker et al., 1996; Hans and Will, 1993; Raghunathan et al., 1997). Moreover, certain studies support have found that product performance should be adopted as a company's strategic goal (Adam, 1992; Garvin, 1988; Schonberger, 1992). Most companies develop defense strategies through the quality of products to retain existing customers (Seines, 1993). If a customer has experience or is familiar with the product, the product performance can be evaluated at or before the moment of purchase; on the other hand, for purchase decisions about new or unfamiliar products where the product qualities are not evident at the point of purchase, customers normally evaluate the product based on extrinsic cues, such as brand, package, price, etc. (Zeithaml, 1988), rather than intrinsic cues because intrinsic cues require more effort and time, are not available at the purchasing moment, or are not used because they are too difficult to evaluate (Seines, 1993). That is, in the latter case, product consumption is the first opportunity where customers have a chance to evaluate the intrinsic qualities (Seines, 1993).

Through cognitive assessment, product utility or performance has a strong and direct influence on the level of satisfaction (Mugge et al., 2010). Cronin and Taylor (1992) indicated that evaluation in terms of performance criteria contributes to a better fit in the theoretical model than by applying expectation measures. Moreover, the strong positive relationship between product performance and satisfaction is well

documented in various studies across countries and product categories (Yi, 1990; Fornell, 1992; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Shukla, 2004).

Such a product performance-customer satisfaction relationship is crucial for marketers because it has been proven to be an antecedent of customer loyalty (Liu and Jang, 2009; Ryu and Han, 2010). On the other hand, other studies claimed that customer dissatisfaction could occur when product performance is unsatisfactory (Myers and Alpert, 1968; Anderson and Sullivan, 2000). Moreover, the level of importance of product performance in predicting customer satisfaction varies with the consumption goals (Mittal et al., 2001), such as improving physical appearance, and enhancing personality or elevate sexual attractiveness, etc.

The evaluation on the ideal product performance can be undertaken based on two main types of norms: (1) the typical or standard performance of a certain brand, such as the popular, the last purchased, or the most preferred brand; (2) the average performance perceived to be standard for the product (Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins, 1987).

Traditionally, consumers apply cosmetics to control or improve their physical appearance and attractiveness (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011). Previous studies found that cosmetics are not only consumed due to their utility or functional benefits - the ability to successfully deliver the promised results in terms of physical appearance, such as a brighter face, or natural lip color; but also their emotional or hedonic benefits - the ability to achieve a certain emotional experience, such as sexual attractiveness, or social and professional success (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011). Therefore, in the present study, product performance can be referred to as the ability of the cosmetics to deliver the promised functional or emotional benefits to a customer.

2.3.3 Theories Related to Level of Satisfaction

Expectancy-Disconfirmation Theory

Expectancy-disconfirmation theory states that disconfirmation is a consequence of dissonance between expectation and actual performance (Oliver, 1977). That is, when actual performance exceeds the expectation, positive disconfirmation will be experienced and will subsequently lead to satisfaction; on the other hand, when expectation exceeds actual performance, negative disconfirmation will be experienced and will subsequently lead to dissatisfaction (Barber and Venkatraman, 1986) (Figure 2.3). Therefore, it can be implied that the level of disconfirmation has a direct impact on the post-purchase satisfaction of impulse purchasers (Kang, 2013).

Figure 2.4: The Disconfirmation Paradigm
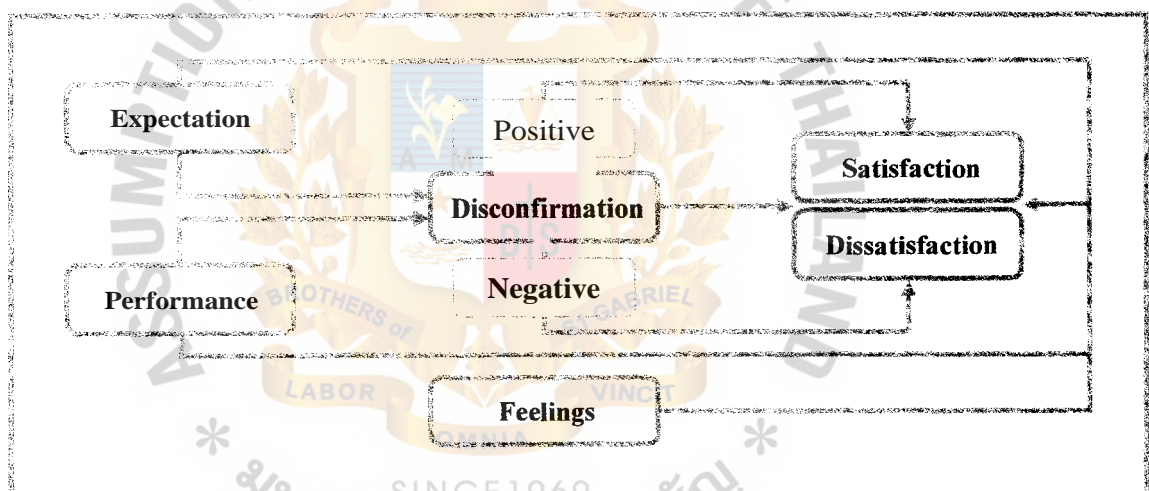
Source: Hoyer, W. D. and MacInnis, D. J. (1997). *Consumer behavior.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Assimilation Theory

Assimilation theory suggests that an individual tries to avoid discrepancies in their prior held opinions or expectations; therefore, they make an attempt to assimilate their experiences based on their prior opinions (Hovland, Harvey and Sherif, 1957).

Regarding the previously mentioned expectancy-disconfirmation theory, expectation is normally the base of comparison with performance; hence, it inevitably has a direct influence on perceived performance (Pieters, Koelemeijer and Roest, 1995). Assimilation occurs in two cases: forward assimilation and backward assimilation.

Forward assimilation occurs when the performance is influenced by a customer's previously held expectations, in which higher expectations lead to higher performance, and lower expectations lead to lower performance (Pieters and Zwick, 1993) – performance is assimilated in the direction of expectation. On the other hand, backward assimilation occurs when a customer cannot remember or recall their prior unbiased expectation once they experience the product performance – expectation is assimilated in the direction of performance.

Therefore, it can be concluded that assimilation has an essential effect on customer satisfaction because the discrepancy between the (actual and recalled) expectation and performance is reduced (Pieters et al., 1995).

Equity Theory

Equity theory states that a consumer compares their outcome-to-input ratio with the ratio of other parties in the relationship, which mostly refers to the marketer (Mourni, 2005). Specifically, customer satisfaction will be experienced when a consumer perceives that their ratio is fair (Mourni, 2005), while dissatisfaction will be experienced when they perceive inequity (Fisk and Young, 1985).

The study of Swan and Oliver (1985) revealed that only negative inequity has an impact on dissatisfaction while positive inequity does not have a significant impact on dissatisfaction, but is rather perceived to be fair and satisfactory.

Norms as Comparison Standards

Several studies on satisfaction have applied various types of norm as a comparison standard, which indicates "what is supposed to be" with regard to the performance of the product, such as normative deficit (Morris, 1977), normative expectation

58

(Summers and Granbois, 1977), and desired expectations (Swan, Trawick and Carroll, 1982).

For instance, Woodruff et al. (1983) utilized an experience-based norm, which is a standard arising from a customer's experience with a brand's product, other products of the same brand, or other products in the same category. Furthermore, Cadotte et al. (1987) applied experience-based norms based on certain brand criteria, which are (1) the product type -- the average performance of every brand, (2) the best brand -- the performance of the best brand, and (3) brand expectations -- the expectations towards the brand.

2.3.4 Critical Analysis of the Theories Related to Level of Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is one of the pillars of the academic and business world. It is a crucial prerequisite of a company's sustainable competitive advantage (Shemwell et al., 1998; Sureshchandar et al., 2002) and many companies heavily invest in measuring their customer satisfaction (Hawkins et al., 2004).

Satisfaction has been defined in various ways, and the most widely applied is based on the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm, which refers to the comparison between the expected and the perceived performance of the product or service (Oliver, 1980). However, its universal applicability has been called into question (Wirtz and Bateson, 1999a; Shukla, 2004). That is, various types of norm are used as standards to compare or evaluate product performance while other studies imply that product performance rather dominantly or even solely influences customer satisfaction (Churchill and Suprenant, 1982; Tse and Wilton, 1988).

In addition, several studies indicated that impulse buying is an unplanned, sudden and stimulus-driven decision that lacks proper consideration (Stern, 1962; Piron, 1991; Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991), and should lead to cognitive dissonance and, subsequently, post-purchase dissatisfaction (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Nevertheless, certain studies revealed that some consumers did not express significant dissatisfaction (Gardner and Rook, 1988), and others are even satisfied with their impulse buying decision (Dittmar and Drury,

59

2000). Therefore, there is no consensus on the relationship between impulse buying and satisfaction, and it needs further investigation in the search for an explicit relationship. For a summary of articles related to the level of satisfaction, see Table 3 in Appendix I.

2.4 Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

Post-purchase behavior can be defined as a series of actions taken by customers to compare their expectations with their perception of actual product performance, to evaluate their satisfaction, and to act in accordance with their evaluations (Andreasen, 1976; Gilly, 1979). Marketers are always keen to understand a customer's post-purchase behavioral intention, or the possibility of an action taken after purchasing a product (Lin, 2009).

Satisfaction has widely and consistently been proven to have a strong positive impact on both attitudinal and behavioral loyalty (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schroder, 2002; Bodet, 2008; Homburg and Giering, 2001; Kassim and Abdullah, 2010; McAlexander and Roberts, 2003; Olsen, 2007; Szymanski and Henard, 2001; Tuu and Olsen, 2009). Furthermore, customer loyalty is regarded as a multi-dimensional concept, including customer retention, positive word-of-mouth, and cross buying (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder and Iacobucci, 2001; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996). In this study, post-purchase behavioral intentions are thus investigated in terms of repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention.

2.4.1 Repurchase Intention

Companies prefer to maintain relationships with their existing customers with the aim to increase their repurchase intention because it costs five times less than acquiring new customers (Yan, 2006; Chang et al., 2014a). According to Hume and Mort (2010), repurchase intention is one of the most essential dependent variables studied to develop management insight, strategic planning and delivery.

Repurchasing reflects the customer's self-reported probability to purchase the same product or brand again in the future (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2001; Seiders,

Voss, Grewal and Godfrey, 2005). That is, it is likely that a customer will continue to purchase the product in the future (Chiu, Chang, Cheng and Fang, 2009).

Generally, customers evaluate their intention to repurchase based on their previous experience and the expected future benefits (Olaru, Purchase and Peterson, 2008). Specifically, repurchase intention is related to customer satisfaction (Patterson, Johnson and Spreng, 1997; Durvasula et al., 2004), If customers are satisfied with a product or service, they will be more likely to repurchase and recommend it to others (Kotler, 1999).

Furthermore, continuing customers have been proven to be less price-sensitive (Keaveney, 1995), more receptive to a company's new product offerings (Hawkins et al., 2004), and more resistant towards competitors' promotional offerings (Dick and Basu, 1994). Therefore, repurchase intention is a remarkably valuable construct associated with a company's profitability, competitive advantage and sustainability (Hennig-Thurau and Klee, 1997; White and Yu, 2005; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Lee, Choi and Kang, 2009).

Therefore, marketing managers regularly monitor their performance and take into account customer feedback obtained through customer surveys on various topics, including satisfaction, repurchase intention and recommendation (word-of-mouth) intention (Morgan and Rego, 2006) because they are the key predictors of a customer's future purchasing behaviors, such as retention, word-of-mouth, and share-of-wallet, etc. (Keiningham et al., 2007).

In addition, it is also crucial to treat repurchase intention and cross-buying intention as different constructs. That is, a customer relationship is also defined by its length and breadth, in which repurchase can be regarded as an indication of relationship continuation or length, where the focus is on minimizing customer defection, while cross buying can be regarded as an indication of relationship development or breadth, where the focus is on extending the relationship with customers (Verhoef, 2003; Liu and Wu, 2007). Moreover, a customer with repurchase intention is also found to have a tendency to enhance the relationship with a brand by cross-buying (Gwinner, Gremler and Bitner, 1998; Ngobo, 2004).

61

2.4.2 Cross-Buying Intention

The practice of purchasing additional different products or services from the same provider, without regard to the period between the first and the second transaction, is referred to as cross-buying, which suggests a high level of commitment from the customers (Verhoef et al., 2001; Reinartz et al., 2008; Ngobo, 2004).

Cross-buying enables sellers to cross-sell their products and services and contribute tremendous benefits to them such as increased revenue from existing customers, easier and cheaper options for a company to grow than acquiring new customers, enhancing customer retention, a longer profitable lifetime duration, and increased customer lifetime value, which leads to higher revenue and a higher share-of-wallet (Kumar, George and Pancras, 2008). The cross-selling of multiple products also increases the customer retention rate as perceived switching cost arises with cross-buying (Kumar et al., 2008). Furthermore, Ngobo (2004) claimed that cross-selling offers advantages to a firm as it reduces the amount of money spent on customer acquisition, which leads to a pricing advantage over its competitors.

Previous studies suggested a linkage between impulse buying and cross-selling strategies (Dawson and Kim, 2009). That is, more buying can be a consequence of the momentum of the impulsivity to be acted upon (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991). In addition, customer satisfaction has been found to be a positive direct motivation for a customer to buy additional products from the same brand (Ngobo, 2004; Kumar et al., 2008). That is, a customer has to be satisfied with the current product in order to consider an additional item (Soureli, Lewis and Karantinou, 2008).

2.4.3 Word-of-Mouth Intention

In the pre-purchase stage, word-of-mouth is one of the most reliable information sources to evaluate a product (Dawes, Dowling and Patterson, 1991), while customers also utilize word-of-mouth to express their satisfaction towards their experience in the post-purchase stage (Westbrook, 1987). Word-of-mouth intention has thus been an essential topic area for researchers for more than thirty years (Keiningham et al., 2007).

62

Word-of-mouth can be defined as an evaluation of products, services, brands or companies without commercial intention, and is initiated through various communication channels, such as face-to-face, social networks, etc. (Kuo et al., 2013). In the post-purchase stage, customers pass on word-of-mouth, as an informal communication, about their experience of products and/or services to others (Westbrook, 1987).

Word-of-mouth has a crucial influence on consumer behavior for three main reasons: (1) it is mostly face-to-face communication, which contains valid information with dramatic experiential incidents, and tends to have greater influence on a consumer than mass communication; (2) it is originated by non-marketing sources, so it is regarded as credible and a custom-tailored source of information, and (3) it can create more damage because it is communicated to many consumers (Yi, 1990).

Customer satisfaction has been found to have a dominant influence on word-of-mouth (Yi, 1990). In particular, negative word-of-mouth is highly determined by dissatisfaction, especially when the product failure is seen to be the responsibility of the company, or when complaint handling is negatively perceived by a customer (Richins, 1983; Szymanski and Hanard, 2001). Some studies revealed a U-shape relationship between dissatisfaction and word-of-mouth in which word-of-mouth is higher among extremely satisfied customers than those who are moderately satisfied (Anderson, 1998).

2.4.4 Theories Related to Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

Theory of Planned Behavior

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) by Ajzen (1991) has been adopted in various researches to identify the determinants of, and to comprehend, certain behavior. Based on this theory, the fundamental determinant of behavior is intention; that is, an individual normally behaves in accordance with their intention. Specifically, intention can be referred to as a behavioral motivation and represents an expectation of an individual's behavior in a certain situation (Ajzen, 1991), and it is in turn determined by the attitude toward the certain behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral

control (Tuu, Anh, Olsen and Vassdal, 2010). Therefore, in this study, post-purchase behavioral intentions, which are taken to mean repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention, are predicted to lead a customer to action.

Consistency Theory

Consistency theory has been referred to in numerous articles on a variety of theories related to cognitive dissonance, self-perception, congruity, equity, (Abelson, 1983), and self-affirmation (Moore, 2003). The focal principle of consistency theory is that when an individual experiences conflicting perceptions, they will strive to take action to reduce these contradictions, which are psychologically disturbing (Langner, 1996). That is, the consistent cognitions are assimilated into one's belief system, while the inconsistent cognitions are disregarded (Collier, Minton and Reynolds, 1991). Therefore, it basically implies that one's cognition, action and acknowledgement of information are fundamentally influenced by an inclination to maintain or restore one's consistent cognitive condition (Jones, 1973).

Consistency theory holds two dominant predictions: modest and strong consistency effects. The first assumes that an individual with positive expectations is supposed to react more favorably to positive feedback and less favorably to negative feedback than those with negative expectations. On the other hand, the latter suggests that an individual with negative self-expectations is expected to react more favorably to negative feedback than to positive feedback because the unfavorable feedback affirms their low self-expectations (Schrauger, 1975).

With regard to this study, a customer who is satisfied with certain mass color cosmetics items is likely to make a repeat or upgraded purchase, or recommend them to others so that their behavior is consistent with their attitude (Gilly and Gelb, 1982).

Loyalty

Loyalty has been found to be a complex construct with various aspects, including behavioral, attitudinal and cognitive processes (Javalgi and Moberg, 1997). However, different researchers have developed different dimensions of loyalty. For instance,

64

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1994) suggested that loyalty is composed of loyalty to the company, the propensity to switch, the willingness to pay more, external responses to a problem and internal responses to a problem; De Ruyter, Wetzels and Bloemer (1998) suggested that loyalty is composed of preference, price indifference, and dissatisfaction responses; while many other academicians (De Wulf et al., 2001; Zeithaml et al., 1996) suggested it as a multi-dimensional concept consisting of customer retention, cross-buying and positive word-of-mouth. Therefore, this study investigates customer loyalty in terms of intentions to repurchase cross-buy and spread positive word-of-mouth.

2.4.5 Critical Analysis of the Theories Related to Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

Regarding the unplanned and less deliberative characteristics of impulse buying, cognitive dissonance could occur and further hinder a customer from being satisfied (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Therefore, long-term relationships with customers may be less likely. However, Chen (2002) argued that customer satisfaction could be realized as a result of impulse purchase, and this could imply that a long-term profitable relationship with impulsive buyers is possible.

Satisfaction has been widely recognized to have a strong impact on both attitudinal and behavioral loyalty (Bloemer and Odekerken-Schröder, 2002; Bodet, 2008; Homburg and Giering, 2001; Kassim and Abdullah, 2010; McAlexander and Roberts, 2003; Olsen, 2007; Tuu and Olsen, 2009). In this study, the multi-dimensions of customer loyalty are composed of repurchase, word-of-mouth, and cross-buying intentions (De Wulf et al., 2001, and Zeithaml et al., 1996) to measure the post-purchase behavioral intentions for self-selected mass color cosmetics products.

Furthermore, the difference between repurchase and cross-buying needs clarification. While repurchase represents the length of customer relationship, cross-buying represents the breadth of customer relationship (Verhoef, 2003; Liu and Wu, 2007). That is, repurchase indicates the practice of repurchasing the same product in the future, and focuses on maintaining the relationships with present customers (Blackwell et al., 2001; Seiders et al., 2005). On the other hand, cross-buying indicates the practice of purchasing different or additional products from the same

65

provider, and focuses on extending the relationships with existing customers (Verhoef, 2003; Liu and Wu, 2007; Reinartz et al., 2008; Ngobo, 2004). For more details on the summary of articles related to post-purchase behavioral intentions, see Table 4 in Appendix I.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH FRAMEWORKS

This chapter presents the theoretical frameworks illustrating the relationships between impulse buying, cognitive dissonance, level of satisfaction, and post-purchase behavioral intentions that have been affirmed by previous studies. Together with the theoretical frameworks, in-depth interviews were undertaken, and the findings are discussed to support the conceptual framework development. The hypothesized relationships, the operationalization, and the definitions of constructs are also clarified in this chapter.

3.1 Theoretical Frameworks

In this section, the theoretical frameworks are illustrated and explained to support the comprehension of the conceptual framework development process. Regarding the mechanisms of the impulse buying process as well as its antecedents, the theoretical framework was depicted in Chapter 2 (Figure 2.3). In addition, to better understand the relationship between impulse buying behavior and its post-purchase evaluation, it is based on two related theoretical frameworks illustrated in Figure 3.1 and 3.2.

Figure 3.1 shows the relationship between impulse buying and cognitive dissonance proposed by George and Yaoyuneyong (2010). Their study aimed to examine the relationships between impulse buying behavior, impulse buying trait and cognitive dissonance. This study employed a quantitative research method by conducting an online survey with 58 college students in the U.S. who went shopping during their spring break, and utilized a paired-sample t-test to compare the level of cognitive dissonance after impulse buying and planned purchasing, and multiple regression analysis to test the influence of the impulsiveness trait on the level of cognitive dissonance.

The study proposed that impulse buying behavior more likely leads to cognitive dissonance than planned buying behavior. That is, impulse purchasers may be less informed in their purchase decision than planned purchasers. The lack of sufficient

67

information on product selection leads impulse buyers to re-think their purchase decision. Therefore, they proposed that the level of cognitive dissonance resulting from impulse buying behavior is higher compared to planned buying behavior. Furthermore, they also proposed that those with higher impulse buying traits, who are more likely to feel a higher level of arousal, might increase their post-purchase contrast propensity, and subsequently are more likely to experience a greater level of cognitive dissonance than those with lower impulsiveness traits.

Figure 3.1: The Model Linking Impulse Buying with Cognitive Dissonance
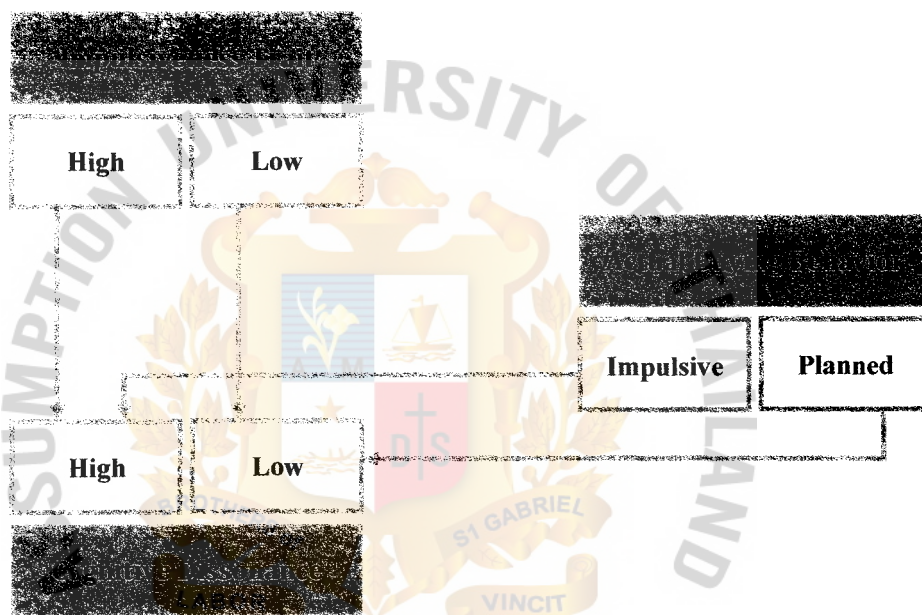
Source: George, B. P. and Yaoyuneyong, G. (2010). Impulse buying and cognitive dissonance: A study conducted among the spring break student shoppers. *Young Consumers.* 11(4), 291-306.

Furthermore, Figure 3.2 illustrates the relationships between post-purchase information exposure and satisfaction mediated by cognitive dissonance, as well as post-purchase behavioral intentions about universities by Mao and Oppewal (2010). This study conducted a field experiment in which undergraduate students from the business department of an Australian university were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: (1) the choice-reinforced condition (126 participants), (2) the choice-inconsistent condition (105 participants), and (3) the control condition where the participants did not receive any information about the university (128 participants),

68

and were asked to answer the questionnaire afterward. This study utilized MANOVA to examine the differences under the three conditions across three variables (the cognitive aspect of dissonance, the emotional aspect of dissonance, and satisfaction), and multiple regression analysis was employed to test the influence of information on cognitive dissonance and post-usage evaluations.

The study proposed that those who are exposed to consistent information in their purchase decision either found by consumers or provided by the company would experience decreased dissonance (both cognitive and emotional aspects). On the other hand, those who are exposed to inconsistent information are assumed to experience the opposite (increased) impact on dissonance. Moreover, the two aspects of dissonance are posited to have positive associations.

Figure 3.2: The Relationships between Post-Purchase Reinforcement, Cognitive Dissonance, Perceived Service Quality and Satisfaction
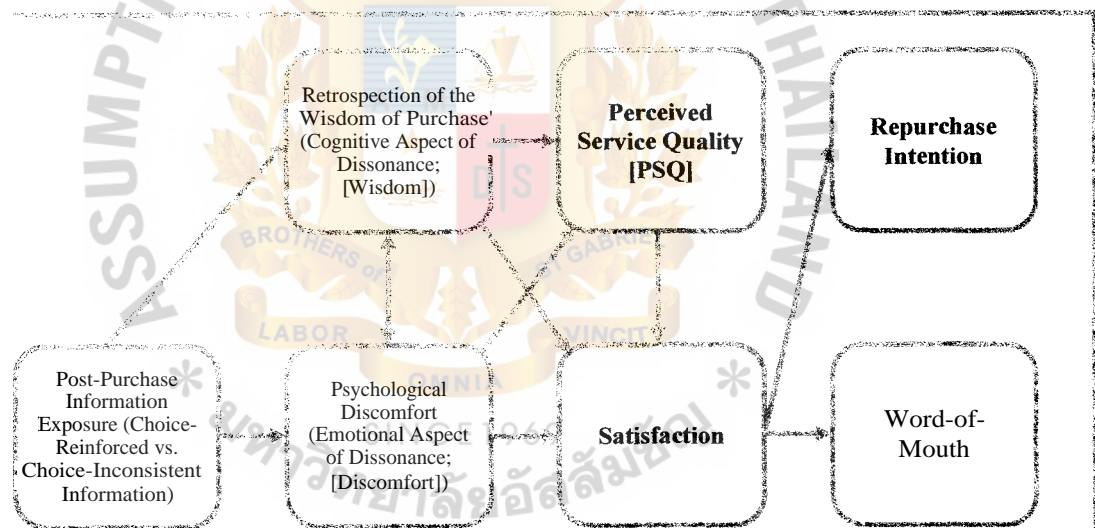
Source: Mao, W. and Oppewal, H. (2010). Did I choose the right university? How post-purchase information affects cognitive dissonance, satisfaction and perceived service quality. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 18,* 28-35.

In addition, Mao and Oppewal (2010) also proposed an indirect relationship between post-purchase information exposure and satisfaction, mediated by the emotional aspects of dissonance. That is, when the emotional aspects of dissonance or discomfort are reduced (increased) by information exposure, the changes in affect

should further influence consumer satisfaction. Furthermore, perceived service quality was also posited to have a positive influence on satisfaction. Lastly, satisfaction was also identified to be an antecedent of positive word-of-mouth and repeat purchase intentions.

In order to validate the influential impact of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying behavior, as well as the relationships between impulse buying behavior, cognitive dissonance, satisfaction and post-purchase behavioral intentions in a mass color cosmetics context, an exploratory research was conducted with in-depth interviews to further confirm these relationships.

3.2 Exploratory Research

Since the conceptual framework in this study was adapted from various studies that were conducted in different industries and different countries; where consumers were influenced by different marketing circumstances and cultural forces (Kacen and Lee, 2002) from the mass color cosmetics market in Bangkok, Thailand, exploratory research was undertaken to gain insight into certain situations, to clarify ambiguities, and to discover new ideas (Zikmund, 2003). This serves as a basis for subsequent quantitative study.

In this study, in-depth interviews were conducted with 21 participants to identify the profiles of self-selection mass color cosmetics purchasers across various age ranges, which have been found to have an influence on impulse buying behavior in several previous studies (Bellenger et al., 1978; Wood, 1998; Lee and Kacen, 2008), as well as to identify the in-store marketing stimuli that influence impulse buying and the antecedents of cognitive dissonance under the specific context of mass color cosmetics in Bangkok. Furthermore, based on previous studies, the relationship between impulse buying and its consequences was still unclear. In-depth interviews were then conducted to investigate the influence of impulse buying on cognitive dissonance, as well as the influence of impulse buying on the level of satisfaction. Therefore, in-depth interviews were employed to complement the literature and to confirm the variables described in previous sections, as well as to gain new insights into related content.

70

3.2.1 In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews were conducted to explore the respondents' previous mass color cosmetics shopping experience, the impact of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying behavior, cognitive dissonance and satisfaction, and their future behavioral intention towards mass color cosmetics products at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

The participants were 21 female consumers who purchased mass color cosmetics on impulse from self-selection stores, such as drugstores, specialty stores, stand-alone stores, supermarkets, or hypermarkets in Bangkok during the two weeks prior to in-depth interview recruitment. The participants from different age levels were recruited to determine the profiles of impulsive mass color cosmetics purchasers. The personal information of the participants is shown in Table 3.1.

Open-ended questions were employed (see Appendix III), and the contents of the in-depth interviews were divided into three main parts: (1) mass color cosmetics shopping behavior, (2) the mass color cosmetics impulse buying process – from need recognition, information search, alternative evaluation, purchase decision, and post purchase evaluation, and (3) suggestions for a brand or retailer's action. The interviews took place at the participants' university, workplace or residence, and took approximately 30 minutes each. Initially, 16 interviews (Participants no. 1-16) were conducted from 11 to 18 May 2015, and five more in-depth interviews (Participants no. 17-21) were conducted during 26-28 February 2016 so that the findings were revealed from a wider age range of mass color cosmetics consumers.

Thematic analysis was utilized to identify and analyze themes or patterns of the data acquired from the in-depth interviews, and the data were categorized into various topics in accordance with the research questions (Alhojailan, 2012). Repeated reading of the transcribed data was performed to search for logical, consistent, and well-organized patterns (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In addition, all data items under each topic were given full and equal attention in the grouping and coding processes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Subsequently, the counting of the frequency under each topic was done to make an objective evaluation of the qualitative data (Alhojailan, 2012). The results of the in-depth interviews are discussed below.

71

N.	Gender	Age	Educational Level	Occupation	Average Monthly Income	Frequency of Purchase
1	Female	25	Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Once a month
2	Female	30	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,000 Baht and lower	Every two months
3	Female	26	Bachelor Degree	Housewife	15,000 Baht and lower	Once a month
4	Female	24	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,000 Baht and lower	Twice a month
5	Female	29	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Once a week
6	Female	37	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Once a month
7	Female	34	Higher than Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Once a month
8	Female	25	Higher than Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	35,001-45,000 Baht	Once a month
9	Female	31	Higher than Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Once a month
10	Female	41	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Every two months
11	Female	36	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	25,001-35,000 Baht	Every two months
12	Female	22	Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Twice a week
13	Female	26	Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	25,001-35,000 Baht	Twice a month
14	Female	24	Lower than Bachelor Degree	Employee at a Private Organization	15,001-25,000 Baht	Every three months
15	Female	25	Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Twice a week
16	Female	24	Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Once a month
17	Female	16	Lower than Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Once a week
18	Female	40	Lower than Bachelor Degree	Business Owner	25,001-35,000 Baht	Every two months
19	Female	19	Bachelor Degree	Student	5,000 Baht and over	Twice a month
20	Female	18	Bachelor Degree	Student	15,000 Baht and lower	Twice a month
21	Female	62	Lower than Bachelor Degree	Freelance	15,000 Baht and lower	Every two months

3.2.2 Findings from In-Depth Interviews

General Mass Color Cosmetics Products Purchasing Behavior

More than seventy percent (15 out of 21) of participants purchased cosmetics products at least once a month. More than eighty percent (18 out of 21) of them purchased cosmetics products at drugstores (Watsons and Boots), while some purchased at cosmetics specialty stores (Beauty Buffet, Karmart, and EveandBoy), stand-alone stores (Oriental Princess, NYX, Cute Press, Etude, Beauty Cottage), and supermarkets (Big C), convenience store (Seven-Eleven), and hypermarkets (Telco Lotus), respectively. In addition, the most frequently purchased items were lipstick, eyeliner, foundation, blusher, eyebrow pencils, pressed powder, mascara, and eye shadow, respectively.

Attitudes towards Color Cosmetics Products

Out of 21 participants, nine claimed that color cosmetics were "very important", eight claimed they were "important", and four claimed they were "neither important nor unimportant". Even though the results revealed that color cosmetics were both emotionally and functionally beneficial to them, emotional benefits were perceived to be more important. That is, they perceived applying color cosmetics to be a part of their daily activities as they enhance confidence, appearance and personality, and create a good social impression. On the other hand, color cosmetics also enhanced facial condition by adding colors or dimensions, and covering imperfections, such as scars, blemishes, or specific dark areas. Interestingly, those who rated color cosmetics as "very important" mostly perceived make-up to be a daily activity and that they could not go out without wearing cosmetics (internal factor), while those who rated them as "important" and "neither important nor unimportant" perceived them as helpful in creating a good social impression (external factor).

"I already get used to applying color cosmetics. If I did not apply them on my face, I would feel incomplete. I like color cosmetics very much because it makes me happy when I am applying them. Even when I am at home and have nothing to do, I usually try different product types and applying methods." (Participant no.8)

73

"Nowadays, people perceive each other based on their appearances on various occasions, such as working and other social activities. It is not okay to look pale when I am serving my customers. Color cosmetics are then important to me because they enhance my appearance and personality, as well as nourishing my facial skin" (Participant no.3)

"My facial skin is very sensitive, but I have to wear color cosmetics. Since my work is a service job and I have to serve customers, I am told to wear color cosmetics to enhance my appearance." (Participant no.15)

Pre-Purchase Product Information

The majority of participants admitted that they did not search for product information before shopping for mass color cosmetics, but rather acquired the product information in the stores by testing the products' texture and color pigmentation, reading the product's label, asking for information from salespersons, reading in-store signage, and asking opinions from their friends, respectively. On the other hand, those who found product information prior to the store visits read non-commercial product reviews and asked their friends.

In-Store Marketing Stimuli

Based on the extensive review of related literatures, the aforementioned ten in-store marketing stimuli (see Section 2.1.4) were confirmed to have an impact on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok with the following details.

Brand Reputation: Most participants stated that reputed brands had an influence on their purchase. Since they had been widely used and tested, the quality was assured and the brand had credibility. One participant even claimed that she preferred paying more for credible brands' higher quality, while another revealed that the brand could enhance the perceived product's quality level. Moreover, some believed that if one product from the certain brand was good quality, other products from the same brand should be as well.

"The brands are well-reputed because they have been widely purchased and tried by many consumers. The positive feedback aroused me to try the product." (Participant no.3)

Price Promotion: It was unanimous that a lower product price was attractive and the product became more worth buying because they could purchase the same amount of product with less money, or they could purchase more products with the same amount of money.

"The sales promotions, like 15% discount or buy l get 1 free, have an influence on my purchase decision as they enable me to purchase more products." (Participant no.8)

Some participants revealed that price promotion aroused them to purchase or stock the products even though they had not run out of the items, and some purchased the items that they might not use. Therefore, price promotion had made the mass color cosmetics purchase decision easier. However, one participant explained that if the products were genuinely high quality, she would still buy them at the normal price.

Acceptance of a Credit Card: Credit card was another factor that made their color cosmetics purchase decision easier, and many admitted that they spent more than they had originally planned when paying by credit card. They did not have to use cash or their 'current money' on the purchase, and could save cash for something else that required a cash payment. Moreover, paying by credit card made them feel like they spent less money or received more advantages because they could earn the credit card's collecting points, and they could even pay back in installments or the minimum payment due. Furthermore, it was a convenient payment method when they did not have enough cash, or could not find an automated teller machine (ATM).

"I do not think too much when I make a payment by credit card. If I have to pay by cash, I may not make a sudden purchase and rather postpone my purchase." (Participant no.6)

Variety of Products: Stores where there was a wide range of products in terms of product types, texture and color could be enticing because participants could make comparisons between various brands and product types. That is, there were more products they could test and choose from. Some even said that a wide range of product selections implied that they could buy more products.

"A wide range of color cosmetics from various brands really excites me. I would love to take my time browsing through and test various items from one shelf to another." (Participant no.17)

Prominent Display: An eye-catching product shelf could attract attention to a product because it enhances a product's presentation, and subsequently makes it more attractive.

"The prominent or outstanding displays could enhance the beauty of the product." (Participant no.7)

"The prominent display with colors, different from other shelves, makes me interested in the products being displayed. It attracts me to that shelf to find out what the products are." (Participant no.12)

Self-Service: The system of self-service makes participants' purchase decisions easier, and most of them preferred self-service to salesperson-services, yet the salesperson still played a significant role in their mass color cosmetics purchase experience. That is, they wanted to spend their time freely and comfortably browsing, testing or learning more about the product, and making the purchase decision without being interrupted or pressured to purchase the product by salespersons. They also claimed that sometimes they found the recommendations of salespersons to be biased towards the brands they represented in order to earn commission fees. However, salespersons were still needed when they had a product inquiry.

"I prefer self-service to salesperson-services. When I need help, I will ask them, but I still suspect whether they would only recommend the products under their brands because they want the commission fees, and it sometimes makes me lose an

opportunity to find something better. Therefore, I want to freely take my time browsing through various products and make a purchase decision by myself rather than being pressured by salespersons." (Participant no.2)

Store Environment: The store environment was another factor perceived to have an influence on the mass color cosmetics purchase decision. The participants suggested that chill-out or slow music made their shopping experience more relaxed and enjoyable.

"The music should be relaxing and not too loud to make the purchasing environment comfortable." (Participant no.9)

Moreover, the store's lighting was another significant aspect to be considered because it influenced how accurately customers saw the product and its information. That is, it facilitated customers to read the product information easily, and to test the product's color accurately.

"The lighting has a significant impact on how I try and accurately see the product's color. Some certain shades of light (yellow-orange) could distort the product's true color." (Participant no.12)

Regarding the store layout, many participants claimed that products should be easy to find, and could be placed or sorted by category in a tidy manner. That is, every product type should be presented, and there should be a space between items so that all product items could be easily selected. In addition, the product placement level should also be considered as customers could not reach the products if they were placed too high, and they would not notice the products if they were placed too low. Another interesting aspect was the walkway, which should be wide enough for customers to walk past each other comfortably, and would not make the store seem too crowded.

"If the products are placed untidily and are difficult to find, I will lose interest in the product. They should be displayed in accordance to a zone, and testers should also be available so that I will have an opportunity to try the products. Besides, the

77

walkways should not be too narrow because it makes me feel uncomfortable walking pass other customers, and I do not want to browse the products in that area of the store." (Participant no.3)

Lastly, the salesperson was found to play a crucial role in the mass color cosmetics environment and purchase decision. Most participants claimed that salespersons are required to have sufficient knowledge and be able to clearly answer the customers' inquiries on the product's properties, instructions, ingredients, as well as sincerely recommend the product that best suits the customer's skin condition and preference. Furthermore, salespersons should not be too insistent or too persuasive towards customers, but rather leave some space and allow customers to make their own purchase decision. Some participants also added that the salesperson should be polite, friendly, smiley and display a service mind.

"Salespersons are crucial for the color cosmetics purchase decision, especially when I am purchasing unfamiliar products, such as a product with a foreign language label. They should be willing to answer questions, be able to explain the product properties, and be able to recommend the product that suits my skin condition." (Participant no.7)

The aforementioned ten in-store marketing stimuli were suggested by several previous studies and confirmed to have an impact on impulse buying in the context of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Even though the participants mentioned some other in-store marketing stimuli (such as packaging, product quality, tester availability, store's cleanliness, store air conditionng, uncrowded store atmosphere, and in-store advertisements) as well as internal factors (such as previous experience, money availability, time availability, product involvement, impulsive trait, excitement, in-store interaction with friends, culture, and negative emotions), these factors were mentioned by few participants and not widely suggested by existing literatures. Furthermore, the scope of this study is only on in-store marketing stimuli, so internal factors were thus excluded.

Impulse Buying

Consistent with previous literature, the findings from the in-depth interviews revealed that all participants at least occasionally purchased mass color cosmetics on impulse. When shopping for mass color cosmetics, 13 of them neither had a shopping list nor a plan, and made a purchase solely on impulse; two of them admitted that they frequently purchased these products on impulse even when they had a limited financial budget.

"I never make a plan in buying color cosmetics. I buy it when they are on sale, or when I am reminded that I am running out of them. I do not think much when I make a purchase decision." (Participant no.18)

Even though seven participants had a shopping list or a plan, they frequently purchased beyond the list because they really like color cosmetics while only one participant claimed to be a conscious buyer, yet had experienced impulse buying on color cosmetics products.

When asked about their most recent mass color cosmetics purchasing experience, fourteen of them had not had an intention to purchase the products they actually purchased. That is, most of them intended to buy other products, but ended up purchasing additional items to those they had planned, while some intended to accompany their friends in shopping for mass color cosmetics, visited the store while waiting for someone, or just browsed through the products but received a recommendation from a salesperson, and ended up purchasing mass color cosmetics.

"Before going color cosmetics shopping, I usually make a loose plan, but always end up buying things beyond what I plan. On my last purchase, I planned to buy only eye brow pencil, but once I walked pass many color cosmetics shelves; they attracted me to try many other items. In the end, besides an eyebrow pencil, I also bought blusher, highlighter and contouring kit" (Participant no.19).

"At first I intended to help my friend choose a product, but after we shared some opinions and saw many product selections, I decided to purchase a foundation for myself too." (Participant no.4)

79

Most respondents explained that they were aroused to make an impulse purchase when they found interesting products and wanted to have a product trial. While browsing through products, many were aroused when they were reminded that they were running out of the product, and some said when they were enticed by attractive sales promotions, being approached by a salesperson, and having money, respectively.

"I do not have a specific plan or intention to purchase a specific product, except the items I am running out of. Normally, I will buy the items that I find interesting rather than buying according to a plan. When I have a shopping plan, I usually end up buying additional items. On my most recent shopping trip, I intended to purchase eyeliner, foundations and concealer, but I also got lipstick and eye shadow as additional items." (Participant no.2)

Interestingly, participants who were younger than thirty years old were happier with their impulsive purchase than those who were thirty years old and older. That is, most participants who were younger than thirty years old liked the feeling when they were purchasing on impulse because they wanted to own and use the products, it made them feel happy and relaxed, and they were already used to this habit, respectively; however, two from this group were both happy and unhappy with their impulsivity because it was extravagant, and for the other one, it was neutral. On the other hand, almost half of the older age group was unhappy with an impulse purchase because it indicated wastefulness and buying something that would never be used, and those who were happy with it reasoned that it made them happy and excited.

"When I see something that I like, I will buy it, especially when I have money. However, I also buy things easily even when I do not have much money. I like the moment when I buy things because I like the products. I am not a picky person, and I do not consider many things when I go shopping." (Participant no.1)

"I do not think impulse buying is a good habit. It is a waste of money. These products can be expired and it takes time to finish them, so it is not a good idea to stock them up. However, I sometimes buy them when they are in sales." (Participant no.21)

80

Level of Satisfaction

Overall, participants were satisfied with product performance and the results of what they had purchased. One participant even revealed that she was happy that she finally bought and owned it (lipstick) because it would make her beautiful. She also added that she should have bought more of it in various colors. No participants mentioned their satisfaction based on the comparison of product expectation and perceived quality.

"[After making the sudden purchase], I am normally satisfied with the product because I just simply like it and its quality." (Participant no.1)

"When I got home and checked the products I purchased, I felt like I was a kid who got new toys. Mostly, I am hardly ever disappointed with the product results." (Participant no.8)

"I was satisfied with the products themselves, but I just felt that these items were not necessary. I should not have been too hasty to purchase them." (Participant no.9)

"I was happy that I bought it because I was sure that it would make me beautiful. I was happy that I finally possessed it." (Participant no.10)

"99.99% of the time, I was satisfied with the product results after I tried it on." (Participant no.12)

Product Performance

Regarding the evaluation of product performance, most participants expected that a product should match and suit their skin condition and complexion as well as their personality, and it should last on their skin for a long time without the need to touch it up during the day. Moreover, many of them thought that products, especially foundations and pressed powders, should enhance their facial appearance by leaving their face smooth and natural looking, and should not leave their face oily or dry, or irritate their facial skins. Some other participants also claimed that the product should

81

have beautiful color pigmentation, conceal their imperfections, and act upon their claims.

> "For foundations, they should not leave my face oily or dark. They should be long-lasting so that I do not have to do a touch-up during the day." (Participant no.4)

> "A good lipstick should not leave my lips dry and patchy, and should stay all day." (Participant no.12)

Cognitive Dissonance

The findings from the exploratory research revealed the significant finding that even though they were uncomfortable about their purchase decision, it did not mean that they were uneasy about the product performance. Hence, it implies that, in the specific context of mass color cosmetics, cognitive dissonance occurs on two particular occasions: cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and about the product purchased. While the first refers to the psychological discomfort resulting from their purchase decision, the latter refers to the psychological discomfort felt after the participants had experienced the product performance.

Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase – Many of the respondents felt unsure and questioned their purchase decision in that they had bought too many mass color cosmetics items, and some of them were similar to what they already had, and had cost them a significant amount of unplanned expense. Some said that shopping was very enjoyable and one even said that that it was like she was hypnotized to buy many things. However, some said that they were dissonant or felt uncomfortable after about five minutes but got over it soon after telling themselves that they had got it at a promotional price or they could not do anything about it because they had already bought it, and they would use it anyway.

> "When I was first in the store, I did not intend to buy anything, but ended up buying something. I liked the moment when I bought something; it felt like I told myself to buy them just because I liked them. However, right away after I had made the purchase, I regretted it and asked myself why I had bought them because I already had similar products." (Participant no.5)

82

"I always ask myself why I purchase so many things right after my purchase, but I feel better when I get home and try on those items because their qualities rarely disappoint me." (Participant no.8)

Cognitive Dissonance about Product – Some of the respondents experienced psychological discomfort about the product results, and some wanted to purchase the forgone alternatives because the results were disappointing and the product was not as good as when they had tested it in the store. Even though some participants were concerned with the disappointing results and took a while until they got over it, most participants were not very worried about it and quickly got over it. The latter group claimed that the product could be at the standard level but might not be suitable for their skin condition, and they could make it work for them by mixing it with other products, or they could give it to other people, and some just stop using it.

"After I used this foundation for the first few days, even though I got some compliments from people around me, I was still unsure whether my face would look too white, get allergic, too oily, and whether it would clog my pores. I even thought of reselling it." (Participant no.4)

"I was excited when I bought the BB cushion. However, I was quite unsure about the product result because it could not cover my scar as it claimed in the advertisement." (Participant no.19)

Antecedents of Cognitive Dissonance

Post-Purchase Information – After experiencing a certain degree of post-purchase cognitive dissonance, participants preferred to seek non-commercial product information by asking their friends, family members, or even people in an online community about the product experience, rather than looking for commercial information.

"When I applied the products I had just purchased, I would normally ask my friends how the product suited me, just to make sure that I had made the right decision." When being asked if she sought information from the brand, she replied, "I did not seek commercial product information because it did not have an impact on how I reviewed the product." (Participant no.3)

83

"After purchase, I looked for product information and reviews by other consumers from websites." (Participant no.20)

Purchase Involvement – Most participants perceived the mass color cosmetics purchase decision to be important, and got involved with the purchase decision because they were concerned about the product results and quality as the products were directly applied to their face and some were afraid of being allergic. Moreover, some reasoned that the decision was important because they had limited financial budget and the products were quite expensive, while others said that color cosmetics were important to them because they had to wear them everyday. However, three participants were not concerned about their purchase because they perceived mass color cosmetics to be inexpensive and they would rather purchase expensive items than counter-brands, and they were already familiar with the products.

"The purchase decision on color cosmetics products is important to me because they are the products I use everyday and never run out of it." (Participant no.5)

"I think a lot when making the purchase decision. I normally take my time making the decision because they are products I directly apply to my face. I have to think whether the color suits my age, and the texture is not too thick. The most important decision is whether I should buy it or not because I already have similar items." (Participant no.12)

Attractive Alternatives – When making the purchase decision, most of the respondents made a selection from three to four brands and/or two product textures, while only one did not consider other alternatives. Around half of them claimed that each product alternative was quite different in terms of quality and price, while the other half claimed that there was no significant difference in product properties between product alternatives. Half of them also revealed that product selection was easy and some selected the product based on the product's familiarity and reputation, while the other half claimed that it was difficult to select from the product alternatives because each brand had similar product properties and price. Some said that each product had their own pros and cons.

84

"When I was making the purchase decision for the foundation in the store, I compared three brands, and it was not difficult to choose because their qualities were different but the prices were similar."(Participant no.4)

"I made a comparison of three brands, and they were very similar in terms of price and quality. It was difficult to choose only one when their properties were similar. I wanted them all, but I had to choose. I usually regretted not buying some products, and often went back to the store to buy such item after I almost finished the purchased one."(Participant no.12)

"On the last purchase, I went shopping for a powder with my friend. We compared three to four brands that were slightly different in terms of water or sweat-proof. It was quite difficult to choose among them. At last, we purchased different brands. After I used mine, I was not assured about my purchase because it was not as good as it was claimed. I even regretted buying it when I saw my friend's product result was better than mine. I should have bought the same item as her." (Participant no.19)

Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

Repurchase Intention – Most participants would continue to use the items they were satisfied with and would repurchase them after they had finished the items even though there were other similarly interesting products, and some would even stock them up. However, some admitted that they would repurchase if the products were on sale or they had enough financial budget.

"When I am satisfied with the product, I will repurchase, and will not switch to another brands' product." (Participant no.7)

Cross-Buying Intention – Most participants stated that if they were satisfied with an item from a certain brand, they had an intention to try and purchase other products from this brand because they had confidence or trust in the brand and its products. One explained that the product ingredients from the same brand should be similar or compatible with its various product items, such as foundation, pressed powder and

85

concealer; the quality of these products thus should not be significantly different, if not the same.

> "If this product is good, other products from this brand should be good as well. I feel like I can trust the brand and want to try its other products." (Participant no.12)

Word-of-Mouth Intention – If the products were good enough, they would recommend them to other people because they wanted others to experience a good product like they did, and some even shared the products with others so that they could have a product trial. Those participants had an intention to recommend it to others via face-to-face communication, but one also shared her recommendations via social media and online communities. However, some of them were also worried that others would experience allergic reactions to the product they had recommended. Therefore, some would let these people make their own decisions, recommend it to those with similar skin conditions, and only recommend it when they were asked.

> "When I found that the product is good, I normally tell my friends. I want others to experience a good product like me. However, I am concerned whether they would have allergic reactions because they have sensitive skin." (Participant no.4)

3.3 Conceptual Framework

The hypothesized relationships between in-store marketing stimuli, impulse buying, cognitive dissonance, level of satisfaction, and post-purchase behavioral intentions are developed based on the literature reviewed in Chapter II, and are illustrated in Figure 3.3. In addition to the related literature from previous studies, the findings from the exploratory research are also considered, and the hypothesized relationships are depicted in the conceptual framework in Figure 3.4.

Based on the extensive review of literature, the conceptual framework in Figure 3.3 illustrates how in-store marketing stimuli, which consist of brand reputation (Tinne, 2010; Duarte et al., 2013), price promotion (Piron, 1991; Dholakia, 2000; Hultén and Vanyushyn, 2011; Stern, 1962; Maymand and Ahmadinejad, 2011), the acceptance of

86

a credit card (Schor, 1998; Robert and Jones, 2001), the variety of products (Stern, 1962; Dawson and Kim, 2010; Hodge, 2004; Sirhindi, 2010), a prominent display (Huken and Vanyushyn, 2011; Rook, 1987; Jones et al., 2003; Huhen, 2012), self-service (Sirhindi, 2010; Peck & Childers, 2006; Soars, 2009), music (Turley and Milliman, 2000; Mattila and Wirtz, 2001; Eroglu and Machleit, 1993), lighting (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993; Mohan et al., 2013), layout (Sherman et al., 1997) and the salesperson (Mattila and Wirtz, 2008; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013; Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991; Park and Lennon, 2006; Mohan et al., 2013), influence impulse buying behavior in several different contexts. Exploratory research was then conducted and found that these ten in-store marketing stimuli were confirmed to have an impact on impulse buying in the context of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Furthermore, this framework also depicts how impulse buying behavior directly leads to the level of satisfaction (Chen, 2002). On the other hand, according to the model proposed by George and Yaoyuneyong (2010), impulse purchasing could also arouse cognitive dissonance. Furthermore, some academicians (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013) suggested cognitive dissonance further hinders customer satisfaction. Therefore, this model also illustrates the mediating role of cognitive dissonance on the relationship between impulse buying and the satisfaction level. In addition, the level of satisfaction is also hypothesized to have an influence on a consumer's post-purchase behavioral intentions, namely repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention. Furthermore, based on previous studies, this model also presents the influential impact of post-purchase information, purchase involvement, and attractive alternatives on cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1958; Mao and Oppewal, 2010), and product performance on the level of satisfaction (Mugge et al., 2010).

Moreover, based on the exploratory research, the results suggested that cognitive dissonance should be considered as two aspects: cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and about the products being purchased. Regarding the relationship between impulse buying and these two aspects of cognitive dissonance, the findings implied that those who purchased on impulse could feel uneasy about their purchase decision as well as the product results. Even though an association between cognitive

87

dissonance about the purchase and the level of satisfaction was not found, any discomfort about the product could hinder customer satisfaction. In addition, the antecedents of cognitive dissonance (post-purchase information, purchase involvement, and attractive alternatives) were also found in both aspects of cognitive dissonance.

Lastly, product performance was also found to have an impact on both aspects of cognitive dissonance. That is, when the product did not perform well, they felt unsure as to whether they had made the right purchase decision, and whether the products suited their skin condition or complexion. It is important to note the distinction between product performance and cognitive dissonance about the product. While product performance could be defined as the ability of the color cosmetics to deliver the promised functional or emotional benefits (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011), cognitive dissonance about the product, based on the exploratory research findings and adaptation of the definition proposed by Festinger (1975), could be referred to as the psychological discomfort about the product results. Therefore, it could be concluded that product performance could be the antecedent of cognitive dissonance about the product, as suggested by the disconfirmation paradigm (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997) which indicates the direct impact of product performance on disconfirmation about the product performance. The conceptual framework based on the review of related literature and exploratory research is depicted in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.3: Conceptual Framework based on the Review of Related Literature and Studies
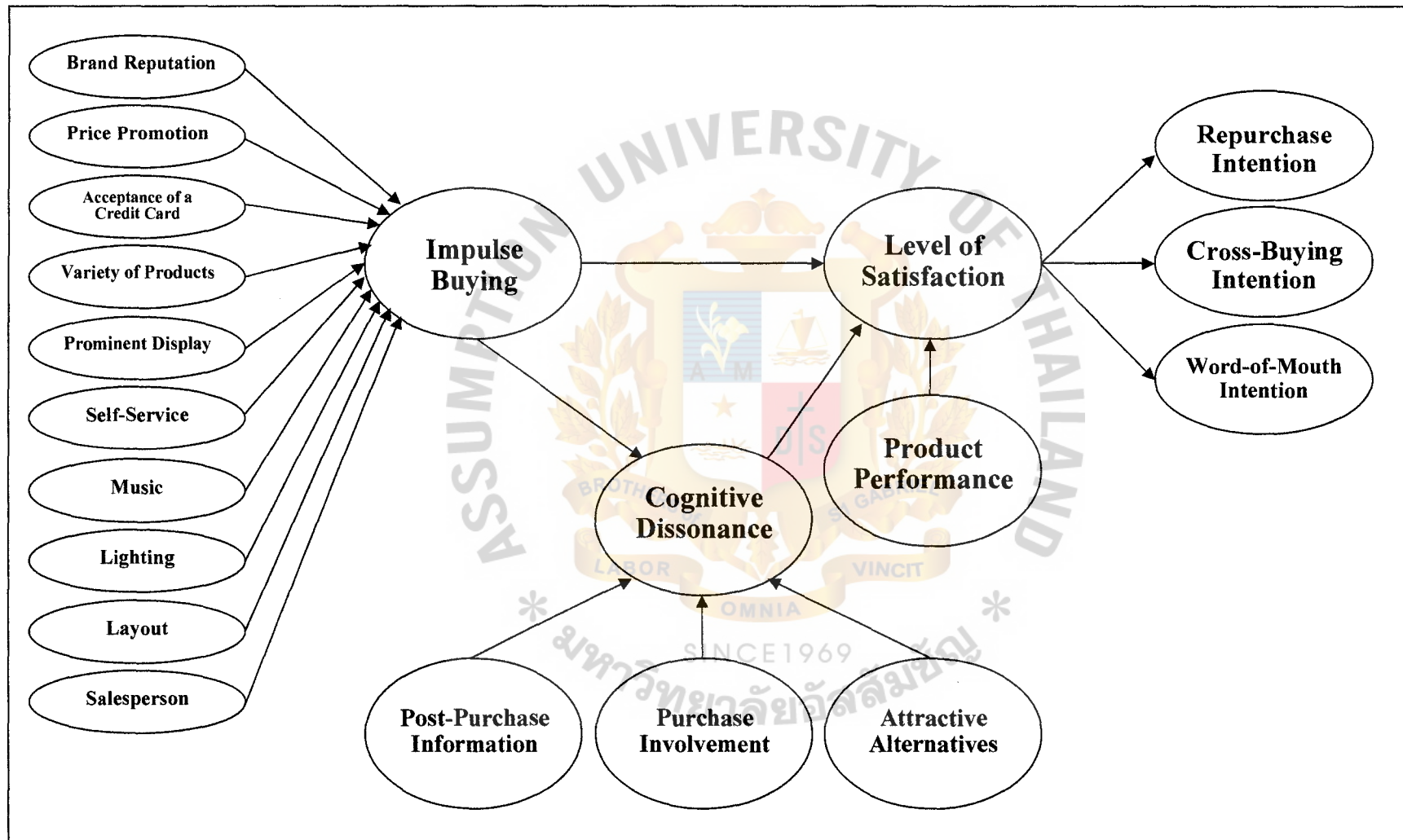
Figure 3.4 Conceptual Framework Based on Related Literature and Studies and Experimental Review of Related Research
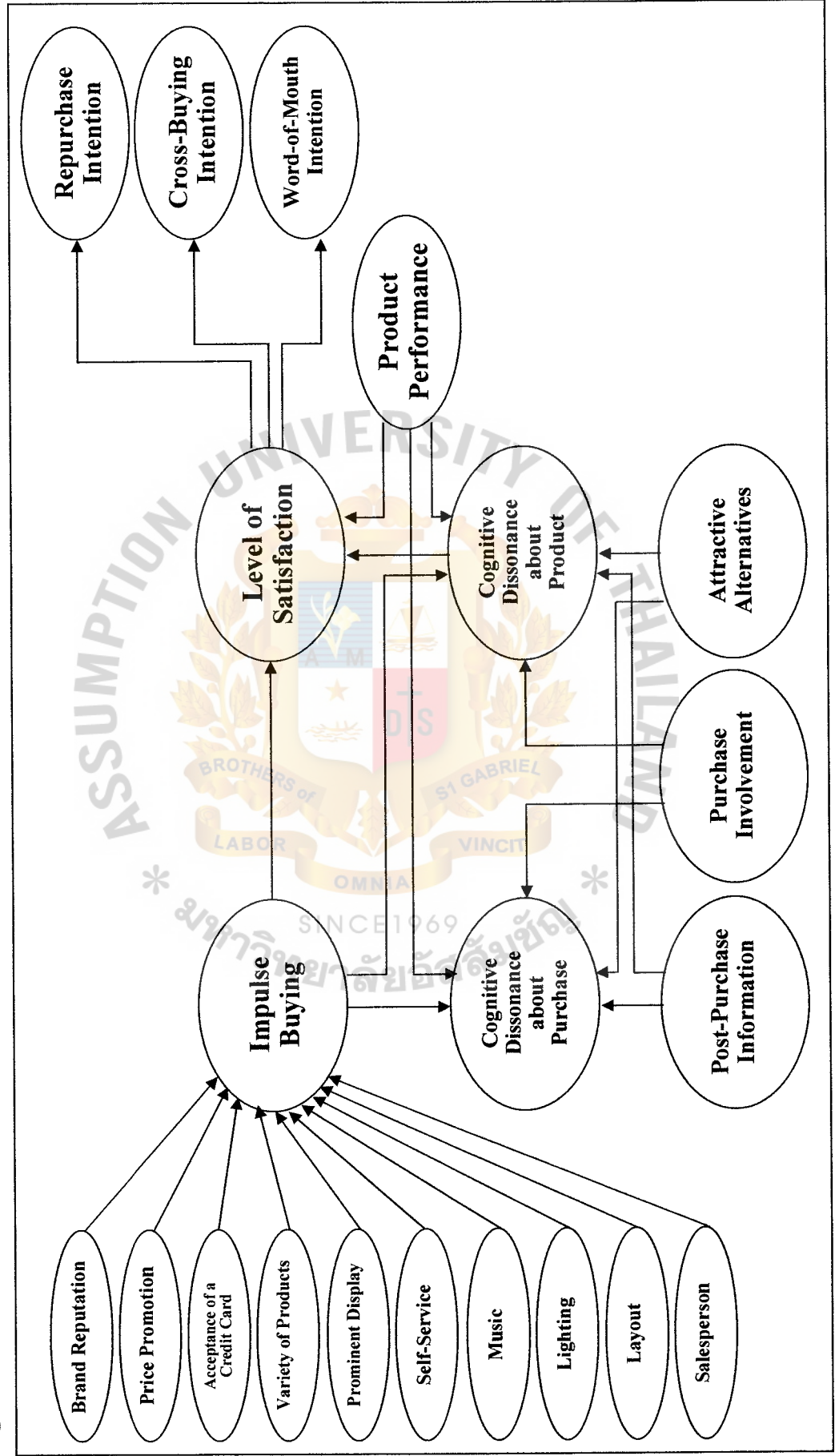
3.4 Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are composed of six main groups, which are (1) the influence of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying, (2) the influence of impulse buying on the level of satisfaction and cognitive dissonance, (3) the influence of cognitive dissonance on the level of satisfaction, (4) the influence of antecedents on cognitive dissonance, (5) the influence of product performance on the level of satisfaction, and (6) the influence of the level of satisfaction on post-purchase behavioral intentions. The explanation behind each hypothesis is as follows.

3.4.1 The Influence of In-Store Marketing Stimuli on Impulse Buying

As previously explained in the reviewed literature, there are numerous influential factors on impulse buying. However, this study focuses only on in-store marketing stimuli because approximately two-thirds of purchase decisions are made in the store (Solomon, 2001) and around seventy percent of unplanned purchases are encouraged by in-store stimuli (Abratt and Goodey, 1990; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Liao et al., 2009). In this study, in-store marketing stimuli are composed of brand reputation, price promotion, acceptance of a credit card, the variety of products, a prominent display, self-service, music, lighting, layout and salesperson.

Brand Reputation: Brand reputation is the perception of product quality associated with the brand name (Seines, 1993). It is one of the most crucial marketing components utilized in differentiating a company's product from its competitors, (O'Cass and Lim, 2002; Jevons, 2005), conveying a product's characteristics and quality (Belch and Belch, 2007), as well as assuring risk minimization in a situation where a consumer needs to select from similar product alternatives (Hill, 2009). In the current competitive situation where consumers are exposed to various values attached to the brands, the need to satisfy their preferred values can encourage them to purchase on impulse (Duarte et al., 2013). That is, a brand with high reputation could successfully remind customers of its product in the buying environment, and subsequently trigger impulsive buying behavior (Tinne, 2010; Duarte et al., 2013). Similarly, the findings from the exploratory research also suggested the influence of

brand reputation on perceived product quality, credibility, as well as the purchase decision. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1a: Brand reputation significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Price promotion: It arouses impulse purchase not only because it motivates a customer to have a product trial, which reduces perceived risk of trying new or unfamiliar products (Ndubisi, 2005), but also because it is associated with the value of saving money by spending less money than the amount originally planned (Stern, 1962; Kim, 2014). Therefore, impulse buying is encouraged by a lower-price strategy (Huh& and Vanyushyn, 2011), which convinces them to overspend (Sirhindi, 2010). That is, customers tend to purchase on impulse when products are cheap or on sale (Stern, 1962; Maymand and Ahmadinejad, 2011). In addition, the findings from the exploratory research revealed that price promotion could arouse participants to purchase more mass color cosmetics items than they had planned; some stocked the products even though they had not run out of the product, and might not even use it. However, it is also crucial to consider the inverted U-shaped of consumer reaction to price discounts (Grewal et al., 1996). That is, a customer will perceive an increase in monetary value when a price discount moves from a low to a moderate level, but they will perceive product uncertainty when the price discount is high (Kim, 2014). Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1b: Price promotion significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Acceptance of a credit card: Compared to cash, credit cards provide customers with more convenience and it is a less painless method by making customers feel that they are not actually spending money (Karbasivar and Yarahmadi, 2011) and eliminating the instant need for money to make a payment, which leaves customers aroused to spend more than they originally planned (Schor, 1998). Moreover, the findings from the exploratory research suggested that a credit card offered participants various advantages over payment by cash, such as collecting points, and paying back in installments. In addition, it was convenient when they did not have enough cash or

92

could not find an automated teller machine (ATM). Therefore, both previous research (Robert and Jones, 2001) and the exploratory research suggest a positive relationship between the acceptance of a credit card and impulse buying. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1c: Acceptance of a credit card significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Variety of products: With a large selection of products available in the store, it is now not necessary for customers to plan their purchase in advance (Stern, 1962; Bowlbey, 1997; Bayley and Nancarrow, 1998). Moreover, the findings from the exploratory research revealed that the variety of products could induce impulse buying in the context of mass color cosmetics products because participants could make a product comparison between various products and have more chance to test and choose a product. In addition, the results also showed that a wide range of products excited and induced them to purchase more products. Therefore, a great variety of products offer customers a favorable shopping environment for impulse buying (Stern, 1962; Dawson and Kim, 2010). Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1d: Variety of products significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Prominent display: An eye-catching display attracts customers' attention to the product (Desmet and Renaudin, 1998; Lee and Kacen, 2008), and subsequently encourages them to purchase on impulse (Reungsinpinya, 2011). The results from the exploratory research consistently suggested that prominent displays attracted participants' attention to a product by enhancing product presentation, and subsequently making it more attractive. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1e: Prominent display significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

93

Self-service: Compared to clerk-serviced counters, self-service is more likely motivate customers to perform impulse purchase because they do not have to rely on a salesperson for their shopping experience (Sirhindi, 2010). That is, they have more freedom to browse through and try on products, and are not rushed, delayed or restricted by a salesperson (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Lee et al., 2001). Similarly, participants in the in-depth interviews explained that they preferred self-service to salesperson-services because they wanted to freely and comfortably spend their time making the purchase without being interrupted or pressured, yet salespersons still played a significant role in answering questions for unfamiliar items. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H1f: Self-service significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Store environment: A positive shopping atmosphere can encourage customers to stay longer, spend more money and subsequently purchase on impulse (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Sherman et al., 1997; Foxall and Greenley, 2000). The store environment includes three main components of ambient (music and lighting), design (layout) and social (salesperson) factors (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). Pleasant music, well-designed lighting systems, and an appropriate layout create a positive emotional state and motivate customers to spend extra and unplanned time and money in the store, and consequently encourage them to purchase on impulse (Milliman, 1982; 1986; Smith, 1989; Yoo et al., 1998; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Mattila and Wirtz, 2001). A salesperson assists customers in exploring the store and creates an emotional attraction toward the products, and subsequently persuades them to make an impulse purchase (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991; Park and Lennon, 2006; Mohan et al., 2013).

The findings from the exploratory research further suggested that chill-out music made the shopping experience more enjoyable, and decent lighting also impacted how accurately participants saw the product's color and information. In addition, walkways should also be wide enough so that customers could walk pass each other comfortably, and would not make the store feel too crowded. In addition, participants claimed that salespersons, who played a crucial role in their purchase decision, should

94

possessed an appropriate level of product knowledge and be able to clearly answer the questions in a friendly and polite way. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

H1g: Music significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H1h: Lighting significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H1i: Layout significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H1j: Salesperson significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

3.4.2 The Influence of Impulse Buying on the Level of Satisfaction and Cognitive Dissonance

The Influence of Impulse Buying on the Level of Satisfaction
As impulse buying is an unplanned and less deliberative purchase, it thus likely to arouses cognitive dissonance, which further hinders customers from being satisfied (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). On the other hand, Chen (2002) argued that customer satisfaction can be evident after an impulse purchase. Furthermore, several academicians (Gardner and Rook, 1998; Yang, 2006) claimed that impulse buying is the purchase behavior with two possible evaluations: regret and satisfaction. Therefore, the relationship between impulse buying and customer satisfaction is uncertain and needs further study (Kang, 2013).Regarding the results from the exploratory research in the context of mass color cosmetics, the results revealed that most participants were satisfied with the product's performance after they had made an impulse purchase. One even admitted that she was happy that she had bought it and possessed it because she believed that it would enhance her appearance. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H2: Impulse buying significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

95

The Influence of Impulse Buying on Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)

Since impulse buying is an unplanned or immediate purchase behavior (Rook and Fisher, 1995), where the purchase decision mostly lacks proper consideration and conflicts with personal best judgment (Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991), it likely encourages cognitive dissonance in the post-purchase stage (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010; Imam, 2013). For instance, the study undertaken by George and Yaoyuneyong (2010) revealed a significantly higher level of cognitive dissonance resulting from impulse buying than from planned buying.

In addition, regarding the results from the exploratory research, some participants revealed that the shopping experience was very enjoyable, or they encountered an arousing shopping environment in which they bought too many products. At the point of payment, they started to feel uneasy and question themselves about their purchase decision about the products they had not intended to purchase or the products they might never use; some even found that they already had similar items. Moreover, since they did not thoroughly consider the product information before making the purchase decision, some were unsure about the product results because they were unfamiliar with the products; the product results were not the same as when they had tested them in the store, or the products did not suit their skin condition. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

H3a: Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H3b: Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

3.4.3 The Influence of Cognitive Dissonance (Product) on the Level of Satisfaction

It is important to differentiate cognitive dissonance from the satisfaction level. Cognitive dissonance, the psychological discomfort felt by consumers when being exposed to conflicting cognitions, is proven to be an antecedent or to have an influence on the purchase decision process, and ultimately the level of satisfaction

96

(Festinger, 1957; Solomon et al., 2006; Lake, 2009; Chen, 2011; Shao and Shao, 2011; Park et al., 2012; Sharifi and Esfidani, 2014). That is, while high cognitive dissonance motivates dissatisfaction, reduced cognitive dissonance encourages satisfaction (Cooper, 2007; Lake, 2009).

Regarding the relationship between cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the satisfaction level, the exploratory research results revealed that even though many participants were uncomfortable about their purchase decision, most of them quickly recovered from this uneasy feeling and were satisfied with the product performance. Therefore, there might not be an association between cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the level of satisfaction. Specifically, in this study, the level of satisfaction refers to the attitudes towards the product results, not the purchasing activity. Hence, only the relationship between cognitive dissonance about the product and the level of satisfaction should be tested while the relationship between the cognitive dissonance about the purchase and the level of satisfaction is excluded.

On the other hand, based on the expectancy disconfirmation model, Kang (2013) suggested a relationship between dissonance about the product performance and post-purchase satisfaction. That is, negative disconfirmation about the actual product performance will lead to dissatisfaction while positive disconfirmation towards the actual product performance will lead to satisfaction. Moreover, based on the impulse buying mechanisms, cognitive dissonance about the product may be stimulated because the purchase decision is unplanned and less deliberate, and could further reduce customer satisfaction for the particular item. Hence, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H4: Cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores significantly influences the level of satisfaction.

3.4.4 The Influence of Post-purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance on Cognitive Dissonance

The Influence of Post-Purchase Information on Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)

Mao and Oppewal (2010) indicated that customers' post-purchase evaluation is influenced by the information received after the purchase. That is, customers would rather read promotional information in the post-consumption stage in order to justify their purchase decision, avoid inconsistent information, and selectively focus on the positive or confirmatory aspect of the product in order to reduce their cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Engel, 1963; Donnelly and Ivancevich, 1970). Therefore, a post-purchase advertising message that reassures customers about their purchase decision would play a crucial role in cognitive dissonance reduction (Engel, 1963; Oshikawa, 1969; Hunt, 1970).

The exploratory research findings revealed that when some participants were unsure about or questioned their purchase decision or the results of the cosmetics they purchased, they sometimes asked opinions from their friends, family members, or an online community to confirm that they had made the right purchase decision and to ensure that the products were suitable for them.

However, certain study found that some customers who were exposed to post-purchase information felt more psychological discomfort, and it can be implied that post-purchase information did not only appear to be ineffective, but worsened the situation (Hunt, 1970). Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

> **H5a:** Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
> **H5b:** Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

The Influence of Purchase Involvement on Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)

Several academicians (Festinger, 1957; Hunt, 1970; Ivy et al., 1978; Korgaonkar and Moschis, 1982) suggested that when the decision is important, relevant to an individual, and involves a significant amount of time, money and/or psychological cost, cognitive dissonance will be aroused. Interestingly, even though self-selected mass color cosmetics are not perceived as luxury items, they still play a crucial role in facilitating an individual to achieve the portrayal of their idealized self-image (Beausoleil, 1994; Thompson and Haytko, 1997). In addition, Langner (1996) suggested that when an individual is personally involved with their purchase decision or when they are anxious about the product's results, cognitive dissonance will likely occur. Hence, based on Langner's (1996) assumption, purchase involvement should have an influence on cognitive dissonance about both the purchase decision and the product.

The findings from the exploratory research indicated that the participants felt uneasy after they purchased expensive items. Moreover, some were also psychologically uncomfortable when they found that the product results did not match their needs because the products were too expensive or irritated their skin.

On the other hand, George and Edward (2009) explained that the degree of cognitive dissonance experienced by highly involved customers was less than that experienced by low involved customers. They also claimed that, based on attribution theory by Heider (1958), higher purchase involvement led to higher self-attribution to the perception of product failure; subsequently, they justified their actions with biased personal decisions to overcome the cognitive dissonance. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

H6a: Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H6b: Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

The Influence of Attractive Alternatives on Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)

Customers who voluntarily choose a product from alternatives would normally experience post-purchase dissonance when they question whether they had made the right choice (Festinger, 1957). Furthermore, Sheth (1970) suggested a significant degree of cognitive dissonance in a high-conflict situation where each alternative is equally attractive. That is, when alternatives are similarly attractive, rejecting alternatives could cause customers an internal conflict, and subsequent cognitive dissonance (Liang, 2014). In addition, when customers realize the advantage of forgone alternatives, even when the purchased product performs well, they will likely experience cognitive dissonance (Inman et al., 1997).

Regarding the results from the exploratory research, some said that it took them a while to select from similar attractive alternatives; they admitted that they wanted to purchase the forgone alternatives too even though they were already satisfied with the selected product. Furthermore, the findings also indicated that the participants were dissonant when they chose a product from various alternatives, and they found that the selected product left them unsatisfied and regretted that they had rejected other product alternatives. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

H7a: The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H7b: The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

The Influence of Product Performance on Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)

Regarding the results from the exploratory research, product performance had an impact on the participants' post-consumption discomfort, especially for products they had never tried before. That is, when the product did not perform well, they would feel uneasy or unsure as to whether they had made the right purchase decision, and were unsure whether the products suited their skin condition or complexion. It is also

100

important to note the distinction between product performance and cognitive dissonance about the product. While product performance could be defined as the ability of the color cosmetics to deliver the promised functional or emotional benefits (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011), cognitive dissonance about the product, based on the exploratory research findings and adaptation of the definition proposed by Festinger (1975), could be referred to as the psychological discomfort about the product results. Therefore, it could be concluded that product performance could be the antecedent of cognitive dissonance about the product, as suggested by the disconfirmation paradigm (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997) which indicates the direct impact of product performance on disconfirmation. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows.

H8a: Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

H8b: Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

3.4.5 The Influence of Product Performance on the Level of Satisfaction

Several studies suggested that product performance is the sole or dominant direct impact on the satisfaction level (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Tse and Wilton, 1988; Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010). In addition, this strong positive relationship is well documented in various studies across cultures and product categories (Yi, 1990; Fornell, 1992; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Shukla, 2004). The results from the exploratory research suggested that every participant evaluated their satisfaction level about the products based on the product's performance and results. That is, they were satisfied with the product when they found that the product suited their skin condition and complexion, was long-lasting, left their face smooth and natural, and did not irritate their facial skin. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H9: Product performance significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

3.4.6 The Influence of the Level of Satisfaction on Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

The Influence of the Level of Satisfaction on Repurchase Intention

Normally, customers evaluate their purchase intention based on their previous experience (Olaru et al., 2008). Customer satisfaction has been widely claimed to have a significant impact on repurchase intention (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Cronin et al., 2000). That is, if customers are satisfied with a product, they are likely to have the intention to repurchase (Kotler, 1999). The exploratory research findings revealed that most participants would continue using the color cosmetics items with which they were satisfied, and would repurchase them after they finished them even though there were other similarly interesting items, and some would even stock the products up. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H10a: Level of satisfaction significantly influences repurchase intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

The Influence of the Level of Satisfaction on Cross-Buying Intention

Customer satisfaction has been widely claimed to have a significant direct positive effect on a customer's intention to buy additional products from the same brand (Cardozo, 1965; Ngobo, 2004; Kumar et al., 2008). That is, a customer is supposed to be satisfied with the current product before considering additional items (Soureli et al., 2008).The findings from the exploratory research suggested that when the participants were satisfied with an item from a certain brand, they would have the intention to purchase other products from they same brand because they had confidence and trust in the brand's product quality. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H10b: Level of satisfaction significantly influences cross-buying intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

The Influence of the Level of Satisfaction on Word-of-Mouth Intention

Word-of-mouth, an informal communication as a result of the evaluation of a product without commercial intention (Kuo, Hu and Yang, 2013), has been shown to have a

linkage with customer satisfaction (Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989). That is, a customer with a high level of satisfaction is likely to communicate positive word-of-mouth about a product (Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989; Yi, 1990; Sarangapani and Mamatha, 2009). The participants from the in-depth interviews stated that if they were satisfied with the product, they would recommend it to others because they wanted them to experience a good product as well, and some even shared some of a product with others so that they could have a product trial. Therefore, the hypothesis is proposed as follows.

H10c: Level of satisfaction significantly influences word-of-mouth intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

Table 3.2 summarizes the list of hypothesized relationships in this study, as follows.

Table 3.2: List of Hypotheses

	Hypotheses
H1a:	Brand reputation significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1b:	Price promotion significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
Mc:	Acceptance of a credit card significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 d:	Variety of products significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 e:	Prominent display significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 f:	Self-service significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 g:	Music significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 h:	Lighting significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1i:	Layout significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1 j:	Salesperson significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H2:	Impulse buying significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H3a:	Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H3b:	Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.

103

Table 3.2 (Continued): List of Hypotheses

	H. ypotheses
H4:	Cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores significantly influences the level of satisfaction.
H5a:	Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H5b:	Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H6a:	Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H6b:	Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H7a:	The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H7b:	The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H8a:	Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H8b:	Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
1-19:	Product performance significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10a:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences repurchase intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10b:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences cross-buying intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10c:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences word-of-mouth intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

104

CHAPTER IV
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology to explain the relationship between in-store marketing stimuli, impulse buying behavior and post-purchase evaluation for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. The research methodology is composed of the methods of research used, the respondents of the study, the research instruments/questionnaire, the sampling procedures and sample size, the data collection procedures, and the statistical treatment of data.

4.1 Methods of Research Used

This study aimed to investigate the impact of in-store marketing stimuli and post-purchase evaluation of impulse buying in the context of mass color cosmetics in Bangkok. It involved a two-stage process, including both qualitative and quantitative research designs. Regarding Stage I, exploratory research was employed by conducting in-depth interviews with 21 participants who impulsively purchased mass color cosmetics in order to acquire additional insights and ideas (Malhotra, 2004) in addition to the extensive literature review on in-store marketing stimuli and the consequences of impulse buying (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.1).

In Stage II, descriptive research was employed by conducting a person-administered questionnaire survey, in which structured questions were read, face-to-face, to the target respondents and recorded by data collectors (Burns and Bush, 2003). This method allows the standardization of question items and format as well as the possibility to ask questions that cannot be directly observed from a large sample size (Burns and Bush, 2003). The research instrument (questionnaire), the measurement items and their adjustments resulted from the pretest results are described in the following sections.

4.2 Questionnaire Development

To accomplish the research objectives, a person-administered questionnaire comprising structured questions was applied to collect the primary data for this study. Regarding the questionnaire development process, there were several marketing academicians and practitioners involved, including two marketing instructors, two marketing researchers, one translator (public relations instructor), one cosmetics marketing manager, and three mass color cosmetics consumers.

The English questionnaire was first developed from the extensive review of literature and the exploratory research findings. The wording of each question items was adjusted to suit the context of mass color cosmetics that are available at self-selection stores. This English questionnaire was later translated into a Thai version by the author under the verification of the first marketing instructor and the first marketing researcher.

Back translation was also undertaken by a public relations instructor from an international university who had never seen the English version before. After that, the original English questionnaire and the back-translated questionnaire were compared to examine the consistency in the meaning between these two versions, and there was no significant difference between them as verified by both marketing instructors.

In addition, the second marketing instructor, the second marketing researcher, and the cosmetics marketing manager were invited to determine the content validity of the Thai questionnaire as to whether the measurement items represented all aspects of the hypothesized constructs. Furthermore, the first color cosmetics consumer was also invited to check their understanding of each question and provide feedback on the overall questionnaire. Consequently, both Thai and English questionnaires were revised based on the feedback and recommendations of the aforementioned experts and consumers.

After that, only the Thai version of the questionnaire was distributed to the target respondents in the pretest by a person-administered survey method, and all data collectors were required to observe the target respondents' reaction and ask their

opinions on the questionnaire. Subsequently, adjustments in both the Thai and English questionnaires were performed again by the author based on the feedback of both respondents and data collectors under the verification of the second marketing instructor, both marketing researchers and the second and the third mass color cosmetics consumers. Lastly, the final version of the Thai questionnaire was distributed to the target respondents in the data collection procedure.

4.2.1 Questionnaire Layout

The questionnaire was composed of five main parts, which were (1) general information on the mass color cosmetics purchasing experience at self-selection stores in Bangkok, (2) in-store marketing stimuli, (3) post-purchase evaluation, (4) post-purchase behavioral intentions, and (5) personal information. The details of measurement items are clarified in the following parts.

Part I The question items were designed to ask the respondents about their color cosmetics purchasing experience as well as to screen out respondents who were not targeted in this study. In this part, the respondents were asked to describe their previous color cosmetics purchasing experience, whether they made the payment with a credit card, as well as the types of stores they visited and the types of products they purchased.

Part II, III and IV The question items were composed of those responding to the measurement constructs. Altogether, there were 88 items representing in-store marketing stimuli (brand reputation, price-promotion, acceptance of credit card, variety of products, prominent displays, self-service, music, lighting, layout and salesperson), impulse buying behavior, post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives, product performance, cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision, cognitive dissonance about the product, the level of satisfaction, and post-purchase behavioral intentions (repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention). The details of each measurement item are discussed in the following section.

107

Part V The respondents were asked for personal information about their gender, age, education, income and marital status.

4.2.2 Item Measurements

The survey instrument consisted of multi-item measurement of all constructs, which were measured by a five-point Likert scale, where 1 denotes "strongly disagree", 2 denotes "disagree", 3 denotes "neither agree nor disagree", 4 denotes "agree" and 5 denotes "strongly agree". The measurement items were mostly adapted from reliable and valid measures of previous empirical researches while some items were designed based on the findings from the exploratory research (in-depth interviews) to best reflect consumer behavior in the mass color cosmetics context. The details of the measurement items for each construct are shown in Table 4.1 as well as the information as follows:

Brand Reputation - Regarding the measurement items of brand reputation, the first two items (Item 1 and 2) were adapted from Strizhakova, Coulter and Price (2008); while the third and fourth items (Item 3 and 4) 4 were adapted from Thamizhvanan and Xavier (2013)

Price Promotion – The first two items of price promotion were adapted from Tung, Kuo and Kuo (2011) (Item 5 and 6), the third item from Saleh (2012) (Item 7), and the last item from Kim (2003) (Item 8).

Acceptance of a Credit Card – The second and third items of acceptance of credit card were adapted from Khare, Khare and Singh (2012) (Item 10 and 11), and the fourth item from Awanis and Cui (2014 (Item 12) while the first item (Item 9) was designed based on the exploratory research findings to better reflect the consumer attitudes in the context of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores. That is, there were four participants who mentioned that credit card payment had made their purchase decision easier because they were not or were less worried about the amount they had to pay, as participant no.9 stated, "I am less worried about the amount I have to pay because I do not have to worry about cash in my pocket. It has made my purchase much easier."

108

Variety of Products – All measurement items under variety of products (Item 13 to 16) were adapted from Nguyen et al. (2007).

Prominent Displays – The first three measurement items (Item 17 to 19) under prominent displays were adapted from Karbasivar and Yarahmadi (2011); while the last item (Item 20) was designed for this study based on the exploratory research results to cover more aspects of prominent displays in the context of mass color cosmetics. Specifically, seven participants revealed that appealing cosmetic shelves had interested and encouraged them to try the products being displayed, as participant no.3 said, "Appealing cosmetics shelves have increased my possibilities to try the products."

Self-Service – All four measurement items (Item 21 to 24) under self-service were adapted from Ltifi (2013).

Store Environment – Store environment is composed of four constructs of music, lighting, layout and salesperson. The first three items under music (Item 25 to 27), lighting (Item 29 to 31), and salesperson (Item 37 to 39) were adapted from Mohan et al. (2013), while the first three items under layout (Item 33 to 35) were adapted from Nguyen et al. (2007), and the last item (Item 36) was adapted from Jin and Kim (2003). The rest of the measurement items (Item 28, 32 and 40) were specially designed for this study based on the exploratory research results to better reflect consumer behavior in the context of self-selected color cosmetics.

Regarding the last item under music (Item 28), five respondents said that they preferred soft, chilling and relaxing music, as participant no.14 stated, "Relaxing music has relaxed my shopping experience, and I feel like I can take my time shopping for cosmetics." Furthermore, in terms of the last item under lighting (Item 32), four participants were concerned about how the lights illuminated the cosmetics' color, as participant no.16 stated, "Bright light has made me clearly and accurately see the products' true color as well as the label." Lastly, regarding the last item under salesperson (Item 40), 12 participants revealed that they preferred the salespersons to leave them some space while they were shopping, as participant no.2 mentioned, "I

think salespersons' recommendations are biased toward the brands they represent because they want commission fees. There were many times I felt pressured when they were around, and I could not freely choose a product, which may even be better than the product recommended by them."

Post-Purchase Information – The first measurement item (Item 41) under post-purchase information was adapted from Newell, Wu, Titus and Petroshius (2011)'s dissonance scale, while the other items (Item 42 to 44) were developed based on the exploratory research results because the other measurement items representing post-purchase information in the context of mass color cosmetics could not be found. Four participants mentioned about seeking product information after the purchase decision, and regarding the second and the third items (Item 42 and 43), participant no.12 revealed, "Whenever I felt unsure or questioned about the product results, I would normally ask my friend whether the products looked fine on me. Sometimes I also read the online non-commercial product review or ask other product users in the online community." Regarding the last item (Item 44), participant no.16 claimed, "When I saw the commercial information on products that did not work for me, I would ignore it because I disagree with the product claims."

Purchase Involvement – The first three measurement items were adapted from McQuarrie and Munson (1986) (Item 45 to 47), and the fourth item from Cho (2002) (Item 48), while the last item (Item 49) was specifically designed for this study based on the exploratory research results to best reflect consumer attitudes towards purchase involvement in the context of self-selected color cosmetics. That is, many participants revealed that the cosmetics purchase decision was important because they could enhance their personality and self-image, as participant no.6 stated "Wearing make-up improves my appearance, and enhances my personality. Without make-up, I do not have confidence to leave the house and meet people."

Attractive Alternatives – The first three measurement items (Item 50 to 52) under attractive alternatives were adapted from Kuo et al. (2013), while the last item (Item 53) was designed for this study from the exploratory research results to better reflect self-selected color cosmetics consumer behavior. Specifically, there were five participants who claimed that they should have purchased the forgone alternatives, as

participant no.16 stated, "Each alternative had its own attributes and pros and cons, so it was quite difficult to choose between them. Sometimes the product I bought disappointed me, and I felt that I should have bought the other alternatives."

Product Performance – The first three items (Item 54 to 56) under product performance was adapted from Broyles, Ross and Leingpibul (2009), and the last item (Item 57) was designed for this study based on the results from the exploratory research to better reflect consumer attitudes towards self-selected color cosmetic performance. That is, five participants were concerned whether they would get allergic reactions from applying cosmetics, as participant no.13 claimed, "The ideal foundation for me are those that do not leave my face oily during the day and irritate my skin."

Impulse Buying Behavior – The first three measurement items under impulse buying behavior were adapted from Verhagen and Van Dolen (2011) (Item 58 to 60), the fourth item from Mattila and Wirtz (2008) (Item 61), and the last item from Chang et al. (2014b) (Item 62).

Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase – Since the construct of cognitive dissonance about purchase was identified in the exploratory research, the measurement items were adapted from different studies. The first item was adapted from Sweeney et al. (2000) (Item 63), the second and the fourth items from Newell et al. (2011) (Item 64 and 66), and the fifth item from O'Neill and Palmer (2004) (Item 67), while the third item (Item 65) was developed in this study based on the results from the exploratory research to better reflect consumer behavior for self-selected color cosmetics.

Cognitive Dissonance about Product – All five measurement items (Item 68 to 72) under cognitive dissonance about the product were adapted from Sweeney et al. (2000).

Level of Satisfaction – The first two measurement items representing the level of satisfaction were adapted from McCollough and Gremler (2004) (Item 73 and 74), and the last two items were adapted from Kuo et al. (2013) (Item 75 and 76).

111

Repurchase Intention - The first and the third measurement items under repurchase intention were adapted from Kuo et al. (2013) (Item 77 and 79), the second item from Broyles et al. (2009) (Item 78), and the last item from Wang and Ha (2011) (Item 80).

Cross-Buying Intention -- The first and the last measurement items of cross-buying intention in this study were adapted from Hong and Lee (2012) (Item 81 and 84), and the second and the third items from Ngobo (2004) (Item 82 and 83).

Word-of-Mouth Intention – The first three measurement items (Item 85 to 87) representing word-of-mouth intention were adapted from Mourni (2005), while the fourth item (Item 88) was designed for this study based on the exploratory research results to better reflect consumer attitudes towards word-of-mouth intention in the context of self-selected color cosmetics. Specifically, nine participants claimed that they would like to share information in detail about cosmetics items that satisfied them with other people as participant no.10 mentioned, "When I am satisfied with certain items, I normally recommend them to my friends. I would tell them how much I like them and I am not get allergic to them. Sometimes, I also give them some portion so that they can try before making the purchase decision."

The following table presents the summary of measurement items, conceptual definitions, measurement items and sources.

Constructs	Conceptual Definition	Measurement Items	Sources
r e atio	A perception of the product quality attached to the brand name (Selnes, 1993).	**Item1** A brand name was an important source of information about the credibility of the product. **Item2** I could tell a lot about the item's quality from the brand name. **Item3** It is important for me to buy color cosmetics with well-known brand names. **Item4** When I shop for color cosmetics, I would prefer to buy well-known	trizhakova, Coulter and 'rice, 2008 Thamizhvanan and Xavier (2013).
Price Promotion	A monetary incentive utilized to instantly encourage a customer to buy a product or behave in a favorable way toward a brand (adopted from Shimp, 2003).	**Item5** The shopping was well worth doing because of the price promotion offerings. **Item6** My willingness to purchase arose when I noticed the price promotion activities. **Item7** I visited this store because it offered price promotion. **Item8** Sale signs enticed me to look through color cosmetic products.	Tung, Kuo and Kuo, 2011 Saleh (2012) Kim (2003)
A e ta ed c	A payment method that eliminates the instant need for money to buy something, and provides certain incentives to increase the purchasing temptation (adopted from Schor, 1998; Coley and Burgess, 2003; Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).	**Item9** A credit card payment made the total amount to pay less worrisome. **Item10** There were more advantages with a credit card payment than with cash (reward points, paying by installments, minimum payment due). **Item11** It was more convenient to pay by credit card than by cash. **Item12** Because of a credit card payment, it felt like I was not spending my own money.	Exploratory research Khare, Khare and Singh (2012) Awanis and Cui, 2014
Variety of products	A wide range of product selection available in a certain store or brand (adopted from Nguyen et al., 2007).	**Item13** Several products were available under the brand I purchased. **Item14** This brand offered a variety of products, compared to other brands. **Item15** Many popular color cosmetic items are from this brand. **Item16** This brand regularly launches new products.	Nguyen, Nguyen and Barrett (2007)

Constructs	Conceptual Definition	Items	Sources
Product display	An eye-catching display that encourages a consumer to notice a product (adopted from Desmet and Renaudin, 1998)	**Item17** I visited the color cosmetics' counters because the product display was attractive. **Item18** I paid attention to the product display. **Item19** I was interested in shopping at well-designed counters. **Item20** The displays were appealing.	Karbasivar and Yarahmadi (2011) Exploratory research
Self-service	The service transaction that is undertaken by the customers themselves (Globerson and Maggard, 1991)	**Item21** Self-service was convenient. **Item22** Self-service made me feel comfortable. **Item23** I enjoyed self-service. **Item24** I found self-service to be pleasant.	Ltifi (2013)
Music	One of a non-visual conditions (Baker et al., 1994; 2002) and a crucial ambient factor in the retail stores (Bitner, 1992)	**Item25** The store had pleasant music. **Item26** The store had appropriate music. **Item27** The store had terrible music. **Item28** The store had relaxing music.	Mohan Sivakumaran and Sharma (2013) Exploratory research
Lighting	One of a non-visual conditions (Baker et al., 1994; 2002) and a crucial ambient factor in the retail stores (Bitner, 1992)	**Item29** The store was well lit. **Item30** The store was correctly lit (neither too bright nor dull). **Item31** Lighting in the store was pleasant. **Item32** The store's lighting illuminated the true color of the products.	Mohan Sivakumaran and Sharma (2013) Exploratory research
Layout	The way products and aisles are arranged (Mohan et al., 2013)	**Item33** It was easy to move around in the store. **Item34** It was easy to locate products in the store. **Item35** The shelf was not too high to pick up color cosmetic items by hand. **Item36** The products were spaciously well arranged.	Nguyen, Nguyen and Barlett (2007) Jin and Kim (2003)
Salesperson	A person who assists customers to explore the store and the product (Mohan et al., 2013)	**Item37** Salespersons were knowledgeable. **Item38** Salespersons were friendly. **Item39** Salespersons were helpful. **Item40** Salespersons were too persuasive to recommend the products.	Mohan Sivakumaran and Sharma (2013) Exploratory research

Table 1 (Continued)

Constructs	Conceptual Definition	Measurement Items	Sources
Post-purchase information	Choice-confirmatory or inconsistent information that a customer encounters in their post-purchase stage (adopted from Mao andOppewal, 2010)	**Item41** After the purchase decision, I found myself looking for information from public media to confirm that I had made the right decision. **Item42** After the purchase decision, I sought out an opinion from my friends or family to comfort my feelings. **Item43** After the purchase decision, I read a non-commercial product review to confirm my purchase decision. **Item44** I tried to avoid inconsistent information about my purchase decision.	Newell, Wu, Titus and Petroshius (2011) Exploratory research
Purchase involvement	The relevance of the purchasing behavior to a consumer(Slama and Tashchian, 1985).	**Item45** The purchase decision I just made was very important. **Item46** The purchase decision I just made mattered a great deal to me. **Item47** The purchase decision I just made was relevant to me. **Item48** I spent a considerable amount of money for the products. **Item49** The purchase decision was important to my self-image.	McQuarrie and Munson (1986) Cho (2002) Exploratory research
Anticipated regret	The anticipation of acquiring more satisfaction from unchosen or foregone alternatives(Kuo et al., 2013).	**Item50** Many color cosmetics brands that were better than this brand were available for my choice. **Item51** I could obtain more satisfactory color cosmetic items from other brands than for this brand. **Item52** I could enjoy more benefits from other brands than from this brand. **Item53** Color cosmetics items from other brands would fit my needs more than this brand.	Kuo, Hu and Yang (2013) Exploratory research
Product performance	The product utility evaluated after the product is consumed (Adopted from Mugge et al., 2010).	**Item54** Color cosmetics under this brand fitted my needs. **Item55** This brand offered color cosmetics items that seemed like they were designed for me. **Item56** This brand offered color cosmetics items that I wanted to wear. **Item57** I did not have an allergy to color cosmetics under this brand.	royles, Ross andLeingpibul 2009) Exploratory research
Impulse buying behavior	An unplanned and sudden buying, which is resulted from an exposure to stimuli. It also involves cognitive and/or emotional reactions (Parboteeah, 2005).	**Item58** My purchase of this item of color cosmetics was spontaneous. **Item59** Before visiting the store, I did not have the intention to make this purchase. **Item60** I could not resist pure ası g mioterr of color cos etic **Item61** I bought more than I had planned to buy. **Item62** On this visit, I felt a sudden urge to buy something and 1 bought it.	Verhagen & Van Dolen (2011) Mattila & Wirtz (2008) Chang,Yan and Eckman (2014)

Constructs	Conceptual Definition	Items	Sources
Cognitive dissonance about purchase	The psychological discomfort about the purchase decision (adopted from Festinger, 1957 and exploratory research).	**Item63** I wondered whether I should have purchased the item I just purchased.	Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000)
		Item64 After the decision to buy this item, I felt very anxious about my purchase decision.	Newell, Wu, Titus and Petroshius (2011)
		Item65 I wondered whether I bought too many items.	Exploratory research
		Item66 I wondered if I made the right choice.	Newell, Wu, Titus and Petroshius (2011)
		Item67 I should have more time considering my choice of color cosmetics item.	O'Neill and Palmer (2004)
Cognitive dissonance about product	The psychological discomfort about the products being purchase (adopted from Festinger, 1957 and exploratory research).	**Item68** I wondered If I did the right thing in buying this item.	Sweeney, Hausknecht and Soutar (2000)
		Item69 I wondered if I really needed this item.	
		Item70 After I bought this product, I wondered whether there was something wrong with the deal I got.	
		Item71 After I bought this item, I wondered if I was fooled.	
		Item72 After I bought this product, I wondered if they had spun me a line.	
Level of satisfaction	An evaluation on the perceived performance of a certain consumption experience (Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins, 1983)	**Item73** I was very satisfied with this color cosmetics item.	McCollough and Gremler (2004)
		Item74 I felt this color cosmetics item was very rewarding.	Kuo, Hu and Yang (2013)
		Item75 It was a smart decision to purchase color cosmetics from this brand.	
		Item76 My consumption experience with this color cosmetics item was pleasant.	
Repurchase intention	A customer's decision to continue engaging in an activity provided by the retailer (Hume, Mort and Winzar, 2007).	**Item77** I will continue to purchase this color cosmetics item in the future.	Kuo, Hu and Yang (2013)
		Item78 I am likely to buy this color cosmetics item if I am in the mood to buy this type of color cosmetics.	Broyles, Ross and Leingpibul (2009)
		Item79 I expect repeat purchasing this color cosmetics item in the near future.	Kuo, Hu and Yang (2013)
		Item80 I will prefer this color cosmetics item as opposed to other brands' item in the future.	Wang and Ha (2011)
Cross-buying intention	An intention to purchase additional different products from the same provider (adopted from Verhoef et al., 2008; Reinartz et al., 2001; Ngobo, 2004).	**Item81** I have intentions to buy other types of color cosmetics from this brand.	Hong and Lee (2012)
		Item82 The chances are very low for me to buy other types of color cosmetics from this brand.	gobo (2004)
		Item83 On my next color-cosmetics purchase, I will seriously consider the product from this brand.	
		Item84 I will seriously consider the deal if it is from this brand.	-long and Lee (2012)

Conceptual Definition

An evaluation of a product without commercial intention, and is intended to be initiated through communication channels (adopted from Kuo et al., 2013).

Measurement

Item87 I will encourage others to buy color cosmetics items from this brand.

Exploratory research

4.2.3 Pretest

The pre-test was conducted to examine the questionnaire's face validity, the scale's reliability, the questionnaire's wording clarity, as well as the length of the interview and possible problems during the interview. To ensure that the target respondents answered the survey, the pretest was undertaken through a person-administered survey, in which the interviewers read questions to the respondents and recorded their answers with different interviewing techniques that best suited each respondent's needs and style (Burns and Bush, 2003)

Convenience sampling was performed and the data collection was undertaken in July 2015. 75 sets of questionnaires were distributed to fifteen-year-old and older consumers who impulsively purchase self-selected color cosmetics, and the data collection took place at shopping areas, universities and community areas in Bangkapi district. The average duration of each interview was approximately 20 minutes. Upon the completion of data collection, 75 questionnaires were returned, and 74 questionnaires were completed and usable.

After obtaining the pre-test questionnaire, the completeness and concordance of the answers were examined. In addition, the descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis and the scale reliability were also tested. An exploratory factor analysis was performed with the purpose of the orderly simplification of a significant number of intercorrelated measures to a few representative variables. Therefore, those variables that share similar dimensions should yield high correlations (Ho, 2006).

In addition, scale reliability refers to the scale's ability to consistently measure the phenomenon the study intends to measure (Ho, 2006). To determine the measurement's reliability, internal consistency is tested by employing the Cronbach's alpha. A high value of alpha suggests that all items under that particular variable are reliable and internally consistent (Ho, 2006), and the cutoff point is 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006).

118

4.2.3.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted using the SPSS statistics V22.0, principal component analysis was performed as the extraction method, and varimax with Kaiser Normalization was employed as the rotation method. Tables 4.2-4.5 present the results of the factor analysis of all items used to measure all variables in this study. Regarding the influential marketing factors on impulse buying behavior in Table 4.2, 40 items under ten in-store marketing stimulus constructs were entered into the factor analysis, and they were: brand, price promotion, acceptance of a credit card, variety of products, prominent displays, self-service, music, lighting, layout, and salesperson. The outputs reveal that the KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .769 and χ (df=780) = 2957.017, p<.001 indicate an adequacy to perform factor analysis. The factor analysis extracted ten factors with an Eigen value greater than one. However, item40 was cross-loading and will be deleted (see Section 4.2.4 for the details of question item adjustment).

In Table 4.3, factor analysis was performed on 17 items influencing cognitive dissonance and four constructs were extracted: post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance. The outputs reveal the KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .757 and χ (df=136) = 992.992, p<.001, implying an adequacy to perform factor analysis. However, five factors were extracted with Eigen values greater than one, where three items form an additional factor (item44, 47 and 55), and need further revision before the actual survey is undertaken.

In Table 4.4, factor analysis was performed on 19 items, four constructs were extracted: impulse buying behavior, cognitive dissonance about the purchase, cognitive dissonance about the product, and the level of satisfaction. The outputs reveal the KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .823 and χ (df = 171) = 1047.663, p<.001, indicating an appropriateness to perform factor analysis. Four factors were extracted as proposed, yet item60, 61, 62, 66 and 68 were cross-loading, and need to be revised before the actual survey proceeds.

119

In Table 4.5, factor analysis was performed on 12 items representing repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention, and the outputs revealed the KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .860 and χ^2 (df=66) = 793.528, p<.001, implying an appropriateness to perform factor analysis. Three factors were extracted as proposed, but there was one cross-loading item (item82) that needs to be revised.

Table 4.2: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha and Mean of In-Store Marketing Stimuli of Impulse Buying Behavior

	Mean	BRAND	PROMO	CREDIT	VARIETY	DISPLAY	SELF	MUSIC	LIGHT	LAYOUT	SALES
Item1	3.89	.773									
Item2	3.85	.827									
Item3	3.49	.867									
Item4	3.41	.802									
Item5	3.74		.889								
Item6	3.74		.930								
Item?	3.70		.919								
Item8	4.04		.845								
Item9	3.16			.939							
Item10	3.08			.935							
Item11	3.20			.897							
Item12	2.43			.839							
Item13	4.01				.702						
Item14	3.80				.859						
Item15	3.95				.809						
Item16	4.00				.834						
Item17	3.62					.763					
Item18	3.61					.753					
Item19	3.66					.745					
Item20	3.74					.763					
Item21	4.23						.878				
Item22	4.35						.909				
Item23	4.36						.900				
Item24	4.36						.898				
Item25	3.74							.795			
Item26	3.77							.817			
Item27	3.92							.712			
Item28	3.72							.812			
Item29	4.31								.719		
Item30	4.30								.743		
Item31	4.28								.729		
Item32	4.27								.753		
Item33	4.47									.825	
Item34	4.43									.873	
Item35	4.47									.773	
Item36	4.46									.852	
Item37	3.50										.776
Item38	3.54										.829
Item39	3.46										.856
Item40	2.80					.439					.094
Cronbach's Alpha		.881	.935	.934	.907	.935	.960	.901	.957	.903	.665

Remarks: BRAND (Brand Reputation), PROMO (Price Promotion), CREDIT (Acceptance of a Credit Card), VARIETY (Variety of Products), DISPLAY (Prominent Display), SELF (Self-Service), MUSIC (Music), LIGHT (Lighting), LAYOUT (Layout), SALES (Salesperson)

KMO = .769 (Chi-Square=2957.017, df=780, sig.=.000), 83.972% of Variance
Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

120

Table 4.3: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha and Mean of Post-Purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance

	1 lean	INFO	INVOLVE	ATTRACT	PERFORM	
Item41	2.97	.901				
Item42	3.03	.915				
Item43	2.96	.904				
Item44	2.88	.297				**.714**
Item45	3.05		.735			
Item46	3.07		.807			
Item47	3.66		.452		.454	-.590
Item48	2.84		.702			
Item49	2.96		.870			
Item50	3.39			.866		
Item51	3.12			.916		
Item52	3.18			.932		
Item53	3.11			.772		
Item54	3.82				.793	
Item55	3.34				.467	.736
Item56	3.84				.758	
Item57	3.91				.809	
Cronbach's Alpha		.846	.837	.904	.811	

Remarks: INFO (Post-Purchase Information), INVOLVE (Purchase Involvement), ATTRACT (Attractive Alternatives), PERFORM (Product Performance)

KMO = .757 (Chi-Square=992.992, df=136, sig.=.000), 80.104% of Variance
Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 4.4: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha and Mean of Impulse Buying Behavior, Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase, Cognitive Dissonance about Product and Level of Satisfaction

	A lean	IMPULSE	CDPUR	CDPRO	SAT
Item58	3.30	.883			
Item59	2.81	.887			
Item60	3.00	.420			.401
Item61	3.39	.059			.607
Item62	3.32	.218			.553
Item63	1.77		.805		
Item64	1.77		.796		
Item65	1.93		.793		
Item66	1.81		.803	.409	
Item67	1.78		.734		
Item68	1.88		.463	.644	
Item69	1.82			.740	
Item70	1.66			.874	
Item71	1.59			.836	
Item72	1.76			.707	
Item73	3.61				.860
Item74	3.59				.863
Item75	3.58				.869
Item76	3.62				.882
Cronbach's Alpha		.581	.906	.891	.951

Remarks: IMPULSE (Impulse Buying), CDPUR (Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase), CDPRO (Cognitive Dissonance about Products), SAT (Level of Satisfaction)

KMO = .823 (Chi-Square=1047.663, df=171, sig.=.000), 70.882% of Variance
Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 4.5: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha and Mean of Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

	Mean	REPUR	CROSS	WOM
Item77	3.50	.867		
Item78	3.51	.808		
Item79	3.24	.683		
Item80	3.47	.813		
Item81	3.46		.811	
Item82	3.73	.553	.491	
Item83	3.38		.835	
Item84	3.39		.836	
Item85	3.84			.886
Item86	3.74			.894
Item87	3.74			.915
Item88	3.77			.902
Cronbach's Alpha		.887	.892	.955

Remarks: REPUR (Repurchase Intention), CROSS (Cross-Buying Intention), WOM (Word-of-Mouth Intenton)

KMO = .860 (Chi-Square=793.528, df=66, sig.=.000), 80.347% of Variance
Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

4.2.3.2 Cronbach's Alpha

Table 4.2 – 4.5 presents the pre-test's scale reliability of all constructs tested by the SPSS statistics V22.0, and they ranged from .581 (impulse buying behavior) to .957 (lighting). Overall, the scale reliability results revealed that most scales were reliable with a Cronbach's alpha exceeding the cutting point of .70 (Hair et al., 2006), except the scales for salesperson and impulse buying behavior.

Regarding salesperson, the Corrected Item – Total Correlation, which revealed the correlation or consistency between Item40 and the total of the remaining items (Ho, 2006) was .143, which was lower than the .33 criterion suggested by Ho (2006). In addition, if Item40 was deleted, the overall Cronbach's alpha would increase to .838. Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to delete this item.

Furthermore, the Corrected Item – Total Correlation of Item59 to 62 were .347, .376, .133, and .358, respectively. Even though they were above the criterion, except item61, it revealed low consistency between these items and the total scale. Therefore, the entire scale of impulse buying behavior would be revised to enhance scale reliability.

Lastly, even though the overall Cronbach's alpha of post-purchase information was above the criterion, the Corrected Item – Total Correlation of Item 44 was .282, which was lower than .33. Hence, the item would also be revised before the actual survey (see Section 4.2.3.2). For explicit details of the pre-test's scale reliability, see Appendix VI, Table 1.

4.2.3.3 Feedback from Data Collectors and Respondents

Based on the data collected during the pretest, some feedback from interviewers and respondents regarding the questionnaire was also taken into consideration. Regarding the questionnaire, respondents stated that there were too many question items, many items were similar and some were not easy to understand. Therefore, some of them were unwilling to cooperate. Some also recommended increasing the font size. In terms of the data collection procedure, data collectors stated that it was quite difficult to find target respondents from certain age levels. That is, from their observations, some of those who were younger than 18 years old tended to purchase color cosmetics from other types of cosmetics retailers, such as cosmetic stalls in flea markets and non-branded cosmetic stores, while some of those who were older than 35 years old tended to wear less make-up than younger people. Moreover, the questionnaire survey took around 20 minutes for each respondent, which was longer than the expected 15 minutes.

4.2.4 Adjustments from the Pre-Test Results

Regarding the pre-test results, some adjustments were made to smoothen the data collection process and to enhance the EFA and Cronbach's Alpha results. Regarding the data collection related issues, the age of respondents was narrowed down from 15 years old and older to 18 to 45 years old. Furthermore, the duration of the interview stated on the questionnaire's introduction page was changed from 15 minutes to 20 minutes. Moreover, in order to encourage better cooperation, a small incentive (a pouch for cosmetics items) was offered to the respondents after the interview.

Moreover, both English and Thai versions of questionnaires were adjusted. Regarding the question items, three items (Item 40, 44 and 61) were deleted and replaced with

123

new items because they were cross-loading items and their corrected item-total correlation values were lower than the specified criterion of 0.33 (Ho, 2006). Furthermore, other cross-loading items with satisfactory corrected item-total correlation values (e.g. Item 47, 60, 62, 66, 68 and 82) were revised to enhance the internal consistency and correlations (Table 4.6).

In addition, in order to make the question items easier to understand and more precise, there were minor changes in some question items' wording, under the supervision of a marketing lecturer, two marketing researchers and two cosmetics consumers. The details of the adjusted measurement items are provided in Table 4.6. For the final questionnaire, see Appendix IV.

Table 4.6: Summary of Adjusted Measurement Items from Pretest Results

Constructs	Measurement Items	Details
Brand Reputation	**Item1** A brand name was an important source of information about this item's credibility.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item3 It was important for me to buy this type of color cosmetics with well-known brand names.	
	Item4 When I shop for this type of color cosmetics, I would prefer to buy a well-known brand name.	
Price Promotion	**Item5** Shopping for this item was well worth going because of the price promotion offerings.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item6 My willingness to purchase this item arose when I noticed the price promotion activities.	
	Item8 Sale signs enticed me to look through this type of color cosmetics.	
Acceptance of Credit Card	**Item9** A credit card payment makes the total amount to pay less worrisome.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item10 There should be more advantages with credit card payments, than with cash (reward points, paying by installments, minimum payment due).	
	Item11 It is more convenient to pay by a credit card, rather than by cash.	
	Item12 Because of a credit card payment, it should feel like not spending one's own money.	
Variety of Products	**Item14** This brand offered a variety of products.	Minor revision on wordings
Prominent Displays	**Item17** I visited this color cosmetics' counter because the product display was attractive.	Minor revision on wordings
Layout	**Item35** The shelf was not too high to pick up products by hand.	Minor revision on wordings
Salesperson	**Item40** Salespersons were polite. **Replacement for "Salespersons were too persuasive to recommend the products", for which the Corrected Item-Total Correlation is lower than .33	Source: Mochis (1978)
Post-Purchase Information	**Item44** After the purchase decision, I often observed what brand others used to make sure that I bought the right item. ** Replacement for "I tried to avoid inconsistent information about my purchase decision", for which the Corrected Item-Total Correlation is lower than .33	Source: Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel (1989)

124

Table 4.6 (Continued): Summary of Adjusted Measurement Items from Pretest Results

Constructs	Measurement Items	Adjustment Details
Attractive Alternatives	**Item50** After the purchase decision, I found there were many other brands' items that were better than this brand's item.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item51 After the purchase decision, I found that I could obtain more satisfactory from other brands' items.	
	Item52 After the purchase decision, I found that I could enjoy more benefits from other brands' items.	
	Item53 This type of color cosmetics from other brands would fit my needs more than this brand.	
Product Performance	**Item54** After the purchase decision, I found there were many other brands' items that were better than this brand's item.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item55 After the purchase decision, I found that I could obtain more satisfaction from other brands' items.	
	Item56 After the purchase decision, I found that I could enjoy more benefits from other brands' items.	
	Item57 This type of color cosmetics from other brands would fit my needs more than this brand.	
Impulse buying Behavior	**Item58** My purchase for this item was unplanned.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item59 I did not intend to purchase this item before visiting the store.	
	Item60 I could not resist purchasing this item.	
	Item62 On this visit, I felt a sudden urge to buy this item and I bought it.	
	Item61 I did not think much when I purchased this item. ****** Replacement for "I bought more than I had planned to buy", for which the Corrected Item-Total Correlation is lower than .33	Source: Verplanken and Herabadi (2001)
Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase	**Item63** After the purchase decision, I wondered whether I should have purchased this item.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item64 After the purchase decision, I felt very anxious about my purchase decision.	
	Item65 After the purchase decision, I wondered whether I bought too many items.	
	Item66 After the purchase decision, I wondered if I made the right choice.	
Cognitive Dissonance about Product	**Item68** After the purchase decision, I wondered If I did the right thing in buying this item.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item69 After the purchase decision, I wondered if I really needed this item.	
	Item70 After the purchase decision, I wondered whether there was something wrong with the deal I got.	
	Item71 After the purchase decision, I wondered if I was fooled.	
	Item72 After the purchase decision, I wondered if they had spun me a line.	
Level of Satisfaction	**Item73** I was very satisfied with this item.	Minor revision on wordings
	Item74 I felt this item was very rewarding.	
	Item75 It was a smart decision to purchase this item.	
	Item76 My consumption experience with this item was pleasant.	

4.3 Respondents of the Study

The respondents were female, 18 to 45 year-old, low to middle income consumers

who were in the socio-economic class (SEC) of B, C and D with a monthly household

income between 7,501 and 85,000 Baht (Hakuhodo Institute of Life and Living Asean, 2015), and impulsively purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores in Bangkok in the last 30 days. Consumers with the aforementioned characteristics were targeted with the following rationales:

- **Age between 18 to 45 years old:** The target respondents were 18 to 45 year-old female consumers. 18 to 35 year-old female consumers are the majority of cosmetics consumers in Thailand with trendy lifestyles, high spending power and willingness to spend on cosmetics (Chaisitthiroj, 2007; Ponbamrungwong and Chandsawang, 2009). Even though those who are younger than 35 years old were found to exhibit more impulsiveness than older consumers (Bellenger et al., 1978), those who are 36 to 45 years old were also included due to the findings of the exploratory research (see Section 3.2.1) and pretest (see Section 4.2.3), which revealed that they still made an impulsive purchase albeit to a lower degree.

- **Low to middle income consumers:** According to Hakuhodo Institute of Life and Living ASEAN (2015), consumers in Bangkok can be categorized based on their socio-economic class (SEC) as follows:

	Class	Monthly Household Income	Proportion
A	High	85,000 Baht and above	4%
B	Middle	50,001 – 85,000 Baht	8%
C		18,001 – 50,000 Baht	64%
D	Low	7,501 – 18,000 Baht	21%

Low to middle income consumers (Class B, C and D) are the majority of the population, and are mainly targeted by mass self-selection cosmetics stores with inexpensive or mid-priced cosmetics products (Ruengsinpinya, 2011; US Commercial Service, 2008). Moreover, the Thai cosmetics industry has continuously expanded due to the growing number of middle income consumers (Yano Research Institute, 2014). Low to middle income female consumers were thus targeted in this study.

- **Self-selection cosmetics stores:** These stores encourage customers to choose products on their own. Hence, this shopping environment can better facilitate and promote impulse buying behavior than salesperson-serviced counters (Sirhindi, 2010) although a salesperson's assistance is still available upon request.

Remark: Originally, 15 year old and older consumers were targeted as the respondents of this study because 15 years old is the average age to start applying

126

cosmetics (Positioning, 2014). Nevertheless, regarding the observations of the data collectors during the pretest data collection and the observations of the author during the exploratory research, a majority of 15 to 17 year old respondents rarely bought them from self-selection cosmetics stores, but rather from cosmetics stalls in flea markets and non-branded cosmetics stores because of their limited budget. Furthermore, since they were high school students, they were restricted from wearing color cosmetics on a routine basis. On the other hand, based on the observation of all data collectors, those who were older than 45 years old were less concerned with color cosmetics and appeared to be more conscious about their purchase, and their impulse purchases were less likely to be stimulated by in-store marketing stimuli. Therefore, the age of respondent was narrowed down to 18 to 45 years old.

4.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

This section illustrates the sample size as well as the sampling procedures in accordance with the context and population of self-selected mass color cosmetics in Bangkok.

4.4.1 Sample Size

Several factors should be considered on the sample size determination, including the significance of the decision, the characteristics of the research, the number of variables, the characteristics of the analysis, the sample sizes utilized in related studies, incidence rates, completion rates, and resource constraints (Malhotra, 2007). In addition, Burns and Bush (2003) suggested that even though the sample size influences the accuracy of the sample results; the larger the sample size is, the better while too large a sample size could be financially wasteful.

According to previous studies on impulse buying adopting the SEM technique, the sample sizes were in the range of 217 to 733 samples: Beatty and Ferrell (1998) 553 samples, Park et al. (2006) 217 samples, Hanzaee and Taherikia (2010) 496 samples, Karbasivar and Yarahmadi (2011) 275 samples, Verhagen and Van Dolen (2011) 532 samples, Ltifi (2013) 302 samples, and Mohan et al. (2013) 733 samples.

127

Moreover, several academicians suggest an appropriate sample size with certain rationales. According to Hair et al. (2006), a study undertaking factor analysis should not assign a sample size of less than 50, and preferably it should be 100 or larger. Furthermore, Hair et al. (2006) also suggested that for a model with six or more factors, a sample size of more than 500 is required. Alternatively, the minimum sample size is at least five times, preferably ten times, the number of variables (Hair et al., 2006). Malhotra (2007) claimed that the minimum sample size of marketing research should be 500. Furthermore, regarding the basic principles, 10 samples per measuring item is deemed to be an appropriate sample size (Nunnally, 1967). With 88 indicators in this study, the sample size should be at least 880 samples. After considering the aforementioned rationales, the sample size assigned by this study of 900 should be acceptable.

During the data cleaning process, all 900 questionnaires were completely answered. However, the data revealed that not all of these 900 respondents considered their purchase to be impulsive. That is, even though the characteristics of respondents were screened by the data collectors and the screening questions (question number 1 and 2) to ensure that they made an impulse purchase of mass color cosmetics within the last 30 days, there were some respondents who considered themselves as non-impulsive purchasers by selecting "1" (strongly disagree) or "2" (disagree) on impulse buying behavior questions.

The data collectors clarified that these respondents actually made an impulse purchase yet did not want their purchase to be perceived as irrational so they disagreed with these questions. Such behavior by respondents could be supported by previous literatures, which suggested impulse buying to be associated with overspending (Mansfield et al., 2003) and various negative traits, such as a failure of behavioral control, immaturity, or low-self-esteem (Levy, 1976; Solnick, Kannenberg, Eckermen and Walker, 1980; Rook and Fisher, 1995; Brici et al., 2013), which resulted in being the target of other people's disapproval (Rook, 1987). Hausman (2000) also revealed that impulse buying is generally perceived as normatively inappropriate behavior. Moreover, the exploratory research findings also indicated that there were some respondents, especially those who were thirty years old and older, who were unhappy with their impulse buying because it indicated irrational behavior and financial

128

wastefulness. Therefore, those who strongly disagreed or disagreed with all impulse buying behavior questions, despite being screened to make an impulse buying, were deleted because they did not answer based on their true behavior, but rather on the appropriateness of social norm. Finally, 120 cases were deleted, and there were 780 respondents left, which represents 87 percent as a usable data set.

4.4.2 Sampling Procedures

This study applied mixed sampling methods of probability sampling and non-probability sampling methods (Phophueksanand, 2015) by utilizing stratified three-stage sampling in which Bangkok was divided into strata. Simple random sampling was utilized in stage one and two, and convenience sampling was used in the third stage.

Figure 4.1: Sampling Procedures

Source: Author
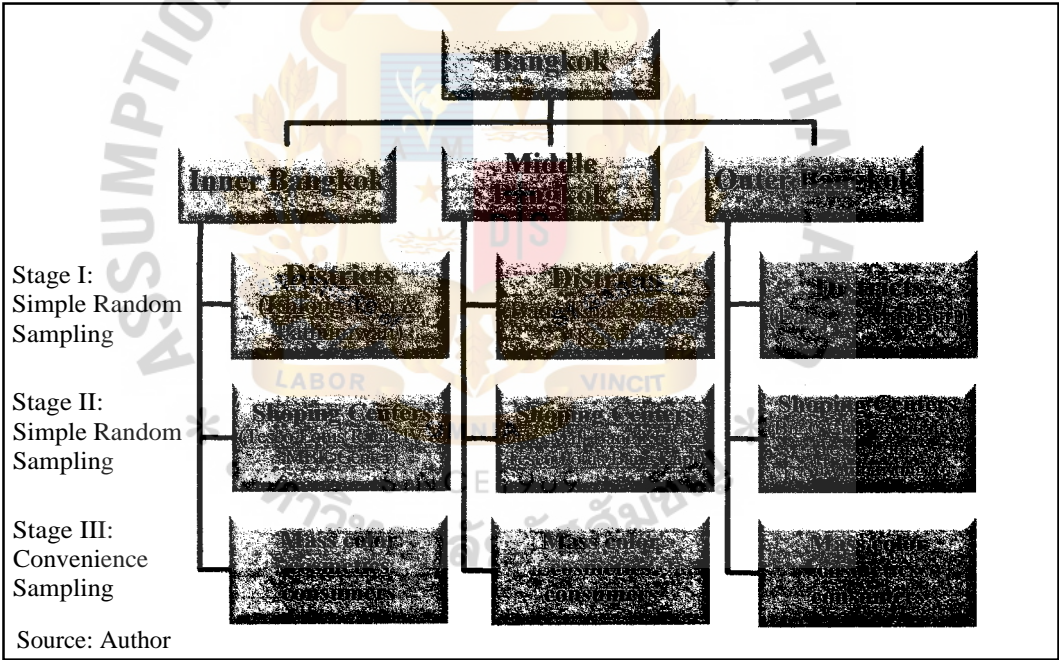
Stratified sampling was utilized by dividing Bangkok into three mutually exclusive strata based on the characteristics of the population, and no population elements were unassignable (McDaniel and Gates, 2001). In this study, Bangkok was divided into three levels: (1) inner Bangkok, consisting of 21 districts, (2) middle Bangkok, consisting of 18 districts, and (3) outer Bangkok, consisting of 11 districts

129

(Surathomtawee and Pachravanich, 2011) (see the lists of districts in each level in Appendix H).

First stage sampling: Simple random sampling, which is the purest form of probability sampling method, where every element of the population has an equal chance of being selected (McDaniel and Gates, 2001), was utilized by randomly drawing two districts from the lists of districts in each level of Bangkok. Specifically, there are 21 districts in inner Bangkok (Surathomtawee and Pachravanich, 2011), and each district was coded from 1 to 21. Number 16 (Khlong Tei) and 20 (Pathumwan) were selected by the drawing technique. Similarly, there are 18 districts in middle Bangkok (Surathomtawee and Pachravanich, 2011), from which numbers 13 (Bang Khae) and 18 (Bang Kapi) were drawn. Lastly, there are 11 districts in outer Bangkok (Surathomtawee and Pachravanich, 2011), and numbers 9 (Lak Si) and 11 (Min Buri) were drawn from these districts.

Second stage sampling: Simple random sampling was applied again by drawing one shopping center from each district selected in the earlier stage. Shopping centers in each district was listed and coded (see Appendix II). Regarding inner Bangkok, there are 15 and 38 shopping centers in Khlong Tei and Pathumwan, respectively (Soidb, n.d.), and they were also coded from number 1 to 15 and 1 to 38, respectively (Soidb, n.d.). Number 3 (Tesco Lotus Rama IV) of Khlong Tei and number 5 (MBK Center) of Pathumwan were drawn. For middle Bangkok, there are 8 and 18 shopping centers in Banh Khae and Bang Kapi, respectively. Number 2 (The Mall Bang Khae) of Bang Khae and 7 (Tesco Lotus Bang Kapi) of Bang Kapi were drawn. Lastly, in outer Bangkok, there are 5 and 6 shopping centers in Lak Si and Min Buri, respectively (Soidb, n.d.), and number 1 (Big C Chaeng Wattana) and 2 (Tesco Lotus Suwin thawing) were drawn.

Third stage sampling: Convenience sampling, which is a non-probability sampling method, was employed. Even though convenience sampling is considered to be biased, it could be an efficient and effective method in acquiring useful information as long as the composition of the selected sample is similar to the population (Wilson, 2003). In this study, target respondents were 18 to 45 year-old female consumers with household monthly income between 7,501 to 85,000 Baht, and impulsively purchased

mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores in Bangkok within a month prior to the data collection period. These target respondents, who were considered to be the purchasers of mass color cosmetics (Chaisitthiroj, 2007; Ponbamrungwong and Chansawang, 2009; Bellenger et al., 1978; Reungsinpinya, 2011; US Commercial Service, 2008; Sirhindi, 2010), were approached at the aforementioned six shopping centers.

4.5 Data Collection Procedures

The primary data were collected through a person-administered questionnaire survey (Appendix IV), in which a data collector read questions, face-to-face, to the respondents and recorded their answers (Burns and Bush, 2003). This method allows a data collector to build rapport with respondents and to ensure that the target respondents are correctly approached and truthfully responded to the questions (Burns and Bush, 2003).

Before the data were collected, five experienced data collectors and one supervisor were recruited and trained. The content of the questionnaire was explained together with the characteristics of the target respondents, and the data collection procedures to ensure that all data collectors administered the questionnaire in the same manner so that uniform data collection could be achieved (Malhotra, 2004).

Regarding the data collection, the data collectors politely introduced themselves to the target respondents and asked them the screening questions (questions number 1 and 2 in Appendix IV "Have you purchased mass color cosmetics from these self-selection cosmetics stores within the last 30 days" and "How do you best describe your last mass color cosmetics purchasing experience at self-selection cosmetics stores?". During the first screening question, the data collectors showed pictures of different types of cosmetics self-selection stores to the respondents to ensure that they actually made the purchase from these stores. These screening questions were asked to confirm that the respondents made an impulse purchase of mass color cosmetics. If they were screened to make an impulse purchase, they were asked for permission to answer the rest of the questions. If they did not make an impulse purchase or refused

131

to answer the following question, the data collectors politely thanked them and moved on to new target respondents.

Upon the completion of an interview, a small incentive (pouch) was provided to the respondents as a symbol of appreciation for their kind cooperation. For more details and photographs of the data collection procedures, see Appendix VIII.

In this study, the survey was conducted between 11th March and 25th April, 2016 at six shopping centers where mass color cosmetics self-selection stores were available — which were Tesco Lotus Rama IV, MBK Center, The Mall Bang Khae, Tesco Lotus Bang Kapi, Big C Chaengwattana, and Tesco Lotus Suwinthawong – covering six districts (Khlong Toei, Pathumwan, Bang Khae, Bang Kapi, Laksi and Min Burl) and three levels (inner, middle and outer) of Bangkok.

To ensure a high quality of data and that the target respondents were correctly approached, data collectors and the data collected were closely evaluated by a supervisor who was in charge of checking the completeness and concordance of the data, as well as the proportions of the specified characteristics of the respondents.

Once all questionnaires were returned to the author, the data quality and the proportion of the questionnaires were re-checked by the author. After that, the data were entered into the statistics program, and were cleaned to ensure that the data were well-prepared for the data analysis in later stages.

4.6 Statistical Treatment of Data

This section explains the statistical treatment of data collected in the main survey. Firstly, descriptive data were analyzed to explain the profile of respondents as well as their attitude towards their purchasing and consuming behaviors and behavioral intentions for self-selected mass color cosmetics. After that, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to orderly simplify the large number of intercorrelated measures into a few representative constructs (Ho, 2006). Cronbach's alpha was then analyzed to examine the internal consistency of the factors derived from the EFA. Subsequently, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out to examine the

132

overall fit of the measurement model, including the adequacy of the factor loadings, and the standardized residuals and explained variances for all variables (Ho, 2006).

Lastly, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to examine the hypothesized relationships because it provided a method of estimating multiple relationships simultaneously, and enhanced statistical estimation by accounting for measurement errors in the estimation process (Ho, 2006).

In order to evaluate the overall fit of the hypothesized model, goodness-of-fit criteria were employed in this study, and they were composed of three main measures (Ho, 2006), which were: (1) absolute fit measures, which include the chi-square statistic, Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), to assess how the hypothesized model fits the observed covariance matrix, (2) incremental fit measures, which include Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Relative Fit Index (RFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI), compare the hypothesized model to the baseline model, also known as the null or independence model, and imply the improvement of the hypothesized model over the null model, and (3) parsimonious fit measures, which include Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), to assess whether model fit has been achieved by overfitting the data with too many coefficients.

Moreover, in order to determine whether the research model should be accepted or rejected, and whether to continue to interpret the path coefficients in the model, different statisticians recommended various criteria in determining the goodness-of-fit for each research model. For instance, Jaccard and Wan (1996) suggested using at least three fit tests and one from each measure to reflect the diverse criteria, they are: (1) chi-square, GFI and NFI, (2) CFI, NNFI and SRMR, and (3) AGFI, TLI and RMSEA. Garson (2009) however, recommended using chi-square, RMSEA, and one of NFI, RFI IFI, TLI and CFI. Moreover, Kline (1998) suggested using four tests, which are: (1) chi-square, GFI and NFI (2) CFI and NNFI, (3) AGFI, TLI and RMSEA, and IFI and SRMR or RMSEA.

Table 4.7: Fit Indices for the Measurement and Structural Model

Measures	Characteristics	Acceptable Threshold Levels
Chi-Square Statistic (x^2)	The evaluation of the overall model fit and the difference between the sample and fitted covariances matrices (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	- Fail to reject the null hypothesis (Ho, 2006) - An insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold level (Barrett, 2007)
Relative/ Normed Chi-Square ($\frac{x^2}{df}$)	Given the sensitivity of the Chi-Square statistic to sample size, it is the alternative index to assess model fit (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008).	- The range from 2.0 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) to 5.0 (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin and Summers, 1977)
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	It is the calculation of the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), and the indication of how closely the model replicates the observed covariance matrix (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000).	- Higher values imply a better fit, yet no cutoff levels for acceptability have been established (Ho, 2006) - 0.9 (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008) - When factor loadings and sample sizes are low, a cut-off point of 0.95 is recommended (Miles and Shevlin, 1998). - Given its sensitivity, this index has become less popular and not recommended (Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar and Dillon, 2005).
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	It measures the discrepancy per degree of freedom, and indicates how well the model fits the population covariance matrix. It also represents the goodness-of-fit when the hypothesized model is estimated in the population (Ho, 2006).	- 0.05 to 0.08 is acceptable; 0.08 to 0.10 is a mediocre fit; > 0.10 is a poor fit (Ho, 2006) - below 0.8 indicate a good fit; 0.08 to 0.1 indicate mediocre fit (MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara, 1996) - Close to 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) - Not higher than 0.07 (Steiger, 2007)
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	These indices represent the comparison of the hypothesized model and the null model, and indicate the improvement of the hypothesized model over the null model (Ho, 2006).	- > 0.90 (Ho, 2006) - > 0.95 (Hu and Bentler, 1999)
Normed Fit Index (NFI)		- > 0.90 (Ho, 2006) - > 0.95 (Hu and Bentler, 1999)
Relative Fit Index (RFI)		- > 0.90 (Ho, 2006)
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)		- > 0.90 (Ho, 2006)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)		- > 0.90 (Ho, 2006) - > 0.95 (Hu and Bentler, 1999)
Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	It considers the number of degrees of freedom used to achieve the fit level, and is also employed to compare models with different degree of freedom (Ho, 2006)	- The higher the value, the better. When comparing models, differences of 0.06 − 0.09 are considered to be sufficient for substantial model differences (Ho, 2006).
Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)	It is utilized to compare models with different numbers of constructs (Ho, 2006).	- Closer to zero indicates better fit and greater parsimony.

Moreover, a certain number of previous studies on impulse buying carried out SEM on their hypothesized relations, such as Beatty and Ferrell (1998), Park, Kim and Forney (2006), Hanzaee and Taherikia (2010), Karbasivar and Yarahmadi (2011), Graa and Dani-elKebir (2011), Verhagan and Van Dolen (2011), and Mohan et al. (2013). Therefore, SEM was considered to be an appropriate method to examine the hypothesized relationships in this study. The following table is a summary of the hypotheses and statistical analyses.

H1a:	Price promotion significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1b:	Acceptance of a credit card significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1c:	Variety of products significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1d:	Prominent display significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1f:	Self-service significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1g:	Music significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1h:	Lighting significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1i:	Layout significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H1j:	Salesperson significantly influences the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H2:	Impulse buying significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H3a:	Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H3b:	Impulse buying significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H4	Cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores significantly influences the level of satisfaction.
H5a:	Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H5b:	Post-purchase information significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H6a:	Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H6b:	Purchase involvement significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H7a:	The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H7b:	The availability of attractive alternatives significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H8a:	Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H8b:	Product performance significantly influences cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores.
H9:	Product performance significantly influences the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10a:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences repurchase intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10b:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences cross-buying intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.
H10c:	Level of satisfaction significantly influences word-of-mouth intention for mass color cosmetics available at self-selection stores.

CHAPTER V
PRESENTATION OF DATA AND CRITICAL DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter presents the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire survey. The analyses were divided into four main sections, which were descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis and the scale reliability, confirmatory factor analysis and construct validity, and hypotheses testing with the structural equation modeling. The details of each section are explained later on.

5.1 Data Analysis

A four-stage data analysis was used in this study. Firstly, the demographic characteristics of the respondents and their purchasing experiences of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok were explained. Secondly, in order to ensure the simplification of a large number of intercorrelated items to a few representative constructs, exploratory factor analysis was employed. In addition, scale reliability was also tested to ensure the scale's ability to consistently measure the phenomenon this particular study intended to measure. Thirdly, confirmatory factor analysis was utilized to confirm the respective items of the constructs derived from the earlier stage; covergent and discriminant validities were also tested to ensure construct validity. Lastly, structural equation modeling was conducted to test the hypothesized relationships.

5.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

This section illustrates the demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as their mass color cosmetics purchasing experiences at self-selection stores in Bangkok tested by the SPSS statistics V22.0 program. The details are presented as follows.

Table 5.1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
18-24 years old	173	22.2
25-29 years old	117	15.0
30-34 years old	144	18.5
35-39 years old	157	20.1
40-45 years old	189	24.2
Total	**780**	**100**
Highest Education		
Lower than bachelor's degree	356	45.6
Bachelor's degree	394	50.5
Higher than bachelor's degree	30	3.9
Total	**780**	**100**
Occupation		
Governmental organization/state enterprise employee	99	12.7
Private company employee	207	26.5
Business owner	189	24.2
Student	96	12.3
Freelancer	100	12.8
Housewife	65	8.3
Unemployed	24	3.2
Total	**780**	**100**
Average Monthly Household Income		
7,501-15,000 Baht	27	3.4
15,001-18,000 Baht	51	6.5
18,001-20,000 Baht	71	9.1
20,001-30,000 Baht	135	17.3
30,001-40,000 Baht	160	20.5
40,001-50,000 Baht	116	14.9
50,001-60,000 Baht	94	12.1
60,001-70,000 Baht	55	7.1
70,001-80,000 Baht	43	5.5
80,001-85,000 Baht	28	3.6
Total	**780**	**100**
Socio-Economic Class (SEC)		
Class B (monthly household income 50,001-85,000 Baht)	220	28.2
Class C (monthly household income 18,001-50,000 Baht)	482	61.8
Class **D** (monthly household income 7,501-18,000 Baht)	78	10.0
Total	**780**	**100**
Marital Status		
Single	306	39.2
Married	449	57.6
Divorced/ Widowed	25	3.2
Total	**780**	**100**

Regarding Table 5.1, the respondents consisted of 780 female color cosmetics
consumers. Almost one quarter of them (24.2%) were between 40-45 years old, and

138

the rest were between 18-24 years old (22.2%), 35-39 years old (20.1%), 30-34 years old (18.5%), and 25-29 years old (15.0%). Furthermore, around half of them obtained bachelor's degree (50.5%), while the rest obtained lower than bachelor's degree (45.6%) and higher than bachelor's degree (3.9%). Regarding occupation, the respondents were from various walk of life, including private company employees (26.5%), business owners (24.2%), freelancers (12.8%), governmental organization/ state enterprises employees (12.7%), students (12.3%), and housewives (8.3%), while a few were unemployed (3.2%).

Moreover, more than half of them were from the socio-economic class (SEC) C with an average monthly household income between 18,001-50,000 Baht (61.8%), the rest were from class B with an average monthly household income between 50,001-85,000 Baht (28.2%) and class D with an average monthly household income between 7,501-18,000 Baht (9.9%). Lastly, more than half of them were married (57.6%), and the rest were single (39.2%) and divorced/ widowed (3.2%).

Table 5.2: General Information on Color Cosmetics Purchasing Experience at Self-Selection Cosmetics Stores

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Purchasing Mass Color Cosmetics from Self-Selection Stores within the Last 30 Days		
Purchasing mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores within the last 30 Days	780	100
The Last Mass Color Cosmetics Purchasing Experience at Self-Selection Stores		
I had a shopping plan, but I bought differently or more items from what I had planned	209	26.8
I did not have a plan or an intention to purchase anything, but I ended up buying something	571	73.2
Total	**780**	**100**
Credit Card Payment		
Yes	86	11.0
No	694	89.0
Total	**780**	**100**

139

Table 5.2 (Continued): General Information on Color Cosmetics Purchasing
Experience at Self-Selection Cosmetics Stores

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Type of Self-Selection Cosmetics Store on the Last purchase		
Drugstores where cosmetics are available, such as Watsons, Boots, Tsuruha, etc.	236	30.3
Specialty stores where various cosmetics brands are available, such as Eveandboy, Beauty Buffet, Beauty Market, Ogenki, etc.	146	18.7
Stand-alone stores, such as Oriental Princess, The Face Shop, Skin Food, Beauty Cottage, etc.	166	21.3
Supermarkets or hypermarkets, such as Tops, Tesco Lotus, Home Fresh Mart, Big C, Villa Market, etc.	133	17.1
Convenience stores, such as 7-Eleven, Big C Extra, Family Mart, etc.	99	12.6
Total	780	100
Color Cosmetics Products Purchased (Can Answer More than One)		
Foundation	164	21.0
Powder	206	26.4
Concealer	72	9.2
Blusher	114	14.6
Bronzer	1	0.0
Highlighter	6	0.8
Base	36	4.6
Primer	34	4.4
Eyebrow pencil	101	12.9
Mascara	127	16.3
Eyeshadow	79	10.1
Eye liner	120	15.4
Lipstick	202	25.9
Lip gloss	3	0.3
Colored lip balm	2	0.4
First-Recalled Color Cosmetics Product		
Foundation	95	12.2
Powder	105	13.5
Concealer	53	6.8
Blusher	68	8.7
Bronzer	1	0.1
Highlighter	4	0.6
Base	25	3.2
Primer	25	3.2
Eyebrow pencil	69	8.8
Mascara	83	10.6
Eyeshadow	53	6.8
Eye liner	79	10.1
Lipstick	118	15.1
Lip gloss	2	0.3
	780	100

140

Regarding Table 5.2, all respondents purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores within the last 30 days prior to the data collection date. In addition, based on their last purchase, all of them made an unplanned purchase. That is, most of them (73.2%) neither had a plan nor an intention to purchase anything, but they ended up purchasing some color cosmetics items; and even though the rest of them (26.8%) had a shopping plan, they purchased different or more items than they had planned. Furthermore, most of them made the payment by cash (89.0%) and a smaller proportion paid by credit card (11.0%).

Moreover, the type of self-selection cosmetics store they visited for their last purchase were drugstores (30.3%), stand-alone stores (21.3%), specialty stores (18.7%), supermarkets or hypermarkets (17.1%), and convenience stores (12.6%),. In addition, the top-five color cosmetics items they purchased were powder (26.4%), lipstick (25.9%), foundation (21.0%), mascara (16.3%), and eye liner (15.4%). Importantly, among the purchased items, the top-five first-recalled items were lipstick (15.1%), powder (13.5%), foundation (12.2%), mascara (10.6%), and eye liner (10.1%).

Remark: The respondents were asked to refer to the first-recalled item of their last impulse purchase when answering the scale question items.

5.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Scale Reliability
In order to reduce the large number of measures to a few representative factors and to ensure that these measurement items under particular factors measure the same construct, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and scale reliability were tested (Ho, 2006).

That is, exploratory factory analysis (EFA) was employed to simplify a large quantity of intercorrelated items to a few representative factors (Ho, 2006). Since the measurement items in this study were adapted from various different studies, and some items were based on the exploratory research findings, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to ensure that items under a particular construct have high correlations and share similar dimensions (Ho, 2006). In this study, EFA was employed to pool the data set of 780 female color cosmetics respondents, and tested

141

by using SPSS statistics V22.0 by using principal component analysis as the extraction method and varimax with Kaiser Normalization as the rotation method.

Four EFA models were conducted and they were (1) In-store marketing stimuli of impulse buying behavior including brand reputation, price promotion, acceptance of a credit card, variety of products, prominent displays, self-service, music, lighting, layout, and salesperson (Table 5.3), (2) antecedents of cognitive dissonance including post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternative and product performance (Table 5.4), (3) impulse buying behavior, cognitive dissonance about the purchase, cognitive dissonance about the product, and the level of satisfaction (Table 5.5), and (4) post-purchase behavioral intentions including repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention (Table 5.6).

After the EFA results revealed which items hung together and formed the factors, scale reliability was also tested by Cronbach's alpha using SPSS statistics V22.0 to ensure that the internal consistency of each factor was achieved. That is, the results indicated the extent to which items measured the same construct or hung together in a consistent manner (Ho, 2006). The Cronbach's alpha values are presented in Table 5.3 to 5.6.

The results of EFA and Cronbach's alpha of all constructs are presented in the tables as follows.

Table 5.3: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Mean and Standard Deviation of In-Store Marketing Stimuli of Impulse Buying Behavior

	Mean	Average Mean	SD	BRAND	PROMO	CREDIT	VARIETY	DISPLAY	SELF	MUSIC	LIGHT	LAYOUT	SALES
Item1	4.52			.784									
Item2	4.48	4.17	.762	.829									
Item3	3.86			.859									
Item4	3.82			.849									
Item5	3.99				.975								
Item6	4.00	4.00	1.141		.973								
Item7	3.97				.967								
Item8	4.04				.969								
Item9	2.96					.934							
Item10	3.06	2.87	1.262			.933							
Item11	3.00					.940							
Item12	2.46					.844							
Item13	4.62						.848						
Item14	4.54	4.56	.534				.816						
Item15	4.56						.858						
Item16	4.54						.893						
Item17	4.20							.853					
Item18	4.13	4.14	.771					.881					
Item19	4.11							.841					
Item20	4.10							.850					
Item21	4.23								.852				
Item22	4.23	4.23	.674						.870				
Item23	4.21								.868				
Item24	4.23								.864				
Item25	4.25									.874			
Item26	4.19	4.26	.556							.871			
Item27	4.44									.641			
Item28	4.15									.823			
Item29	4.44										.814		
Item30	4.42	4.39	.597								.815		
Item31	4.37										.810		
Item32	4.34										.790		
Item33	4.49											.828	
Item34	4.47	4.46	.636									.867	
Item35	4.43											.861	
Item36	4.44											.838	
Item37	4.03												.821
Item38	4.01	4.03	.761										.848
Item39	4.03												.849
Item40	4.05												.853
Cronbach's Alpha				.850	.985	.942	.895	.939	.955	.859	.911	.915	.949

Remarks:
- BRAND (Brand reputation), PROMO (Price Promotion), CREDIT (Acceptance of a Credit Card), VARIETY (Variety of Products), DISPLAY (Prominent Display), SELF (Self-Service), MUSIC (Music), LIGHT (Lighting), LAYOUT (Layout), SALES (Salesperson)
- The mean values and average mean values are based on 5-point Likert scale
- KMO = .879 (Chi-Square=31607.033, df=780, sig.=.000), 82.335% of Total Variance Explained
- Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Regarding Table 5.3, the average mean values ranged from 2.87 (acceptance of a credit card) to 4.56 (variety of products). The outputs revealed a KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .879 and x^2 (df = 780) = 31607.033, p <.001, which implied an adequacy to perform factor analysis. 40 items were entered and ten factors were extracted, which were brand reputation, price promotion, acceptance of a credit

143

card, variety of products, prominent display, self-service, music, lighting, layout and salesperson, with Eigen value greater than one by the Principle Component method, and rotated by Varimax with the Kaiser Normalization method. These ten factors accounted for 82.335% of the total variance explained. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha values of these factors ranged from .850 to .985, which exceeded the recommended level of .70 (Hair et al., 2006). For explicit details of scale reliability, see Appendix VI Table 2.

Table 5.4: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Mean and Standard Deviation of Post-Purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance

	Mean	Average Mean		INFO	INVOLVE	ATTRACT	PERFORM
Item41	2.05			.841			
Item42	2.15	2.04	.989	.879			
Item43	2.00			.894			
Item44	1.97			.885			
Item45	3.32				.904		
Item46	3.24				.911		
Item47	3.16	3.10	1.055		.900		
Item48	2.51				.485*		
Item49	3.27				.913		
Item50	2.64					.870	
Item51	2.53	2.53	.996			.904	
Item52	2.51					.910	
Item53	2.46					.893	
Item54	4.28						.809
Item55	3.96	4.18	.642				.761
Item56	4.21						.894
Item57	4.27						.870
Cronbach's Alpha				.921	.897 (.966)	.972	.903

Remarks:
- INFO (Post-Purchase Information), INVOLVE (Purchase Involvement), ATTRACT (Attractive Alternatives), PERFORM (Product Performance)
- The mean values and average mean values are based on 5-point Likert scale
- KMO = .901 (Chi-Square=14188.008, df=136, sig.=.000), 82.745% of Total Variance Explained
- Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
- *The Corrected Item − Total Correlation of 'Item48' was .280, and when the item was deleted, Cronbach's alpha of 'Purchase Involvement (INVOLVE)' became .966.

Regarding Table 5.4, the average mean values ranged from 2.04 (post-purchase information) to 4.18 (product performance). The outputs revealed a KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .901 and χ^2 (df = 136) = 14188.008, p <.001, which implied an adequacy to perform factor analysis. 17 items were entered and four factors were extracted, which were post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance, with Eigen value greater than one by the Principle Component method, and rotated by Varimax with the Kaiser

144

Normalization method. These four factors accounted for 82.745% of the total variance explained. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha values of these factors ranged from .897 to .972, which exceeded the recommended level of .70 (Hair et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, item48 ("I spent a considerable amount of money for the products.") was deleted because its correlation with the total of the remaining items under purchase involvement was .280, which was lower than the recommended value of .33 (Ho, 2006). In addition, this item was adapted from different study from other items. That is, item45 to item47 were adapted from McQuarrie and Munson (1986) and item49 was designed based on the exploratory research findings; while item48 was adapted from Cho (2002). Moreover, since mass color cosmetics are significantly cheaper than counter branded ones, the respondents were then less likely to agree with item48's statement (mean value was 2.51) compared to the statements of other items (mean values ranged from 3.16 to 3.32). Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to delete this item, and the new Cronbach's alpha value increased to .966.

Table 5.5: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Mean and Standard Deviation of Impulse Buying Behavior, Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase, Cognitive Dissonance about Product and Level of Satisfaction

	Mean	Average Mean	S.D.	IMPULSE	CDPUR	CDPRO	SAT
Item58	4.16			.731			
Item59	4.14			**.768**			
Item60	3.68	3.93	.652	.678			
Item61	3.21			.598			
Item62	4.44			**.641**			
Item63	1.84				**.859**		
Item64	1.72				.854		
Item65	1.77	1.76	.789		.852		
Item66	1.74				.830		
Item67	1.73				.838		
Item68	1.73					.832	
Item69	1.70					.829	
Item70	1.63	1.68	.766			.858	
Item71	1.64					.853	
Item72	1.69					.866	
Item73	4.41						.890
Item74	4.39	4.40	.605				.885
Item75	4.39						.911
Item76	4.41						.923
Cronbach's Alpha			.701	.951	.959	.950	

Remarks:
- IMPULSE (Impulse Buying), CDPUR (Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase), CDPRO (Cognitive Dissonance about Products), SAT (Level of Satisfaction)
- The mean values and average mean values are based on 5-point Likert scale
- KMO = .913 (Chi-Square=13574.537, df=171, sig.=.000), 76.062% of Total Variance Explained
- Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

145

Regarding Table 5.5, it is important to note that the average mean values of cognitive dissonance about the product and purchase were low, at 1.68 and 1.76; while the average mean values of impulse buying and the level of satisfaction were 3.93 and 4.40, respectively. The outputs revealed a KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .913 and x^2 (df = 171) = 13574.537, p <.001, which implied an adequacy to perform factor analysis. 19 items were entered and four factors were extracted, which were impulse buying, cognitive dissonance about purchase, cognitive dissonance about product, and the level of satisfaction, with an Eigen value greater than one by the Principle Component method, and rotated by Varimax with the Kaiser Normalization method. These four factors accounted for 76.062% of the total variance explained. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha values of these factors ranged from .701 to .959, which exceeded the recommended level of .70 (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 5.6: Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Mean and Standard Deviation of Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

	Mean	Average Mean	S.D.	REPUR	CROSS	WOM
Item77	4.29			.810		
Item78	4.17	4.10	.696	.833		
Item79	3.77			.656		
Item80	4.18			.791		
Item81	4.21				.798	
Item82	4.07	4.09	.689		.759	
Item83	3.99				.788	
Item84	4.09				.764	
Item85	4.19					.836
Item86	4.13	4.13	.666			.864
Item87	4.05					.866
Item88	4.14					.884
Cronbach's Alpha				.889	.885	.940

Remarks:
- REPUR (Repurchase Intention), CROSS (Cross-Buying Intention), WOM (Word-of-Mouth Intention)
- The mean values and average mean values are based on 5-point Likert scale
- KMO = .924 (Chi-Square=8213.638, df=66, sig.=.000), 79.860% of Total Variance Explained
- Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Regarding Table 5.6, the average mean values ranged from 4.09 (cross-buying intention) to 4.13 (word-of-mouth intention). The outputs revealed a KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity value of .924 and χ (df = 66) = 8213.638, p <.001, which implied an adequacy to perform factor analysis. 12 items were entered and three factors were extracted, which were repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention, with an Eigen value greater than one by the Principle Component method, and rotated by Varimax with the Kaiser Normalization method.

146

These three factors accounted for 79.860% of the total variance explained. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha values of these factors ranged from .885 to .940, which exceeded the recommended level of .70 (Hair et al., 2006).

5.1.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In order to verify that the aforementioned measurement variables reflect the representative constructs and before the fit of the structural equation model is determined, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is necessary. CFA was employed to determine the overall fit of the measurement model, the adequacy of the factor loadings, and the standardized residuals as well as explaining the variances of the measurement variables (Ho, 2006). That is, CFA results implied the reliability of the observed variable employed to measure the latent variables (Ho, 2006).

Various types of goodness-of-fit measures are utilized to determine the overall fit of the hypothesized model. In this study, two main types of measures were employed.

1. Absolute Fit Measures – they assess how the hypothesized model predicts the observed covariance matrix. These measures include: (1) Chi-square statistics (χ) - it evaluates the difference between the sample and fitted covariances matrices (Hu and Bentler, 1999), and a good model fit is supposed to provide an insignificant result at 0.05 level (Barrett, 2007), (2) Relative/Normed chi-square $(\frac{}{df})$ – it is used to minimize the sensitivity of x^2 to the sample size, and the recommended values range from a high of 5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977) to a low of 2.0 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), (3) Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) – it determines how much better the model fits in comparison with no model at all (Ho, 2006), where a cut-off point of 0.9 is recommended (Hooper et al., 2008), and (4) Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) – it indicates how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates would fit the populations covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). A value below 0.06 is acceptable (Hu and Bentler, 1999). For more information on the fit indices, see Chapter 4, section 4.6 (Table 4.8).

2. Incremental Fit Measures – they compare the hypothesized model to the baseline (null or independence) model. These measures include the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI),

147

the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Relative Fit Index (RFI), the Incremental Fit Index (IFI), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which reveal the improvement of the hypothesized model over the baseline model, and the recommended values are higher than 0.9 (Ho, 2006). For more information on the fit indices, see Chapter 4, section 4.6 (Table 4.8).

Regarding the aforementioned results of EFA and scale reliability, the measurement model was performed on 21 constructs consisting of 87 measurement items with Amos V24.0. Table 5.7 below illustrates the fit indices of the measurement model. (See Figure 1 in Appendix VII for the figure of the measurement model)

Table 5.7: Fit Indices of the Measurement Model

Absolute Fit Measures		Incremental Fit Measures	
X^2	7700.827	NFI	.896
df	3444	RFI	.887
p-value	.000	IFI	.940
$\frac{X2}{df}$	2.236	TLI	.934
GFI	.814	CFI	.939
RMSEA	.040		

The results of absolute fit measures of the measurement model were: $\frac{x^2}{df} = 2.236$, p <.001, GFI = .814 and RMSEA = .040, while the incremental fir measures were: NFI = .896, RFI = .887, IFI = .940, TLI = .934 and CFI = .939. Most indices indicated good fits, except GFI, NFI and RFI, yet they were approaching the recommended values of 0.9. The standardized factor loading of all constructs are shown in Table 5.8.

148

Table 5.8: Standardized Factor Loadings from the Measurement Model

(constructs	Items	Standardized Factor Loadings	Constructs	Items	Standardized Factor Loadings
Brand Reputation	**BRAND!**	.475	**Purchase Involvement**	**INVOLVE!**	.954
	BRAND2	.523		**INVOLVE2**	.971
	BRAND3	.980		**INVOLVE3**	.876
	BRAND4	.969		**INVOLVES**	.944
Price Promotion	**PROMO!**	.982	**Attractive Alternatives**	**ATTRACT1**	.922
	PROMO2	.975		**ATTRACT2**	.960
	PROMO3	.961		**ATTRACT3**	.963
	PROMO4	.968		**ATTRACT4**	.950
Acceptance of a Credit Card	**CREDIT1**	.923	**Product Performance**	**PERFORM!**	.837
	CREDIT2	.943		**PERFORM2**	.811
	CREDIT3	.941		**PERFORM3**	.903
	CREDIT4	.779		**PERFORM4**	.849
Variety of Products	**VARIETY!**	.802	**Impulse Buying**	**IMPULSE1**	.823
	VARIETY2	.753		**IMPULSE2**	.885
	VARIETY3	.844		**IMPULSE3**	.358
	VA RIETY4	.910		**IMPULSE4**	.273
Prominent Display	**DISPLAY!**	.840		**IMPULSES**	**.406**
	DISPLAY2	.907	**Cognitive Dissonance about Purchase**	**CDPUR1**	.874
	DISPLAY3	.898		**CDPUR2**	.873
	DISPLAY4	.918		**CDPUR3**	.880
Self-Service	**SELF1**	.887		**CDPUR4**	.926
	SELF2	.914		**CDPUR5**	.914
	SELF3	.933	**Cognitive Dissonance about Products**	**CDPRO1**	.904
	SELF4	.932		**CDPRO2**	.907
Music	**MUSIC1**	.896		**CDPRO3**	.905
	MUSIC2	.905		**CDPRO4**	.910
	MUSIC3	**.490**		**CDPRO5**	**.918**
	MUSIC4	.841	**Level of Satisfaction**	**SAT!**	.883
Lighting	**LIGHT!**	.853		**SAT2**	.885
	LIGHT2	.863		**SAT3**	.929
	LIGHT3	.866		**SAT4**	.942
	LIGHT4	.831	**Repurchase Intention**	**REPUR1**	.873
Layout	**LAYOUT!**	.808		**REPUR2**	.907
	LAYOUT2	.870		**REPUR3**	.721
	LAYOUT3	.894		**REPUR4**	.893
	LAYOUT4	.855	**Cross-Buying Intention**	**CROSS!**	.780
Salesperson	**SALES!**	.859		**CROSS2**	.641
	SALES2	.927		**CROSS3**	.928
	SALES3	.919		**CROSS4**	.920
	SALES4	.925	**Word-of-Mouth Intention**	**WOM1**	.881
Post-Purchase Information	**INFO!**	.821		**WOM2**	.888
	INFO2	.837		**WOM3**	.896
	INFO3	.898		**WOM4**	.910
	INFO4	.901			

Remark: All items are significant at the .001 level.

The standardized factor loadings of all constructs are illustrated in Table 5.8 above and range from .273 to .982, and all of them are significant at the .001 level. Even though the standardized loading estimates of five items lower than .5 as recommended by Hair et al. (2006) (IMPULSE3, IMPULSE4, IMPULSES, BRANDI and

MUSIC3), they were all significant at the 0.001 level and could be considered as meeting the minimum requirement for factor loadings suggested by Hair et al. (2006). In addition, to better ensure the quality of the measurement model, construct validity was also determined, and the details are discussed as follows.

5.1.3.1 Construct Validity

In order to ensure that the earlier derived measured variables actually represent the latent construct they were proposed to measure, construct validity was also considered (Hair et al., 2006). Construct validity indicates the accuracy of the measurement model because it implies how item measures obtained from the sample represent the actual true score that exists in the population (Hair et al., 2006).

There are two main types of construct validity and four focal components: (1) convergent validity, which consists of factor loadings, variance extracted and construct reliability, and (2) discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006).

1. Convergent Validity − it requires measurement items that are an indicator of a certain construct to converge or share a high proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2006). There are certain measures to estimate the convergent validity as follows:

    1.1 Factor Loading − high loading on a factor, or at least all factor loadings are significant, implies high convergent validity, and the recommended value is that the standardized estimates should be .5 or higher (Hair et al., 2006).

    1.2 Variance Extracted (VE) − it is the average squared factor loading or the total of all squared standardized factor loadings divided by the number of items, and can be calculated as follows (Hair et al., 2006):

$$VE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i^2}{n} \text{ ; where } \lambda \text{ is the standardized factor loading and } i \text{ is the number}$$

of items

The recommended VE value is .5 or above; while a VE of less than .5 implies more errors remain in the items than the variance explained by the latent factor (Hair et al., 2006).

150

1.3 Construct Reliability (CR) – it indicates the internal consistency, and can be calculated by the squared sum of factor loadings (λ_i) for each construct and the sum of the error variance for a construct (δ_i) as follows (Hair et al., 2006):

$$CR = \frac{[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i]^2}{+ \quad 8i]}$$

The acceptable value is a CR between .6 and .7 (Hair *et al.,* 2006).

2. Discriminant Validity – it is an indicator that a construct is actually distinct from others, or a latent construct explains its item measures better than other constructs (Hair et al., 2006). Discriminant validity can be assessed by comparing the VE for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between these two constructs, and the VE should be higher than the squared correlation estimate.

The results for construct validity, which are composed of the construct correlation matrix, construct reliability and variance extracted, are presented in Table 5.9 as follows.

151

Table ... variance Extracted

A   (Prominent Display), SELF (Self-Service), MUSIC
ACT (Attractive Alternatives), PERFORM (Product
SAT (Level of Satisfaction), REPUR (Repurchase

Table 5.9 presents the correlations between the variables and the direction where "+" indicates a positive relationship and "-" indicates a negative relationship; and the values range from +1 to -1 (Hair et al., 2006). Their squared correlations are also presented above the diagonal line.

Regarding the convergent validity, the results in Table 5.8 revealed that the standardized loading estimates of most of the measurement items exceeded the recommended values of 0.5, and all factor loadings were also statistically significant. Furthermore, the construct reliability (CR) of all constructs was above the recommended value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006). They ranged from .805 to .985. In addition, the variance extracted (VE) of all constructs exceeded the recommended value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006), except impulse buying (.366), while the rest ranged from .600 to .944. Therefore, the measurement model in this study provided sufficient evidence of convergent validity. Moreover, the VE estimates were greater than the corresponding interconstruct squared correlation estimates. Hence, this measurement model also provided evidence of discriminant validity.

In conclusion, the aforementioned results for CFA and construct validity imply that structural equation modeling (SEM) could be further employed in a later section.

5.1.4 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)
Structural equation modeling (SEM) was adopted to determine the hypothesized relationships in this study because it incorporates the strengths of multiple regression analysis, factor analysis and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) into a single model, but still provides a flexible and comprehensive method of dealing with multiple, both direct and indirect, relationships between independent and dependent variables, either observed or latent ones, simultaneously (Ho, 2006). Therefore, the goodness-of-fit of the data to the hypothesized model is also provided (Ho, 2006). In addition, SEM also enhances the statistical estimation by incorporating measurement error into the estimation process (Ho, 2006). In this study, Amos V24.0 was used to analyze the hypothesized model, and the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 3 (Figure 3.3) was transformed into the structural equation model as follows.

153

Figure 5.1: Structural Relationships and Coefficients of the Structural Equation Modeling
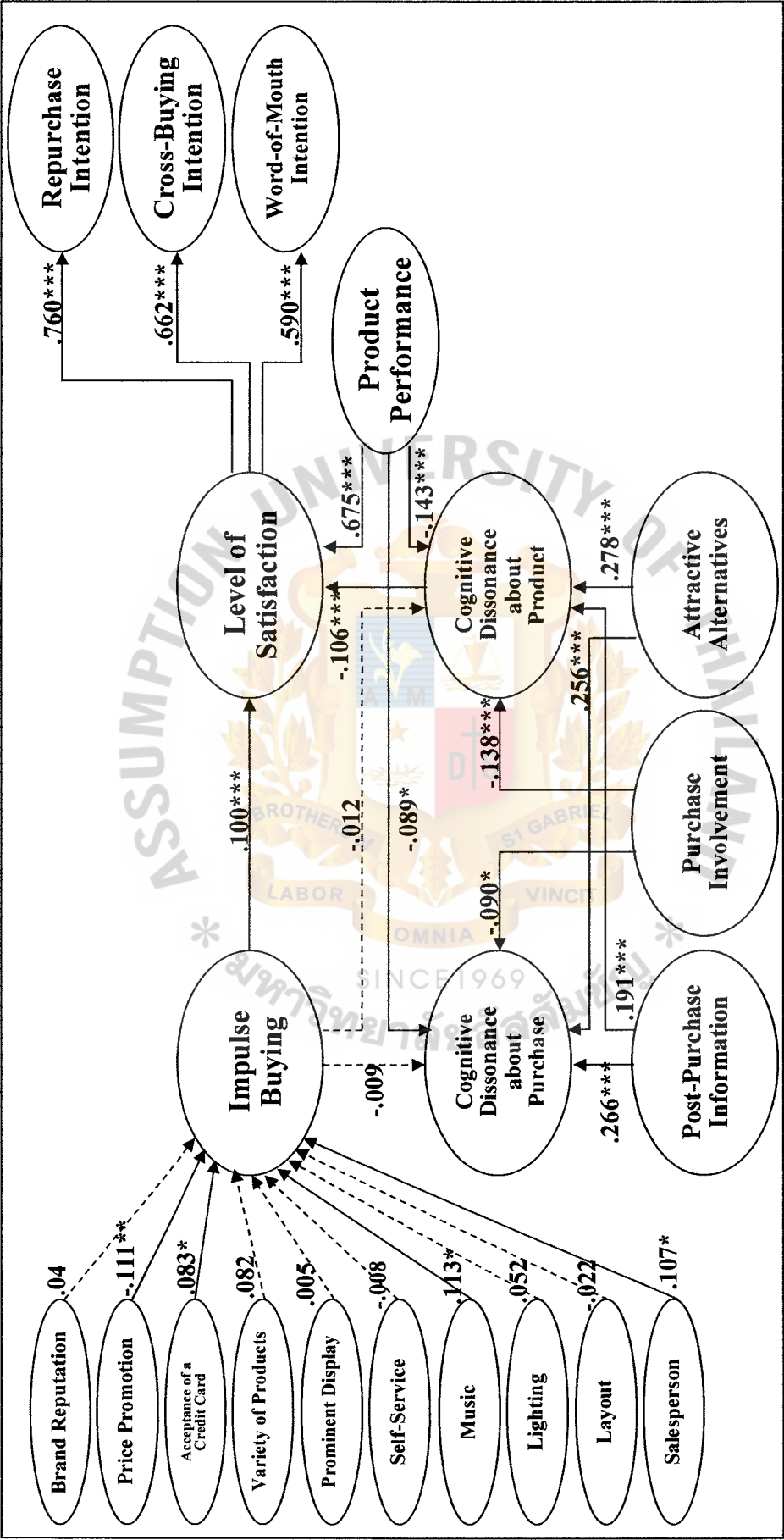
1) Absolute Fit Measures; $\chi^2=870.336$, df=3537, p<.001 $\frac{\chi^2}{df}=2.8?$, GFI=.791, SEA= 44
2) Incremental Fit Measures: NFI=.861, RFI=.875, = 9.6, TLI=9?1, FI=.925
3) Squared Multiple Correlation (r²): impulse 2. ug 4 cognitive dissonance abc t p hase (.28 rep c' ase intentio 577), cross-buying intentio (.), and' ord-o-mouth int n n (.24)
4) Hypothesis as s pported Hypothesis ot s pported
5) Significant Levels: *** significant at the .001 le , ** si fi ant at 1 evel, an * gnificant a e .0 evel

cognitive dissonance about product (.315), level of satisfaction (.553),

5.1.4.1 Structural Model Fitting

Figure 5.1 presents the results of the absolute fit measures of the path model which were: $\frac{\chi}{df} = 2.482$, p < .001, GFI = .791 and RMSEA = .044. Even though p-value and GFI indicated that the model did not fit the data well, df and RMSEA indicated a good fit. In addition, the incremental fit measures presented a marginal acceptable fit for the hypothesized model where NFI = .881, RFI = .875, IFI = .926, TLI = .921, and CFI = .925. In addition, the squared multiple correlations (r^2) suggested that ten in-store marketing stimuli accounted for only 8.4% of the variance associated with impulse buying; while 28.4% of the variance of cognitive dissonance about purchase and 31.5% of the variance of cognitive dissonance about product were explained by post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives, and product performance. Furthermore, 55.3% of the variance associated with the level of satisfaction was explained by impulse buying, cognitive dissonance about product and product performance. Lastly, 57.7%, 43.3% and 34.9% of the variance associated with repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention, respectively, were explained by the level of satisfaction. The following section discusses the structural relationships and their associated hypotheses in the study.

5.2 Hypothesis Testing

This section explains the results of the hypothesis test. There are ten hypotheses, which are presented in six main groups. The first group investigated the influence of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying, while the second group illustrated the influence of impulse buying on cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction; the third group explained the influence of cognitive dissonance on the level of satisfaction. Moreover, the fourth group explained the influence of post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance on cognitive dissonance, while the fifth group focused on the influence of product performance on the level of satisfaction. Lastly, the influence of the level of satisfaction on post-purchase behavioral intentions is also presented. All hypotheses were determined by the critical ratio (C.R.) values at the significance level of 0.05 or less. The results of all hypotheses are explained as follows.

155

5.2.1 The Influence of In-Store Marketing Stimuli on Impulse Buying

According to research objective number 1, the first group of hypothesis testing was explained by describing the influences of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying. The results are shown in Table 5.10 as follows.

Table 5.10: Structural Relationships between In-Store Marketing Stimuli and Impulse Buying

	Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	critical Ratio (C.R.)	p-Value	pothesis esting
H1a	Brand Reputation .4 Impulse buying	.041	1.029	.303	Not Supported
H1b	Price Promotion 4 Impulse buying	-.111	-2.842	.004**	Supported
H1c	Acceptance of a credit card 4 Impulse buying	.083	2.062	.039*	Supported
H1d	Variety of products - Impulse buying	.082	1.953	.051	Not Supported
H1e	Prominent display 4 Impulse buying	.005	.091	.928	Not Supported
H1 f	Self-service - Impulse buying	-.008	-.150	.881	Not Supported
H1g	Music 4 Impulse buying	.113	2.507	.012*	Supported
H1h	Lighting - Impulse buying	.052	.934	.351	Not Supported
H1i	Layout - Impulse buying	-.022	-.446	.656	Not Supported
H1j	Salespersons - Impulse buying	.107	2.035	.042*	Supported

Notes: C.R. are significant at p < .010 (**), and *p* < .05 (*)

The results revealed that price promotion (H1b: C.R. = -2.842; p < .01), acceptance of a credit card (Mc: C.R. = 2.062; p < .05), music (H1g: C.R. = 2.507; p < .05) and salesperson (H1j: C.R. = 2.035; p < .05) significantly influenced the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores as hypothesized. Furthermore, music had the highest impact on impulse buying (β = .113) compared to price promotion (β = -.111), salesperson 03 = .107) and acceptance of a credit card (β = .083), respectively.

The rest of in-store marketing stimuli; which were brand reputation (H1a: C.R. = 1.029; p > .05), prominent display (H1e: C.R. = .091; p > .05), self-service (H1f: C.R. = -.150; p > .05), lighting (H1h: C.R. = .934; p > .05) and layout (H1i: C.R. = -.446; p > .05) did not significantly influence impulse buying behavior; while variety of products (H1d: C.R. = 1.953; p > .05) marginally influence impulse buying behavior. Therefore, hypotheses H1b, Mc, H1g and H1j were supported; while hypotheses H1a, H1d, H1 e, H1 f, HI h and H1i were not supported.

5.2.2 The Influence of Impulse Buying on Cognitive Dissonance and the Level of Satisfaction

Regarding research objective number 2, the second group of hypothesis testing was explained by illustrating the influence of impulse buying on the level of satisfaction and two aspects of cognitive dissonance.The results are shown in Table 5.11 as follows.

Table 5.11: Structural Relationships between Impulse Buying, Cognitive Dissonance and the Level of Satisfaction

Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Critical Ratio (C.R.)	p-Value	Hypothesis Testing
H2			***	Supported
H3a				Not Supported
H3b				Not Supported

Notes: C.R. is significant at p < .001 (***)

According to the results of hypothesis H2, it was revealed that impulse buying significantly influenced the level of satisfaction as proposed (C.R. = 3.488, p < .001). Therefore, hypothesis H2 was statistically supported.

Nevertheless, regarding hypotheses H3, it was indicated that impulse buying did not significantly influence cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics product available at self-selection stores (H3a: C.R. = -.266, p > .05) as well as the products themselves (H3b: C.R. = -.356, p > .05). Hence, it can be concluded that hypotheses H3a and H3b were not statistically supported.

5.2.3 The Influence of Cognitive Dissonance (Product) on the Level of Satisfaction

Regarding research objective number 3, the third group of hypothesis testing was explained by illustrating the influence of cognitive dissonance about the product on the level of satisfaction. The result is shown in Table 5.12 as follows.

157

Table 5.12: Structural Relationships between Cognitive Dissonance and the Level of Satisfaction

	Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Critical Ratio (C. R.)	p-Value	Hypothesis Testing
H4	Cognitive dissonance (Product) ▬ Level of satisfaction	-.106	-3.534	***	Supported

Notes: C.R. is significant at p < .001 (***)

The results of hypothesis H4 revealed that cognitive dissonance about mass color cosmetics products significantly influenced the level of satisfaction (C.R. = -3.534, p < .001). Therefore, hypothesis H4 was statistically supported.

5.2.4 The Influence of Post-purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance on Cognitive Dissonance

Regarding research objective number 4, hypotheses 115 to H8 were tested to examine the influences of antecedents, including post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance, on cognitive dissonance. The results are shown in Table 5.12 as follows.

Table 5.13: Structural Relationships between Post-purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance and Cognitive Dissonance

	Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (ii)	Critical Ratio (C.R.)	p-Value	Hypothesis
H5a	Post-purchase information → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	.266	7.039	***	Supported
H5b	Post-purchase information ▬ Cognitive dissonance (Product)	.191	5.195	***	Supported
H6a	Purchase involvement → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	-.090	-2.459	.014*	Supported
H6b	Purchase involvement → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	-.138	-3.849	***	Supported
H7a	Attractive alternatives → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	.256	5.962	***	Supported
1-17b	Attractive alternatives -3 Cognitive dissonance (Product)	.278	6.614	***	Supported
H8a	Product performance → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	-.089	-2.069	.039*	Supported
H8b	Product performance ◄ Cognitive dissonance (Product)	-.143	-3.409	***	Supported

Notes: C.R. are significant at p < .001 (***) and p < .05 (*)

158

Regarding the results of hypotheses H5, post-purchase information had a significant impact on cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics (H5a: C.R. = 7.039, p < .001) and cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products themselves (H5b: C.R. = 5.195, p < .001). Therefore, it was concluded that hypotheses H5a and H5b were supported.

Similarly, the results of hypotheses H6 revealed purchase involvement had a significant impact on cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics (H6a: C.R. = -2.459, p < .05) and cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products themselves (H6b: C.R. = -3.849, p < .001). Therefore, it implies that hypotheses H6a and H6b were supported.

In addition, the results of hypotheses H7 indicated that attractive alternatives significantly influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics (H7a: C.R. = 5.962, p < .001) and cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products themselves (H7b: C.R. = 6.614, p < .001). Therefore, it was concluded that hypotheses H7a and H7b were statistically supported.

Lastly, the results of hypotheses 1-18 pointed out that product performance significantly influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase of mass color cosmetics (H8a: C.R. = -2.069, p < .05) and cognitive dissonance about the mass color cosmetics products themselves (H8b: C.R. = -3.409, p < .001). Hence, it was confirmed that hypotheses H8a and H8b were statistically supported.

5.2.5 The Influence of Product Performance and the Level of Satisfaction
Hypothesis H9 was tested to examine the relationship between the level of satisfaction and product performance. The result is shown in Table 5.13 as follows.

Table 5.14: Structural Relationships between Product Performance and the Level of Satisfaction

Hypotheses and Path in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (13)	Critical Ratio (C.R.)	Hypothesis Testing
		***	

Notes: C.R. is significant at p < .001 (***)

159

Regarding Table 5.13, it revealed that product performance significantly influenced the level of satisfaction as hypothesized (H9: C.R. = 18.643, p < .001). Hence, it was confirmed that hypotheses H9 was statistically supported.

5.2.6 The Influence of the Level of Satisfaction on Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

According to research objective number 5, the last group of hypothesis testing was undertaken by examining the influences of the level of satisfaction on the post-purchase behavioral intentions, which consisted of repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention. The results are shown in Table 5.14 as follows.

Table 5.15: Structural Relationships between the Level of Satisfaction and Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

	Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Critical Ratio (C.R.)	r	Hypothesis Testing
H10a	Level of satisfaction 4 Repurchase intention	.760	23.091	***	Supported
H10b	Level of satisfaction 4 Cross-buying intention	.662	17.788	***	Supported
H10c	Level of satisfaction 4 Word-of-mouth intention	.590	17.000	***	Supported

Notes: C.R. is significant at $p < .001$ (***)

The results in Table 5.14 revealed that the level of satisfaction significantly influenced repurchase intention (H10a: C.R. = 23.091, p < .001), cross-buying intention (H10b: C.R. = 17.788, p < .001) and word-of-mouth intention (H10c: C.R. = 17.000, p < .001), as hypothesized. Furthermore, the level of satisfaction had the highest impact on repurchase intention (β = .760) compared to cross-buying intention (β = .662) and word-of-mouth intention (β = .590), respectively. Hence, it was concluded that hypotheses H10a, H10b and H10c were statistically supported.

5.3 Summary

This chapter analyzed the data retrieved from 780 female respondents who purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores in Bangkok. Regarding descriptive data, their demographic information and purchasing experiences were presented. Exploratory factor analysis and scale reliability were performed, and one item

(item48) was deleted due to the low factor loading to its relevant construct. After that, confirmatory factor analysis and construct validity were conducted. Lastly, structural equation modeling and hypothesis testing were conducted. Table 5.16 summarizes the overall hypothesis testing results of this study as shown below.

Table 5.16: A Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

	Hypotheses and Paths in the Model	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Critical Ratio (C.R.)	p-Value	Hypothesis Testing
H1a	Brand Reputation → Impulse buying	.041	1.029	.303	Not Supported
H1b	Price Promotion → Impulse buying	-.111	-2.842	.004**	Supported
H1c	Acceptance of a credit card → Impulse buying	.083	2.062	.039*	Supported
H1d	Variety of products → Impulse buying	.082	1.953	.051	Not Supported
H1e	Prominent display → Impulse buying	.005	.091	.928	Not Supported
H1f	Self-service → Impulse buying	-.008	-.150	.881	Not Supported
H1g	Music → Impulse buying	.113	2.507	.012*	Supported
H1h	Lighting → Impulse buying	.052	.934	.351	Not Supported
H1i	Layout → Impulse buying	-.022	-.446	.656	Not Supported
H1j	Salespersons → Impulse buying	.107	2.035	.042*	Supported
H2	Impulse buying → Level of satisfaction	.100	3.488	***	Supported
H3a	Impulse buying → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	-.009	-.266	.791	Not Supported
H3b	Impulse buying → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	-.012	-.356	.721	Not Supported
H4	Cognitive dissonance (Product) → Level of satisfaction	-.106	-3.534	***	Supported
H5a	Post-purchase information → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	.266	7.039	***	Supported
H5b	Post-purchase information → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	.191	5.195	***	Supported
H6a	Purchase involvement → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	-.090	-2.459	.014*	Supported
H6b	Purchase involvement → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	-.138	-3.849	***	Supported
H7a	Attractive alternatives → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	.256	5.962	***	Supported
H7b	Attractive alternatives → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	.278	6.614	***	Supported
H8a	Product performance → Cognitive dissonance (Purchase)	-.089	-2.069	.039*	Supported
H8b	Product performance → Cognitive dissonance (Product)	-.143	-3.409	***	Supported
H9	Product performance → Level of satisfaction	.675	18.643	***	Supported
H10a	Level of satisfaction → Repurchase intention	.760	23.091	***	Supported
H10b	Level of satisfaction → Cross-buying intention	.662	17.788	***	Supported
H10c	Level of satisfaction → Word-of-mouth intention	.590	17.000	***	Supported

Notes: $\frac{}{df}$ = 2.482, p < .001, GFI = .791, RMSEA = .044

NFI = .881, RFI = .875, IFI = .926, TLI = .921, CFI = .925

C.R. are significant at p < .001 (***), *p* < .010 (**), and p < .05 (*)

161

The results revealed that acceptance of price promotion, a credit card, music and salespersons had significant impacts on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores. Moreover, two aspects of cognitive dissonance was positively influenced by post-purchase information and attractive alternative, and negatively influenced by purchase involvement and product performance. Even though impulse buying did not have an impact on either aspect of cognitive dissonance, impulse buying and cognitive dissonance about the product had a significant influence on the level of satisfaction. That is, the level of satisfaction was positively influenced by impulse buying and product performance, and was reduced by cognitive dissonance about the product. In addition, the level of satisfaction further positively influenced post-purchase behavioral intentions (repurchase intention, cross-buying intention, and word-of-mouth intention).

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the findings presented in Chapter 5 based on the research objectives and research questions. In addition, the main findings are discussed based on both previous literature and exploratory research, which was conducted by in-depth interviews. Moreover, conclusions and recommendations are presented while theoretical and managerial implications are also explained.

6.1 Summary of Findings

The research findings of this study derived from the data set of 780 samples, who were female, 18 to 45 years old, low to middle income consumers in the socio-economic classes (SEC) of B, C and D with a monthly household income between 7,501 and 85,000 Baht (Hakuhodo Institute of Life and Living Asean, 2015), and impulsively purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection stores in Bangkok in the last 30 days.

These samples could be implied to represent the target population of this study. Regarding the age, they were 18 to 45 years old, where 22.2% of them were 18 to 24 years old, 15.0% were 25 to 29 years old, 38.6% were 30 to 39 years old, and 24.2% were 40 to 45 years old, where the proportion of these age groups is similar to the proportion of the female population in Bangkok by age group (Department of Provincial Administration, 2014) (For more details, see Appendix II). Moreover, 18 to 35 year-old female consumers are the majority of cosmetics consumers in Thailand because of their trendy lifestyles, high spending power, willingness to spend on cosmetics (Chaisitthiroj, 2007; Ponbamrungwong and Chandsawang, 2009), and higher tendency to perform an impulse purchase than older consumers (Bellenger et al., 1978). Nevertheless, those who are 36 to 45 years old still made impulsive purchase albeit to a less degree based on the findings of the exploratory research (see Section 3.2.1) and pretest (see Section 4.2.3).

163

Moreover, 10.0% of them were low income consumers and 90.0% were middle income consumers, which was consistent with Ruengsinpinya (2011) and US Commercial Service (2008), who indicated that low to middle income consumers are are the main target group of mass self-selection cosmetics stores with inexpensive or mid-priced cosmetics products. Furthermore, 47.4% of them purchase mass color cosmetics from chain drugstores, supermarkets or hypermarkets which are the dominant distributors of color cosmetics over time because they provide consumers with more comfortable product pick-up channels and a more comprehensive product portfolio (Euromonitor, 2014a).

In addition, all hypotheses in this study were based on five research questions regarding the in-store marketing stimuli and post-purchase evaluations of impulse buying of mass color cosmetics that are available in self-selection stores in Bangkok. The research questions and answers are as follows:

Research Question 1: What are the in-store marketing stimuli determining the impulse buying behavior of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Several previous studies indicated that impulse buying was an interplay of internal and external factors (Wansink, 1994; Youn and Faber, 2000; Činjarecić, 2010; Kim, 2003). Nevertheless, this study included only in-store marketing stimuli, which are parts of external factors, because they are under the authority of marketers who can control customers' perception towards there factors (Beatty and Ferry, 1998). In addition, around two-thirds of purchase decisions are made in the retail environment (Solomon, 2001), and approximately seventy percent of unplanned purchases are influenced by in-store stimuli (Duarte et al., 2013). Based on extensive review of related literature in different context of study, the significant in-store marketing stimuli included brand reputation, price promotion, acceptance of a credit card, variety of products, prominent display, self-service, music, lighting, layout and salespersons. These ten in-store marketing stimuli were also confirmed to have an impact on impulse buying of mass color cosmetics in Bangkok in the exploratory research findings.

164

The hypothesis testing results revealed that music ((β = .113, C.R. = 2.507, p<.05), salesperson (β = .107, C.R. = 2.035, p<.05) and acceptance of a credit card (β = .083, C.R. = 2.062, p<.05) significantly and respectively lead to impulse buying; while price promotion (β = .111, C.R. = -2.842, p<.01) significantly reduced impulse buying opportunities of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Nevertheless, other in-store marketing stimuli, including brand reputation, variety of products, prominent display, self-service, lighting and layout, were found to have insignificant impacts on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Therefore, it can be assumed that enhancing music, service-mindedness and the knowledge of salespersons, and the acceptance of credit card are likely to induce impulse buying behavior, while a deep price promotion could reduce such behavior at cosmetics self-selection stores.

Research Question 2: How does impulse buying influence cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Several previous studies indicated that under the context of impulse buying where the purchase was spontaneous and less deliberative than a normal planned purchase, there was a greater likelihood of cognitive dissonance, which further hindered customer satisfaction (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Nevertheless, certain studies argued that most customers felt good and did not display a significant dissatisfaction (Gardner and Rook, 1988), and some even experienced a sense of being rewarded after they made an impulse purchase (Hausman, 2000).

The hypothesis testing results revealed that impulse buying did not have a significant influence on cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the products themselves. On the other hand, the results indicated that impulse buying had a positive influence on the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers (β = .100, C.R. = 3.488, p<.001). Their satisfaction level was also positively influenced by good product performance (β = .675, C.R. = 18.643, p<.001). Hence, the results imply that the more impulsive customers were when buying mass color cosmetics, the more they were likely to be satisfied with the product. Nevertheless, impulse buying did not have a direct impact on either aspect of cognitive dissonance, which also implies that

165

cognitive dissonance did not mediate the relationship between impulse buying and the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Research Question 3: How does cognitive dissonance influence the level of satisfaction of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Cognitive dissonance was proven to have a negative influence on the level of satisfaction; that is, high cognitive dissonance motivated dissatisfaction and reduced cognitive dissonance encouraged satisfaction (Cooper, 2007; Lake, 2009). Even though the exploratory research results revealed there were two aspects of cognitive dissonance, this study focused only on the influence of cognitive dissonance about the product on the level of satisfaction because the level of satisfaction in this study referred to the attitude towards the product results, not the purchasing activity. Moreover, even though many participants were uncomfortable about their purchase decision, most of them quickly soothed themselves about the irrational purchase decision and were satisfied with the product performance. Moreover, the expectancy disconfirmation model (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997; Kang, 2013) suggested the influence of disconfirmation about the product performance on post-purchase satisfaction.

The hypothesis testing result revealed that cognitive dissonance about mass color cosmetics products also had a significant negative direct influence on the satisfaction level β3 = -.106, C.R. = -3.534, p<.001) for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Therefore, it was concluded that the more the customers questioned or were unsure about the product they purchased, the less they were satisfied with the product.

Research Question 4: How do post-purchase information, purchase involvement, attractive alternatives and product performance influence cognitive dissonance for mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Previous studies implied that the influential factors on cognitive dissonance were related to three key attributes, which are product alternatives, product information and

166

the significance of the decision (Ivy et al., 1978). In addition to the literature review, the exploratory research findings also implied that when the product did not perform well, the participants would likely feel uneasy as to whether they had made the right decision and were unsure whether the product suited their skin condition. Hence, product performance was also found to have an influence on cognitive dissonance. In addition, the exploratory research findings also revealed that even though many participants were satisfied with the product results, they could be uncomfortable about their purchase decision. Therefore, it indicated that cognitive dissonance could be divided into two aspects: the purchase decision and the product purchased.

The hypothesis testing results revealed that, in the context of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok, both aspects of cognitive dissonance could be significantly aroused by post-purchase information (about the purchase decision: β = .266, C.R. = 7.039, p<.001; about the product: β = .191, C.R. = 5.195, p<.001) and attractive alternatives (about the purchase decision: β = .256, C.R. = 5.962, p<.001; about the product: β = .278, C.R. = 6.614, p<.001). On the other hand, both aspects of cognitive dissonance could be significantly reduced by purchase involvement (about the purchase decision: R = -.090, C.R. = -2.459, p<.05; about the product: (β = -.138, C.R. = -3.849, p<.001) and product performance (about the purchase decision: β = -.089, C.R. = -2.069, p<.05; about the product: β = -.143, C.R. = -3.409, p<.001). Therefore, it can be concluded that the product information received after the purchase and the attractiveness of forgone product alternatives significantly aroused cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the products themselves. On the other hand, purchase involvement and a favorable product performance significantly reduced cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the products themselves.

Research Question 5: How does the level of satisfaction influence post-purchase behavioral intentions (repurchase intention, cross-buying intention and word-of-mouth intention) of mass color cosmetics customers at self-selection stores in Bangkok?

Satisfaction has widely and consistently been suggested to have a strong positive impact on repurchase intention (Patterson et al., 1997; Mao and Oppewal, 2010,

Cronin et al., 2000), cross-buying intention (Ngobo, 2004; Kumar et al., 2008; Hong and Lee, 2012) and word-of-mouth intention (Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989; Yi, 1990) across product categories and countries.

The hypothesis testing results revealed that level of satisfaction was proven to have a significant positive influence on repurchase intention ($\beta = .760$, C.R. $= 23.091$, p<.001), cross-buying intention ($\beta = .662$, C.R. $= 17.788$, p<.001) and word-of-mouth intention ($\beta = .590$, C.R. $= 17.000$, p<.001) for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok, respectively. Therefore, it was confirmed that the more customers were satisfied with the products, the more likely they were to repurchase, cross-buy and spread positive word-of-mouth about the product.

6.2 Discussion

The main purposes of this study were to identify the in-store marketing stimuli as well as the post-purchase evaluations of impulse buying behavior for mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. The overall results of the study are discussed as follows:

6.2.1 In-Store Marketing Stimuli and Impulse Buying

This section discusses the results of the influence of ten in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying as follows:

- **Brand Reputation and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis findings (H1a) revealed that brand reputation did not have an impact on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics. Such a result contradicts certain studies (Tinne, 2010; Duarte et al., 2013), which implied that a brand with a good reputation would remind a customer of its product, and subsequently induce them to make an impulse purchase in the buying environment.

The insignificant influence of brand reputation on impulse buying is supported by Zhang and Wang (2010) who claimed that some studies viewed brand to have very little impact on impulse buying. Thu and Gizaw (2014) also revealed that brand did

168

not have a significant impact on the impulse purchase of food products; while Bessouh, Iznasni and Benhabib (2015) claimed that only three percent of the sample admitted that brand influenced their impulse purchase decision. Reungsinpinya (2011) claimed that only seven percent of the response considered brand in their purchase decision of Korean cosmetics products in Thailand. Moreover, Desai (2014) indicated in the study on consumer buying behavior of cosmetics products in India that only ten percent of samples were influenced by brand because most of them (85 percent) were more quality conscious. Similarly, Coulter, Feick and Price (2002) also suggested that there were little or no difference in brand preference for low-end cosmetics, when compared to high-end cosmetics.

- **Price Promotion and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis results (H1 b) indicated that price promotion negatively influenced the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Such a result contradicted many previous literatures, which widely indicated the positive impact of price promotion on impulse buying behavior. Specifically, price was one of the most influential factors on impulse buying (Stern, 1962; Parboteeah, 2005), and price related promotions aroused product trial (Brandweek, 1994) and impulse buying behavior (Piron, 1991; Dholakia, 2000) due to the reduction of perceived risk (Ndubisi, 2005) and the value of saving money (Stern, 1962; Kim, 2014). That is, price promotion lowered mental barriers against impulse buying (Hultén and Vanyushyn, 2011), and subsequently convinced a customer to spend more than they had originally planned (Sirhindi, 2011).

However, some studies indicated that some price promotion tools, such as coupons, did not have a significant influence on product trial despite popular usage by retailers (Gbadamosi, 2009; Ndubisi and Moi, 2006; Gilbert and Jackaria, 2002; Shi et al., 2005). Yang et al. (2011) interestingly indicated that highly impulsive customers were not significantly influenced by price promotions, but rather purchase on impulse when they had sufficient money. In addition, Cho, Ching and Luong (2014) pointed out that price promotion did not significantly lead to impulse buying in supermarkets in Vietnam. Saleh (2012) similarly claimed that customers were less sensitive to sales promotion, which did not have a significant influence on unplanned purchasing. Thu and Gizaw (2014) also revealed that customers might be price sensitive, but their

169

purchase decisions were not always influenced by price-related factors. For instance, in the food products industry, customers were increasingly concerned about food safety over the price (Thu and Gizaw, 2014). Similarly, the study of Desai (2014) finding that customers were more quality conscious towards cosmetics products that 85 percent of samples were influenced by the quality of cosmetics, but only three percent were influenced by price. Singh (2015) agreed that price was perceived to be the least important factor on impulse buying, when compared with product quality and variety. Kapoor and Si's (2014) study on cosmetics choice also revealed that their sample remained indifferent towards price promotion.

Furthermore, certain studies (Gbadamosi, 2009; Ong, 1999) revealed that customers were skeptical about some price promotion tools as they were suspicious about the incentives, such as bonus packs or buy-one-get-one-free as they perceived such extra quantity was not based on true quantity, but rather on lesser amounts. Zeelanberg and van Putten (2005) also explained that customers might interpret these promotions as an indicator that these products might have been overpriced and may even consider switching brand. The study of Drozdenko and Jensen (2005) even showed the negative impact of price promotion where customers rather preferred small price discounts to deep discounts due to their concerns about the product quality. The study of Manzur, Olavarrieta, Hidalgo-Campos and Faríaz (2013) revealed that when customers were exposed to two or more price promotion strategies, they reduced their purchase intention because they were uncertain about the true price, which further encouraged them to reduce their purchase intention in a specific store. Such a significant negative influence of price promotion on impulse buying could be explained by an inverted U-shaped consumer reaction to price discounts (Grewal, Marmorstein and Sharma, 1996). That is, a customer would perceive an increase of monetary value when a price discount moved from a low to a moderate level, but they would perceive product uncertainty when the price discount was high (Kim, 2014).

- **Acceptance of a Credit Card and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis (H1c) revealed that acceptance of a credit card significantly and positively influenced impulse buying. That is, the cosmetics self-selection stores that accept payment by credit card could encourage a customer to purchase on impulse. Several previous studies also indicated the positive impact of credit card on impulse

170

buying behavior (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; d'Atous, 1990; Magee, 1994; Roberts and Martines, 1997; Roberts and Jones, 2001; Park and Burns, 2005; Phau and Woo, 2008). Saleh (2012) suggested that credit cards allowed customers to become free of payment limits, or at least heightened the ceiling of expenditure to the limits that the credit cards allowed; consequently, they enabled customers to spend more than they originally planned, or even more than their financial capability. In addition, since a credit card eliminates the instant need for money to buy a product, it subsequently encourages impulsivity (Karbasivar and Yarahmandi, 2011) and encourages a customer to overspend (Schor, 1998). In short, a credit card motivates a customer to be less sensitive to product price (Tokunga, 1993). Furthermore, its incentive for extra shopping could encourage a customer to do more frequent shopping, which might result in increased impulse buying opportunities (Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013).

- **Variety of Products and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis results (H1d) indicated that the variety of products did not have a significant influence on impulse buying behavior. This insignificant impact contradicted certain studies (Stern, 1962; Dawson and Kim, 2010), which implied that a great variety of products provided a favorable purchasing environment for a customer to make an impulse purchase because they did not have to plan their purchase in advance as a wide range of products were already available.

The insignificant impact of variety of products on impulse buying could be justified by several previous studies. The study on the influential factor on impulse buying in various product categories, including cosmetics, clothes, shoes and toys, by Bessouh, Iznasni and Benhabib (2015) claimed that only about five percent of the sample admitted that a wide range of products influenced their impulse purchase decision. Moreover, Koski (2004) suggested that a great variety of products might encourage comparison shopping, which in turn discourages impulse buying. In addition, previous studies suggested the influence of cultural factors on the variety of products. They claimed that a great variety of products is significantly more preferable in individualistic cultures than in collectivist cultures, in which choice opportunities were less stimulated (Iyengar and Lepper, 2003; Kim and Drolet, 2003; Ahmed, Uddin and Ahshanullah, 2009). Therefore, a wide range of color cosmetics might not play a significant role in the collectivist culture of Thailand.

171

- **Prominent Display and Impulse Buying**

Previous studies found that an eye-catching display enabled a customer to notice a product (Desmet and Renaudin, 1998), recall the need for a product (Duarte et al., 2013), and subsequently increased their tendency to purchase an item being displayed on impulse (Rook, 1987; Jones et al., 2003; Huhen, 2012). Nevertheless, the data analysis results (H1 e) indicated that a prominent display did not influence impulse buying. Therefore, it implies that an attractive or outstanding display of mass color cosmetics does not convince a customer to make an impulse purchase at cosmetics self-selection stores.

The insignificant influence of a prominent display on impulse buying could be justified as there are countless prominent displays of several products that a customer is repeatedly exposed to in the current competitive marketing condition, so they become immune to such prominent displays (Sirhindi, 2010). Such an insignificant influence of prominent display on impulse buying behavior was also evidenced in other context, such as apparel stores (Mehta and Chugan, 2013).

- **Self-Service and Impulse Buying**

Even though previous literature claimed that self-service was more likely to encourage impulse buying than salesperson-services because a customer did not have to rely on a salesperson for their shopping experience (Sirhindi, 2010), the data analysis results (H1f) revealed that self-service did not influence the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Regarding the insignificant influence of self-service on impulse buying, even though the influence of self-service has been noted by previous studies due to the freedom it creates in making the purchase decision (Sirhindi, 2010), this freedom may also allow a customer to take their time and carefully make a purchase decision. Subsequently, a customer may reconsider or postpone their purchase once they realize that their purchase decision is emotionally aroused by some certain stimuli, rather than a rational purchase decision. Moreover, a self-service system may possess certain drawbacks as there is no salesperson to actively suggest incremental cross/up-sell items to increase the value of the current purchase transaction (Lee et al., 2001;

172

Hodge, 2004). Therefore, the impulse buying opportunity could be reduced. Joseph (2010) further claimed that self-service failed to influence impulse buying behavior in hypermarket in Bangkok because with the increased shopping experience in hypermarkets, customers had already got used to selecting products by themselves without the intervention of store staff. Hence, self-service might not noticeably influence impulse buying behavior.

- **Music and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis results (H1 g) indicated that music significantly and positively influenced impulse buying. Therefore, it could be confirmed that where more favorable music is played in cosmetics self-selection stores, the greater the likelihood is of the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics.

Music is an essential ambient factor of the store atmosphere (Bitner, 1992) and has been proven to enhance customers' positive affective states (Garlin and Owen, 2006; Brunner, 1990) and shape their behavior in the retailing environment (Milliman, 1982; 1986; Yalch and Spangenberg, 1990). Previous studies indicated that customers with positive emotional states were more likely to reduce the purchase decision time and complexity (Isen, 1984) and tend to overspend in the shopping environment (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). That is, pleasant music increased customers' pleasure and satisfaction levels towards the shopping experience (Morrison et al., 2011); subsequently, it encouraged them to spend extra time and money than they had originally planned (Milliman, 1982; 1986). Hence, it was likely that some of their extra spending money would result in unplanned (Turley and Milliman, 2000) and even impulse purchase (Mattila and Wirtz, 2001; Mohan et al., 2013). Therefore, music has been proven to be a crucial trigger that encourages customers to make a purchase on impulse (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993; Mattila and Wirtz, 2001; Mohan et al., 2013).

- **Lighting and Impulse Buying**

Previous literature found that appropriate lighting generates a favorable ambience and enhances a customer's shopping experience, and thus motivates them to purchase a product on impulse (Eroglu and Machleit, 1993; Mohan et al., 2013). Nevertheless,

173

the data analysis results (H1 h) revealed that cosmetics self-selection store lighting systems did not have a significant impact on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics. Even though lighting creates a favorable store environment that further facilitates their purchase decision, its effect might be too subtle to have a strong influence on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics products at self-selection stores in Bangkok. In addition, the study by Deepika and Neeraj a (2012) revealed that the lighting in retail stores did not influence consumer shopping behavior. Similarly, the study of Bessouh, Iznasni and Benhabib (2015) claimed that less than three percent of the sample suggested that lighting products influenced their impulse purchase decision of cosmetics, clothes, shoes and toys.

- **Layout and Impulse Buying**

Previous studies claimed that a proper layout enabled a customer to easily find a product (Bitner, 1992; Spies et al., 1997), and subsequently facilitated their purchase decision (Mohan et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the data analysis results (H1i) revealed that the self-selection store layout did not have an impact on the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics. The layout of these cosmetics self-selection stores did not have a strong influence on impulse buying probably because it might be too common and not as unique as that of the cosmetics counters in department stores. The insignificant influence of layout on impulse buying was also evidenced in supermarkets (Nishanov and Ahunjonov, 2016). In addition, Cho, Ching and Luong (2014) pointed out that in-store layout did not significantly lead to impulse buying in supermarkets in Vietnam. Kim (2003) also indicated that layout, which refers to the arrangement of the product according to the floor plan or zone, did not have a significant impact on impulse buying in apparel stores because customers were not aware of the layout as a form of information aid. Moreover, the study of Bessouh, Iznasni and Benhabib (2015) claimed that only two percent of the sample suggested that ease of finding products influenced their impulse purchase decision.

- **Salesperson and Impulse Buying**

The data analysis results (H1j) revealed that the salesperson significantly and positively influenced impulse buying. Hence, it can be confirmed that the more

service-minded and knowledgeable a salesperson is, the more likely a customer is to make an impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok.

Previous studies also indicated that the social interaction between a customer and a salesperson is one of the most influential factors of the store environment, and has a direct influence on impulse buying (Manila and Wirtz, 2008; Muruganantha and Bhakat, 2013). That is, customers are reassured of their purchase decision and the product quality (Hu and Jasper, 2006) when a salesperson is likable and trustworthy (Chang et al., 2014b). Moreover, a salesperson who is friendly and pay attention to customers can successfully convince a customer to purchase on impulse (Tinne, 2011). Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) also explained that a salesperson assists customers to explore the store and the products, creates an emotional attraction to a product, and subsequently convinces them to accept sudden and impulsive buying ideas during their shopping experience. Certain studies revealed that less impulse purchases were made online due to the absence of a salesperson to persuade a customer's purchase decision because their presence, behavior as well as selling techniques can convince a customer's buying behavior (Ahuja, 2015). In addition, other studies also found that a salesperson can influence customers to purchase more products (Park and Lennon, 2006), and subsequently make an impulse purchase (Han et al., 1991).

6.2.2 Impulse Buying, Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product) and Level of Satisfaction

This section discusses the results of the influence of impulse buying on two aspects of cognitive dissonance and the level of satisfaction for mass color cosmetics as follows:

- **Impulse Buying and Level of Satisfaction**

The data analysis result (H2) in this study indicated that impulse buying significantly and positively influenced the level of satisfaction. This suggests that the more the purchase of mass color cosmetics is impulsive, the more a customer is satisfied with the products.

175

In the context of impulse buying where the purchase lacks proper planning and consideration (Rook and Fisher, 1995), even though customers may feel regret about their monetary expenditure, some did not exhibit significant dissatisfaction (Gardner and Rook, 1988). Several studies across categories and countries revealed that customers remained satisfied with their impulsive purchase decision (Dittmar and Drury, 2000; Chen, 2002; Kang, 2013) and some even experienced a sense of being rewarded (Hausman, 2000). In addition, Rook's (1987) study indicated that only small number of subjects felt bad about their impulse buying, while a large number of them revealed that they felt good about it.

- **Impulse Buying and Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)**

The data analysis in this study indicated that the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics did not lead to cognitive dissonance about both the purchasing decision (H3a) or the cosmetics product themselves (H3b) at self-selection stores. Such results could be explained by the study of George and Yaoyuneyong (2010), which revealed that impulsive buyers could be more risk tolerant and would subsequently take cognitive dissonance more lightly. That is, they already anticipated certain surprises; so they then fended off the post-purchase cognitive dissonance (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010). Moreover, these impulsive buyers were more self-attributed in the event of cognitive dissonance (Miller and Ross, 1975). Therefore, when they perceived that their lesser deliberation on the purchase decision accounted for a failed purchase, the degree of cognitive dissonance would be low (Stone and Cooper, 2003).

In addition, since there are four main types of impulse buying: pure, reminder, suggestion and planned impulse buying (Stern, 1962), it might be assumed that most respondents did not indulge in pure impulse buying, which is an emotional escape purchase to provide immediate gratification. However, they rather made a reminder or planned impulse purchase where they already had previous knowledge/experience of the product, or a suggestion impulse buying where the purchase was rational or functional. Hence, it is possible that cognitive dissonance was less likely to be experienced. This certain assumption was also supported by Mowen and Minor (1998), who claimed that impulse buying was not always irrational; while Kang (2013) agreed that impulse buying with thorough evaluations did not lead to cognitive dissonance on the product performance.

176

6.2.3 Impulse Buying, Cognitive Dissonance (Product) and Level of Satisfaction

- **Cognitive Dissonance (Product) and Level of Satisfaction**

The data analysis result (H4) indicated that cognitive dissonance about products (CDPRO) significantly and negatively influenced the satisfaction level about mass color cosmetics products available at self-selection stores. The finding is consistent with many previous studies. In the context of impulse buying, there is a greater opportunity for the occurrence of cognitive dissonance that may further hinder customer satisfaction (Rook and Fisher, 1995; Kang and Johnson, 2009; Kang, 2013). Mao and Oppewal (2010) explained that when cognitive dissonance is experienced, the changes in affect could further influence customer satisfaction; that is, if cognitive dissonance decreases (increases), customer satisfaction increases (decreases). Similarly, Sweeney et al. (2000) claimed that customers with a high cognitive dissonance level would be unable to perceive satisfaction because they had difficulty in evaluating the product quality and felt less satisfaction. Kang (2013), based on the expectancy disconfirmation model, also suggested an inverse relationship between cognitive dissonance about the product and post-purchase satisfaction.

6.2.4 Post-purchase Information, Purchase Involvement, Attractive Alternatives and Product Performance and Cognitive Dissonance

This section discusses the results of the influential factors of two aspects of cognitive dissonance for mass color cosmetics as follows:

- **Post-Purchase Information and Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)**

The data analysis results revealed that post-purchase information significantly and positively influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision (H5a) and mass color cosmetics (H5b) at self-selection stores.

Under the circumstances where customers suffer from psychological discomfort, they will try to take a mental recovery action to achieve internal consistency between their opinions (Mitchell and Boustani, 1994; George and Edward, 2009). These dissonant

177

customers may either actively avoid any choice-inconsistent information that will increase the dissonance (Festinger, 1957), or search for choice-supportive information to downplay the cognitive dissonance (George and Edward, 2009). That is, post-purchase information that reassures customers about their purchase decision would reduce cognitive dissonance.

However, Oshikawa (1969) claimed that reinforcing messages may not play an equally strong role in reassuring a customer. That is, a post-purchase advertisement may significantly reinforce a customer who purchases an expensive specialty product and experiences strong dissonance when compared to those who purchase low-involvement or frequently purchased products where the dissonance is not significant. In addition, Engel (1963) suggested that an advertising message to a customer who is not dissonant may not play a significant role and may even appear to be unwarranted.

Interestingly, Donnelly and Ivancevich (1970) claimed that despite the assumption proposed by many previous studies (Bell, 1967; Ehrlich, Guttman, Schonback and Mills, 1957) that dissonant customers would seek post-purchase choice-supportive information, these studies did not actually examine whether these customers were dissonant, but rather assumed that they were all dissonant and tried to reduce such dissonance. Donnelly and Ivancevich (1970) further argued that such an assumption was highly unlikely because there was a possibility that some customers did not suffer from psychological discomfort about their purchase.

Specifically, the research results of this study revealed that the respondents did not experience cognitive dissonance about their purchase decision (mean = 1.76, denoting disagree) or about the product (mean = 1.68, denoting disagree), and that both aspects of cognitive dissonance were positively influenced by post-purchase information may not be surprising. The positive influence of post-purchase information on cognitive dissonance was also supported by certain previous studies. Hunt's (1970) study indicated that a customer who received post-purchase information experienced more cognitive dissonance, had less favorable attitudes towards the store, and less repurchase intention. That is, the post-purchase information did not only appear to be ineffective, but worsened the situation. Hunt (1970) also supported such a scenario by stating that these customers might suspect an ulterior motive in post-purchase

178

information. Moreover, the study of Aggarwal, Kim and Cha (2013) suggested that Easterners were less motivated to reduce their cognitive dissonance when they were exposed to choice-inconsistent information.

- **Purchase Involvement and Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)**

Even though several academicians (Festinger, 1957; Hunt, 1970; Ivy et al., 1978; Korgaonkar and Moschis, 1982) indicated that when customers made an important, relevant or personally involved purchase decision, they would likely be dissonant. That is, purchase involvement would positively influence cognitive dissonance. However, the results revealed that purchase involvement significantly and negatively influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision (H6a) and mass color cosmetics products (H6b).

Certain previous studies supported the idea that customers with high involvement in their purchase decision were more likely to be more stable with their pre-purchase cognitions (Mittal, 1989), which they believed to be based on extensive information search and analysis (Smith and Bristor, 2006) and rather hold on to their pre-purchase cognition, even if it is perceived to be risky by other people (George and Yaoyuneyong, 2010). Similarly, Saleem, Ali and Ahmad (2012) also suggested that high purchase involvement led to high control over the post-purchase conflicting cognitions. Dholakia (2001) further claimed that higher perception of risk encouraged customers to become highly involved with their purchase, which in turn led to lower perceptions of risk in the post-purchase stage. This continued lower perception of risk in the post-purchase scenario indicates a lower degree of cognitive dissonance (Dholakia, 2001).

In addition, George and Edward (2009) explained that the degree of cognitive dissonance experienced by highly involved customers was less than that experienced by low involved customers. They also claimed that, based on attribution theory by Heider (1958), higher purchase involvement led to higher self-attribution to the perception of product failure and subsequently justified their decision with biased information to overcome the cognitive dissonance.

179

- **Attractive Alternatives and Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)**

The data analysis result revealed that attractive alternatives significantly and positively influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision (H7a) and the product (H7b). This implies that the more attractive the forgone alternatives are, the more a customer experiences cognitive dissonance about their purchase decision and the performance of mass color cosmetics.

Many previous studies indicated certain attributes of alternatives could have an impact on the degree of cognitive dissonance, such as the desirability of rejected alternatives, the number of alternatives (Holloway, 1967), the similarity of alternatives, the degree of the alternatives' functional overlap (Ivy et al., 1978), and the attractiveness of the forgone alternatives (Festinger, 1958). For instance, a customer who voluntarily chooses a product from alternatives would normally experience post-purchase dissonance when they encountered doubt as to whether they had made the right choice (Festinger, 1957). When customers make a selection among product alternatives, they generally consider the outcomes of each alternative, both negative feelings, such as regret and disappointment, or positive feelings, such as rejoicing and elation (Sevdalis, Kokkinaki and Harvey, 2008). When such comparison favors the chosen alternative over the forgone ones, they will experience rejoicing (Landman, 1993; Zeelanberg et al., 1998). On the other hand, when they are reminded of the positive aspects of the rejected alternatives and the negative aspects of the purchased ones, and they will experience mental unsettledness; subsequently, they suspect their own wisdom in the purchase decision (Kassarjian and Cohen, 1965). Similarly, Inman et al. (1997) further claimed that when a customer was aware of an advantage of forgone alternatives, even when the chosen one performed well, they would inevitably feel dissonance.

- **Product Performance and Cognitive Dissonance (Purchase and Product)**

The data analysis result revealed that product performance significantly and negatively influenced cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision (H8a) and the product (H8b). That is, the better the mass color cosmetics products perform, the lower is the degree of cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and the product.

The negative influence of product performance on cognitive dissonance is consistent with previous studies. Reisinger (2009) claimed that when product performance does not match a customer's expectation, they will likely experience cognitive dissonance; while Akers (n.d.) claimed that frustration about product performance may arouse cognitive dissonance. Therefore, it could be concluded that product performance could be an antecedent of cognitive dissonance, as suggested by the disconfirmation paradigm (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997), which indicates the direct negative impact of perceived product performace on disconfirmation.

6.2.5 Product Performance and Level of Satisfaction

The data analysis results revealed that the product performance of mass color cosmetics significantly and positively influenced the level of satisfaction (H9). Much previous literature supported such results. The positive influence of product performance on customer satisfaction is consistent with rational expectation theory (Yi, 1990). The strong and direct positive influence of product performance on the level of satisfaction has been well documented in various product categories (Yi, 1990; Mugge et al., 2010; Shukla, 2004), such as banks, pest control, dry cleaning, fastfood (Cronin and Taylor, 1992), gas companies, property insurance (Fornell, 1992), durable and high-involvement products (Churchill and Suprenant, 1982; Tse and Wilton, 1988; Patterson, 1993; Shaffer and Sherrell, 1997). Moreover, under the specific context of cosmetics, Ibanez, Hartmann, Diehl and Terlutter (2011) confirmed that both utilitarian and hedonic product performance significantly influenced customer satisfaction.

6.2.6 Level of Satisfaction and Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions

This section discusses the results of the influence of the level of satisfaction on post-purchase behavioral intentions for mass color cosmetics as follows:

- **Level of Satisfaction and Repurchase Intention**

The data analysis results indicated that the level of satisfaction significantly and positively influenced repurchase intention (H10a). Previous studies have widely

181

recognized the direct positive influence of customer satisfaction on repurchase intention (Patterson et al., 1997; Durvasula, Lysonski, Mehta and Tong, 2004; Mao and Oppewal, 2010; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Cronin et al., 2000). That is, a customer evaluates their purchase intention based on their previous experience (Olaru et al., 2008). If a customer is satisfied with a product or service, they are likely to exhibit their loyalty and display certain positive post-purchase behaviors, such as repurchase (Kotler, 1999; Lin, 2009).

Moreover, Abdeldayem and Khanfar (2007) also indicated that customer satisfaction reduced a customer's learning and emotional costs, which further eliminated the perceived product uncertainty (Abdeldayem and Khanfar, 2007) and facilitated the repurchase decision process (Leong and Dunnett, 2007). Several previous studies also indicated the strong influence of customer satisfaction and repeat purchase on a company's performance by providing a competitive advantage (Edvarsson et al., 2000; Lam et al., 2004; Reichheld et al., 2000; Zineldin, 2006), such as profitability, reduction of marketing and operating costs, immunity to competitors' promotion strategies (Reichhel and Teal, 1996), higher repeat sales and retained market share (Abdeldayem and Khanfar, 2007).

- **Level of Satisfaction and Cross-Buying Intention**

Cross-buying is a crucial driver of customer lifetime value (Venkatesan and Kumar, 2004), which could predict higher revenue, higher share of wallet, and higher customer value (Kumar et al., 2008). The results indicated that the level of satisfaction significantly and positively influenced cross-buying intention (H10b). Previous literatures also supported this result. Customer satisfaction is a powerful antecedent of customer loyalty; hence, a company's ability to create customer satisfaction would yield them with an advantage in influencing a customer's future choice of purchase (Boyd, 1996). In addition to the indicator of relationship continuation or length (repurchase), customer satisfaction was also found to have a strong impact on the relationship development or breadth (cross buying). That is, customer satisfaction was found to be a direct positive motivation for a customer to purchase additional products from the same brand (Ngobo, 2004; Kumar et al., 2008; Hong and Lee, 2012) because a customer had to be satisfied with the current product in order to consider an additional item (Soureli et al., 2008).

182

- **Level of Satisfaction and Word-of-Mouth Intention**

The data analysis results showed that the level of satisfaction significantly and positively influenced word-of-mouth intention (H10c). Previous literature also indicated the dominant influence of customer satisfaction on word-of-mouth (Yi, 1990; Bitner, 1990; Bloch, 1986; Engel et al., 1969; Reichheld and Sasser, 1990). That is, a customer with a high level of satisfaction is more willing to communicate positive word-of-mouth about a product or a company (Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989; Yi, 1990; Sarangapani and Mamatha, 2009; Nadeem, 2007; Kuo, Hu and Yang, 2013). On the other hand, negative word-of-mouth is likely to occur in the dissatisfying product experience, especially when the product failure is severe or the attributions for the failure are external (Richins, 1983; Szymanski and Henard, 2001). Therefore, it can be concluded that word-of-mouth intention becomes more positive as customer satisfaction increases, and become more negative as customer satisfaction decreases (Holmes and Lett, 1977; Schelesinger and Heskett, 1991). It is also important to note that word-of-mouth is perceived to be more reliable and trustworthy than messages from marketers (Bansals and Voyer, 2000; Carl, 2006 in Kuo, Hu and Yang, 2013).

6.3 Implications

The present study contributes several significant benefits to both marketing academicians and practitioners in the mass color cosmetics industry as well as other related industries. The pragmatic benefits of understanding the impulse buying behavior are presented below.

6.3.1 Theoretical Implications

The main purpose of this study is to comprehend the impact of in-store marketing stimuli and post-purchase evaluations for the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics products at self-selection stores in Bangkok. The results of this study provide theoretical implications as follows.

This study theoretically contributes to existing literature on impulse buying by providing a comprehensive model of impulse buying behavior with the integration of

183

its antecedents and consequences. Based on the impulse buying process model (Kim, 2003), impulse buying behavior does not finish once the purchase decision is made, but rather continues until the post-purchase evaluation stage. Unfortunately, most previous impulse buying related studies primarily focused on its antecedents, and only a few addressed its consequences. However, this study provides a more complete theoretical understanding of impulse buying mechanisms by revealing how in-store marketing stimuli encourage such impulsivity, and how impulse buying create customer satisfaction, which further predicts positive post-purchase behavioral intentions.

In addition, this study theoretically confirms the classification of impulse buying proposed by Stern (1962), and suggests that customers do not always perform a pure impulse buying, which is an emotionally-motivated escape purchase, but they can make a reminder or planned impulse buying where they already have product experience and knowledge, or a suggestion impulse buying where the purchase is rather rational and functional-motivated. This contribution further extends the knowledge on the characteristics of impulse buying behavior, which are not always irrational (Mowen and Minor, 1998), and do not always lead to post-purchase cognitive dissonance (Kang, 2013). That is, the data analysis reveals that customers can be satisfied with mass color cosmetics they purchase on impulse. Therefore, this study suggests that the impulse buying – cognitive dissonance model proposed by George and Yaoyuneyong (2010) may not be generalized into the specific context of mass color cosmetics.

This study also extends the existing theories related to cognitive dissonance by dividing it into two key aspects: cognitive dissonance about the purchase decision and cognitive dissonance about the products. That is, the exploratory research findings imply that even though many participants are satisfied with the product results, they are uncomfortable about their purchase decision due to unplanned and irrational financial expenditure. Therefore, it suggests that cognitive dissonance can occur on these two particular occasions.

Moreover, this study confirms the influence of three main antecedents of cognitive dissonance as suggested by many previous studies (Ivy et al., 1978; Festinger, 1958;

184

Mao and Oppewal, 2010), including post-purchase information, purchase involvement, and attractive alternatives. Furthermore, this study additionally suggests the negative influence of product performance on cognitive dissonance. That is, when the product did not perform well, mass color cosmetics customers would likely feel uneasy as to whether they had made the right decision and were unsure whether the product suited their skin condition.

Furthermore, this study provides a theoretical contribution from the application of the disconfirmation paradigm proposed by Hoyer and MacInnis (1997) in the mass color cosmetics context. That is, several hypothesized relationships are supported by this model, including the aforementioned negative direct influence of product performance on cognitive dissonance, the positive direct/indirect impact of product performance on the level of satisfaction, as well as the negative direct impact of cognitive dissonance on the level of satisfaction. Moreover, this study also confirms the application of rational expectation theory (Yi, 1990) on the well-documented positive influence of product performance on customer satisfaction. Therefore, this study also extends the universality of this relationship in the specific context of mass color cosmetics.

In addition, this study confirms the utlization of attribution theory (Heider, 1958) in explaining the negative influence of purchase involvement on cognitive dissonance in the mass color cosmetics context. That is, customers with high purchase involvement are likely to be stable in their pre-purchase cognitions (Mittal, 1989), have high control over the post-purchase conflicting cognitions (Saleem et al., 2012), and lower the perception of post-purchase risk, and subsequently experience a lower degree of cognitive dissonance (Dholoakia, 2001). That is, they assign internal attribution to the perception of product failure. A customer with high purchase involvement then justifies such a perception with biased cognitions to lower the cognitive dissonance (George and Edward, 2009).

This study also suggests that the behavior of seeking choice-supportive information to reduce the degree of cognitive dissonance (George and Edward, 2009; Engel, 1963; Mao and Oppewal, 2010) may not be generalized to the context of mass color cosmetics because this study revealed that post-purchase information positively

185

influences both aspects of cognitive dissonance. Such results are supported by many studies that customers are still interested in unfavorable information after the purchase decision (Mill et al., 1959; Rosen, 1961; Adam, 1961; Straits, 1964). The study by Hunt (1970) even revealed that customers experience more cognitive dissonance when they receive post-purchase information.

Furthermore, this study also confirms the universality of the well-known strong influence of customer satisfaction on positive post-purchase behavioral intentions: repurchase intention (Mao and Oppewal, 2010; Patterson *et al.,* 1997; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Cronin *et al.,* 2000), cross-buying intention (Ngobo, 2004; Kumar *et al.,* 2008; Hong and Lee, 2012; Soureli *et al.,* 2008) and word-of-mouth intention (Mao and Oppewal, 2010; Bitner, 1990; Swan and Oliver, 1989; Yi, 1990; Nadeem, 2007; Kuo *et al.,* 2013), for mass color cosmetics as suggested by many studies across product categories and countries.

Lastly, there have been several studies on impulse buying but most of them did not precisely measure the actual impulse buying behavior due to its inherent difficulty (Watkins, 1984; Wells et al., 2011). Many measured "urge to buy impulsively" or "impulse buying tendency" to represent impulse buying (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Wells et al., 2011; Kim, 2003) rather than utilizing the actual impulse buying behavior itself. However, this study utilized a scale of impulse buying behavior by measuring customers' unplanned or spontaneous purchasing experience after being exposed to in-store marketing stimuli in order to better reflect the mechanism of actual impulse buying behavior.

6.3.2 Practical Implications

This study provides several practical implications for mass color cosmetics marketers. Since impulse buying is a crucial source of revenue and profitability across wide range of product categories and price levels (Bellenger et al., 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Rook, 1987; Rook and Fisher, 19995; Hausman, 2000) and is stimulus driven (Rook and Fisher, 1995), it is essential for mass color cosmetics marketers to pay attention to in-store marketing stimuli, for which they have full authority to arrange these factors in the right way to encourage positive customers' response (Beatty and

186

Ferry, 1998). Regarding the results of the in-store marketing stimuli of impulse buying, this study reveals the relative importance of these factors and implies that music, salesperson and acceptance of a credit card, respectively encourage impulse buying of mass color cosmetics. Therefore, such results indicate the references for the prioritization of resource allocation and marketing strategies to encourage impulse buying opportunities in retailing environments.

Firstly, mass color cosmetics marketers are suggested to create catchy advertising jingles, which may be sung by a brand ambassador, to remind a customer of a brand or a product whenever they hear it. Moreover, chill-out and pleasant music should be played to make the shopping experience relaxing and enjoyable so that it can enhance customers' positive emotional states (Garlin and Owen, 2006; Brunner, 1990), which can reduce the purchase decision complexity (Isen, 1984), and subsequently urge them to spend extra time and money in the store (Milliman, 1982; 1986).

Secondly, a mass color cosmetics company should invest in sales training programs to educate salespersons about the product's characteristics and special qualifications, to shape their personality and attitudes, and to introduce them to the tools and techniques to sell in a way that customers can trust and create customers' emotional and rational attractions to a product, and subsequently persuade customers to make impulse purchases without being pressured or rushed.

Thirdly, since a credit card eliminates the instant need for cash to buy a product, it can encourage a customer to overspend (Schor, 1998). Therefore, it is interesting for a company to apply promotion strategies in co-promotions with certain credit card companies, such as zero percent interest, point redemption, etc., to encourage them to make an impulse purchase.

Fourthly, it is crucial for a company to be cautious about the utilization of price promotion. It is suggested that a company should keep their price promotion offerings to a moderate level so that a customer would perceive the monetary value of the promotion, and will be encouraged to make an impulse purchase. Moreover, the type, timing and sequence of price promotional strategies should be carefully planned so

187

that the increased sales revenue brought by price promotion is not overridden by a subsequent sales drop and customers' perceived uncertainty.

Interestingly, it is important that marketers do not overlook other in-store marketing stimuli. Even though the results indicate their insignificant impact in encouraging impulse buying behavior for mass color cosmetics, impulse buying is stimulus-driven and highly aroused by positive emotional states. Therefore, marketers are encouraged to constantly work on creating a pleasant and stimulating shopping environment by offering highly credible and quality mass color cosmetics, a substantial variety of products, prominent product display, just-right self-service, appropriate lighting, proper store layout and product arrangement.

Since the data analysis results suggest the negative impact of cognitive dissonance on the level of satisfaction, it is thus crucial for mass color cosmetics marketers to actively intervene in the dissonance reduction process. The results reveals that reduced cognitive dissonance is significantly influenced by less post-purchase information, high purchase involvement, unfavorable perceptions of forgone alternatives, and good product performance. Hence, to achieve the reduction in cognitive dissonance, mass color cosmetics marketers are recommended to pursue the following marketing activities.

The positive influence of post-purchase information on cognitive dissonance implies that mass color cosmetics marketers should be cautious before launching any communication programs designed to reduce the level of cognitive dissonance. That is, the program may not only be ineffective in soothing the dissonant customers, but can also worsen their psychological discomfort about their purchase decision and the product performance. Furthermore, in the current competitive marketing environment, customers have to utilize the available limited resources to make the most appropriate decision from numerous alternative brands. Hence, it is crucial for marketers to conduct an extensive pretest of any communication programs to ensure that these activities can actually convince customers that they have already made the highest possible satisfactory product-choice decision so that they will continue their positive attitudes towards their product choices even though they may hear of some advantages of the forgone alternatives.

188

The results also reveal that customers with high purchase involvement would experience a lesser degree of cognitive dissonance. Hence, it is advisable for mass color cosmetics marketers to embark on customer care programs by actively providing customers, especially highly-involved customers, with both functional and emotional product support. Since they are highly involved with their purchase decision, they are highly informed about the products and the purchase decision is important to them. Therefore, it is important that customer service personnels are highly educated about the product and are well-trained to effectively provide customers with functional and emotional product support. Lastly, the data analysis results imply that good product performance reduces the level of cognitive dissonance, even after they make an impulse purchase of mass color cosmetics at self-selection stores in Bangkok. Therefore, it is necessary for a company to continuously enhance the functional product quality through the product's research and development, as well as the emotional product performance by identifying and providing emotional product support to the customers.

Lastly, achieving customer satisfaction is indeed one of the ultimate goals of any company across various industries. In addition to reducing cognitive dissonance as previously mentioned, good product performance is also found to have both direct and indirect influence on customer satisfaction. Therefore, a company is highly recommended to continuously improve product quality as mentioned earlier. Moreover, the results suggest that a high level of satisfaction predicts positive post-purchase behaviors, including repurchase, positive word-of-mouth and cross-buying. Such behaviors tend to provide a mass color cosmetics company with substantial competitive advantages, such as preventing customer brand switching, being immune to competitors' promotional strategies, reducing operating and marketing costs, and enhancing profitability.

6.4 Limitations

Among ten proposed in-store marketing stimuli, the data analysis results revealed that only three of them, which were music, salesperson and acceptance of a credit card, significantly motivated the impulse buying of mass color cosmetics at self-selection

stores in Bangkok. Moreover, the squared multiple correlation (r^2) of the impulse buying was only .084, which indicated that 8.4% of the impulse buying's variance can be explained by these in-store marketing stimuli. Hence it implies the weak quality of these stimuli in predicting impulse buying behavior. Therefore, other types of stimuli, including personal, situational, economic and cultural factors should be considered in order to enhance the prediction of impulse buying behavior.

Due to its inherent difficulty, most previous studies found it difficult to measure the actual impulse buying behavior precisely (Watkins, 1984; Wells et al., 2011). Most of them utilized the scales of "urge to buy impulsively" or "impulse buying tendency" to represent impulse buying behavior (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Wells et al., 2011; Kim, 2003). Therefore, it was rather difficult for this study to find references to develop a scale for "impulse buying behavior". This study then adapted the question items from various previous studies (Verhagen and Van Dolen, 2011; Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001) and from the exploratory research findings. Moreover, the variance extracted of impulse buying was only .366, which was lower than the recommended value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006). Hence, the scale of impulse buying is not highly robust, and might not result in very strong relationships between impulse buying and its stimuli.

Lastly, since it was very difficult for the data collectors to find respondents who owned a credit card, only eleven percent of the respondents were credit card users and all respondents were asked to answer the questions related to credit card usage in the self-selection cosmetics stores. Therefore, the results may not reflect the opinion of the actual credit card users. However, these questions asked for opinions about the advantages of using a credit card that even the non-credit cards owners were able to understand and answer. Moreover, the reliability and validity test results on this construct also show satisfactory results.

6.5 Future Research

Previous literature suggested that impulse buying was stimulus driven (Rook & Fisher, 1995) and was the interplay of two main factors: external and internal factors (Wansink, 1994; Youn and Faber, 2000; Činjarević, 2010). Nevertheless, this study included only in-store marketing stimuli, which are external factors, due to anticipated

190

managerial contributions. However, it is also interesting to study the influence of both internal and external stimuli, as well as to compare the degree of influence between these two types of factors so that the quality of impulse buying's predictors could be enhanced.

This study investigated cognitive dissonance on two main occasions, the purchase decision and the products themselves. Therefore, it would also be interesting to categorize customer satisfaction into two aspects: towards the purchasing experience and product performance. For instance, an impulsive buyer may find the purchasing activity to be satisfactory due to the exciting environment, but the product performance to be unsatisfactory due to insufficient product information. That is, the mechanism of impulse buying's post-purchase evaluation could be more explicitly elaborated if the relationships between impulse buying, the two aspects of cognitive dissonance, and the two aspects of customer satisfaction were investigated.

Because of the aforementioned unexpected consumer behavior related to mass color cosmetics in this study, such as the insignificant relationship between impulse buying and cognitive dissonance, it is then interesting to test the robustness of this study's model in other product contexts, such as counter-branded color cosmetics, home electronic appliances, vehicles or real estate. Moreover, different impulse buying behavior in different cultures should also be investigated. It is also interesting to conduct comparative studies of this topic in Thailand and other countries, such as other Asian or Western countries.

191

REFERENCES

Abdeldayem, M. M. & Khanfar, M. R. (2007). Consumer expectation and consumer satisfaction measurements: A case study from India. *The Business Review, 8(2),* 303-309.

Abelson, R. (1983). Whatever became of consistency theory? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 9(1), 37-54.

Abratt, R. & Goodey, S. D. (1990). Unplanned buying and in-store stimuli in supermarkets. *Managerial and Decision Economics,* 11(2), 111-121.

Adam, E. E. J. (1992). Quality improvement as an operations strategy. *Industrial Management & Data Systems, 92(4),* 3-12.

Adams, J. S. (1961). Reduction of cognitive dissonance by seeking consonant information. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63,* 74-78.

Aghazadeh, S. M. (2005). Layout strategies for retail operations: A case study. *Management Research News, 28(10),* 31-46.

Aggarwal, P., Kim, C. S. & Cha, T. (2013). Preference-inconsistent information and cognitive discomfort: A crosscultural investigation. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 30(5),* 392-399.

Ahmad, T. (2011). The impulse buying behavior of consumers for the FMCG products in Jodhpur. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 5(11),* 1704-1710.

Ahmed, S. F., Uddin, M. & Ahshanullah, M. (2009). Consumers' reaction to product variety: Does culture matter? *International Business Research, 2(3),* 115-120.

Ahuja, D. (2015). Making the pulse impulsive: A study of factors resulting impulse buying. *International Journal of Engineering, Business and Enterprise Applications,* 13(1), 50-52.

Ailawadi, K. L. & Keller, K. L. (2004). Understanding retail branding: Conceptual insights and research priorities. *Journal of Retailing, 80(4),* 331-342.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process,* 50, 179-211.

Akers, H. (n.d.). *What is cognitive dissonance in Marketing?* Retrieved October 26, 2016, from: http://smallbusiness.chron.com/cognitive-dissonance-marketing-55693.htm

Alford, B. L. and Biswas, A.(2002). The effects of discount level, price consciousness and sale proneness on consumers' price perception and behavioral intention. *Journal of Business Research, 55,* 775-783.

Alhojailan, M. I. (2012). Thematic analysis: A critical review of its process and evaluation. *WEI International European Academic Conference Proceedings,* 8-21.

Amber, T. (1992). *Need-to-know-marketing,* London: Century Business,

American Marketing Association (1960). *Marketing definitions: A glossary of marketing terms.* Chicago, IL:AMA.

Anderson, N. H. (1965). Primacy effects in personality impression formation using a generalized order effect paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 2(1),* 1-9.

Anderson, N. H. (1971). Integration theory and attitude change. *Psychological Review, 78(3),* 171-206.

Anderson, E. A. (1998). Customer satisfaction and word-of-mouth. *Journal of Service Research, 1,1-14.*

Anderson, E. W., Fornell, C. & Lehmeann, D. R. (1994). Customer satisfaction, market share and profitability: Findings from Sweden. *Journal of Marketing, 58(3),* 53-66.

Anderson, E. & Sullivan, M. (1993). The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms. *Marketing Science, 12,* 125-143.

Andreasen, A. R. (1976). A taxonomy of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction measures. In H. K. Hunt (Ed.), *Proceedings of a conference conducted by the Marketing Science Institute with support of the National Science Foundation,* (pp. 11-35). Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.

Apaolaza-Ibáñez, V., Hartmann, P., Diehl, S. & Terlutter, R. (2011). Women satisfaction with cosmetic brands: The role of dissatisfaction and hedonic brand benefits. *African Journal of Business Management,* 5(3), 792-802.

Applebaum, W. (1951). Studying consumer behavior in retail stores. *Journal of Marketing, 16*(October), 172-178.

Arnold, D (1992). The handbook of brand management, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Aronson, E. (1968). Dissonance theory: Progress and problems. In R. P. Abelson *et al.* (Eds.), *Theories of Cognitive Consistency.• A Sourcebook* (pp. 5-27). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Aronson, E., Cohen, G. & Nail, P. R. (1999). Self-affirmation theory: An update and appraisal. In E. H. Jones and J. Mills (Eds.), *Cognitive dissonance: Progress on a pivotal theory in social psychology* (pp. 127-148). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Awanis, S. & Cui, C. C. (2014). Consumer susceptibility to credit card misuse and indebtedness. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 26(3),* 408-429.

Barber, M. & Venkatraman, M. (1986). The determinants of satisfaction for a high involvement product: Three rival hypotheses and their implications in the health care context. *Advances in Consumer Research,* 13, 316-360.

Baker, J., Grewal, D. & Parasuraman, A. (1994). The influence of store environment on quality inferences and store images. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 22(4),* 328-339.

Baker, J., Parasuraman, A., Grewal, D. & Voss, G. B. (2002). The influence of multiple store environment cues on perceived merchandise value and patronage intentions. *Journal of Marketing, 66(2),* 120-141.

Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modeling: Adjudging model fit. *Personality and Individual differences, 42(5),* 815-824.

Batra, R. (1997). Marketing issues and challenges in transitional economies. *Journal of International Marketing, 5(4),* 95-114.

Bauer, R. A. (1960). Consumer behavior as risk taking. In R. S. Hancock (Ed.), *Dynamic marketing for a changing world* (pp. 389-398). Proceedings of the 43rd conference of the American Marketing Association.

Baumeister, R. F. (2002). Yielding to temptation: Self-control failure, impulsive purchasing, and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research, 28(4),* 670-676.

Bayley, G. & Nancarrow, C. (1998). Impulse purchasing: A qualitative exploration of the phenomenon. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 1(2),* 99-114.

Bearden, W. 0., Netemeyer, R. G. & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(March), 473-481.

Bearden, W. 0. & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of customer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20(1),* 21-28.

Beatty, S. E. & Ferrell, M. E. (1998). Impulse buying: Modeling its precursors. *Journal of Retailing, 74(2),* 169-191.

Beausoleil, N. (1994). Makeup in everyday life. In N. Sault (ed.), *Many mirrors: Body image and social relations* (pp. 33-57). Rutgers, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Beauty Community Public Company Limited (2013). Annual report 2013.

Beauty Cosmetic. (2014). *Cosmetics market trend of Thailand.* Retrieved February 14, 2015, from: http://btcosmetic.com/en/2014/12/08/cosmetics-market-trend-of-thailand/?ckattempt=1

Belch, G. E. & Belch, M. A. (2007). *Advertising and promotion: An integrated marketing communications perspective.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. 7th edition

Belk, R. W. (1988). Third world consumer culture. *Research in Marketing, 4,* 103-127.

Bell, D. (1982). Regret in decision making under certainty. *Operations Research, 30(5),* 961-981.

Bell, G. (1967). The automobile buyer after the purchase. *Journal of Marketing,* 3/(July), 12-16.

Bellenger, D. N., Robertson, D. H. & Hirschman, E. (1978). Impulse buying varies by product. *Journal of Advertising Research, 18(6),* 15-18.

Bennett, P. D. & Harrell, G. D. (1975). The role of confidence in understanding and predicting buyers' attitudes and purchase intentions. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 2(September), 110-117.

Berman, B. & Evans, J. R. (1995). *Retail management: A strategic approach.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bessouh, N., Iznasni, A. & Benhabib, A. (2015). Factors influencing impulse buying of Algerian shoppers. *International Journal of Science and Research, 4(3),* 860-866.

Bitner, M. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee response. *Journal of Marketing, 54,* 69-82.

Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing, 56(2),* 57-71.

Bitner, M. J. (2001). Self-service technologies: What do customers expect? *Marketing Management, 10(1), 10-11.*

Blackwell, R. D., Miniard, P. W. & Engel, J. F. (2001). *Consumer behavior.* Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt College Publishers. 9th edition.

Blattberg, R. C. & Neslin, S. C. (1990). *Sales promotion: Concepts, methods, and strategies.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bloch, P. H. (1986). The product enthusiast: Implications for marketing strategy. *Journal of Consumer Marketing,* (Summer), 51-62.

Bloemer, J. & Odekerken-Schroder, G. (2002). Store satisfaction and store loyalty explained by consumer- and store-related factors. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior, 15,* 68-80.

Bodet, G. (2008). Customer satisfaction and loyalty in service: Two concepts, four constructs, several relationships. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* 23(1), 79-91.

194

Bolton, R. N. (1998). A dynamic model of the duration of the customer's relationship with a continuous service providers: The role of satisfaction. *Marketing Science, 17(1),* 45-65.

Bolton, R. & Lemon, K. (1999). A dynamic model of customer's usage of services: Usage as an antecedent and consequence of satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research, 36,* 171-186.

Bowen, L. & Chaffee, S. H. (1974). Product involvement and pertinent advertising appeals. *Journalism Quarterly,* 613-621.

Bowlbey, R. (1997). Supermarket futures. In P. Falk and C. Campbell (Eds.), *The shopping experience.* London: Sage.

Brandweek (1994). Promotional influence spurs buyers to try something new. *Brandweek,* 35(12), 32-34.

Brassington, F. & Pettit, S. (2006). *Principles of Marketing.* Harlow: Pearson Education. 4th edition.

Braun, K. A. (1999). Postexperience advertising effects on consumer memory. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 25(4).

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology,* 3(2), 77-101.

Brehm, J. W. (1956). Post-decision changes in the desirability of alternatives. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,* 384-389.

Brici, N., Hodkinson, C. and Sullivan-Mort, G. (2013). Conceptual differences between adolescent and adult impulse buyers. *Young consumers, 14(3),* 258-279.

Broyles, S. A., Ross, R. H. & Leingpibul, T. (2009). Examination of satisfaction in cross-product group settings. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 18(1),* 50-59.

Bruner II, G. C. (1990). Music, mood, and marketing. *Jornal of Marketing,* 54(4), 94-104.

Bui, M., Krishen, A. S. & Bates, K. (2011). Modeling regret effects on consumer post-purchase decisions. *European Journal of Marketing, 45(7/8),* 1068-1090.

Burns, A. C. & Bush, R. F. (2003). *Marketing research: Online research applications.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. 4th edition.

Burnkrant, R. E. (1978). Information processing intensity and advertising effectiveness. Working Paper, University of California-Berkeley.

Butcher, K., Sparks, B. & O'Callaghan, F. (2002). Effect of social influence on repurchase intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 16(6),* 503-514.

Cadotte, E. R., Woodruff, R. B. & Jenkins, R. L. (1987). Expectations and norms in models of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research, 24(3),* 305-314.

Cardozo, R. N. (1965). An experimental study of customer effort, expectation and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research, 2(3),* 244-249.

Carroll, B. A. & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters, 17(2),* 79-89.

Chaisitthiroj, N. (2007). *Thai consumer decision-making styles on imported cosmetic brand products* (Dissertation). University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.

Chang, S. C., Chou, P. Y. & Lo, W. C. (2014a). Evaluation of satisfaction and repurchase intention in online food group-buying, using Taiwan as an example. *British Food Journal, 116(1),* 44-61.

195

Chang, H. J., Yan, R. N. & Eckman, M. (2014b). Moderating effects of situational characteristics on impulse buying. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 42(4),* 298-314.

Chen, M. H. (2001). The determinants and traits of impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Takming University, 17,* 59-74.

Chen, M. (2002). The influence of communication strategies, impulsive traits and product characteristics on impulsive consumption behavior. Taiwang University.

Chen, T. (2008). Online impulse buying and product involvement. *Communication of the IBIMA,* 5, 74-81.

Chen, T. Y. (2011). Optimistic and pessimistic decision making with dissonance reduction using interval-valued fuzzy sets. *Information Sciences, 181(3),* 479-502.

Chen-Yu, J. H. & Seock, Y. H. (2002). Adolescents' clothing purchase motivations, information sources, and store selection criteria: A comparison of male/female and impulse/nonimpulse shoppers. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 31(1),* 50-77.

Chiu, C. M., Chang, C. C., Cheng, H. L. & Fang, Y. H. (2009). Determinants of customer repurchase intention in online shopping. *Online Information Review,* 33(4), 761-784.

Cho, Y. (2002). The effects of post-purchase evaluation factors on online vs, in-store customer complaining behavior. Dissertation, The State University of New Jersey.

Cho, J., Ching, G. S. & Luong, T. H. (2014). Impulse buying behavior of Vietnamese consumers in supermarket setting. *International Journal of Research Studies in Management,* 3(2), 33-50.

Churchill, A. G. & Peter, J. P. (1995). *Marketing: Creating value for customers.* Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin.

Churchill, G. A. & Suprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research, 19(4),* 491-504.

injarević, M. (2010). Cognitive and affective aspects of impulse buying. *Sarajevo Business and Economics Review, 30,* 168-184.

Clark, P. W. and Das, N. (2009). Exploring the use of E-CRM elements and effective website design as tools for reducing consumer post-purchase cognitive dissonance. *Journal of Technology Research, 1,* 1-8.

Clover, V. T. (1950). Relative importance of impulse-buying in retail stores. *Journal of Marketing,* 15(1), 66-70.

Cobb, C. J. & Hoyer, W. D. (1986). Planned versus impulse purchase behavior. *Journal of Retailing, 62(4),* 384-409.

Coley, A. & Burgess, B. (2003). Gender differences in cognitive and affective impulse buying. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management,* 7(3), 282-295.

Collier, G., Minton, H. L. & Reynolds, G. (1991). Cognitive social psychology. In *Currents of Thought in American Social Psychology* (pp. 198-211). New York: Oxford University Press.

Cooper, J. (2007). *Cognitive dissonance: Fifty years of a classic theory.* London: Sage.

Coulter, R. A., Feick, L. F. & Price, L. L. (2002). Changing faces: Cosmetics opinion leadership among women in the new Hungary. *European Jouenal of Marketing,* 36(11/12), 1287-1308.

Court, D., French, T. & Knudsen, R. (2006). Profiting from proliferation, *McKinsey Quarterly.*

196

Crainer, S. (1995). *The real power of brands: Making brands work for competitive advantage.* London: Pitman.

Cronin, J., Brady, M. & Hult, G. T. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioural intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing, 76,* 193-218.

Cronin, J. J. Jr. & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A reexamination and extension. *Journal of Marketing, 56(3),* 55-68.

Cuyvers, L., Chamroenprucks, K., Maninopparatana, S., Chumasaratul, T. & Thananan, N. (2013). Market profile: Potentials for make-up cosmetics exports of Thailand to Japan. *ASEAN Business Case Studies. 32,* 1-26.

d'Astous, A. & Landreville, V. (2003). An experimental investigation of factors affecting consumers' perceptions of sales promotion. *European Journal of Marketing, 37(11/12),* 1746-1761.

Dawes, P., Dowling, G. & Patterson, P. (1991). Information sources used to select different types of management consultancy services. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 8(2),* 185-199.

Dawson, S. & Kim, M. (2009). External and internal trigger cues of impulse buying online. *Direct Marketing: An International Journal,* 3(1), 20-34.

Dawson, S. & Kim, M. (2010). Cues on apparel web sites that trigger impulse purchases. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 14(2),* 230-246.

Deepika, J. & Neeraja, T. (2014). Lighting impact on consumer's shopping behavior in retail cloth stores. *International Journal of Science and Research,* 3(11), 933-938.

Dempsey Jr., W. L. (1959). Multiple packaging: A merchandising tool. *Journal of Marketing, 24(3),* 287-292.

Department of Provincial Administration (2014). *Population Categorized by Age.* Retrieved March, 7, 2015, from: http://stat.bora.dopa.go.th/new_stat/webPage/statByProvince.php?year=57

De Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M. & Bloemer, J. (1998). On the relationship between perceived service quality, service loyalty and switching costs. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 9(5),* 436-453.

Desai, K. S. (2014). A study on consumer buying behavior of cosmetic products in Kolhapur. *Reviews of Literature, 1(10),* 1-11.

DeSarbo, W. S. & Edwards, E. A. (1996). Typologies of compulsive buying behavior: A contained clusterwise regression approach. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 5(3),* 231-262.

Deshpande, R. & Krishnan, S. (1980). Consumer impulse purchase and credit card usage: An empirical examination using the log linear model. *Advances in Consumer Research, 7,* 792-795.

Desmet, P. & Renaudin, V. (1998). Estimation of product category sales responsiveness to allocated shelf space. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 15,* 443-457.

De Wulf, K., Odekerken-Schröder, G. & Iacobucci, D. (2001). Investments in customer relationships: A cross-country and cross-industry exploration. *Journal of Marketing, 65(3),* 33-59.

Dholakia, U. M. (2000). Temptation and resistance: An integrated model of consumption impulse formation and enactment. *Psychology and Marketing, 17(11),* 955-982.

197

Dholakia, U. M. (2001). A motivational process model of product involvement and consumer risk perception. *Europeam Journal of Marketing,* 35(11/12), 1340-1362.

Diamantopolos, A. & Siguaw, J. A. (2000). *Introducing LISREL.* London: Sage Publications.

Dick, A. S. & Basu, K. (1994). Customer royalty: Toward an integrated conceptual framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 22(2),* 99-113.

Dibley, A. & Baker, S. (2001). Uncovering the links between brand choice and personal values among young British and Spanish girls. *Journal of Consumer Behavior,* 1(1), 77-93.

Dittmar, H. & Drury, J. (2000). Self-image – is it in the bag? A qualitative comparison between "ordinary" and "excessive" consumers. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 21(2),* 109-142.

Dittmar, H., Beattie, J. & Friese, S. (1995). Gender identity and material symbols: Objects and decision considerations in impulse purchases. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 16(3),* 491-511.

Dittmar, H., Beattie, J. & Friese, S. (1996). Objects, decision considerations and self-image in men's and women's impulse purchases. *Acta Psychologica, 93(1-3),* 187-206.

Donnelly Jr., J. H. & Ivancevich, J. M. (1970). Post-purchase reinforcement and back-out behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 7, 399-400.

Donovan, R. J. & Rossiter, J. R. (1982). Store atmosphere: An environmental psychology approach. *Journal of Retailing, 58*(Spring), 34-57.

Donovan, R. J., Rossiter, J. R., Marcoolyn, G. & Nesdale, A. (1994). Store atmosphere and purchasing behavior. *Journal of Retailing, 70(3),* 283-294.

Drozdenko, R. & Jensen, M. (2005). Risk and maximum acceptable discount levels. *Journal of Product & Brand Management,* 14(4), 264-270.

Duarte, P., Raposo, M. & Ferraz, M. (2013). Drivers of snack foods impulse buying behavior among young consumers. *British Food Journal,* 115(9), 1233-1254.

Durvasula, S., Lysonski, S. Mehta, S. C. & Tang, B. P. (2004). Forging relationships with services: The antecedents that have an impact on behavioural outcomes in the life insurance industry. *Journal of Financial Services Marketing,* 8(4), 314-326.

Edvardsson, B., Johnson, M. D. Gustafsson, A. & Strandvik, T. (2000). The effects of satisfaction and loyalty on profits and growth: Products versus services. *Total Quality Management, 11(7),* 917-927.

Ehrenberg, A. S. C. (1974). Repetitive advertising and the consumer, *JAR, 14*(April), 25-34.

Ehrenberg, A. S. C., Hammond, K. and Goodhardt, G. J. (1994). The after-effects of price related consumer promotions. *Journal of Advertising Research, 34(4),* 11-21.

Ehrlich, D., Guttman, P., Schonback, P. & Mills, J. (1957). Post-decision exposure to relevant information. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 54*(January), 98-102/

Elliot, R. (1994). Addictive consumption: Function and fragmentation in post-modernity. *Journal of Consumer Policy, 17(2),* 159-179.

Engel, J. F. (1963). Are automobile purchasers dissonant consumers? *Journal of Marketing, 27(2),* 55-58.

Engel, J. F. & Blackwell, R. D. (1982). *Consumer behavior.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Engel, J. R., Kegerreis, R. J. & Blackwell, R. D. (1969). Word-of-Mouth communication by the innovator. *Journal of Marketing,* 33, 15-19.

198

Engel, J. F., Kollat, D. T. & Blackwell, R. D. (1982). *Consumer Behavior.* New York: Rinehart and Winston. 4th edition.

Engel, F. J., Kollat, D. T. & Blackwell, R. D.(1993). *Consumer behavior.* New York, NY: Holt Rinehart and Winston. 7th edition.

Eroglu, S. A. & Machleit, K. A. (1990). An empirical study of retail crowding: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Retailing, 66,* 201-221.

Eroglu, S. A. & Machleit, K. A. (1993). Atmospheric factors in the retail environment: Sights, sounds and smells. In L. McAlister and M. L. Rothschild (Eds.). *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 34) Vol. 20. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Euromonitor. (2014a). *Beauty and Personal Care in Thailand.* Retrieved September, 3, 2014, from: http://euromonitor.com/beauty-and-personal-care-in-thailand/report

Euromonitor. (2014b). *Skin care in Thailand.* Retrieved September, 3 2014, from: http://euromonitor.com/skin-care-in-thailand/report

Euromonitor. (2014c). *Colour cosmetics in Thailand.* Retrieved September, 3 2014, from: http://euromonitor.com/colour-cosmetics-in-thailand /report

Featherstone, M. (1993). *Consumer culture and postmodernism.* London: Sage.

Ferguson, J. L. & Johnston, W. J. (2011). Customer response to dissatisfaction: A synthesis of literature and conceptual framework. *Industrial Marketing Management, 40(1),* 118-127.

Festinger, L. (1957). *A Theory of cognitive dissonance.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Festinger, L. (1958). *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance.* Standford, California: Stanford University Press.

Fisk, R. P. & Young, C. E. (1985). Disconfirmation of equity expectations: Effects on consumer satisfaction with services. In E. Hirschman and H. Holbrook (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research.* Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief attitude, intention and behavior.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Forbes Thailand. (2014). *L'Oreal is ready to compete for the beauty product market leader.* Retrieved February, 14, 2015, from: http://http://www.forbesthailand.com/article_detail.php?article_id=112

Forker, L. B., Vickery, S. K. & Droge, C. L. M. (1996). The contribution of quality to business performance. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 16(8),* 44-62.

Fornell, C. (1992). A national customer satisfaction barometer: The Swedish experience. *Journal of Marketing,* 56(1), 6-21.

Foxall, G. R. & Greenley, G. E. (2000). Predicting and explaining responses to consumer environments: An empirical test and theoretical extension of the behavioral perspective model. *The Service Industries Journal, 20(2),* 39-63.

Garbarino, E. & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 63*(April),70-87.

Gardner, M. P. and Rook, D. W. (1988). Effects of impulse purchase on consumer, affective states. *Advances in Consumer Research, 15,* 127-130.

Garlin, F. V. & Owen, K. (2006). Setting the tone with tune: A meta-analytic review of the effects of background music in retail settings. *Journal of Business Research, 59(6),* 755-764.

Garvin, D. A. (1988). *Managing quality: The strategic and competitive edge.* New York, NY: The Free Press.

Gbadamosi, A. (2009). Cognitive dissonance: The implicit explication in low-income consumers' shopping behavior for "low-involvement" grocery products. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management,* 37(12), 1077-1095.

George, B. P. and Edward, M. (2009). Cognitive dissonance and purchase involvement in the consumer behavior context. *The IUP Journal of Marketing Management, 8(3 & 4),* 7-24.

George, B. P. & Yaoyuneyong, G. (2010). Impulse buying and cognitive dissonance: A study conducted among the spring break student shoppers. *Young Consumers, 11(4),* 291-306.

Gilbert, D. C. & Jackaria, N. (2002). The efficacy of sales promotions in UK supermarkets: A consumer view. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management,* 30(6), 315-322.

Gilly, M. C. (1979). *Complaining consumers: Their satisfaction with organizational responses and subsequent credit card repurchase behavior* (Thesis). University of Houston, Houston, USA.

Gilly, M. C. & Gelb, B. D. (1982). Post-purchase consumer processes and the complaining consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9(3),* 323-328.

Globerson, S. & Maggard, M. J. (1991). A conceptual model of self-service. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 11(4),* 33-43.

Grewal, D., Marmorstein, H. & Sharma, A. (1996). Communicating price information through semantic cues: The moderating effects of situation and discount price. *Journal of Consumer Research, 23*(2), 148-155.

Graa, A. & Dani-elKebir, M. (2011). Situational factors influencing impulse buying behavior of Algerian consumer. *RRM, 2,* 52-59.

Gronroos, C. (1993). Towards a third phase in service quality research: Challenges and future directions. In T. Swartz, D. Bowen and S. Bowen (Eds.), *Advances in Service Marketing and Management: Research and Practice, 2,* Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Guthrie, M. & Kim, H. (2009). The relationship between consumer involvement and brand perceptions of female cosmetic consumers. *Journal of Brand Management,* 1, 114-133.

Gutierrez, B. P. B. (2004). Determinants of planned and impulse buying: The case of the Philippines. *Asia Pacific Management Review, 9(6),* 1061-1078.

Gwinner, K., Gremler, D. D. & Bitner, M. J. (1998). Relational benefits in services industries: The customer's perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 26(3),* 101-114.

Hair, J. F. Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Hakuhodo Institute of Life and Living ASEAN (2015). *Middle Class Consumers: New Perspectives of Middle Class Consumers in ASEAN. Retrieved* February 13, 2016, from: https://www.marketingoops.com/reports/research/hakuhodo-research-middle-class-asean/

Han, Y. K., Morgan, G. A., Kotsiopulos, A. & Kang-Park, J. (1991). Impulse buying behavior of apparel purchasers. *Clothing and Textile Research Journal, 9(3),* 15-21.

Hans, C. & Will, T. (1993). Reflections on competitive strategy and its impact on modern production concepts. *Management International Review,* 33(4), 315-334.

Hanzaee, K. H. and Taherikia, F. (2010). Impulse buying: An Iranian model. *China-USA Business Review, 9*(12), 31-43.

Harmancioglu, N., Finney, R. Z. & Joseph, M. (2009). Impulse purchases of new products: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 18(1),* 27-37.

Hausman, A. (2000). A multi-method investigation of consumer motivations in impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17(5),* 403-419.

Hawkins, D. I., Best, R. J. & Coney, K. A. (2004). *Consumer behavior: Building marketing strategy.* McGraw Hill Publishing. 9th edition

Heath, R. (2006). Emotional persuasion. *Admap,* July/August, 46-48.

Heath, R. & Feldwick, P. (2008). Fifty years using the wrong model of advertising. *International Journal of Market Research,* 50(1), 29-59.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons

Hennig-Thurau, T. & Klee, A. (1997). The impact of customer satisfaction and relationship quality on customer retention: A critical reassessment and model development. *Psychology and Marketing, 14(8),* 737-764.

Hibbs, R. D. (2000). *The relationship between cognitive style, demographics, and back-out behavior in the post-purchase phase of the consumer decision making process* (Dissertation). Nova Southeastern University, Florida, USA.

Hill, C. (2009). *Marketing communications: Interactivity, communities and content.* Essex: Prentice Hall. 5th edition.

Hirschman, E. C. (1992). The consciousness of addiction: Toward a general theory of compulsive consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19(September),* 155-179.

Ho, R. (2006). *Handbook of univariate and multivariate data analysis and interpretation with SPSS.* Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Hoch, S. J. & Loewenstein, G. F. (1991). Time-inconsistent preferences and consumer self-control. *Journal of Consumer Research, 17(4),* 492-507.

Hodge, R. (2004). Factors influencing impulse buying during an online purchase transaction, 9-27.

Holbrook, M. B. & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 9(September), 132-140.

Holloway, R. J. (1967). An experiment on consumer dissonance. *Journal of Marketing,* 31(1), 39-43.

Holmes, J. H. & Lett, J. D. (1977). Product sampling and word of mouth. *Journal of Advertising Research, 17(5),* 35-40.

Homburg, C. & Giering, A. (2001). Personal characteristics as moderators of the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty – An empirical analysis. *Psychology and Marketing, 18(1),* 43-66.

Hong, J. K. & Lee, Y. I. (2012). Determinants of cross-buying intentions in banking services in collectivistic culture. *International Journal of Bank, 30(5),* 328-358.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. & Mullen, M. R. (2008). Structural equation modeling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 6(1),* 53-60.

Hovland, C. L., Harvey, 0. J. & Sherif, M. (1957). Assimilation and contrast effects in reactions to communications and attitude change. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 55,* 244-252.

Howard, J. A. & Sheth, J. N. (1969). *The theory of buyer behavior.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Hoyer, W. D. & MacInnis, D. J. (1999). *Consumer behavior.* New York: Houghton Mifflin.

Hoyer, W. D. & MacInnis, D. J. (1997). *Consumer behavior.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Hoyer, W. D. & MacInnis, D. J. (2001). *Consumer behavior.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 2nd edition.

Hu, L. T. & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6(1),* 1-55.

Hu, H. & Jasper, C. J. (2006). Social cues in the store environment and their impacts on store image. *International journal of Retail Distribution Management,* 34(1), 25-48.

Hultén, B. (2012). Sensory cues and shoppers' touching behavior: The case of IKEA. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 40(4),* 273-289.

Hultén, P. & Vanyushyn, V. (2011). Impulse purchases of groceries in France and Sweden. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 28(5),* 376-384.

Hume, M. & Mort, G. S. (2010). The consequence of appraisal emotion, service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on repurchase intent in the performing arts. *Journal of Services Marketing, 24(2),* 170-182.

Hume, M., Mort, G. S. & Winzar, H. (2007). Exploring repurchase intention in a performing arts context: Who comes? And why do they come back? *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 12(2),* 135-148.

Hunt, S. D. (1970). Post-transaction communications and dissonance reduction. *Journal of Marketing,* 34(3), 46-51.

Hunt, H. K. (1977). CS/D – Overview and future research direction. In H. K. Hunt (Ed.), *Conceptualization and Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction.* Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.

Imam, F. (2013). Gender differences in impulsive buying behavior and post-purchasing dissonance under incentive conditions. *Journal of Business Strategies, 7(1),* 23-29.

Inman, J. J., Dyer, J. S. & Jia, J. (1997). A generalized utility model of disappointment and regret effects on post-choice valuation. *Marketing Science, 16(2),* 97-111.

Isen, A. (1984). The influence of positive affect on decision-making and cognitive organization. *Advances in Consumer Research, 11,* 534-537.

Ivy, T. T., Hill, V. S. & Stevens, R. E. (1978). Dissonance theory: A managerial perspective. *Business and Society, 19(1),* 17-25.

Iyengar, S. S. & Lepper, M. (2003). Rethinking the value of choice: A cultural perspective on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 76(March), 349-366.

Iyer, E. S. (1989). Unplanned purchasing: Knowledge of shopping environment and time pressure. *Journal of Retailing, 65(1),* 40-57.

Jaccard, J. and Wan, C. K. (1996). *LISREL approaches to interaction effects in multiple regression.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Jarurungsipong, R. & Rakthum, N. (2012). Apparel and cosmetics industry. *Industry Research,* p. 1-8.

Javalgi, R. G. & Moberg, C. R. (1997). Service loyalty: Implications for service providers. *The Journal of Services Marketing, 11(3),* 165-179.

Jevons, C. (2005). Names, brands, branding: Beyond the signs, symbols, products and services. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14(2),* 117-118.

Jin, B. & Kim, J. 0. (2003). A typology of Korean discount shoppers: Shopping motives, store attributes, and outcomes. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 14(4),* 396-419.

Johnson, M. D. (2001). Customer satisfaction. In N. J. Smelser and P. B. Baltes (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (pp. 3198-3202). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. & Fornell, C. (1995). Rational and adaptive performance expectations in a customer satisfaction framework. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21(March),* 695-707.

Johnson, M.D., Gustafsson, A., Andreassen, T. W., Lervik, L. & Cha, J. (2001). The evolution and future of national customer satisfaction index models. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 22(2),* 217-245.

Johri, L. M. & Sahasakmontri, K. (1998). Green marketing of cosmetics and toiletries in Thailand. *Journal of Consumer Marketing,* 15(3), 265-281.

Jones, S. C. (1973). Self- and interpersonal evaluations: Esteem theories versus consistency theories. *Psychological Bulletin, 79(3),* 185-199.

Jones, M. A., Reynolds, K. E., Weun, S. & Beatty, S. E. (2003). The product-specific nature of impulse buying tendency. *Journal of Business Research, 56(7),* 505-511.

Joseph, B. C. (2010). Impulse purchasing behavior: A study of hypermarket customers in Bangkok. *AU Journal of Management, 8(2),* 42-51.

Juwaheer, T. D., Pudaruth, S. & Ramdin, P. (2013). Enhancing customer shopping experience in malls of emerging countries – The "Mauritius" experience. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development,* 9(2/3), 178-190.

Kacen, J. J. & Lee, J. A. (2002). The influence of culture on consumer impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 12(2),* 163-176.

Kaish, S. (1967). Cognitive dissonance and the classification of consumer goods. *Journal of Marketing,* 31(4), 28-31.

Kaltcheva, V. D. & Weitz, B. A. (2006). When should a retailer create an exciting store environment?. *Journal of Marketing, 70(1),* 107-118.

Kang, C. (2013). Disconfirmation and customer satisfaction of impulse buying behavior. *The Journal of American Business Review, Cambridge, 1(2),* 269-274.

Kang, M. & Johnson, K. (2009). Identifying characteristics of consumers who frequently return apparel. *Journal of Fashion Marketing & Management,* 13(1), 37-48.

Kapoor, M. & Si, S. (2014). Strategic analysis of cosmeceuticals with special reference to antiaging creams. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention,* 3(1), 44-52.

Karbasivar, A. & Yarahmadi, H. (2011). Evaluating effective factors on consumer impulse buying behavior. *Asian Journal of Business Management Studies,* 2(4), 174-181.

Kasikorn Research Center. (2010). *Imported cosmetics market is continuously growing: Thai companies are adjusting their strategies*. Retrieved September, 3, 2014, from:

http://www.kasikornresearch.com/TH/K-EconAnalysis/Pages/ViewSummary
.aspx?docid=26039.

Kassarjian, H. H. & Cohen, J. B. (1965). Cognitive dissonance and consumer behavior. *California Management Review, 8(1),* 55-64.

Kassim, N. & Abdullah, N. A. (2010). The effect of perceived service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction, trust, and loyalty in e-commerce settings: A cross-cultural analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 22(3),* 351-371.

Keaveney, S. M. (1995). Customer switching behavior in service industries: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing, 59,* 71-82.

Keaveney, S. M., Huber, F. & Hellmann, A. (2007). A model of buyer regret: Selected prepurchase and postpurchase antecedents with consequences for the brand and the channel. *Journal of Business Research,* 60(12), 1207-1215.

Keinan, A. & Kivetz, R. (2008). Remedying hyperopia: The effects of self-control regret on consumer behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 45(6), 676-689.

Keiningham, T. L., Aksoy, L., Perkins-Munn, T. & Vavra, T. G. (2005). The brand-customer connection. *Marketing Management,* 14(4), 33-37.

Keiningham, T. L., Cooil, B., Aksoy, L., Andreassen, T. W. & Weiner, J. (2007). The value of different customer satisfaction and loyalty metrics in predicting customer retention, recommendation, and share-of-wallet. *Managing Service Quality, 17(4),* 361-384.

Khare, A., Khare, A & Singh, S. (2012). Factors affecting credit card use in India. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 24(2),* 236-256.

Kim, J. (2003). *College students' apparel impulse buying behaviors in relation to visual merchandising* (Thesis). The University of Georgia, Georgia, USA.

Kim, J. Y. (2014). *Impulse buying: The effect of decision time and product scarcity on buying impulse* (Dissertation). Michigan State University, Michigan, USA.

Kim, H. & Drolet, A. (2003). Choice and self-expression: A cultural analysis of variety-seeking. *Journal of Social Psychology,* 85(February), 373-382.

Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling.* NY: Guilford Press.

Korgaonkar, P. D. & Moschis, G. P. (1982). An experimental study of cognitive dissonance, product involvement, expectations, performance and consumer judgement of product performance. *Journal of Advertising, 11(3),* 32-44.

Koski, N. (2004). Impulse buying on the internet: Encouraging and discouraging factors. *Frontiers of E-Business Research,* 23-35.

Kotler, P. (1973). Atmospherics as a marketing tool. *Journal of Retailing, 49,* 48-64.

Kotler, P. (1999). *Marketing Management: Analysis planning implementation, and control.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.9th edition,

Kotler, P. (2000). *Marketing management: Millennium edition,* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall International. 10th edition.

Kristensen, K., Martensen, A. & Gronhold, L. (1999). Measuring the impact of buying behaviour on customer satisfaction. *Total Quality Management, 10(4),* 602-614.

Krugman, H. E. (1965). The impact of television advertising: Learning without involvement. *Public Opinion Quarterly,* 29, 349-356.

204

Krugman, H. E. (1970). Temporary effects of communication. *Journal of Advertising Research, 10,15-17.*

Kumar, V., George, M. & Pancras, J. (2008). Cross-buying in retailing: Drivers and consequences. *Journal of Retailing, 84(1),* 15-27.

Kuo, Y. F., Hu, T. L. & Yang, S. C. (2013). Effects of inertia and satisfaction in female online shoppers on repeat-purchase intention: The moderating roles of word-of-mouth and alternative attraction. *Managing Service Quality,* 23(3), 168-187.

Kwok, S. & Uncles, M. (2005). Sales promotion effectiveness: The impact of consumer differences at an ethnic-group level. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14(3),* 170-186.

LaBarbera, P. & Muzursky, D. (1983). A longitudinal assessment of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction: The dynamic aspect of the cognitive process. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20,* 393-404.

Lai, C. W. (2010). How financial attitudes and practices influence the impulsive buying behavior of college and university students. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal,* 38(3), 373-380.

Lake, A. L. (2009). *Consumer behavior for dummies.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Lam, S. Y., Shankar, V., Erramilli, K. M. & Murthy, B. (2004). Customer value, satisfaction, loyalty, and switching costs: An illustration from a business-to-business service context. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 32(3), 293-311.

Lancaster, G. & Massingham, L. (2011). *Essentials of marketing management.* London: Routledge.

Landman, J. (1993). *Regret: The persistence of the possible.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Langner, E. E. (1996). *Cognitive dissonance: A motive for self-affirmation or self-consistency?* (Dissertation). Long Island University, New York, USA.

Law, A. K. Y., Hui, Y. V. & Zhao, X. (2004). Modeling repurchase frequency and customer satisfaction for fast food outlets. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management, 21(5),* 545-563.

Lawton, M. P., Kleban, M. H., Rajagopal, D. & Dean, J. (1992). Dimensions of affective experience in three age groups. *Psychology and Aging* 7(2), 171-184.

Lee, H., Choi, S. Y. & Kang, Y. S. (2009). Formation of e-satisfaction and repurchase intention: Moderating roles of computer self-efficacy and computer anxiety. *Expert Systems with Applications: An International Journal,* 36(4), 7848-7859.

Lee, J. A. & Kacen, J. J. (2008). Cultural influences on consumer satisfaction with impulse and planned purchases. *Journal of Business Research, 61(3),* 265-272.

Lee, J., Podlaseck, M., Schonberg, E. & Hoch, R. (2001). Visualization and analysis of clickstream data of online stores for understanding web merchandising. *Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery,* 5, 59-84.

Leelahongjudha, P. (2007). Strategies for Thai cosmetics business to enter foreign markets. *RMUTT Global Business and Economics Review, 3(5),* 43-53.

Lehtonen, T. K. & Maenpenaa, P. (1997). Shopping in the East Centre Mall. In C. Campbell and P. Falk (Eds.), *The Shopping Experience* (pp. 136-165). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

205

Leong, M. H. & Dunnett, J. (2007). Customer perceptions of attribute importance in the business-to-business environment. *The Business Review, 8(1),* 40-45.

Levy, M. (1976). Deferred gratification and social class. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 100,* 123-135.

Liang, Y. (2014). *The effect of cognitive dissonance on the selection of post-decision online reviews: Congeniality bias and refutational perspectives* (Dissertation). Michigan State University, Michigan, USA.

Liao, S. L., Shen, Y. C. & Chu, C. H. (2009). The effects of sales promotion strategy, product appeal and consumer traits on reminder impulse buying behavior. *International Journal of Consumer Studies,* 33, 274-284.

Lin, W. B. (2009). A study of relationships among service quality differences, post-purchase behavior intentions with personality traits, and service recovery strategy as intervening variables. *International Journal of Commerce and Management, 19(2),* 137-157.

Liu, Y. H. & Jang, S. (2009). The efforts of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian-Russell model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28(4),* 494-503.

Liu, T. C. & Wu, L. W. (2007). Customer retention and cross-buying in the banking industry: An integration of service attributes, satisfaction and trust. *Journal of Financial Services Marketing, 12(2),* 132-145.

Loomes, G. & Sugden, R. (1982). Regret theory: An alternative theory of rational choice under uncertainty. *Economic Journal, 92(368),* 805-824.

Łopaciuk, A. & Łoboda, M. (2013). Global beauty industry trends in the 2V century. *Management, Knowledge and Learning,* International Conference 2013.

Ltifi, M. (2013). Antecedents and effect of commitment on the impulse buying by internet. *Journal of Internet Banking and Commerce, 18(1),* 1-22.

Madhavaram, S. R. & Laverie, D. A. (2004). Exploring impulse purchasing on the internet. *Advances in Consumer Research, 31,* 59-66.

Mai, N. T. T. Jung, K., Lants, G. & Loeb, S. G. (2003). An exploratory investigation into impulse buying behavior in a transitional economy: A study of urban consumers in Vietnam. *Journal of International Marketing, 11(2),* 13-35.

Malhotra, N. K. (2004). *Marketing research: An applied orientation.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education. 4th edition.

Malhotra, N. K. (2007). *Marketing research: An applied orientation.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education. 5th edition.

Manager. (2014). *Thailand's beauty market has reached twenty billion Baht within three years.* Retrieved September, 3, 2014, from: http://www.manager.co.th/iBizChannel/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9570000012211.

Manager. (2015). *Cosmetics market is gradually growing with immense value.* Retrieved February, 14, 2015, from: http://gotomanager.com/content/ตลาดเครื่องสำอาง-โตเงียบ แต่มูลค่า มหาศาล

Mansfield, P., Pinto, M. B. & Parente, D. H. (2003). Self-control and credit card use among college students. *Psychological Reports, 92(2),* 1067-1078.

206

Manzur, E., Olavarrieta, S., Campos, P. H. & Farías, P. (2013). Store price promotion strategies: An empirical study from Chile. *Academia Revista Latinoamericana de Administración, 26(3),* 356-372.

Mao, W. & Oppewal, H. (2010). Did I choose the right university? How post-purchase information affects cognitive dissonance, satisfaction and perceived service quality. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 18,* 28-35.

Marketeer. (2014a). *Beauty product market share.* Retrieved 3 September, 3, 2014, from: http://marketeer.co.th/2014/09/beauty-3/

Marketeer. (2014b). *Four topics on the big cosmetics market.* Retrieved September, 3. 2014, from: http://marketeer.co.th/2014/07/4-cosmatic/

Marketeer (2016a). *Beauty Product Market.* Retrieved April, 4, 2016, from: http://marketeer.co.th/2016/03/beauty-mkt-share-0316/

Marketeer (2016b). *Makeup Market.* Retrieved April, 4, 2016, from: http://marketeer.co.th/2016/03/make-up-market-0316/

MarketingCharts. (2013). *Consumers say discounts bring them back in-store, drive impulse purchases.* Retrieved June, 10, 2014, from: http://www.marketingcharts.com/traditional/consumers-say-discounts-bring-them-back-in-store-drive-impulse-purchases-37825/

Marks, L. J. & Kamins, M. A. (1988). The use of product sampling and advertising: effects of sequence of exposure and degree of advertising claim exaggeration on consumers' belief strength, belief confidence, and attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research, 25*(August), 266-282.

Mattila, A. S. & Wirtz, J. (2001). Congruency of scent and music as a driver of in-store evaluations and behavior. *Journal of Retailing, 77*(2), 273-289.

Mattila, A. S. & Wirtz, J. (2008). The role of store environmental stimulation and social factors on impulse purchasing. *Journal of Services Marketing, 22(7),* 562-567.

Maymand, M. M. & Ahmadinejad, M. (2011). Impulse buying: The role of store environmental stimulation and situational factors (An empirical investigation). *African Journal of Business Management, 5(34),* 13057-13065.

McAlexander, K. S. K. & Roberts, S. D. (2003). Loyalty: The influences of satisfaction and brand community integration. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 11(4),* 1-11.

McCollough, M. A. & Gremler, D. D. (2004). A conceptual model and empirical examination of the effect of service guarantees on post-purchase consumption evaluations. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 14(1),* 58-74.

McDaniel, C. & Gates, R. (2001). *Marketing Research Essentials.* Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing

McQuarrie, E. F. & Munson, M. J. (1986). The Zaichkowsky personal involvement inventory: Modification and extension. In M. Wallendorf and P. Anderson (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research* (36-40), 14. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Mehrabian, A. & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An Approach to Environmental Psychology.* Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institution of Technology.

Mehta, N. P. & Chugan, P. K. (2013). The impact of visual merchandising on impulse buying behavior of consumer: A case from central mall of Ahmedabad India. *Universal Journal of Management,* 1(2), 76-82.

Meng, F. & Xu, Y. (2012). Tourism shopping behavior: Planned, impulsive, or experiential? *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6(3),* 250-265.

Merriam-Webster (n.d.). *Definition of makeup.* Retrieved February 14, 2015, from: http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/makeup

Meuter, M. L., Ostrom, A. L., Roundtree, R. I. & Bitner, M. J. (2000). Self-service technologies: Understanding customer satisfaction with technology-based service encounters. *Journal of Marketing,* 64(July), 50-64.

Mihić, M. & Kursan, I. (2010). Influence of demographic and individual difference factors on impulse buying. *Market, 22(1),* 7-28.

Miles, J. & Shevlin, M. (1998). Effects of sample size, model specification and factor loadings on the GFI in confirmatory factor analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25,* 85-90.

Mills, J., Aronson, E. & Robinson, H. (1959). Selectivity in exposure to information. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59,* 250-253.

Miller, D. T. & Ross, M. (1975). Self-serving biases in the attribution of causality: Fact or fiction?. *Psychological Bulletin, 82,* 213-225.

Milliman, R. E. (1982). Using background music to affect the behavior of supermarket shoppers. *Journal of Marketing, 46(3),* 86-91.

Milliman, R. E. (1986). The influence of background music on the behavior of restaurant patrons. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 13(2), 286-289.

Milliman, R. E. & Decker, P. J. (1990). The use of post-purchase communication to reduce dissonance and improve direct marketing effectiveness. *Journal of Business Communication, 27,* 159-170.

Mintel (2011). *Colour cosmetics* – UK. Retrieved February 14, 2015, from: http://store.mintel.com/colour-cosmetics-uk-august-2011?cookie_test=true

Mitchell, D. J. (1994). For the smell of it all: Functions and effects of olfaction in consumer behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research, 21,* 330-345.

Mitchell, V. W. & Boustani, P. (1994). A preliminary investigation into pre- and post-purchase risk perception. *European Journal of Marketing, 28(1),* 56-71.

Mittal, B. (1989). A theoretical analysis of two recent measures of involvement. In Srull, T. K. (Ed.), *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 697-702), Vol. 16. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Mittal, V., Katrichis, J. M. & Kumar, P. (2001). Attribute performance and customer satisfaction over time: Evidence from two field studies. *Journal of Services Marketing, 15(5),* 343-356.

Mittal, V., Kumar, P. & Tsiros, M. (1999). Attribute-level performance, satisfaction and behavioral intentions over time: A consumption system approach. *Journal of Marketing, 63(2),* 88-101.

Mittelstaedt, R. (1969). A dissonance approach to repeat purchasing behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research, 6(4),* 444-446.

Mochis, G. P. (1978). Acquisition of the consumer role by adolescents. *Research Monograph, 82.*

Mohan, G., Sivakumaran, B. & Sharma, P. (2013). Impact of store environment on impulse buying behavior. *European Journal of Marketing, 47(10),* 1711-1732.

Moliner, M. A., Sanchez, J., Rodriguez, R. M. & Callarisa, L. (2007). Perceived relationship quality and post-purchase perceived value. *European Journal of Marketing, 41(11/12),* 1392-1422.

Moore, S. E. (2003). *Inconsistency-as-information: An examination of the effects of incidental positive and negative affect on the cognitive dissonance reduction process* (Thesis). University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada.

Morgan, N. A. & Rego, L. L. (2006). The value of different customer satisfaction and loyalty metrics in predicting business performance. *Marketing Science,* 25(5), 426-439.

Morris, E. W. (1977). A normative deficit approach to consumer satisfaction. In H. K. Hunt (Ed.), *Conceptualization and Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction* (pp. 240-274). Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.

Morrison, M., Gan, S., Dubelaar, C. & Oppewal, H. (2011). In-store music and aroma influences on shopper behavior and satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research,* 64(6), 558-564.

Mourni, N. (2005). *A consumer-based assessment of alliance performance: An examination of consumer value, satisfaction and post-purchase behavior* (Dissertation). University of Central Florida, Florida, USA.

Mowen, J. C. & Minor, M. (1998). *Consumer Behavior.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mugge, R., Schifferstein, H. N. J. & Schoormans, J. P. L. (2010). Product attachment and satisfaction: Understanding consumers' post-purchase behavior. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 27(3),* 271-282.

Muruganantham, G. & Bhakat, R. S. (2013). A review of Impulse Buying Behavior. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 5(3),* 149-160.

Myers, J. H. & Alpert, M. I. (1968). Determinant attributes: meaning and measurement. *Journal of Marketing,* 32(4), 13-20.

Nadeem, M. M. (2007). Post-purchase dissonance: The wisdom of the 'repeat' purchases. *Journal of Global Business Issues,* 1(2), 183-193.

Ndubisi, N. O. (2005). Customers behavioiurial responses to sales promotion: The role of fear of losing face. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 17(1),* 32-49.

Ndubisi, N. O. & Moi, C. T. (2006). Awareness and usage of promotional tools of Malaysian consumers: The case of low involvement products. *Management Research News,* 29(1/2), 28-40.

Newell, S. J., Wu, B. T., Titus, P. A. & Petroshius, S. M. (2011). The role of shopping sophistication in creating satisfying purchase outcomes. *American Journal of Business, 26(2),* 129-144.

Ngobo, P. V. (2004). Drivers of customers' cross-buying intentions. *European Journal of Marketing, 38(9/10),* 1129-1157.

Nguyen, T. T. M., Nguyen, T. D. & Barrett, N. J. (2007). Hedonic shopping motivations, supermarket attributes, and shopper loyalty in transitional markets: Evidence from Vietnam. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 19(3), 227-239.

Nishanov, B. & Ahunjonov, U. (2016). The influence of store characteristics on consumers' impulse buying behavior. *Journal of International Business Research and Marketing, 1(3),* 20-26.

Nunnally, J. (1967). Psychometric theory. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

O'Cass, A. & Lim, K. (2002). Understanding the younger Singaporean consumers' view of western and eastern brands. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 14(4),* 54-79.

O'Neill, M. & Palmer, A. (2004). Cognitive dissonance and the stability of service quality perceptions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 18(6),* 433-449.

Olaru, D., Purchase, S. & Peterson, N. (2008). From customer value to repurchase intentions and recommendations. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 23(8),* 554-565.

Oliver, R. L. (1977). Effects of expectation and disconfirmation on postexposure product evaluations: An alternative interpretation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62(4),* 480-486.

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedent and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 17,* 460-469.

Oliver, R. L. (1992). An investigation of the attribute basis of emotion and related affects in consumption: Suggestions for a stage-specific satisfaction framework. In J. Sherry and B. Sternthal (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 237-244), Vol. 19. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Oliver, R. L. (2009). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer.* London: M.E. Sharpe.

Olsen, S. 0. (2007). Repurchase loyalty: The role of involvement and satisfaction. *Psychology and Marketing, 24(4),* 315-341.

Ong, B. S. (1999). Determinants of purchase intentions and stock-piling tendency of bonus packs. *American Business Review,* 17(1), 57-64.

Oshikawa, S. (1969). Can cognitive dissonance theory explain consumer behavior? *Journal of Marketing,* 33(4), 44-49.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A. & Berry, L. L. (1994). Moving forward in service quality research: Measuring different customer-expectation levels, comparing alternative scales and examining the performance-behavioral intentions link, Working Paper. Report Number 94-114, Marketing Science Institute.

Parboteeah, D. V. (2005). *A model of online impulse buying: An empirical study* (Dissertation). Washington State University, Washington, USA.

Park, I., Cho, J. & Rao, H. R. (2012). The effect of pre- and post-service performance on consumer evaluation of online retailers. *Decision Support Systems,* 52(2),415-426.

Park, J. E. & Choi, E. J. (2013). Consequences of impulse buying cross-culturally: A qualitative study. *International Journal of Software Engineering and Its Applications,* 7(1), 247-259.

Park, E. J. & Kim, E. Y. (2008). Effects of consumer tendencies and positive emotion on impulse buying behavior for apparel. *Journal of the Korean Society of Clothing and Textiles,* 32(6), 980-990.

Park, E. J., Kim, E. Y. & Forney, J. C. (2006). A structural model of fashion-oriented impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 10(4),* 433-446.

Park, J. & Lennon, S. J. (2006). Psychological and environmental antecedents of impulse buying tendency in the multichannel shopping context. *Journal of Consumer Marketing,* 23(2), 56-66.

210

Patterson, P. (1993). Expectations and product performance as determinants of satisfaction for a high-involvement purchase. *Psychology and Marketing, 10(5),* 449-465.

Patterson, P. G. & Johnson, L. W. (1995). Focal brand experience and product-based norms as moderators in the satisfaction formation process. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior, 8,* 4-17.

Patterson, P., Johnston, W. & Spreng, R. (1997). Modeling the determinants of customer satisfaction for business-to-business professional services, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 25(1), 4-28.

Peattie, S. & Peattie, K. (2003). Sales promotion. In M. J. Baker (Ed.), *The Marketing Book,* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Peck, J. & Childers, T. L. (2006). If I touch it I have to have it: Individual and environmental influences on impulse purchases. *Journal of Business Research, 59(6),* 765-769.

Peters, T. (1988). *Thriving on chaos.* New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf.

Phoosangthong, C. & Sermsiriwiwat, N. (2006). *How to whiten the market? A study of single women behavior of whitening products in Thailand* (Thesis). Mälardalen University, Västerås, Sweden.

Phophueksanand, N. (2015). *Research methodology: Principle, concept and strategy research report,* Bangkok: Expernet.

Phupoksakul, N. (2005). *Cosmetic market in Thailand U.S. & Foreign Commercial Service and U.S. Department of State.* Retrieved April 27, 2015 from: http://www.scribd.com/doc/36661126/Cosmetic-Market-in-Thailand#scribd

Pieters, R., Koelemeijer, K. & Roest, H. (1995). Assimilation processes in service satisfaction formation. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 6(3),* 17-33.

Pieters, R. G. M. & Zwick, R. (1993). Hindsight bias in the context of a consumption experience. *European Advances in Consumer Research,* 1, 307-311.

Piron, F. (1991). Defining impulse purchasing. In R. H. Holman and M. R. Solomon (Eds.). *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 509-514), 18, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Ponbamrung, A. & Chandsawang, S. (2009). *The impact of brand on Thai female consumer in purchase decision of foreign makeup products* (Thesis). Mälardalen University, Västerås, Sweden.

Positioning. (2014). *The average age of Thai teenagers to start wearing make-up is fifteen years old.* Retrieved September, 10, 2014, from: http://www.positioningmag.com/ content/สาววัยรุ่นไทย-15-ก็แต่งหน้าแล้ว

Positioning (2016). *Beauty Products Market in Thailand in 2016.* Retrieved April, 4, 2016, from: http://www.positioningmag.com/content/62883

Puri, R. (1996). Measuring and modifying consumer impulsiveness: A cost-benefit accessibility framework. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 5(2),* 87-113.

Quester, P. & Lim, A. L. (2003). Product involvement/brand loyalty: Is there a link? *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 12(1),* 22-38.

Raghunathan, T. S., Rao, S. S. & Solis, L. E. (1997). A comparative study of quality practices: USA, China and India. *Industrial Management & Data Systems, 97(5),* 192-200.

Ray, M. L. (1973). Marketing communication and the hierarchy of effects. In P. Clark (Ed.). *New Models for Mass Communications Research.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Reinartz, W. Thomas, J. S. & Bascoul, G. (2008). Investigating cross-buying and customer loyalty. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 22(1),* 5-20.

Reisinger, Y. (2009). *International Tourism: Cultures and Behavior.* MA: Elsevier.

Reichheld, F. F., Markey Jr., R. G. & Hopton, C. (2000). The loyalty effect – The relationship between loyalty and profits. *European Business Journal, 12(3),* 134-139.

Reichheld, F. F. & Sasser JR., W. E. (1990). Zero defections: Quality comes to services. *Harvard Business Review, 68(5),* 105.

Reichheld, F. & Teal, T. (1996). *The Loyalty Effect.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Reungsinpinya, M. (2011). *Comparison of marketing strategies between Japanese and Korean cosmetics companies in Thailand's market* (Thesis). Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan.

Richins, M. L. (1983). Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot study. *Journal of Marketing, 47(1),* 68-78.

Robbins, S. P. & Judge, T. A. (2009). *Organizational Behavior.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, Prentice Hall. 13th edition.

Robert, J. A. & Jones, E. (2001). Money attitudes, credit card use, and compulsive buying among American college students. *Journal of Consumer Affairs,* 35(2), 213-240.

Rook, D. W. (1987). The buying impulse. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 14(2), 189-199.

Rook, D. W. & Fisher, R. J. (1995). Normative influence on impulsive buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research, 22(3),* 305-313.

Rook, D. W. & Gardner, M. P. (1993). In the mood: Impulse buyings' affective antecedents. In J. A. Costa and R. W. Belk (Eds.), *Research in Consumer Behavior* (pp. 1-28), *6.* Greenwich, CY: JAI Press.

Rook, D. W. and Hoch, S. J. (1985). Consumer impulses. In M. B. Holbrook and E. C. Hirschman (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Behavior* (pp. 23-27), 12. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Rosen, S. (1961). Postdecision affinity for incompatible information. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63,* 188-190.

Rousseau, J. A. (2008). *Manual de Distribuição,* Principia, São João do Estoril.

Rundle-Thiele, S. & Mackay, M. M. (2001). Assessing the performance of brand loyalty measures. *Journal of Services Marketing,* 15(6/7), 529-545.

Rust, R. T. & Oliver, R. L. (1994). *Service Quality. New Dimensions in Theory and Practices.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ryu, K. & Han, H. (2010). Influence of the quality of food, service, and physical environment on customer satisfaction and behavioral intention in quick-casual restaurants: Moderating role of perceived price. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 34(3), 310-329.

Sae-Jiu, S. (2007). *Consumer perception and attitude towards foreign versus domestic apparel in Thailand* (Thesis). University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.

Saleem, M. A., Ali, R. A. & Ahmad, S. (2012). Post purchase cognitive dissonance: Impact of product involvement, impulse buying and hedonic consumption tendencies. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 4(5),* 1051-1060.

212

Saleh, M. A. H. (2012). An investigation of the relationship between unplanned buying and post-purchase regret. *International Journal of Marketing Studies,* 4(4), 106-120.

Sambandam, R. & Lord, K. (1995). Switching behavior in automobile markets: A consideration-sets model. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23,* 57-65.

Santos, C. P. D. & Basso, K. (2012). Price unfairness: The indirect effect on switching and negative word-of-mouth. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 21(7),* 547-557.

Sarangapani, A. & Mamatha, T. (2009). Rural consumer: Post-purchase behavior and consumerism. *ASBM Journal of Management,* 2(1), 176-208.

Schelesinger, L. & Heskett, J. (1991). Breaking the cycle of failures in services. *Sloan Management Review,* 32(3), 17-28.

Schonberger, R. J. (1992). Is strategy strategic: Impact of total quality management on strategy. *Academy of Management Executives, 6(3),* 80-87.

Schor, J. B. (1998). *The Overspent American: Upscaling, downshifting, and the new consumer.* New York, NY: Basic Books.

Schrauger, J. S. (1975). Responses to evaluations as a function of initial self-perceptions. *Psychological Bulletin, 82(4),* 581-596.

Schwartz, N. (2010). Feelings-as-information theory. In P. V.Lange, A. Kruglanski, and E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology.* Sage.

Schwartz, N. & Clore, G. L. (1983). Mood, misattribution, and judgments of well-being: Informative and directive functions of affective states. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45,* 513-523.

Sehrawet, M. & Kundu, S. C. (2007). Buying behavior of rural and urban consumers in India: The impact of packaging. *International Journal of Consumer Studies,* 31(6), 630-638.

Seiders, K., Voss, G. B., Grewal, D. & Godfrey, A. L. (2005). Do satisfied customers buy more? Examining moderating influences in a retailing context. *Journal of Marketing, 69(4),* 26-43.

Seines, F. (1993). An examination of the effect of product performance on brand reputation, satisfaction and loyalty. *Journal of Product & Brand Management,* 2(4), 45-60.

Sevdalis, N., Kokkinaki, F. & Harvey, N. (2008). Anticipating a regrettable purchase: Implications of erroneous affective forecasting for marketing planning. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 26(4),* 375-384.

Shaffer, T. & Sherrell, L. (1997). Customer satisfaction with health-care services: The influence of involvement. *Psychology and Marketing, 14(3),* 261-285.

Shankar, A., Cherrier, H. & Canniford, R. (2006). Consumer empowerment: A foucauldian interpretation. *European Journal of Marketing, 40(9),* 1013-1030.

Shao, W. & Shao, G. (2011). Understanding choice-goal compatibility, dissonance and decision satisfaction. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 19(1),* 14-21.

Shapiro, J. M. (1992). Impulse buying: A new framework. *Developments in Marketing Science,* 15, 76-80.

Sharifi, S. S. & Esfidani, M. R. (2014). The impacts of relationship marketing on cognitive dissonance, satisfaction, and loyalty: The mediating role of trust and cognitive dissonance. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 42(6),* 553-575.

Sharma, M. K. (2014). The impact on consumer buying behavior: Cognitive dissonance. *Global Journal of Finance and Management, 6(9),* 833-840.

213

Sharma, S., Mukherjee, S., Kumar, A. & Dillon, W. R. (2005). A simulation study to investigate the use of cutoff values for assessing model fit in covariance structure models. *Journal of Business Research, 58(1),* 935-943.

Shemwell, D. J., Yavas, U. & Bilgin, Z. (1998). Customer-service provider relationships: An empirical test of a model of service quality, satisfaction and Relationship oriented outcome. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 9,* 155-168.

Shen, K. N. & Khalifa, M. (2012). System design effects on online impulse buying. *Internet Research, 22(4),* 396-425.

Sherman, E., Mathur, A. & Smith, R. B. (1997). Store environment and consumer purchase behavior: Mediating role of consumer emotions. *Psychology and Marketing, 14(4),* 361-378.

Sheth, J. N. (1970). Are there differences in dissonance reduction behavior between students and housewives? *Journal of Marketing Research,* 7(2), 243-245.

Sheth, J. N. (1973). A model of industrial buyer behavior. *The Journal of Marketing,* 37(4), 50-56.

Shi, Y., Cheung, K. & Prendergast, G. (2005). Behavioural response to sales promotion tools: A Hong Kong study. *International Journal of Advertsing, 24(4),* 467-486.

Shimp, T. A. (2003). *Advertising, Promotion, and Supplemental Aspects of Integrated Marketing Communications.* United States of America: Thomson South-Western. 6th edition.

ShopSmart Magazine (2009, November).

Shukla, P. (2004). Effect of product usage, satisfaction and involvement on brand switching behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 16(4), 82-104.

Shultz, C. J. & Pecotich, A. (1997). Marketing and development in the transition economies of Southeast Asia: Policy explication, assessment, and implications. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 16(1),* 55-68.

Siamturakij. (2015). *Convenient beauty.* Retrieved February, 13, 2015, from: http://siamturakij.com/main/news_content.php?nt=4&nid=3952

Silvera, D. H., Lavack, A. M. & Kropp, F. (2008). Impulse buying: The role of affect, social influence, and subjective wellbeing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 25(1),* 23-33.

Simpson, P. M., Siguaw, J. A. & Cadogan, J. W. (2008). Understanding the consumer propensity to observe. *European Journal of Marketing, 42(1),* 196-221.

Sirhindi, A. (2010). *A critical review of in-store and online impulse purchase behavior* (Thesis). Oklahoma State University, Oklahoma, USA.

Slama, M. E. & Tashchian, A. (1985). Selected socioeconomic and demographic characteristics associated with purchasing involvement. *Journal of Marketing, 49*(Winter), 72-82.

Smith, R. E. (1993). Integrating information from advertising and trial: Processes and effects on consumer response to product information. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 30(2), 204-219.

Smith, W. (1989). Trends in retail lighting: An intelligent design approach. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management, 17(5),* 30-32.

Smith, J. B. & Bristor, J. M. (2006). Uncertainty orientation: Explaining differences in purchase involvement and external search, *Psychology and Marketing, 11(6),* 587-607.

Smith, R. E. & Swinyard, W. R. (1983). Attitude-behavior consistency: The impact of product trial versus advertising. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20*(August), 257-267.

Smith, R. E. & Swinyard, W. R. (1988). Cognitive response to advertising and trial: Belief strength, belief confidence and product curiosity. *Journal of Advertising, 17(3),* 3-14.

214

Soars, B. (2009). Driving sales through shoppers' sense of sound, sight, smell and touch. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management,* 37(3), 286-298.

Soidb (n.d.). *Shoping Centers in Bangkok.* Retrieved July 14, 2014, from: http://th.soidb.com/bangkok/shop/index.html

Solnick, J. V., Kannenberg, C. H., Eckerman, D. A. & Waller, M. B. (1980). An experimental analysis of impulsivity and impulse control in humans. *Learning and Motivation, 11,* 61-77.

Solomon, M. R. (2001). *Consumer behavior.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Solomon, M., Bamossy, G., Askegaard, S. & Hogg, M. K. (2006). *Consumer behavior: A European perspective.* Harlow: Prentice Hall. 3rd edition.

Soureli, M., Lewis, B. R. & Karantinou, K. (2008). Factors that affect consumers' cross-buying intention: A model for financial services. *Journal of Financial Services Marketing,* 13(1), 5-16.

Soutor, G. N. & Sweeney, J. C. (2003). Are there cognitive dissonance segments? *Australian Journal of Management, 28(3),* 227-249.

Spangeberg, E. R., Sprott, D. E., Grohmann, B. & Smith, R. J. (2003). Mass-communicated prediction requests: Practical application and a cognitive dissonance explanation for self-prophecy. *Journal of Marketing, 67(3),* 47-62.

Spector, A. J. (1956). Expectations, fulfillment and morale. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 52*(January), 51-56.

Spies, K., Hesse, F. & Loesch, K. (1997). Store atmosphere, mood and purchasing behavior. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 14(1),* 1-17.

Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Eds.). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (pp. 261-302),21. San Diego: Academic Press.

Steiger, J. H. (2007). Understanding the limitations of global fit assessment in structural equation modeling. *Personality and Individual Differences, 42(5),* 893-898.

Stelb, M., Giraldo, M. & Eggleton, M. (2013). Global beauty industry. *Credit Suisse.*

Stern, H. (1962). The significance of impulse buying today. *Journal of Marketing, 26(2),* 59-62.

Stone, J. & Cooper, J. (2003). The effect of self-attribute relevance on how self-esteem moderates attitude change in dissonance process. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 39,* 508-515.

Stone, R. N. & Gronhaug, K. (1993). Perceived risk: Further considerations for the marketing discipline. *European Journal of Marketing, 27(3),* 39-50.

Straits, B. C. (1964). The pursuit of the dissonant consumer. *Journal of Marketing, 28(3),* 62-66.

Strayhorn, J. N. (2002). Self-control: Theory and research. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 41(1),* 7-16.

Strizhakova, Y., Coulter, R. A. & Price, L. L. (2008). The meaning of branded products: A cross-national scale development and meaning assessment, *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 25,* 82-93.

Summers, J. 0. & Granbois, D. H. (1977). Predictive and normative expectations in consumer satisfaction and complaining behavior. In W. D. Perreault (Ed.), *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 155-158). Atlanta, GA: Association for Consumer Reserch.

215

Surathomtawee, S. & Pachravanich, K. (2011). Factors affecting condominium buying decisions of consumers case study: Bangkok. *The 12th Khon Kaen University 2011 Graduate Research Conference,* 1353-1359.

Sureshchandar, G. S., Rajendran, C. & Anantharaman, R. N. (2002). The relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction – A factor specific approach. *Journal of Services Marketing, 16(4),* 363-379.

Swan, J. E. & Oliver, R. (1985). Automobile buyer satisfaction with the salesperson related to equity and disconfirmation. In Hunt, H. K. and Day, R. L. (Eds.), *Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Swan, J. E., Trawick, I. F. & Carroll, M. G. (1982). Satisfaction related to predictive, desired expectations: A field study. In H. K. Hunt and R. L. Day (Eds.), *New Findings on Consumer Satisfaction and Complaining* (pp. 15-22). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Sweeney, J. C., Hausknecht, D. & Soutar, G. N. (2000). Cognitive dissonance after purchase: A multidimensional scale. *Psychology & Marketing, 17(5),* 369-385.

Swan, J. & Oliver, R. (1989). Postpurchase communications by consumers. *Journal of Retailing, 65, 516-533.*

Szymanski, D. M. & Hanard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 29(1),* 16-35.

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics.* NY: Allyn and Bacon. [4th] ed.

Telci, E. E., Maden, C. & Kantur, D. (2011). The theory of cognitive dissonance: A marketing and management perspective. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 24,* 378-386.

Thamizhvanan, A. & Xavier, M. J. (2013). Determinants of customers' online purchase intention: An empirical study in India. *Journal of Indian Business Research, 5(1),* 17-32.

Thompson, C. J. & Haytko, D. L. (1997). Speaking of fashion: Consumers' uses of fashion discourses and the appropriation of countervailing cultural meanings. *Journal of Consumer Research, 24(1),* 15-42.

Thompson, C., Locander, W. & Pollio, H. R. (1990). The lived meaning of free choice: An existential-phenomenological description of everyday consumer experiences of contemporary married woman. *Journal of Consumer Research, 17(3),* 346-361.

Thu, N. H. & Gizaw (2014). *Factors influence consumer purchase decision of private label food products: A case study of ICA Basic* (Thesis). Mälardalen University, Västerås, Sweden.

Tinne, W. S. (2010). Impulse purchasing: A literature Overview. *ASA University Review, 4(2),* 65-73.

Tinne, W. S. (2011). Factors affecting impulse buying behavior of consumers at Superstores in Bangladesh. *ASA University Review,* 5(1), 209-220.

Tokunga, H. (1993). The use and abuse of consumer credit: Application of psychological theory and research. *Journal of Economic Psychology,* 14, 285-316.

Trading Economics. (2015). *Thailand GDP.* Retrieved March, 8, 2015, from: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/thailand/gdp

Tse, D. & Wilton, P. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction formation: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 25(May), 35-46.

Tung, G. S., Kuo, C. J. & Kuo, Y. T. (2011). Promotion, switching barriers, and loyalty. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research,* 1(2), 30-44.

Turley, L. W. & Milliman, R. E. (2000). Atmospheric effects on shopping behavior: A review of the experimental evidence. *Journal of Business Research, 49(2),* 193-211.

Tuu, H. H., Anh, N. T. K., Olsen, S. 0. & Vassdal, T. (2010). Explaining repurchase intention towards in Vietnam: The extension of the theory of planned behavior. *IIFET 2010 Montpellier Proceedings,* 1-12.

Tuu, H. H. & Olsen, S. 0. (2009). Food risk and knowledge in the satisfaction-loyalty relationship. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 21(4),521-536.

Ueacharoenkit, S. (2011). *Experiential marketing – A consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun: An investigation of the relationship between brand experience and loyalty within the context of the luxury cosmetics sector in Thailand* (Dissertation). Brunel University, London, UK.

Ueacharoenkit, S. (2012). Investigating the relationship between brand experience and loyalty: The study of luxury cosmetic brand in Thailand. *Brunel Business School – Doctoral Symposium,* p. 1-12.

Underhill, P. (1999). *Why we buy: The science of shopping.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (2014). *Outstanding Business 2015.* Retrieved April 27, 2015, from: http://www.thaichamber.org/scripts/detail.asp?nNEWSID=13931

US Commercial Service (2008). *Doing Business in Thailand: A Country Commercial Guide for U.S. Companies.* Retrieved March 15, 2016 from: http://www.buyusa.gov/thailand/en/ccg.html

US Commercial Service Hong Kong (2015). *Cosmetics & toiletries market overview 2015* (Report)

Venkatesan, R. and Kumar, V. (2004). A customer lifetime value framework for customer selection and optimal resource allocation strategy. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(October), 106-125.

Verhagen, T. & Van Dolen, W. (2011). The influence of online store beliefs on consumer online impulse buying: A model and empirical application. *Information & Management, 48,* 320-327.

Verhallen, T. M. M. & Van Raaij, W. F. (1986). Wow consumers trade off behavioural costs and benefits. *European Journal of Marketing,* 20(3/4), 19-34.

Verhoef, P. C. (2003). Understanding the effect of customer relationship management efforts on customer retention and customer share development. *Journal of Marketing,* 67(4), 30-45.

Verhoef, P. C., Franses, P. H. & Hoekstra, J. C. (2001). The impact of satisfaction and payment equity on cross-buying: A dynamic model for a multi-service provider. *Journal of Retailing,* 77(3), 359-378.

Verplanken, B. & Herabadi, A. G. (2001). Individual differences in impulse buying tendency: Feeling and no thinking. *European Journal of Personality, 15(1),* S71-S83.

Verplanken, B., Herabadi, A. G., Perry, J. A. & Silvera, D. H. (2005). Consumer style and health: The role of impulsive buying in unhealthy eating. *Psychology and Health, 20,* 429-441.

Virvilaitė, R., Saladienė, V. & Žvinklytė, J. (2011). The impact of external and internal stimuli on impulsive purchasing. *Economics and Management, 16,* 1329-1336.

Vohs, K. D. & Faber, R. J. (2007). Spent resources: Self-regulatory resource availability affects impulse buying. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 33(4), 537-547.

217

Wang, C. H. & Ha, S. (2011). Store attributes influencing relationship marketing: A study of department stores. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management,* 15(3), 326-344.

Wansink, B. (1994). The dark side of consumer behavior: Empirical examinations of impulsive and compulsive consumption. In C. T. Allen and D. R. John (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research* (508), 21, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Watkins, T. (1984). Consumer purchasing of low-involvement goods: Routine or impulse? *Marketing Intelligence and Planning, 2(2),* 51-66.

Walker, R. (2012). Are emerging markets a safe haven for beauty? *Global Cosmetics Industry.*

Welles, G. (1986). We're in the habit of impulsive buying, *USA Today,* May 21, 1.

Wells, J. D., Parboteeah, V. & Valacich, J. S. (2011). Online impulse buying: Understanding the interplay between consumer impulsiveness and website quality. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems, 12(1),* 32-56.

Westbrook, R. A. (1987). Product/consumption-based affective responses and post-purchase process. *Journal of Marketing Research, 24,* 258-270.

Weinberg, P. & Gottwald, W. (1982). Impulsive consumer buying as a result of emotions. *Journal of Business Research, 10(1),* 43-57.

Weun, S., Jones, M. A. & Beatty, S. E. (1998). The development and validation of the impulse buying tendency scale. *Psychological Reports, 82(3),* 1123-1133.

Wheaton, B. Muthen, B., Alwin, D. & Summers, G. (1977). Assessing reliability and stability in panel models. *Sociological Methodology, 8(1),* 84-136.

White, C. & Yu, Y. T. (2005). Satisfaction emotions and consumer behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 19(6),* 411-420.

Wilson, A. (2003). *Marketing Research: An Integrated Approach* Essex: Pearson Education

Winzar, H. (1992). Product classifications and marketing strategy. *Journal of Marketing Management, 8,* 259-268.

Wirtz, J. & Bateson, J. E. G. (1999a). Customer with services: Integrating the environment perspective in services marketing into traditional disconfirmation paradigm. *Journal of Business Research, 44,* 55-66.

Wirtz, J. & Bateson, J. E. G. (1999b). Introducing uncertain performance expectations in satisfaction models for services. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 10(1),* 82-99.

Wong, N. Y. C. (1996). *American rationality and Chinese reality: A study of regret, dissonance and the self* (Dissertation). University of Michigan, Michigan, USA.

Wood, M. (1998). Socio-economic status, delay of gratification, and impulse buying. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 19(3),* 295-320.

Woodruff, R. B., Cadotte, E. R. & Jenkins, R. L. (1983). Modeling consumer satisfaction processing using experience-based norms. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20*(August), 296-304.

Wright, P. (1974). Analyzing media effects on advertising responses. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 38,* 192-205.

Wu, Y. L. & Chen, Y. S. (2012). The analysis of consumer purchasing behavior on cosmetics. *Journal of Advanced Computational Intelligence and Intelligent Informatics, 16(3),* 425-429.

218

Wyer, R. S. & Carlston, D. E. (1979). *Social Cognition, Inference, and Attribution.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Wyer, R. S., Clore, G. L., & Isbell, L. M. (1999). Affect and information processing. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology.* San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Yalch, R. & Spangenberg, E. (1990). Effects of store music on shopping behavior. *The Journal of Services Marketing,* 4(1), 31-39.

Yan, Z. (2006). Theoretical analysis and cultivation countermeasure of customer loyalty in hotel enterprise. *Canadian Social Science, 2(6),* 104-107.

Yang, W. (2006). The study on customer's impulse buying. *Market Research, 6,* 46-49.

Yang, D. J., Huang, K. C. & Feng, X. (2011). A study of the factors that affect the impulsive cosmetics buying of female consumers in Kaohsiung. *International Journal of Business and Social Science,* 2(24), 275-282.

Yano Research Institute (2014). Cosmetics markets in 5 ASEAN countries: Key research findings 2014. *Research Summary.*

Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction. In V. Zeithaml (Ed.), *Review of Marketing* (pp. 68-123), Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.

Yoo, C., Park, J. & MacInnis, D. J. (1998). Effects of store characteristics and in-store emotional experiences on store attitude. *Journal of Business Research, 42(3),* 253-263.

Youn, S. H. & Faber, R. J. (2000). Impulse buying: Its relation to personality traits and cues. In S. J. Hoch and R. J. Meyer (Eds.). *Advances in Consumer Research* (pp. 179-185) Vol. 27. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Zeelenberg, M. & Pieters, R. (2007). A theory of regret regulation 1.1. *Journal of Consumer Psychology,* 17(1), 3-18.

Zeelanberg, M., van Dijk, W. W., van der Pligt, J., Manstead, A. S. R., van Empelen, P. & Reinderman, D. (1998). Emotional reactions to the outcomes of decisions: The role of counterfactual thought in the experience of regret and disappointment. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 75,* 117-141.

Zeelanberg, M. & van Putten, M. (2005). The dark side of discounts: An inaction inertia perspective on the post-promotion dip. *Psychology & Marketing, 22,* 611-622.

Zeithaml, V. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing,* 52(July), 2-22.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L. & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 60(2),* 31-46.

Zhang, Y. & Wang, F. (2010). The relationship between impulse buying, negative evaluations and customer loyalty. *Orient Academic Forum* (pp. 131-139).

Zhuang, G., Tsang, A. S. L., Zhou, N., Li, F. & Nichols, J. A. F. (2006). Impacts of situational factors on buying decisions in shopping malls. *European Journal of Marketing, 40(1/2),* 17-43.

Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business Research Methods.* Ohio: Thompson, South-Western. 7th edition.

Zineldin, M. (2006). The royalty of loyalty: CRM, quality and retention. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 23(7),* 430-437.

219

APPENDIX I
SUMMARY TABLES OF THE ARTICLES RELATED TO IMPULSE BUYING,
COGNITIVE DISSONANCE, LEVEL OF SATISFACTION
AND POST-PURCHASE BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

220

uthor (Year)	Po ulat on / U ers	Data ollection meth d / Sampl e ze	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Ba r esha S u sa g a (20	P ro m 14 i un .n , s ide I d ry: Jo pro ct r md s y is cified in h	S rve, 4 re o ot	- Life satisfaction - Financial satisfaction - Life style - In group contact - Family orientation - Gender roles - Security	- Impulse buying behavior	d pende ple t- s Co relatio Regres io ma ys s	- There is a significant difference between males and females in impulse buying behavior. - There is a relationship among the variables of cultural values and life style. - Security, life satisfaction, gender role, financial satisfaction, in group contact and life style variables of cultural values and life style have an impact on impulse buying behavior
B a d Fe 1 (19	p p up at o C ner. I try: The re ional shop n un l ith o sp c f c prod ared	Pr s o g ir er i 53 ondents	- Time available - Money available - Shopping enjoyment - Impulse buying tendency - Negative affect - Positive affect - In-store browsing - Felt urge to buy impulsively	Impulse purchase	uct ai uation o I ing EM)	- Situational variables (time and money available) and personal variables (shopping enjoyment and impulse buying tendency) have a significant influence on positive affect, and negative affect, in-store browsing and impulse purchase
C an a an 201	Pcp 'a on: Fe ale c s o s in SA Industr y: Ap. retail s ores	118 sp n ers	- Store environmental characteristics (ambient/ design/ social characteristics) - Consumers' positive emotional responses - Situational characteristics (time availability, money avail ability and task definition)	Impulse buying behavior	ressio	- Ambient/design characteristics have significant direct impact on a positive emotional response - Positive emotional responses have a significant impact on impulse buying behavior - Money availability and task definition have a moderating impact on positive emotional response—impulse buying behavior relationship
C 2 08)	op l rj c Hai se Co ers I d str Ap o com perip erals	S y 43 es on ent	- Impulse buying tendency - Product involvement (clothing) - Product involvement (computer)	- In-store clothing impulse buying - Online computer impulse buying	Regression analysis	- Clothing: Impulsive buying tendency and product involvement are positively related to impulse buying behavior in traditional store shopping, not the online store. - Computer peripherals: Impulsive buying tendency and product involvement are positively related to impulse buying behavior in online store, not in the traditional store shopping.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Činjarević (2010)	Population: Consumers in Sarajevo Industry: No specific industry is stated in the paper	Online survey 175 respondents	- Tendency towards change seeking - Gender - Age - Marital status	Impulse buying behavior	- Regres 1 atysi - OVA est	- There is a weak significant relationship between impulse buying and change seeking - Gender, marital status and age have a significant impact on impulse buying tendencies
Co r(9	Population: Managers of retail stores in USA Industry: Various (19) types of retail stores	In-depth interview survey 154 respondents			Descriptive statistics	- The reduction of opening hours to forty hours per week would reduce their sales. - The average percentage of sales resulted from impulse buying is 21.8%.
Co ey a d Burgess (2003)	a, p . e o str : Vario s produ t 4 pes s ch es appe el acc ssori s, elec roi cs appliances, CDs/D Ds, heal eau y produc and gai es.	Survey 277 respondents	en	- Individual affective process components of impulse buying behavior (irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, and mood management) - Individual cognitive process (cognitive deliberation, disregard for the future and unplanned buying - Product category purchased	ANOVA	Males and females are significantly different in terms of affective components (irresistible urge to buy, positive buying emotion, and mood management) and cognitive process components (cognitive deliberation and unplanned buying) of impulse buying, and the frequency of purchase in various product types.
Da s and im (2009)	P pulatio emale u dergraduate tudents rom a large S Noi vesio m niversit, Ind stry: Apparel eb site	nl 300 spondents	- External trigger cues of impulse buying - Impulse buying tendency - Internal cues of impulse buying - Normative evaluation - Consumption Impulse	- Online impulse purchase decision	- i ariate anal, is f vari ce - A simp co elation	- There is no significant difference among the types of external trigger cues - A significant positive correlation is found between impulse buying tendency and impulse buying behavior, between affective state and impulse buying behavior, and between normative evaluation and impulse buying behavior A significant negative correlation is found between cognitive state and impulse buying behavior

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Dawson and Kim (2010)	Population: College students in USA Industry: Apparel	Focus Groups 15 participants				- There are four thematic categories: sales, promotions, ideas, and suggestions.
	Population: Online apparel web sites Industry: Apparel	Content analysis 60 web sites			Content analysis	- There is a positive relationship between web sales and the amount of external cues presented on the web sites.
Ghani and Jan (2011)	Population: Customers of retail stores of Peshwar, Pakistan Industry: No particular industry or product was stated in the paper	Survey 100 respondents	- Age - Gender - Income	Impulse buying tendency	gre s o a ysis	- Age has a significant negative relationship with impulse buying tendency
Graa and Dani- elKebir (2011)	Population: Consumers Industry: General stores, department stores, boutiques, shopping malls, small retail outlets in the west of Algeria	6 e po ients	- Store environment (atmosphere, design, and personnel assistance) - Perceived crowding (human crowding and spatial) - Time pressure - Emotional states (pleasure, arousal, and dominance)	Impulse buying	ultiple gressio al si	- Pleasure is related to design - Arousal is related to perception of crowding - Dominance is related to time spent in the store - Impulse buying is significantly influenced by overall perceived crowding and store environment.
Han aee i Tah ri a 2010	Population: Iranian consumers Industry: No specific products or industry is specified in the paper.	S v 496 e pocdents	- Time available - Money available - Shopping enjoyment - Negative affect - In-store browsing - Positive affect - Felt urge to buy impulsivity	o g bu i oo	ct al atio ysi	- There are negative relationships between impulse buying tendency and in-store browsing, and between money availability and impulse buying. -Time and money availability have influences on positive effect, negative effect, in-store browsing, urge to buy on impulse, and impulse buying. - There is a direct impact of impulse buying tendency on impulse buying.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
H... ancing Finnry and Joseph 2009)	Population: Customers who had bought a new product at least once during the past six months in the USA Industry: Convenience products	Survey 157 respondents	- Consumer characteristic: excitement - Consumer characteristic: esteem - New product knowledge (word-of-mouth and social norms) - Impulse buying intention	- Impulse buying behavior	Partial Least Squares (PLS)	- New product knowledge and consumer characteristics of excitement and esteem have a significant impact on impulse buying intention and behavior.
Hultén and Vanyushyn (2014)	Population: Consumers in France and Sweden Industry: Apparel	Survey 493 respondents	- Direct-mail marketing - TV commercial - Gender - In-store promotion	General impulse purchase tendency	Seemingly unrelated regression analysis	- Attitudes towards direct-mail marketing and TV commercials have a positive impact on in-store promotion. - The exposure to in-store promotion has an impact on impulse purchase tendency. - The interaction among direct-mail marketing, TV commercials, and in-store promotion has a positive influence on impulse purchase tendency.
acen and ee (2002)	Population: Students and non-students in highly individualist countries (USA and Australia) and highly collectivist countries (Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong) Industry: Not specified Population: Students from Australia, USA, Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong Industry: Apparel	Preliminary survey 706 respondents Survey 481 respondents	- Trait buying impulsiveness - Relational factors/culture and ou... - age - Individual cultures - Independent/interdependent self-concept	Impulse buying behavior	- Fisher's z-test - Moderated regression analysis	- There is a stronger relationship between trait buying impulsiveness and impulse buying behavior for individualist consumer in comparison to collectivist consumers. - The relationship between trait buying impulsiveness and impulse buying behavior is different upon ethnicity and individual difference, but not the cultural region. - Among Asian samples, a more independent self-concept does not contribute to more impulsive buying behavior, but does positively influence among Caucasian samples. - Age has a negative influence on impulse buying behavior among Asian samples, but not significant among Caucasian samples.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistic al methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Karbasivar and Yarahmadi (2011)	Population: Consumers in Iran Industry: Apparel	Survey 275 respondents	- Window display - Credit card - Cash discount - Free product	Impulse buying behavior	Structural equation modeling	- Window display, credit card, discount and free product have significant influences on impulse buying behavior
Lee and Yi (2008)	Population: Consumers in Korea Industry: No specific industry is specified in the paper	S ey 163 respon ent;	- Pleasure - Arousal - Perceived risk - Buying impulsiveness trait	- Impulse buying behavior - Impulsive buying intention	⌐ o isti˙ Re ress⌐ An lysis	- Arousal and perceived risk have significant influence on impulse buying behavior, but perceived risk does not have an influence on impulse buying intention. - Pleasure has a significant influence on impulse buying intention, but not on impulse buying behavior. - Impulsiveness trait has a moderating influence on the relationship between pleasure and impulse buying intention
L ifi 20)	Population: Tunisian consumers Industry: Communication and information technology(iPod)	Survey 302 respondents	- Characteristics of web site (visual appearance, navigation, customized preview) - Pleasure of service - Commitment	- Impulse buying	Partial least square, Structural equation modeling	- Visual appearance, navigation and customized preview of the site are significant antecedents of the pleasure of serving consumers that has an impact on their commitment to the site, and consequently their buying impulse.
Mai, Jung,Lants and Loeb (2003)	Population: Consumers in Vietnam Industry: Personal-use (clothing and shoes) and collective-use (souvenirs and small gifts) products	Survey 358 respondents	- Cultural orientation (individualist/ collectivist) - Regional differences - Gender - Age - Income - Product type	- Impulse buying tendency - impulse buying frequency	Regressio a alysis	- Individualism, age and income significantly impact impulse buying behavior - Personal-use products are more likely to be purchased on impulse
Mattila and Wirtz (2008)	Population: Customers in Singapore Industry: Retail outlets ranging from small cosmetics shops to mega furniture outlets in Singapore	S ey 1 8 res on ent	- Perceived stimulation (under/over-stimulation) - Perceived crowding - Employee assistance	- Impulse buying	1˙ e regr ion a lvs s	- Perceived over-stimulation has a positive influence on impulse buying - Perceived crowding and employee assistance have a joint impact on impulse buying

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Maymand and Ahmadinejad (2011)	Population: Customers Industry: Five branches of Shahrv and shopping center in Iran with specific store and product types were stated	Survey 329 r spondent	- Environment of the store - Visual merchandising - Promotions and advertisements - Examination of goods - Availability money - Availability time - Impulse buying tendency	Impulse buying behavior	a a- Sq (P]	- Environment of the store, promotions and advertisement, examination of goods, and impulse buying tendency have a significant impact on impulse buying behavior. - There is no significant relationship between impulse buying behavior and visual merchandizing availability of money and availability of time
/l han i aku h 20 3	Population: Customers Industry: Supermarket chain in Chennai, India (no specific product types are stated)	Survey 7 3 pocde t	- Store environment perception (music, light, layout and employees) - Shopping enjoyment tendency - Impulse buying tendency - Urge - Positive affect - Negative affect	- Impulse buying	S E l sT (SE	- Store environment has a significant impact on impulse buying through positive affect and urge. - Shopping enjoyment tendency and impulse buying tendency have a significant impact on impulse buying through positive affect and urge.
an hrɑ kat d (0	nd try Re ɑling f nd	Gen Re ie				There are four categories of influential factors on impulse buying: 1. External stimuli such as store characteristics, sales promotions, employee or attendants, presence of peers and family, etc. 2. Internal stimuli such as impulsiveness, enjoyment, hedonism, fashion, emotions, normative evaluation, etc. 3. Situational and product related factors such as time available, money available, product characteristics, fashion products, and new products. 4. Demographics socio-cultural factors such as gender, age, income, education, socioeconomic, and culture.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
P k d C o (20)	Population: Korean and American respondents Industry: Various types of products are mentioned, such as clothes, toys, cooking tools, DVD movie, etc.	-depth interview 1 re 2 ponde 1 A er esp nde				- Several respondents reported monetary shortfalls as a consequence of impulse buying behavior. - Friends have an influence on respondents to make an impulse purchase; while spouse or parents have an influence on or not to make an impulse buying - American respondents expressed the negative feeling towards negative consequences directly; while Korean respondents tried not to express their negative feelings toward negative consequence.
Park, Kim and Forney (2006)	Population: College students of university in a southwestern state in the USA Industry: Clothing	Survey 217 respondents	- Fashion involvement - Positive emotion - Hedonic consumption tendency	Impulse buying	S t E uai M od u (E)	- Fashion involvement and positive emotion have significant positive influences on a consumer's fashion-oriented impulse purchase - Hedonic consumption tendency has a significant mediating affect in determining fashion-oriented impulse purchase
Rook (1987)	Population: Students and non-students in USA Industry: No specific population and industry is specified in the paper	In-depth interview survey 133 respondents			Content analysis	- 32% of respondents mentioned that the buying impulse is unexpected and spontaneous, and it urges a customer to make a sudden purchase. - The buying impulse is a source of personal excitement. - More than 80% reported some certain negative consequences.
Rook and Fisher (1995)	Population: Undergraduate business students in USA **Industry: Foods and apparel**	Experimental Survey 212 res ondents	- p se b ya g - rmat ve ev ion	- Impulse buying behavior	, co sa of pro mome correl ons acros n rm subg	- Consumers' normative evaluations have a moderating effect on the relationship between the impulse buying trait and impulse buying behavior
	Population: American customers Industry: Record stores.	Field survey 104 respondents				
Sharma and Nanda (2012)	Populations: Indian consumers who have made a purchase at the airport Indust Dut free	Survey 166 respondents	- Impulse buying tendency - Browsing	Impulse purchase	- Regression analysis - t-test - ANOVA	- Even though impulse buying tendency have a negative relationship with impulse buying, people with impulse buying tendency tends to browse longer.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Stem (1962)	No specific population and industry is specified in the paper	General review				- There are four classifications of impulse buying: pure, reminder, suggestion and planned impulse buying. - There are nine factors influencing impulse buying: low price, marginal need for item, mass distribution, self-service, mass advertising, prominent store display, short product life, small size or light weight, and ease of storage.
Tifferet and Herstein (2012)	Population: Students from a large Israeli college Industry: Paper towels, breakfast cereal, and a daily newspaper	Survey 257 respondents	- Gender	- Level of brand commitment - Hedonic consumption - Impulse buying	ulti e io re al s	- Women have higher levels of brand commitment, hedonic consumption, and impulse buying relative to men.
H 201 ）	Population: Consumers in Bangladesh Industry: Superstores	So ey 50 respondents	10 variable - Discou t offer - Various scheme - Promotional ac i ities - Superstore c rd - Display of prod ct - Sales perso - Popul ity of prod - Refere ce gro p - I come evel - Festival seasen		a n al s	- Pricing strategies, store characteristics, situational factors and promotional activities most likely have an influence on impulse buying behavior at superstores in Bangladesh.
Ver' agen and an Glen (20 1)	Population: Dutch online consumers Industry: various E-commerce, especially an online fashion store	So e 532 respondents	- Merchandise attractiveness - Ease of use - Enjoyment - Website communication style - Positive affect - Negative affect - Browsing - Urge to buy impulsivel	Im u se b y	SE	- There are significant impacts of merchandise attractiveness, enjoyment, online store communication style on impulse buying, mediated by consumers' emotions.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Šrvžait Sa dien and Žvintlyt (201)	Population: Women consumers in Lithuania Industry: Apparel	Survey 163 respondents	- Shop environment - Shop staff - Integrated marketing communication - Emotional and cognitive estimation - Hedonic motives - Involvement into the fashion	Impulsive purchase of outfit goods	Correlation	- Shop environment and shop staff have weak influences on impulsive purchase - Integrated marketing communication, emotional and cognitive estimation, hedonic motives, and involvement into the fashion have strong influence on impulsive purchase.
Wells, Parboteeah and Valacic (201)	Population: Undergraduate students in the U.S. Industry: No specified product or industry is stated in the paper.	Experimental Survey 223 respondents	- Individual ch a impulsiveness - Environmental c acteristic: webs q ality	rge o b y impu si: 1,	SE	- There is a relationship between website quality and urge to buy impulsively. - There is a relationship between impulsiveness and urge to buy impulsively, but impulsiveness does not have moderating effect on the relationship between website quality and urge to buy impulsively.
	Population: Undergraduate students in the U.S. Industry: No specified product or industry is stated in the paper.	Laboratory experiment 84 respondents			T, o-way)VA 2 x a	- Impulsiveness does not have a direct influence on urge to buy impulsively. - Website quality has a significant impact on urge to buy impulsively. - The influence of impulsiveness on urge to buy impulsively tends to be greater with the interaction with website quali .
Yan , Chang d Fe g 2011	Population: Taiwanese female consumers Industry: Cosmetics	250 respondents	- Demographic variables (age, marital status, education, income, and occupation) - Factors influencing impulse buying (personnel promotions, individual budget, and corporate promotions) - Impulse buying tendency	mp se bu ing ntention	C ost r analysi Regr sior a is	- Corporate promotions, individual budget and personnel promotions positively relate to impulse buying intention - Impulse buying tendency has moderating effect

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
o o 2013)	Population: Graduate students in Korea Industry: Three types of retail stores (department store, discount store, and interne store) and Two types of products (perfume and detergent)	So ey 302 respode s	Purchase motives Store atmospherics Types of store Types of product	p lse buy ng	o ated re io anal	- Shopping motives have a significant effect on shopping experiences. - Types of product have more influence on shopping experiences than purchase motives do. - Product type have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between experience-based shopping motive and sensory experience - Affective shopping experience enhances impulse buying; while rational experience decrease it.
han and g 010)	Population: Students in Beijing and Tianjin, China Industry: No specific industry or products	So ey 129 respode ts	- Impulse buying - Disappointment - Regret to time - Regret to place - Regret to product - Internal (themselves) - External (producer, retailer, environment)	- Loyalty to producer - Loyalty to retailer	Si co on anal	- Impulse buying significantly has an impact on disappointment and regrets. - Disappointment has a negative impact on loyalty to loyalty to producer and retailer. - Regret to time and place have an impact on loyalty to retailer. - Regret to product has a negative impact on loyalty to producer.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Abramson and Desai (1993)	Population: New car buyers Industry: Automobile	Survey, 1,073 respondents		- Purchase involvement - Post-purchase satisfaction	Descriptive analysis	- New car buyers used few source of information, did not physically search a great deal, and were very satisfied with their purchase decision
Aggarwal, Kim and Cha (2013)	Population: Korean and Canadian university students Industry: Automobile	Survey, 102 Korean respondents and 96 Canadian respondents	- Exposure to preference-inconsistent information - Cognitive discomfort - Reduction motivation - Counter-arguments - Compromise arguments	Purchase intent change		- Western consumers are differently influenced by preference-inconsistent information than Eastern consumers. Western consumers experience greater level of cognitive discomfort, exhibit a stronger motivation to reduce that discomfort, and attempt to resolve the conflict between their original reference and inconsistent information.
Cohen and Goldberg (1970)	Population: Students in USA Industry: Instant coffee	Experiment, 128 subjects				- Post-decision cognitive evaluation is influenced by(dis)confirmatory experience with the product. - The information from the brand familiarity has an impact on the direction of post-decision evaluation
Engel (1963)	Population: Owners and non-owners of Chevrolet in Michigan, the U.S. Industry: Automobile	Experimental Survey, 186 respondents	Cognitive dissonant	Advertisement readership	Chi-Square analysis	- There is no significant difference in the advertisement unaided recalls between owners and non-owners. - There is no evidence indicating consumers turning to the advertisement to lessen their post-purchase anxiety.
Gbadamosi (2009)	Population: Low-income women consumer at ...ford, England Industry: Low-involvement grocery products	One...c group discussion (nine participants); depth interview (30 interviewees)		Cognitive dissonance	Following the principle of qualitative analysis, composing of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing and verification	- Low-income women consumers habitually purchase grocery product, but are not loyal to a brand - They purchase store own-branded product because it is perceived to be similar with manufacturer's branded product - Price is not an indicator of quality - Value for money is a key motivator, and they are sensitive to sales promotions - Cognitive dissonance is revealed in their purchase

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
George and Ed... (200..)	Population: Students and their friends in India Industry: Not specified indust... indicated	Survey 262 responses	- Purchase movement - Impulse buying - The time elapsed from the moment of purchase decision until experience shared	- Difficulty to overcome cognitive dissonance - Reject old cognition - Cognitive dissonance event - Information supportive of old cognition	Simple regression analysis Logistic regression analysis	- The cognitive dissonance associated with a high-involved purchase is more difficult to overcome than the cognitive dissonance associated with a low-involved purchase - High-involved individuals are less likely to reject the old cognition than less-involved individuals - The propensity of a dissonant individual to accept the new cognition increases with the time of occurrence of cognitive dissonance - The time elapsed predicts the propensity of a dissonant individual to accept the information supportive of old cognition
George and Yaoyuneyong (2010)	Population: College students who went on a shopping trip during their spring break in USA Industry: No specific products are specified	Online survey 58 respondents	- Impulsiveness trait - Actual buying behavior (impulsive and planned)	Cognitive dissonance	A paired-samples t-test Multiple Regression Analysis	- Impulsive buyers exhibit lower level of cognitive dissonance than planned buyers.
Holloway (1967)	Population: Male college students in the U.S. Industry: Automobile battery	Experiment 4 subjects	- Inducement to buy - Anticipated dissonance - Information - Cognitive overlap	Dissonance		- In the interaction between high inducement and information, the positive information has an influence on dissonance; but when being interacted with low inducement, the information is not significant. - The interaction between anticipated dissonance and cognitive overlap have an impact on dissonance
Hunt (1970)	Population: Customers of a major department store in Detroit, USA Industry: Electronic appliance(regrigerators)	Experimental survey: 2 experimental groups and 1 control group 152 responses	- Post-transaction communication	- Dissonance reduction - Favorable attitude towards the store - Predisposition to purchase	Kruskal-Wallis test	- Respondents who received the post-transaction letter experienced less cognitive dissonance, more favorable attitude towards store, higher repurchase intention.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
mam 20 3	Population: Metro shopping center customers who indulged in impulsive buying as a result of provided incentives in Pakistan Industry: No product type is specified	Survey (2 phases: impulse buying & post-purchase cognitive dissonance) 72 respondents	- Impulse buying - Gender	Post-purchase cognitive dissonance	eans, SD and t 'a'ues	- Female customers experience more post-purchase dissonance after indulging in impulse buying
orgaonkar d M chis (1982)	Population: Students in USA Industry: Radio, tape recorders, soft drinks, hand lotions, automobiles, diamond rings, camera flash cubes, filter cigarettes and suntan lotions	Experiment (2x2x2 factorial design) 84 subjects	- Cognitive dissonance) 2) - Expectations - Product performance - Product involvement	Prod c uati ev	A OVA	- There are an interaction between product involvement and expectations. - Product involvement has a moderating effect in the post-decisional product evaluation stage. - There are differential effects of expectations and performance for different products. The product evaluations are highest among positive disconfirmation, confirmation, and negative disconfirmation, respective1 .
uo, H and Yan ; (2 13)	Population: Female online customers Industry: E-commerce (no specific types of web sites were stated)	Online survey 749 respondents	- Consumer inertia - Customer satisfaction - Alternative attraction - Positive word-of-mouth	Repeat-purchase intention	ie1 chic moderated regressio analysis	- Both consumer inertia and customer satisfaction have positive influences on repeat-purchase intention - Positive word-of-mouth negatively moderates the consumer inertia-repeat purchase intention relationship, but positively moderates the satisfaction-repeat purchase intention relationship - Alternative attraction does not have moderating influence on these relationsh1 e
ao and Oppe al (2010)	Population: University students in Australia Industry: University (education)	Experiment with 3 conditions: Positive reinforcement condition (n=126) Inconsistent condition (n=105) No information (n=128	- P o t-p ch e info ation expos—e - Dissonance (cog itive and emotion 1 aspects) - Pe₁ տiv d se ic; q 'itv - Satisfactio	1) e chase intentı 2) ord-of: at'	OVA AN O A	- Post-purchase reinforcement significantly affects satisfaction. - Choice-reinforcing and inconsistent information have positive influences on word-of-mouth

Table 2 (Continued): Summary Table of the Articles Related to Cognitive Dissonance

Authors (Year)	Population / Industry	Data Collection Method / Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Mittelstaedt (1969)	Population: Male students in the U.S. Industry: Men's bathing suits	Laboratory experiment 28 subjects	- Level of dissonance	Repeat purchase		- Among 14 high dissonant subjects, nine repeated the choice made on the previous trial. - Among 14 low dissonant subjects, 12 forsake their previous choice.
O'Niell and Palmer (2004)	Population: Students in Australia Industry: Education (Orientation process)	Longitudinal survey First stage: 541 respondents Second stage: 372 respondents	- Cognitive dissonance - Passage of time after the event being assessed	Perception of service quality	- Paired samples t-test - ANOVA - Pearson's product moment correlation	- The perception of service quality declines as time passes by. - There is a negative relationship between the perception of service quality experienced over time and the level of cognitive dissonance experienced over time.
Parkvithee and Miranda (2012)	Population: Industry: Fashion apparel	Survey	- Country's competency - Brand equity - Purchase involvement	- Perceived quality of product - Purchase intention of product		- If low purchase involvement with high brand equity is sourced from a COO of low perceived competence, the superior reputation of the brand encourages consumer partiality to the apparel's quality and purchase inclination.
Saleem, Ali and Ahmad (2012)	Population: Students from different universities of twin cities, Pakistan Industry: No product types or industries are specified	Survey 422 respondents	- Hedonic consumption tendencies - Product involvement - Impulse buying tendencies	Cognitive dissonance	Multiple Regression Analysis	- Hedonic consumption tendencies have significant impact on cognitive dissonance - Impulse buying has a significant direct impact on cognitive dissonance
Salzberger and Koller (2010)	Population: Consumer Industry: Electronics or household goods	Longitudinal study Survey 125 respondents	- Cognitive dissonance - Expected satisfaction - Satisfaction	- Loyalty - Complaint	Structural model (Lisrel 8.54)	- Satisfaction has a significant impact on loyalty (repurchase intention and word of mouth). - Cognitive dissonance has a significant impact on complaint
Sharifi and Esfidani (2014)	Population: Consumers in Iran Industry: Cell phones	Survey 305 respondents	- Relationship marketing (trust/ communication) - Cognitive dissonance - Customer satisfaction	1) Behavioral loyalty 2) Attitudinal loyalty	Structural equation modeling	- With relationship marketing, consumers are less cognitive dissonant, they are subsequently more satisfied, behavioral loyal and attitudinal loyal.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Sharma and Patte son 20)	Population: Clients Industry: A professional (financial) consumer service	Mailed survey 201 respondents	- Trust - Service satisfaction - Switching costs - Alternative attractiveness - Product-norm experience	relationship ommitment	Regression analysis	- The impact of trust and satisfaction vary according to contingency conditions of switching costs, attractiveness of alternatives and client experience.
She (1970)	Population: Students and housewives in the U.S. Industry: Toothpaste	Experiment 100 respondents	Conflict situations	Post-decision dissonance	Chi-Square analysis	- There is a similar degree of post-decision dissonance reduction between students and housewives in three choice situations (rank of brands). - There is a greater degree of dissonance in a high-conflict situation than in a low-conflict situation
S eeney, Haus¹ nec.n and So t (000)	Population: Customers of durable products in Australia Industry: Furniture and car stereo	Cognitive dissonance scale development Survey 224 respondents for the furniture stores 313 respondents for the car stereo center			- E orato factor analy is - Reliability estima s - Cor fi ato factor an ¹ysis	- There are 22 items covering three dimensions of cognitive dissonance: 1) Emotional (15), 2) Wisdom of purchase (4), and 3) Concern over deal (3).
u 20f)	Population: Customers Industry: Mobile telecommunication	ey 29 respondents	- Satis ac io - Inertia - Zo ¹ of To¤ ance (ZOT) - e ative Attra.ti.ieness	Customer loyalty	Hierarchical moderated regression analysis	- A wider level of ZOT strengthens the positive impact of inertia on customer loyalty, while reducing the positive impact on satisfaction - The negative moderating impact of ZOT on the relationship between satisfaction and customer loyalty will reduce as alternative attractiveness increases - The positive moderating impact of ZOT on the relationship between inertia and customer loyalty will reduce as alternative attractiveness increases

Related to Level of ...

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Bui, rish en an Bates (2011)	Population: Undergraduate students in USA Industry: Laptop	A between-subjects experimental design 125 respondents	- Regret - Negative emotion	Satisfaction level Extent of rumination Brand switching intention	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	- Regret has a significant negative impact on consumer satisfaction level and a significant positive impact on brand switching intention. - Negative emotion exhibits an indirect effect between regret and extent of rumination - Negative emotion has a partial mediating effect on the satisfaction level-extent of rumination relationship, and on regret-satisfaction level relationship
Brunner, Sitc'-In and O s (2008,	Population: Customers Industry: One of Europe's night-train companies	Survey 1,210 respondents	Image Satisfaction	Loyalty (recommendation and repurchase)	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	- Regarding new customers, customer satisfaction plays a critical role on loyalty; while for experienced customers, the importance of image increases while satisfaction decreases
Jones and S ' (2001)	Population: Undergraduate students in the U.S. Industry: Hairstylists/barbers	Survey 114 respondents	- Transaction-specific satisfaction - Overall satisfaction	Repurchase intentions	Regression analysis	- Overall satisfaction has a direct significant influence on repurchase intentions and the moderating influence on the relationship between transaction-specific satisfaction and repurchase intentions. - When overall satisfaction is high, transaction-specific satisfaction has little influence on repurchase intentions; on the other hand, when overall satisfaction is low, the transaction-specific satisfaction has a positive impact on repurchase intentions.
Kang (2013)	Population: Taiwanese consumers Industry: Physical stores	Survey 1,327 respondents	- Information search - Impulse buying Disconfirmation	Post-purchase satisfaction		- Disconfirmation has a partial mediating effect on the relationship between impulse buying and customer satisfaction
eining' am, Cooil, Aksoy, ^ndreasseo and ein r (20	Population: consumers Industry: Reta banking, mass merc' ant retai and Internet service providers	Longi dinal st dy	- Customer Behavio - Satisfactio - Val e - Expectat on - intention o rep rchase - In ntion to recommendatio	Share of wallet	- Correlation analysis - CHAID - Regression analysis (best-subsets, ordinal logistic and latent class ordinal logistic regression)	- Intention to recommendation alone does not have sufficient impact on customer's share-of-wallet. - A multiple indicator is required to predict customer's recommendations and retention.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Lu, Lu and Wang (2012)	Population: Online customers Industry: Paipai.com (a Chinese C2C portal)	Online survey 411 respondents	- Dissatisfaction - Negative emotion - Psychological distancing - Complaining behavior - Seek social support	Repurchase intention	Partial Least Squares (PLS)	- Negative emotion has a significant mediating impact on the dissatisfaction-repurchase intention relationship.
Newell, Wu, Titus and Petroshius (2011)	Population: Home purchasers in USA Industry: Real estate	Mailed survey 670 respondents	- Perceived sophistication - Control - Fairness - Dissonance	Satisfaction	Structural equation modeling	- Perceived shopping sophistication is the main antecedents on customer satisfaction on their purchase experience. - Perceived shopping sophistication also has an influence on perceptions of control, fairness, and dissonance.
Pappas, Pateli, Giannakos and Chrissikopoulos (2014)	Population: Customers Industry: Online shopping	Survey 393 respondents	- Effort expectancy - Performance expectancy - Self-efficacy - Trust - Satisfaction - Experience	Repurchase intention	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	- Experience has a moderating impact on performance expectancy and satisfaction relationship, and satisfaction and repurchase intention relationship
Pa O rson a Spre g (99	Population: Clients Industry: Private and public sectors	i y 2 re po dents	- Outcomes - Methodology - Service - Relationship - Global - Problem identification - Satisfaction - Value	Repurchase intention I	Covariance matrix (LISREL VIII)	- Value has a significant effect on satisfaction, which in turn has a significant impact on repurchase intention
Se s (993)	Population: customers/ students Industry: life insurance, telephone services, business college, and salmon feed supplier	T ep co E sur e 1,032 espond nts	- Performance quality - Satisfaction - Brand reputation	Loyalty	LISREL VII	- Performance quality had significant impact on customer satisfaction in all four models, brand reputation in three models. - Satisfaction had an impact on brand loyalty, when brand reputation was controlled, in two models. - Satisfaction had an impact on brand reputation in one model. - Loyalty is significantly influenced by brand reputation in all four models.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
S (200	Population: Indian consumers Industry: vehicles, television, soap, hair oil, and ice cream	Survey 139 respondents	- Product usage - Product performance - Level of satisfaction - Level of involvement	Brand switching behavior	- Cluster analysis - Correlation analysis	- Product usage and satisfaction level are unable to explain brand switching behavior. - Product involvement had an impact on switching behavior. - Satisfaction have a direct impact on loyalty when customers are able to assess the product performance through the productusage.
Sing d Pꝺꝺ ꜟ a (1991	Po atio Hꝺ hol o ꜟa rece ꜟis isfy g exp ienc I d t Banksꝺ fꝺ cial isti utio (ex uding f s nc)	ai e s ey ∠ r po nts	- Attitude towards complaining - Dissatisfying intensity	Co piai e' a 1ors (Voı / exit/ œgative v o	Disc im art g s	- Voice behaviors tended to be linearly with dissatisfaction; while exit and negativeWOM had a non-linear relationship with dissatisfaction - The moderating impacts were most pronounced in the case of voice behaviors. - Under medium (and high) dissatisfaction, the attitude-voiceCCB relationship was strong and significant, but became weak and insignificant under low dissatisfaction intensity.

Tab. S ... T. ... e ... cl ... -... it Cl B ... n...

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Butcher, Sparks and O'Callaghan (2002)	Population: Customers Industry: Cafe, health care services and hairdressing salons in Queensland, Australia	Survey 406 respondents	- Social comfort - Employee job enthusiasm - Value for money - Customer convenience	Repurchase intention	Re... e... ... y	- Social influence, customer convenience and value for money
Chan and Wan (2008)	Population: Undergraduate students Industry: Computer repair service	Survey 104 respondents	- Dissatisfaction - Attribution	- Voice behavior - Third-party behavior - Negative word-of-mouth behavior - Exit behavior	Two-way ANOVA, ANCOVAs	- American (versus Chinese) are more dissatisfied with an outcome failure but less dissatisfied with a process failure. - Americans and Chinese differ in service dissatisfaction and expression of dissatisfaction (voice and private responses)
Ch... Ch... g, ... the ... (2...09)	Population: Customers Industry: PCHome online shopping	S... 360 respondents	- Fulfillment - Privacy - System availability - Responsiveness - Contact - Enjoyment - Perceived ease of use - Trust - Perceived usefulness	Repurchase intention	P... ... Least Sq... (P... S...	- Trust, perceived usefulness, perceived ease ()ruse, and enjoyment have significant impact on repurchase intention
g C'i ... ang (...0...	Population: Customers in Taiwan Industry: PCHome's online shopping	...eb... ...ey 219 respo...de s	- Distributive justice - Procedural justice - Interactional justice - Information quality - System quality - Service quality - Net benefits - Trust - Satisfaction	Repurchase intention	Partial Least Squares (PLS)	- Trust, net benefits and satisfaction have positive effects on repurchase intention toward online shopping. - Information quality, system quality, trust and net benefits have positive effects on customer satisfaction.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Gonçalves and Sampaio (2012)	Population: Portuguese client Industry: Credit card company	Mail survey 1,210 respondents	- Customer satisfaction - Gender - Income - Age - Involvement - Length of relationship	Loyalty (repurchase intention and repurchase behavior)	Hierarchical regressions	- Gender and age have positive moderating effects on the customer satisfaction- repurchase intention relationship. - Length of relationship has a positive moderating effect on customer satisfaction-repurchase behavior (number of transactions) relationship.
Hong and Lee (2012)	Population: Customers in Korea and Taiwan Industry: Banking services	Survey 700 respondents	- Perceived value - Trust - Image - Satisfaction - Collectivism	Cross-buying intentions	Hierarchical multiple regressions	- Perceived value, trust, image and satisfaction are significant antecedents of cross-buying intentions
Hume and Mort (2010)	Population: Audience members in Australia Industry: Performing arts	Survey 250 respondents	- Core service quality - Peripheral service quality - Appraisal emotion - Perceived value - Customer satisfaction	Repurchase intention	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	- Perceived value has a significant mediating effect on satisfaction-repurchase intention relationship - Appraisal emotion has a direct effect on customer satisfaction - Peripheral service quality has direct effect on repurchase intention
Kumar, George and Pancras (2008)	Population: Customers in USA Industry: Catalog retailers	Data analysis 1,500 observations	- Average inter-purchase time - Product returns - Focused buying - Direct mailings - Cross promotions - Cross-buy	Revenue per order Contribution margin per order Number of orders in a given time period	Poisson regression or negative binomial regression (NBD)	- Average inter-purchase time, ratio of product returns, focused buying, and category of first purchase are significant antecedents of cross-buying. - Marketing efforts of the firm on cross-buying has an impact on cross-buying.
Liu and Wu (2007)	Population: Clients in Taiwan Industry: Banking	Survey 470 respondents	- Locational convenience - One-stop shopping convenience - Satisfaction - Trust - Firm reputation - Firm expertise - Directmailings	- Customer retention - Cross-buy	Structural equation modeling	- Trust and satisfaction have a significant mediating influence on the relationship between services attributes, customer retention and cross buying.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
Lu, Lu and Wang (2012)	Pop lat o Cus om s Ind str o i e o bsit oa Oi es C Chi es portal)	Online survey 411 respondents	- Dissatisfaction - Negative emotion - Psychological distancing - Complaining behavior - Seek social support	Repurchase intention	a east q a e LS)	- Negative emotion has a significant mediating effect on the dissatisfaction-repurchase intention relationship.
N 2 04;	Popula F o' u tom Industr Fin ci and ins ran servi e	u y 3 respo ents	- Perceived service quality - Perceived service value - Perceived convenience - Image conflicts - Repurchase intentions - Satisfaction - Perceived switching	C ss bu g int nt ons	gres on alysi	- Cross-buying intention is significantly related to image conflicts about the service provider's ability in high-quality service delivery, and the perceived convenience of cross-buying from the same service provider.
Ol p a 0 and P e o (200	Pop lat Custom s n us r A re c d evelop s he a iz s m ; al	u y 18 re od ts	- Relationship benefits - Service benefits - Monetary sacrifice - Value - Re-purchase intentions	Re omme at ons thers	ctu al x atio o eli g E)	- Relationship benefits, service benefits and monetary sacrifice have a significant effect on customer value.

Authors (Year)	Population/ Industry	Data Collection Method/ Sample Size	Antecedents	Consequences	Statistical Methods	Relevant Findings and Conclusions
...s (1...)	Population: Consumers Industry: C...thio and a...iance	In-depth interviews with eight consumers Exp...rato... s...ey 125 spo...dents	- satisfaction - b...se eri... - b...tio of b...amo - a...err...s...nsi...eness - Perception o...the co...int sit...tion - Costs a...d be...efits relat...d to complair...t	Negative word-of-mouth ...lai... b...h...io	Regression analysis ...tiv...va...anal...s o...ria c...	- The more serious the problem associated with the dissatisfaction, the more likely consumers are to tell others about it - External (Internal) attributions of blame are positively (negatively) related toWOM - The more negative a consumer's perceptions of retailer responsiveness to consumer complaints, the more likely that individual is to engage in negativeWOM - The greater problem severity is associated with greater effort expenditure in response to a dissatisfaction - If a consumer is dissatisfied enough to take some action in response to a dissatisfaction, the less positive the perception of retailer responsiveness, the greater the action will involve negative WOM but notcomplaint behavior
Santos and Basso (2012)	Population: Business undergraduate students Industry: Internet serviceprovider	Experiment 253 respondents	- Price unfairness perception - Trust - Negative emotions	Negative word-of-mouth Switching intentions	V...A	-Those who perceived price unfairness will have negative behavioral intentions toward the company, through trust and negative emotions
Soureli, Lewis andKarantinou (2008)	Population: Greek customers Industry: Banking service	Survey 311 respondents	- Perceived value - Trust in the bank - Satisfaction - Image	Cross-buying intention	Structural equation modeling	- Cross-buying intention is directly influenced by trust and image of a bank, and indirectly influenced by satisfaction and perceived value. 2) 1)
Tuu and Olsen (2013)	Population: Consumers Industry: A food industry in Vietnam	Survey 487 respondents	- Category satisfaction - Consideration set size - Variety seeking	Category repurchase loyalty	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	- Consideration set size has a significant positive impact on category repurchase loyalty, positive moderating effect on category satisfaction and category repurchase loyalty relationship, and a significant mediating effect on variety seeking and category loyalty - Variety seeking has a significant negative impact on category repurchase loyalty

APPENDIX II

DISTRICTS IN BANGKOK CATEGORIZED BY LEVELS,

LISTS OF SHOPPING CENTERS IN SELECTED DISTRICTS,

AND FEMALE POPULATION IN BANGKOK CATEGORIZED BY AGE GROUP

Districts
(Outer Bangkok)

Bang Khun Thian
Min Buri

6	Lat Phrao
7	Saphan Sung
8	Bang Kapi

17	Chatuchak
18	Phra Nakhon
19	Wattana
20	Pathumwan
21	Ratchathewi

Sources: Surathomtawee and Pachravanich (2011). Factors ... ium buying decisions of consumers case study: Bangkok. *The 12th Khon Kaen University 2011 Graduate Research Conference*, 1353-1359.

Shopping Centers in Selected Districts

Pathumwan

1. Big C Extra Rajdamri
2. Tesco Lotus Rama IV
3. Tesco Lotus Rama IV
4. The Emporium
5. The Grand at Parc
6. Siam Square One
7. Power Point Center
8. V Village
9. Mall Molly
10. A Square
11. ... Plaza
12. Camp ... is
13. Exchange Tower
14. Low Cost Center
15. Termin 21 Pl.

Pathumwan
1. ... Center
2. ... Center
3. ... World
4. Siam Paragon
5. MBK Center
6. Amarin Plaza
7. Siam By Pass Mini Mall
8. All Seasons Place
9. Amarin Plaza
10. President Tower Arcade
12. ... Plaza
12. Charoenchuree ... ery Center
13. Siam Discovery Center
14. Paneeya Center
15. Big C Ratchadamri
16. Pavé Place
17. Bonanza Mall
18. Amrudee Village
19. Digital Gateway
20. Embassy Park Plaza
21. ... i Center
22. Gaysorn Plaza
23. L... Plaza
24. Portico Langsuan
25. Erawan Bangkok
26. ... Siam
27. Central Embassy
28. The Promenade
29. Siam Square One
30. the Nineteen at Chidlom
31. Four Season Bangkok arcade
32. Siam Meeting P...
33. Naraiphan
34. Central Department Store – Chitlom
35. Zen Department Store
36. Isetan
37. Tokyo Department Store
38. Tesco Lotus Ram...

Bang Khae

1. Big C Petchkasem
2. The Mall Bang Khae
3. Tesco Lotus Petchkasem
4. Power Center The Mall Bang Khae
5. IT Grand Bang Khae
6. Petchkasem Power Center
7. Major Complex
8. Tesco Lotus Bang Khae

BangKapi

BangKapi
1. ... Power Center
2. Big C Hua Mak
3. The Mall 2 Ramkamhaeng
4. The Mall 3 Ramkamhaeng
5. The Mall Bang Kapi
6. Tesco Lotus Sukhapibarn 3 (Branch)
7. Tesco Lotus Bang Kapi
8. Makro Ladphrao
9. Homepro Sukhapibarn 3
10. Foodland Supermarket Hua Mak
11. Bangkapi Complex
12. Normchit
13. Mall Avenue
14. Happyland Tawanna
15. Tawanna
16. Pantip Plaza Ram...
17. Crystal Design Center
18. Plaza De Bollywood

Laksi

1. Big C ... aeng Wattana
2. Tesco Lotus Chaeng Wattana
3. ... Square
4. Fashion Island Chaeng...
5. ... am Fa...

(right column)
1. Big C Suwinthawong
2. Tesco Lotus Suwinthawong (Min Buri)
3. Ramintra City Mall
4. Tesco Lotus Sukhapibarn 3
5. Big C Sukhapibarn 3
6. Big C Romklao

18-24 years old (students and first jobbers)	273,657	22.2
25-29 years old (stability builders)	186,000	15.1
30-39 years old (life milestones settlers)	475,699	38.5
40-45 years old (life security fulfillment seekers)	299,843	24.3
Total	**1,235, 99**	

Source: Department of Provincial Administration (2014). *Population Categorized by Age*. Retrieved March, http://stat.bora.dopa.go.th/new_stat/webPage/statBy Province.php?year=57

APPENDIX III
IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Questions

Section	

r ning / o e

- Female, 15 years old and older.

15-24: Students & Firstjobber	25-29: Stability builder	30-39: Life Milestones Settler
40-44: Life security fulfillment seeker	45-54: Life security planner	55+: Retirement

Source:http://www.niraninter.co.th/article.php?pk_id=112

- Shopping self-selected mass color cosmetic products on impulse within a month

Impulse purchase refers to... "an unplanned purchase undertaken in a sudden manner after being exposed to certain stimuli, and influenced by emotional and/or cognitive motivation".

- Having at least one credit card

r na / fc mat∞

- Would you please introduce yourself?

Nickname	Gender: 0 Male 0 Female	Age _____ Years old.
Educational Level:	0 Lower than Bachelor Degree	0 Bachelor Degree	0 Higher than Bachelor Degree
Marrital Status:	0 Single	0 Married	0 Widowed/Divorced
Occupation:	0 Government/ State Enterprise employee; □ Student; 0 Agriculturist	0 Private Organization employee; 0 Freelance; 0 Unemployed	0 Business Owner; □ Housewife/ Retiree; 0 Others
Average Monthly Income	0 15,000Baht and lower; 0 35,001-45,000Baht	0 15,001-25,000Baht; 0 45,000Baht and higher	0 25,001-35,000Baht

Questions

Section	
Co or Co me cs Shoppin Beha io	

- How often do you buy mass color cosmetics?

- Where do you usually buy mass color cosmetics (from self-selected distribution channels)?
HINTS: (Do not mention)

Drugstores	Watsons, **Boots**
Specialty stores	Tsuruha, Eveandboy, Beauty Buffet, Beauty Market,Ogenki
Stand-alone stores	Oriental Princess, Etude, The Face Shop, Skin Food, Beauty Cottage
Supermarket or Hypermarket	Tops,Tesco, Home Fresh Mart, Big C

- What products do you buy? Among them, which product category is the most frequent buying item?
HINTS: (Do not mention)

FACE:	foundation, powder, concealer, blush,bronzer, **highlighter**
LIPS:	**lipstick, lip liner, lip pencil, lip gloss, lip stain**
EYES:	eyebrow pencil, eyebrow mascara, eye shadow, eye liner, mascara
NAILS:	nail paints

- How color cosmetics are important to you? What are their benefits?
HINTS: (Do not mention)

Functional Benefits:	To conceal/hide imperfection
Emotional Benefits:	To enhance self-image, to attract others' attention

- How do you rate the importance of mass color cosmetic purchase decision?

Not Important (1)	Not Quite Important (2)	Moderate (3)	Important (4)	Very Important (5)

Questions

Section	Questions
Buying Decision Process	**Thinking of your self-selected mass color cosmetics shopping experiences.** • Do you have shopping list when shopping for color cosmetics? • Were the color cosmetic products you bought exactly the same as the products you had planned to buy? • If yes, end the interview. • If no, what were the products you had planned to buy, and what were the products you actually bought? • How often do you purchase color cosmetics on impulse? • When do you purchase on impulse? *HINTS: (Do not mention)* Mood 1 e o e Other situational factors • Are you happy with your impulse purchase? Or do you feel guilty? Why? • Can you tell me your process of cosmetics buying from the moment you entered the store until you made a payment briefly? • During the shopping, when were you aware of the needs for that certain item(s)? • What were the factors that facilitated you to browse for a product or induced your needs? How did they influence you? *HINTS: (Do not mention)* and — Price promotion — Having credit card Variety of products — Disp a — Self-service sp — Lighting Layout Salesperson

Questions

Section	Questions
Bo...ng Decisioo **P** o **e s**	hat certainitem(s) before entering the store? nation? u search for more information about the product before making the purchase the product?
Test it	Signage **From beauty advisors**
Product label	**Product display**
	brand? Or did you choose among different brands? [ow different or similar were these items? ientioned earlier, what were the factors that facilitated you to make an actual sion important to you? How was it important to you? D te purchase decision? 1 vs credit card)?

Buying Decision Process	

- ...r m ing a...r a...no sing t e prod ct hat y°od·a... p anned in advance, were you completely satisfied with...odu Or we e y... e... a... dis omfort regret... wa... s he urchase?

- ...u...satisfied o... ou dl me your fee ing when you were satisfied? What could be the indicator when you were...ed?

- ...ai ou ev lua e... sat˙ f ction?
  S: Do not n enti...

  o... r o... oo?
  a... o... ho oa... sti of o... o... t... a... a˙

- What was your anticipated future action towards your satisfaction?

Repurchase (How/Why)	Cross-buy (How/Why)	Word-of-mouth(How/Why)

d... o

- If you were dissonant/ uncomfortable with your purchase decision, did you feel (*Towards Product or Purchase?*)
  HINTS: (Do not mention)
  - The purchase decision was important
  - The product alternatives were similar (the rejected alternative wa...

- Did you search for the consistent product information to make you feel better?

- What were the sources of information?

- How were they consistent/inconsistent to your opinion?

- How did it make you feel better or increase your satisfaction towards the products?

- What are your suggestions for the brand or the retailer in order to comfort your feelings?

APPENDIX IV
QUESTIONNAIRES IN ENGLISH AND THAI LANGUAGE

253

Dear Respondents

The researcher is conducting the study on the impact of in-store marketing stimuli on impulse buying behavior and post-purchase evaluation of self-selected mass color cosmetics in Bangkok, as a part of the doctoral dissertation of a Ph.D. program in Business Administration, Assumption University of Thailand. The research findings will be pragmatic for marketing practitioners in creating the arousal-retailing environment for color cosmetics available in the self-selection cosmetics stores as well as for consumers in making a more conscious purchase decision and preventing the overspending in the impulsively stimulated retailing environment.

I would like to request for your kind cooperation in completing this questionnaire, which will take about 20 minutes. Please be assured that your response will remain confidential, and only aggregate findings will be reported.

I greatly appreciate your valuable time and opinions. Should you have any inquiry regarding this questionnaire, please kindly do not hesitate to contact me at Tel. 081-651-5958 or email: wanwisa.chn@gmail.com.

Yours truly,

Wanwisa Charoennan
Ph.D. Candidate
Martin de Tours School of Management and Economics
Assumption University

Part I: General information on color cosmetics purchasing experience at self-selection cosmetics stores.

1. Have you purchased mass color cosmetics from self-selection cosmetics stores *within the last 30 days?* *(Show the picture of self-selection store types to the respondents)*

    ☐ 1. Yes   ☐ 2. No *(Skip to Part V Personal Information)*

2. How do you best describe your *last* mass color cosmetics purchasing experience at self-selection cosmetics stores?

    ☐ 1. I bought only what I had planned. *(Skip to Part V Personal Information)*

    ☐ 2. I had a shopping plan, but I bought differently or more items from what I had planned.

    ☐ 3. I did not have a plan or an intention to purchase anything, but I ended up buying something.

    ☐ 4. Others, specify ....

3. *Regarding your color cosmetics purchase in no. 2,* did you make a payment by a credit card?

    01. Yes   02. No

4. *Regarding your color cosmetics purchase in no. 2,* where did you purchase? *(Choose only one)*

    ☐ 1.   Drugstores where cosmetics are available such as Watsons, Boots, Tsuruha, etc.

    ☐ 2.   Specialty stores where various cosmetic brands are available such as Eveandboy, Beauty Buffet, Beauty Market, Ogenki, etc.

    ☐ 3. Stand-alone stores such as Oriental Princess, The Face Shop, Skin Food, Beauty Cottage, etc.

    ☐ 4. Supermarkets or hypermarkets such as Tops, Tesco Lotus, Home Fresh Mart, Big C, Villa Market, etc.

    ☐ 5. Convenience stores such as 7 Eleven, Big C Extra, Family Mart, etc.

    ☐ 6. Others, specify ....

5. *Regarding your color cosmetics purchase in no. 2,* what did you purchase? *(Can answer more than one)*

    O .... 2 .... 3 .... 4 ....

    5 .... 6 .... 7 .... 8 ....

Please kindly refer to the *no. 1 color cosmetic item* in the following questions

Part In-store marketing stimuli

6. *Regarding the no. 1 color cosmetic items in question no. 5,* please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to the in-store marketing stimuli, where 1 = "Strongly disagree", 2 = "Disagree", 3 = "Neither agree nor disagree", 4 = "Agree", and 5 = "Strongly agree".

In-Store Marketing Stimuli	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree
Brand	

1. A brand name was an important source of information about this item's credibility.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I could tell a lot about this item's quality from the brand name.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It was important for me to buy this type of color cosmetics with well-known brand names.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When I shop for this type of color cosmetics, I would prefer to buy well-known brand name.	1	2	3	4	5
Price Promotion					
1. The shopping for this item was well worth going because of the price promotion offerings.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My willingness to purchase this item arose when I noticed the price promotion activities.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I visited this store because it offered price promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sales sign enticed me to look through this type of color cosmetics.	1	2	3	4	5
Acceptance of Credit Card					
1. A credit card payment makes the total amount to pay less worrisome.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There should be more advantages with credit card payments, than with cash (reward points, paying by installments, minimum payment due).	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is more convenient to pay by a credit card, rather than by cash.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Because of a credit card payment, it should feel like not spending one's own money.	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of Products					
1. Several products were available under the brand I purchased.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This brand offered variety of products.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Many popular color cosmetic items are from this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This brand regularly launches new products.	1	2	3	4	5
Prominent Displays					
1. I visited this color cosmetics' counter because the product display was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I paid attention to the product display.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I was interested in shopping at well-designed counters.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The displays were appealing.	1	2	3	4	5
Salesperson					
1. Salespersons were knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Salespersons were friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Salespersons were helpful.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Salespersons were polite	1	2	3	4	5
Self-Service					
1. Self-service was convenient.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Self-service made me feel comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I enjoyed self-service.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I found self-service to be pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
Music					
1. The store had pleasant music.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The store had appropriate music.	1	2	3	4	

3. The store had terrible music.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The store had relaxing music.	1	2	3	4	5
Lighting					
1. The store was well lit.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The store was correctly lit (neither too bright nor dull).	1	2	3	4	5
3. Lighting in the store was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The store's lighting illuminated the true color of the products.	1	2	3	4	5
Layout					
1. It was easy to move around in the store.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It was easy to locate products in the store.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The shelf was not too high to pick up products with hands.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The products were spaciously well arranged.	1	2	3	4	5

7. ***Regarding the no. 1 color cosmetic items in question no. 5,*** please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to your impulse buying behavior.

Impulse Buying Behavior	Strongly Disagree ⊲				Strongly Agree
1. My purchase for this item was unplanned.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I did not intend to purchase this item before visiting the store.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I could not resist purchasing this item.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I did not think much when I purchased this item.	1	2	3	4	5
5. On this visit, I felt a sudden urge to buy this item and I bought it.	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: Post-purchase evaluation

8. ***Regarding the no. 1 color cosmetic items in question no. 5,*** please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to influential factors on the magnitude of cognitive dissonance.

Influential Factors on the Magnitude of Cognitive Dissonance	Strongly Disagree ←			→	Strongly Agree
Post-Purchase Information					
1. After the purchase decision, I found myself looking for information from public media to confirm that I made the right decision.	1	2	3	4	5
2. After the purchase decision, I sought out an opinion from my friends or family to comfort my feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
3. After the purchase decision, I read the non-commercial product review to confirm my purchase decision.	1	2	3	4	5
4. After the purchase decision, I often observed what brand others is using to make sure that I bought the right item	1	2	3	4	5
Purchase Involvement					
1. The purchase decision I just made was very important.	1	2	3	4	5

2. The purchase decision I just made mattered a great deal to me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The purchase decision I just made was relevant to me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I spent a considerable amount of money for the products.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The purchase decision was important to my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5
Attractive Alternatives					
1. After the purchase decision, I found there were many other brands' items that were better than this brand's item.	1	2	3	4	5
2. After the purchase decision, I found that I could obtain more satisfactory from other brands' items.	1	2	3	4	5
3. After the purchase decision, I found that I could enjoy more benefits from other brands' items.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This type of color cosmetics from other brands would fit my needs more than this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
Product Performance					
1. After the purchase decision, I found that this brand's item fitted my needs.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This brand offered this type of color cosmetics that seemed like it was designed for me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This brand offered this type of color cosmetics that I wanted to wear.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I did not have an allergy to this item.	1	2	3	4	5

9. ***Regarding the no. 1 color cosmetic items in question no. 5,*** please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to post-purchase cognitive dissonance.

Cognitive Dissonance	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree				
Cognitive Dissonance towards Purchase					
1. After the purchase decision, I wondered whether I should have purchased this item.	1	2	3	4	5
2. After the purchase decision, I felt very anxious about my purchase decision.	1	2	3	4	5
3. After the purchase decision, I wondered whether I bought too many items.	1	2	3	4	5
4. After the purchase decision, I wondered if I made the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I should have more time considering my choice of color cosmetic item.	1	2	3	4	5
Cognitive Dissonance towards Product					
1. After the purchase decision, I wondered If I did the right thing in buying this item.	1	2	3	4	5
2. After the purchase decision, I wondered if I really needed this item.	1	2	3	4	5
3. After the purchase decision, I wondered whether there was something wrong with the deal I got.	1	2	3	4	5
4. After the purchase decision, I wondered if I was fooled.	1	2	3	4	5
5. After the purchase decision, I wondered if they spun me a line.	1	2	3	4	5

10. ***Regarding your color cosmetics purchase in no. 2,*** please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to satisfaction level.

Level of Satisfaction	Strongly Strongly

	Disagree ← → Agree				
1. I was very satisfied with this item.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I felt this item was very rewarding.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It was a smart decision to purchase this item.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My consumption experience with this item was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV: Post-purchase behavioral intentions

11. *Regarding the no. 1 color cosmetic items in question no. 5,* please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements related to behavioral intentions.

Post-Purchase Behavioral Intentions	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree				
Repurchase Intention					
1. I will continue to purchase this item in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am likely to buy this item if I am in the mood to buy this type of color cosmetics.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I expect repeat purchasing this item in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I will prefer this item as opposed to other brands' item(s) in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
Cross-Buying Intention					
1. I have intentions to buy other types of color cosmetics from this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chances are very low for me to buy other types of color cosmetics from this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
3. On my next color-cosmetics purchase, I will seriously consider the product from this brand(s).	1	2	3	4	5
4. I will seriously consider the deal if it is from this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
Word-of-Mouth Intention					
1. I will say positive things to other people about my overall experience on this item.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I will recommend the overall experience to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I will encourage others to buy color cosmetic items from this brand.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When being asked about the product recommendation, I will talk about this item in great detail.	1	2	3	4	5

Part V: Personal Information

1. Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female   2. Age.................. years old

3. Education

☐ Lower than Bachelor's degree ☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Higher than Bachelor's degree

4. Occupation

☐ State employee ☐ Private company employee ☐ Business owner ☐ Student

❏ Freelancer ☐ Housewife ☐ Unemployed........... ☐ Others, specify ....

5. Average household monthly income

☐ 7,500 Baht and lower ☐ 7,501-15,000 Baht ☐ 15,001-18,000 Baht ☐ 18,001-20,000 Baht

☐ 20,001-30,000 Baht ☐ 30,001-40,000 Baht ☐ 40,001-50,000 Baht ☐ 50,001-60,000 Baht

☐ 60,001-70,000 Baht ☐ 70,001-80,000 Baht ☐ 80,001-85,000 Baht ☐ More than 85,000 Baht

6. Marital Status ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/Widowed

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation

เรียน ท่านผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

ผู้วิจัยกำลังทำการศึกษา "ผลกระทบของปัจจัยทางการตลาดภายในร้านค้าที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมการซื้อตามแรงกระตุ้นและการประเมินผลหลังการซื้อ ของเครื่องสำอางระดับทั่วไป ตามร้านค้าที่สามารถเลือกซื้อสินค้าได้เองในเขตกรุงเทพมหานคร"

มW1511 En ailอัสสัมชัญ ผลการศึกษาครั้งนี้สามารถก่อให้เกิดประโยชน์ต่อนักการตลาดในการสร้างบรรยากาศการขายที่กระตุ้นให้เกิดการซื้อเครื่องสำอางตามช่องทางร้านค้าที่สามารถเลือกซื้อสินค้าได้เอง

เนการตัดสินใจซื้อ   และป้อง   ยมากเกินไปในบรรยากาศการขายที่กระตุ้นให้เกิดการซื้อ

ผู้วิจัยใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านในการตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้ โดยจะใช้เวลาประมาณ **20 1171i1**   ข้อมูลและความคิดเห็นของท่านจะถูกปิดเป็นความลับ และจะนำเสนอผลการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลในภาพรวมเท่านั้น

ผู้วิจัยขอขอบคุณท่านเป็นอย่างสูงที่สละเวลาในการตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้ หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยประการใดโปรดติดต่อผู้วิจัยที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์ **081-651-5958** หรือ อีเมล wanwisa.chn@gmail.com

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

นักศึกษาระดับปริญญา Lon
คณะบริหารธุรกิจ

ส่วนที่ ข้อมูลทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ซื้อเครื่องสำอางตามร้านค้าที่สามารถเลือกซื้อสินค้าได้เอง

1. *ภายใน **30** วันที่ผ่านมา* คุณได้ซื้อเครื่องสำอางจากร้านค้าที่สามารถเลือกสินค้าได้เองเหล่านี้ หรือไม่ *(แสดงภาพตัวอย่างประเภทร้านค้าที่สามารถเลือกสินค้าได้เองให้ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามดู)*

O 1.   E 2.   *(ข้ามไป ส่วนที่ **5** ข้อมูลส่วนตัว)*

2. พฤติกรรมการซื้อเครื่องสำอาง *ครั้งล่าสุด* จากร้านที่สามารถเลือกสินค้าได้เองของคุณ ตรงกับข้อความใต้ต่อไปนี้มากที่สุด

    111 1. ฉันซื้อเฉพาะเครื่องสำอางตามที่วางแผนไว้เท่านั้น *(ข้ามไป **?hat** 5 ข้อมูลส่วนตัว)*

    2. ฉันวางแผนไว้ว่าจะซื้ออะไรบ้าง

    O 3. ฉันไม่ได้วางแผนหรือตั้งใจจะซื้ออะไร แต่ก็ซื้อเครื่องสำอางบางชิ้นมาในที่สุด

    ☐ 4. อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ...

3. *จากการซื้อเครื่องสำอางในข้อ **2*** คุณ จ่ายเงินด้วยบัตรเครดิตหรือไม่   1._____112.

4. *จากการซื้อเครื่องสำอางในข้อ **2*** คุณซื้อเครื่องสำอางจากร้านค้าประเภทใด *(ตอบได้ข้อเดียว)*

    1. ร้านขาย ที่มีเครื่องสำอางจำหน่าย   บูทส์ ซูรุฮ ฯลฯ

    ▪ 2. ร้านขายเครื่องสำอางที่ให้เลือกหลายยี่ห้อ   อีฟแอนด์บอย, บิวตี้ บุฟเฟต์, บิวตี้   ฯลฯ

    3. ร้านขายเครื่องสำอางของแบรนด์   ออเรียลทอล ปริ้นเซส,   เฟส   สกินฟู๊ด, บิวตี้ คอทเทจ ฯลฯ

    EI 4. ซุปเปอร์มาร์เก็ต หรือไฮเปอร์มาร์เก็ต เช่น ท็อปส์, เทสโก้ โลตัส,   LAI% มาร์ท, บิก   ล่า มาร์เก็ต ฯลฯ

    O 5. ร้านสะดวกซื้อ เช่น เซเว่น   เอ็กซ์ตรา,   มาร์ท ฯลฯ

    O 6. อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ..

5. *จากการซื้อเครื่องสำอางในข้อ **2*** คุณซื้อเครื่องสำอางอะไรบ้าง *(ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)*

    2 ....   3 ....   4 ....

    5 ....   6 ....   7 ....   8 ....

เครื่องสำอางลำดับที่__ ในการต

ส่วนที่ 2 ปัจจัยทางการตลาดภายในร้านค้า

6. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่__ในข้อ **5*** คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับปัจจัยทางการตลาดภายในร้านค้า เหล่านี้ มากน้อยเพียงใด เมื่อ 1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย 3 = เฉยๆ 4 =   และ 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ปัจจัยทางการตลาดภายในร้านค้า	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง ⟷ เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง				
ยี่ห้อ					
1. ยี่ห้อ สามารถบอกถึงความน่าเชื่อถือของเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ได้	1	2	3	4	5
2. ยี่ห้อ สามารถบอกถึงคุณภาพของเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ได้	1	2	3	4	5
3. การเลือกซื้อยี่ห้อเครื่องสำอางประเภทนี้ที่มีชื่อเสียง สำคัญสำหรับฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
4. เวลาเลือกซื้อเครื่องสำอางประเภทนี้ ฉันชอบเลือกซื้อยี่ห้อที่มีชื่อเสียง	1	2	3	4	5
โปรโมชั่นทางด้านราคา					
1. การไปซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้คุ้มค่า เนื่องจากมีการจัดโปรโมชั่นด้านราคา	1	2	3	4	5
2. ฉันอยากซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ เมื่อรู้ว่ามีการจัดโปรโมชั่นด้านราคาสำหรับเครื่องสำอาง	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันไปร้านนี้เพราะมีการจัดโปรโมชั่นด้านราคาสำหรับเครื่องสำอาง	1	2	3	4	5
4. ป้ายลดราคาดึงดูดให้ฉันเลือกดูเครื่องสำอางประเภทนี้	1	2	3	4	5
การรับชำระเงินด้วยบัตรเครดิต					

261

1. การจ่ายด้วยบัตรเครดิตทำให้ก่งวลน้อยลง เกี่ยวกับจำ นวนเงินที่ าย	1	2	3	4	5
2. การจ่ายด้วยบัตรเครดิตได้รับประโยชน์มากก ว่าการจ่าย ยเงินสด เช่น การสะ allแต้ม กา แบ่งชำระเป็นรายงวด การแบ่งชำระ ้วยยอดขั้นด์ า	1	2	3	4	5
3. การจ่ายด้วยบัตรเครดิตสะดวกกว่ การจ่ายด้วยเงินสด	1	2	3	4	5
4. การจ่ายด้วยบัตรเครดิต ทำให้รู้สึกว่าไม่ได้ใช้เงินตัวเอง ายจริงๆ	1	2	3	4	5
ความหลากหลายของสินค้า					
1. ยี่ห้อที่ ซือ มีเครื่องสำอางหลากหลายชนิด	1	2	3	4	5
2. เมื่อเทียบกับยี่ห้ออื่น ยี่ห้อที่ฉันซื้อมีเครื่องสำอางหล กหลายชนิด	1	2	3	4	5
3. ยี่ห้อที่ฉันซื้อ มีเครื่องสำอางที่ได้รับความนิยมหล ยชนิด	1	2	3	4	5
4. ยี่ห้อที่ฉันซื้อ มักออกเครื่องสำอางชนิดใหม่เสมอ9	1	2	3	4	5
ชั้นวางสินค้าที่เด่นสะดุดตา					
1. ฉันเดินไปที่ชั้นวางเครื่องสำอางยี่ห้อนี้ เพราะมีการจัด วางสินค้าที่น่าสนใจ	1	2	3	4	5
2. ฉันให้ความใส่ใจกับการ วางเครื่องสำอาง	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันสนใจเลือกดูเครื่องสำอาง ตามชั้นวางที่ถูกออกแบบมาอย่างดี	1	2	3	4	5
4. การจัดวางเครื่องสำอางนั้นน่าดึงดูดใจ	1	2	3	4	5
พนักงานขาย					
1. พนักงานขายมีความ	1	2	3	4	5
2. WI:4111WD LIเป็นมิตร	1	2	3	4	5
3. พนักงานขายเต็มใจช่วยเหลือ	1	2	3	4	5
4. IN 14111นขายสุภาIN	1	2	3	4	5
การบริการตนเอง					
1. การบริการตัวเองนั้นสะดวก	1	2	3	4	5
2. การบริก ารตัวเองทำให้ฉันรู้สึกสบายใจ	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันเพลิดเพลินกับการบริการตัวเอง	1	2	3	4	5
4. ฉันพบว่าการบริการตัวเองนั้นเป็นที่น่าพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5
เสียงเพลง					
1. ร้านนี้เปิดเพลงได้เป็นที่พอใจ	1	2	3	4	5
2. ร้านนี้เปิดเพลงเข้ากับบรรยากาศ	1	2	3	4	5
3. ร้านนี้เปิดเพลงไม่ค่อยดี	1	2	3	4	5
4. ร้านนี้เปิดเพลงที่ทำให้ผ่อนคลาย	1	2	3	4	5
ⅲรจัดแสง					
1. ร้านนี้มีการติดตั้งแสงไฟอย่างดี	1	2	3	4	5
2. ร้านนี้มีการติดตั้งแสงไฟได้อย่างเหมาะสม ไม่สว่างหรือมืดจนเกินไป	1	2	3	4	5
3. ร้านนี้มีก ารติดตั้งแสงไฟได้อย่างน่าพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5
4. แสงไฟในร้านนี้ทำให้มองเห็นสีจริงของเครื่องสำอาง	**1**	2	3	4	5
การจัดวางผังร้าน					
1. ฉันสามารถเดินไปมาได้อย่างสะดวกภายในร้านนี้	1	2	3	4	5
2. นส ามารถหาเครื่องสำอางได้อย่างง่ายดายภายในร้านนี้	1	2	3	4	5
3. ชั้นวางเครื่องสำอางไม่สูงจ เกินไป ฉันสามารถหยิบสินค้าได้ด้วยตนเอง	1	2	3	4	5
4. เครื่องสำอ างมีการจัดเรียงอย่างดี และไม่แน่นจนเกินไป	1	2	3	4	5

7. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่ 9 ในข้อ 5* คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมการซื้อตามแรงกระตุ้นเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด

พฤติกรรมการซื้อตามแรงกระตุ้น	ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง	→			เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
1. ฉันซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ โดยไม่ได้วางแผนล่วงหน้า	1	2	3	4	5
2. ก่อนเข้าร้านนี้ ฉันไม่ได้ตั้งใจจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้เลย	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันไม่สามารถหักห้ามใจ ไม่ซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ได้	1	2	3	4	5
4. ตอนเลือกซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ ฉันไม่ได้คิดไตร่ตรองเยอะ	1	2	3	4	5
5. การมาช้อปปิ้งครั้งนี้ทำให้รู้สึกถึงแรงกระตุ้นให้ซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้และฉันก็ซื้อมาในที่สุด	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 3 การประเมินผลหลังการซื้อสินค้า

8. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่__ในข้อ 5* คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อระดับความขัดแย้งภายในใจหลังการซื้อเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด

ปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อระดับความขัดแย้งภายในใจหลังการซื้อ	ไม่เห็นด้วย				เห็นด้วย
ข้อมูลหลังการซื้อ					
1.หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันกลับไปหาข้อมูลสินค้าตามสื่อต่างๆ เพื่อให้มั่นใจว่าฉันตัดสินใจได้ถูกต้องแล้ว	1	2	3	4	5
2.หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันได้สอบถามความคิดเห็นจากเพื่อนหรือคนในครอบครัว เพื่อให้มั่นใจว่าฉันตัดสินใจได้ถูกต้อง	1	2	3	4	5
3 หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันอ่านข้อมูลรีวิวสินค้าที่ไม่ใช่การโฆษณา เพื่อให้มั่นใจว่าฉันตัดสินใจได้ถูกต้องแล้ว	1	2	3	4	5
4. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันมักสังเกตว่าคนอื่นใช้ยี่ห้ออะไรเพื่อให้มั่นใจว่าฉันตัดสินใจได้ถูกต้องแล้ว	1	2	3	4	5
การทุ่มเทความพยายามในการซื้อ					
1. การตัดสินใจซื้อเครื่องสำอางครั้งนี้ สำคัญกับฉันมาก	1	2	3	4	5
2. การตัดสินใจซื้อเครื่องสำอางครั้งนี้ มีความหมายกับฉันมาก	1	2	3	4	5
3. การตัดสินใจซื้อเครื่องสำอางครั้งนี้ บ่งบอกถึงความเป็นตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
4. ฉันใช้เงินไปค่อนข้างมาก ในการซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
5. การตัดสินใจซื้อเครื่องสำอางในครั้งนี้ สำคัญต่อภาพลักษณ์ของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
ความน่าดึงดูดของตัวเลือกสินค้าอื่น 1					
1. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันคิดว่า ยังมีเครื่องสำอางอีกหลายยี่ห้อ ที่ดีกว่ายี่ห้อที่ฉันเลือก	1	2	3	4	5
2. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันคิดว่า ฉันอาจพอใจเครื่องสำอางยี่ห้ออื่น มากกว่ายี่ห้อที่ฉันซื้อ	**1**	2	3	4	5
3. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันคิดว่า ฉันอาจเพลิดเพลินกับประโยชน์ที่ได้จากเครื่องสำอาง all ยี่ห้ออื่น มากกว่า ยี่ห้อที่ฉันซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5
4.หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันพบว่า เครื่องสำอางยี่ห้ออื่น น่าจะตรงกับความต้องการของฉันมากกว่ายี่ห้อ ที่ฉันซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5
ผลที่ได้รับจากเครื่องสำอาง					
1. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันพบว่า เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ ตรงกับความต้องการของฉัน	**1**	2	3	4	5
2. เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ เหมือนกับว่าออกแบบมาเพื่อฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันต้องการใช้เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้แต่งหน้า	1	2	3	4	5
4. ฉันไม่มีอาการแพ้จากการใช้เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5

263

9. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่ 1 ในข้อ 5* คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับความขัดแย้งภายในใจหลังการซื้อเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด

ความขัดแย้งภายในใจหลังการซื้อ	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง		→	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	
ความขัดแย้งภายในใจที่มีต่อการซื้อ					
1. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันควรซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้หรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5
2. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันรู้สึกวิตกกังวลกับการตัดสินใจของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
3. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันซื้อเครื่องสำอางฯ LEI อะเกินไปหรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5
4. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันตัดสินใจเลือกซื้อเครื่องสำอางได้ถูกต้องหรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5
5.หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันคิดว่า ฉันน่าจะใช้เวลาตัดสินใจนานกว่านี้ ในการเลือกซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
ความขัดแย้งภายในใจที่มีต่อตัวสินค้า					
1. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันทำสิ่งที่ถูกต้อหรือไม่ ที่ซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
2. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันต้องการเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้จริงๆหรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5
3. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า อาจมีข้อผิดพลาดกับเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
4. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันถูกหลอกหรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5
5. หลังจากได้ตัดสินใจซื้อไปแล้ว ฉันสงสัยว่า ฉันถูกทำให้เชื่อในตัวเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้หรือไม่	1	2	3	4	5

10. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่ 1 ในข้อ 5* คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับระดับความพึงพอใจเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด

ระดับความพึงพอใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง		← →	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	
1. ฉันรู้สึกพึงพอใจในเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้มาก	1	2	3	4	5
2. ฉันรู้สึกว่า เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ ให้ผลคุ้มค่า	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันรู้สึกว่า เป็นการตัดสินใจที่ฉลาด ที่เลือกซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
4. ประสบการณ์จากการใช้เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ เป็นที่น่าพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 4 ความตั้งใจเชิงพฤติกรรมหลังการซื้อสินค้าฯ

11. *เมื่อนึกถึงการซื้อเครื่องสำอางลำดับที่ 1 ในข้อ 5* คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับความตั้งใจเชิงพฤติกรรมเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด

ความตั้งใจเชิงพฤติกรรมหลังการซื้อสินค้า	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง		→	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	
ความตั้งใจที่จะกลับไปซื้อสินค้าชนิดเดิม					
1. ฉันจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ต่อไปในอนาคต	1	2	3	4	5
2. เป็นไปได้ว่า ฉันจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ เมื่อฉันรู้สึกอยากซื้อเครื่องสำอางประเภทนี้	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันคาดว่าจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้อีก ในอนาคตอันใกล้นี้	1	2	3	4	5
4. เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับยี่ห้ออื่น ในอนาคตฉันอยากซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้มากกว่า	1	2	3	4	5
ความตั้งใจกลับไปซื้อสินค้าชนิดอื่น 1					
1. ฉันตั้งใจจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางประเภทอื่นของยี่ห้อนี้	1	2	3	4	5
2. มีความเป็นไปได้น้อยมาก ที่ฉันจะซื้อเครื่องสำอางประเภทอื่นของยี่ห้อนี้	1	2	3	4	5
3. ในการซื้อเครื่องสำอางในครั้งถัดไป ฉันจะพิจารณาเครื่องสำอางยี่ห้อนี้เป็นอันดับแรก	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

264

4. ฉันจะพิจารณาข้อเสนอของเครื่องสำอางยี่ห้อนี้ ก่อนยี่ห้ออื่น	1	2	3	4	5
ความตั้งใจในการพูดถึงสินค้า					
1. ฉันจะพูดแต่เรื่องดีๆ เกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์โดยรวมจากการใช้เครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้ กับบุคคลรอบข้าง	1	2	3	4	5
2. ฉันจะแนะนำประสบการณ์โดยรวม ให้กับคนที่ต้องการคำแนะนำจากฉัน	1	2	3	4	5
3. ฉันจะสนับสนุน ให้คนอื่นซื้อเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้	1	2	3	4	5
4. ถ้ามีคนให้ฉันแนะนำเครื่องสำอาง ฉันจะพูดเกี่ยวกับเครื่องสำอางชิ้นนี้อย่างละเอียด	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 5　　　 น___

1. เพศ　　　☐ชาย　　　☐ หญิง

2. MEI

3. ระดับการศึกษา　　☐ ต่ำกว่า　　ตรี　☐ปริญ　　　　สูงว่าปริญญาตรี

4. อาชีพ_____ พนักงานบริษัท　ธุรกิ　วนตว　__นักศึก
　　　　☐ รับจ้างทั่วไป/ฟรีแลนซ์　　☐แม่บ้าน　　　011111U　　El อื่นๆ

5. รายได้ครัวเรือน เฉลี่ยต่อเดือน

☐ 7,500 บาทหรือน้อยกว่า　　7,501-15,000 บาท　☐ 15,001-18,000 บาท　☐ 18,001-20,000 Inn

☐ 20,001-30,000 บาท　　☐ 30,001-40,000 บาท　☐ 40,001-50,000 บาท　☐ 50,001-60,000 inn

☐ 60,001-70,000 mil　　☐ 70,001-80,000 บาท　　80,001-85,000 inn　☐ มากกว่า 85,000 บาท

6. สถานภาพสมรส　　☐โสด　　　　　　　　　　ห

ขอขอบคุณสำหรับความอนุเคราะห์ในการตอบแบบสอบถาม

265

APPENDIX V

THE PICTURE OF SELF-SELECTION STORES

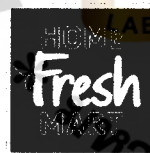**Drugstores where cosmetics are available ร้านขายยาที่มีเครื่องสำอางจำหน่าย**
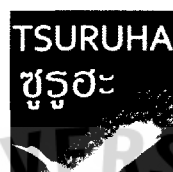
Watsons *your personal store* Boots TSURUHA ซูรูฮะ

Specialty stores where various cosmetic brands are available ร้านขายเครื่องสำอางที่มีให้เลือกหลายแบรนด์

GENKI The Most Delicious Beauty Shop In Town !

Stand-alone stores ร้านขายเครื่องสำอางของแบรนด์

BEAUTY COTTAGE *Natural Crafted Beauty* THEFACESHOP SKIN FOOD since 1957

Supermarkets or hypermarkets ซุปเปอร์มาร์เก็ตหรือไฮเปอร์มาร์เก็ต

Tops ท็อปส์ TESCO Lotus Fresh Mart Big C SUPERCENTER VL VILLA MARKET
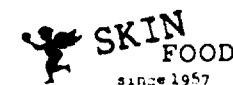
Convenience stores ร้านสะดวกซื้อ

7-ELEVEN FamilyMart

APPENDIX VI
THE SCALE RELIABILITY

Constructs/Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Store environment: Music	.90		
MUSIC1		.804	.940
MUSIC2		.804	.930
MUSIC3		.596	.941
MUSIC4		.770	.951
Store environment: Lighting	.95		
LIGHT1		.890	.940
LIGHT2		.915	.930
LIGHT3		.900	.941
LIGHT4		.872	.951
Store environment: Layout	.9		
LAYOUT1		.816	.866
LAYOUT2		.823	.862
LAYOUT3		.723	.897
LAYOUT4		.764	.925
Store environment: Salesperson	.66		
SALES1		.503	.434
SALES2		.7	.440
SALES3		.417	.610
SALES4		.143	.830
Impulse buying behavior	.50		
IMPULSE1		.599	.334
IMPULSE2		.347	.523
IMPULSE3		.376	.54
IMPULSE4		.123	.648
Post-purchase information	.00		
INFO1		.814	.745
INFO2		.656	.727
INFO3		.873	.721
INFO4		.202	.803

Construct Alpha	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Constructs/Question Items
Brand	.900		
	.805	.843	BRAND1
	.70	.843	BRAND2
	.806	.841	BRAND3
	.47	.851	BRAND4
Price promotion	.935		
	.900	.922	PROMO1
	.900	.925	PROMO2
	.855	.930	PROMO3
	.900	.901	PROMO4
Acceptance of a credit card	.934		
	.93	.909	CREDIT1
	.904	.890	CREDIT2
	.36	.917	CREDIT3
	.54	.945	CREDIT4
Variety of products	.902		
	.621	.909	VARIETY1
	.796	.900	VARIETY2
	.854	.855	VARIETY3
	.850	.86	VARIETY4
Prominent display	.935		
	.100	.923	DISPLAY1
	.2	.924	DISPLAY2
	.6	.900	DISPLAY3
	.00	.904	DISPLAY4
Self-service	.960		
	.5	.963	SELF1
	.1	.945	SELF2
	.3	.939	SELF3
	.1	.944	SELF4

Construct / Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Purchase involvement	.88		
INVOLVE1		.722	.764
INVOLVE2		.783	.763
INVOLVE3		.532	.833
INVOLVE4		.321	.821
INVOLVE5		.759	.769
Attractive alternatives	.90		
ATTRACT1		.210	.901
ATTRACT2		.636	.860
ATTRACT3		.801	.834
ATTRACT4		.715	.902
Cognitive dissonance towards purchase	.90		
CDPUR1		.796	.829
CDPUR2		.818	.825
CDPUR3		.639	.217
CDPUR4		.833	.883
CDPUR5		.721	.883
Cognitive dissonance towards product	.891		
CDPRO1		.735	.860
CDPRO2		.755	.861
CDPRO3		.819	.849
CDPRO4		.719	.872
CDPRO5		.649	.887

Constructs / Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Level of satisfaction	.951		
SAT1		.812	.957
SAT2		.9	.934
SAT3		.930	.921
SAT4		.901	.930
Product performance	.811		
PERFORM1		.720	.694
PERFORM2		.446	.844
PERFORM3		.769	.692
PERFORM4		.556	.797
Repurchase intention	.887		
REPUR1		.829	.870
REPUR2		.746	.852
REPUR3		.621	.906
REPUR4		.835	.823
Cross-buying intention	.892		
CROSS1		.829	.834
CROSS2		.622	.910
CROSS3		.780	.854
CROSS4		.821	.830
Word-of-mouth intention	.955		
WOM1		.870	.947
WOM2		.880	.944
WOM3		.904	.937
WOM4		.909	.935

Constructs/Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Brand	.850		
BRAND1		.600	.852
BRAND2		.646	.832
BRAND3		.820	.747
BRAND4		.810	.758
Price promotion	.95		
PROMO1		.970	.970
PROMO2		.964	.980
PROMO3		.954	.983
PROMO4		.953	.984
Acceptance of a credit card	.9_2		
CREDIT1		.893	.915
CREDIT2		.892	.915
CREDIT3		.904	.911
CREDIT4		.703	.954
Variety of products	.89_		
VARIETY1		.761	.869
VARIETY2		.714	.887
VARIETY3		.772	.863
VARIETY4		.833	.841
Prominent display	.939		
DISPLAY1		.812	.93_
DISPLAY2		.861	.911
DISPLAY3		.852	.921
DISPLAY4		.875	.913
Self-service	.955		
SELF1		.867	.947
SELF2		.894	.939
SELF3		.892	.937
SELF4		.898	.938

Constructs/Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Store environment: Music	.859		
MUSIC1		.816	.875
MUSIC2		.797	.881
MUSIC3		.7__	.9_1
MUSIC4		.760	.8_2
Store environment: Lighting	.911		
LIGHT1		.790	.880
LIGHT2		.807	.883
LIGHT3		.823	.872
LIGHT4		.766	.8_3
Store environment: Layout	.915		
LAYOUT1		.762	.905
LAYOUT2		.829	.883
LAYOUT3		.841	.8_0
LAYOUT4		.802	.893
Store environment: Salesperson	.949		
SALES1		.832	.946
SALES2		.898	.926
SALES3		.881	.931
SALES4		.89_	.928
Impulse buying behavior	.701		
IMPULSE1		.726	_.5
IMPULSE2		.561	_5
IMPULSE3		.__1	_00
IMPULSE4		.393	_6
Post-purchase information	.21		
INFO1		.424	_9
INFO2		.791	.902
INFO3		.812	.900
INFO4		.83_	.891
		.83_	.891

Right table

Constructs/ Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected item–total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Level of satisfaction	.950		
SAT1		.8	.9 1
SAT2		.00	.9 1
SAT3		.2	.9 1
SAT4		.9	.26
Product performance	.903		
PERFORM1		7	.82
PERFORM2		7	.89
PERFORM3		00	.89
PERFORM4		7 1	.8'3
Repurchase intention	.889		
REPUR1		00	.89
REPUR2		5	.829
REPUR3		6 3	.922
REPUR4		4	.839
Cross-buying intention	.885		
CROSS1		1	.57
CROSS2		0	.9 7
CROSS3		7	.04
CROSS4		5	.00
Word-of-mouth intention			
WOM1		3	.926
WOM2		4	.92
WOM3		00	.922
WOM4		7	.915

Left table

Constructs/ Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected item–total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
Purchase involvement	.897		
INVOLVE1		00	.845
INVOLVE2		00	.847
INVOLVE3		00	.849
INVOLVE4		00	.966
Attractive alternatives	.922		
ATTRACT1		.900	.971
ATTRACT2		.946	.950
ATTRACT3		.94	.959
ATTRACT4		.930	.966
Cognitive dissonance towards purchase	.951		
CDPUR1		.860	.942
CDPUR2		.855	.94
CDPUR3		.855	.942
CDPUR4		.886	.937
CDPUR5		.876	.930
Cognitive dissonance towards product	.959		
CDPRO1		.88	.950
CDPRO2		.88	.9 6
CDPRO3		.88	.9 0
CDPRO4		.88	.9
CDPRO5		.995	

APPENDIX VII
THE MEASUREMENT MODEL
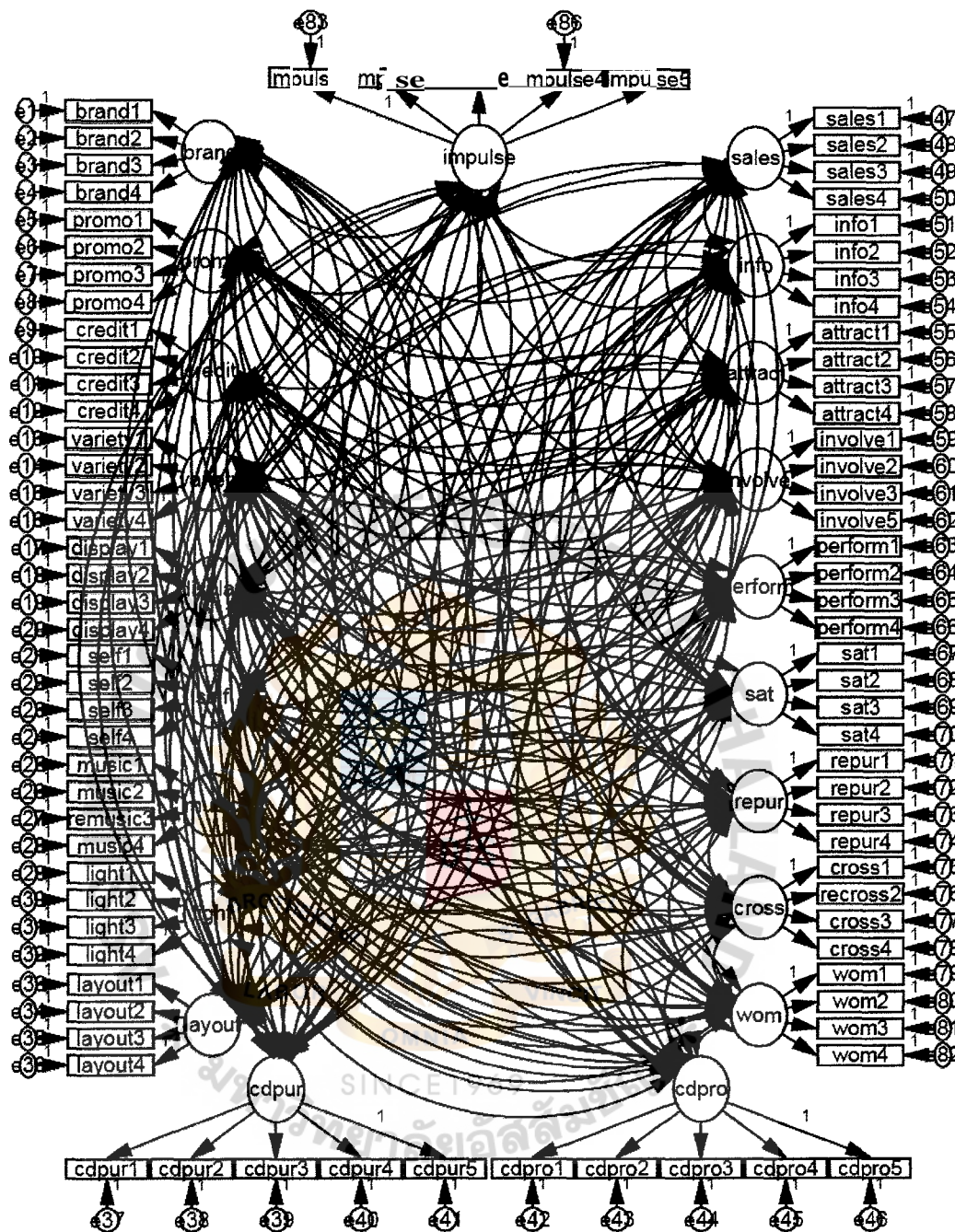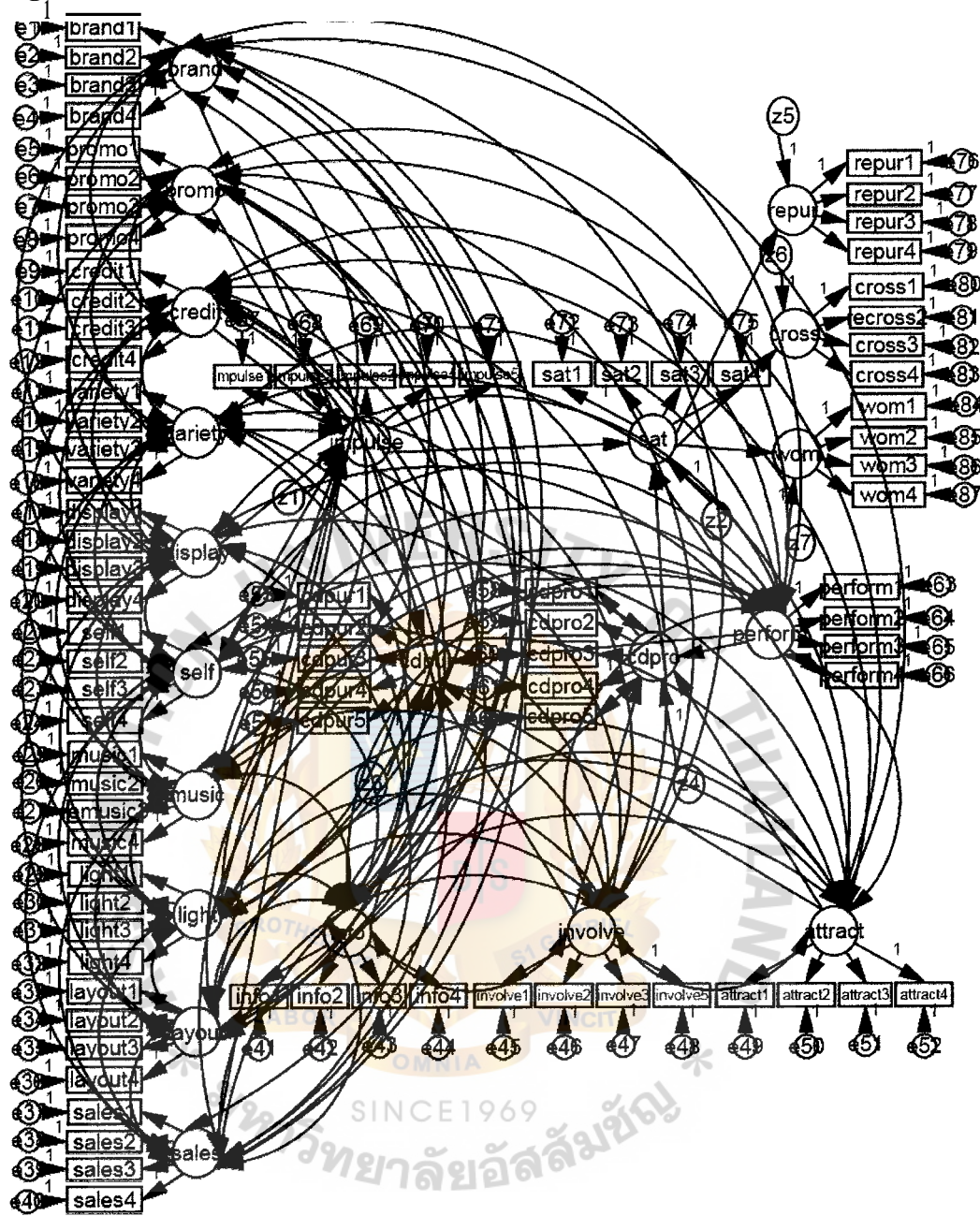AND THE PATH MODEL

Figure 1: The Measurement Model

Figure 2: The Path Model

APPENDIX VIII
THE PHOTOGRAPHS OF DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

276

Data Collection Procedures

Stage I: The data collectors approached the target respondents by politely introducing themselves and screening for their demographic characteristics and impulse buying behavior. To ensure that the respondents understood different types of cosmetics self-selection stores, they were shown pictures of different types of cosmetics self-selection stores. If the respondents did not understand the differences between each type of stores, the data collectors would further explain the characteristics of each store type. (For the picture of self-selection store types, see Appendix VI)

Stage II: The data collectors collected the data by face-to-face interview with polite and friendly manners. During the data collection, the data collectors were observed and evaluated by a supervisor to ensure that all data collectors administered the questionnaire in a similar manner so that uniform data collection could be achieved.
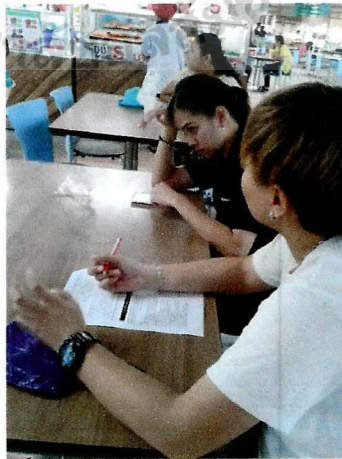
Stage III: After the interview was finished, the souvenir (cosmetics pouch) was given to the respondents as the appreciation for their kind cooperation.

278