

DETERMINANTS OF YOUNG MALAYSIAN ADULTS' FAST FOOD PURCHASING INTENTION

Ing @ Grace Phang^{*1}, Zaiton Osman^{*1} and Javen Elfe Ginajil¹

¹Faculty of Business, Economics and Accountancy, Universiti Malaysia Sabah,
Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia

*Corresponding author's email:

gracep@ums.edu.my; zaiosman@ums.edu.my

Received: 6 April 2020

Accepted: 8 October 2020

Keywords: theory of planned
behaviour, mood, young adult, fast
food

ABSTRACT

This paper extended the theory of planned behaviour model to fast food buying scenario among young Malaysian adults. Several factors constituted to the development and maintenance of attitude were tested and the influences of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behaviour control on purchase intention were further examined. A total of 210 valid responses were used. Malaysian young adults were found to stress more on the convenience aspect in forming their attitude while relying more on affective attitude to form buying intention. The impact of mood on attitude was introduced and the findings indicated that mood has significant impacts on both affective and cognitive attitudes. Both descriptive norm and injunctive norm were significance to purchase intention implying the influences of social approval and acceptance in fast food buying. Even though the influence of perceived control was weak, self-efficacy was strong in predicting fast food purchasing intention. The findings help marketing practitioners and academicians in planning for more effective societal marketing strategies to promote a healthy diet among young adults.

INTRODUCTION

Malaysian dietary patterns have changed over the past four decades (1960 – 2000) as a result of the emerging food processing technology that increases the amount of food availability

(Malaysian Association for the Study of Obesity, 1994). Malaysians' attitude and social behaviours have been changed consequently and eating out and buying food outside are preferable than home cooking (Razak, Abidin, Yusof, Sakarji & Nor, 2014). This emerging trend has increased rapidly especially among the dual-income households who spend most of their income on food (Lee & Tan, 2007). The fast food industry in Malaysia especially has experienced enormous growth and success. The industry growth reaches MYR5.5 billion with 3,951 outlets in 2014 and is expected to grow healthily to reach MYR7.7 billion with 5,400 outlets by 2019 (Euromonitor, 2015).

According to Gallup Poll (Dugan, 2013), young adults eat the fastest food; with 57 per cent consume fast food at least once a week. The high popularity of fast food among young Malaysian adults is encouraged by aggressive marketing campaigns and outlet expansion by chained fast food restaurants. In 2014, chained fast food restaurants in Malaysia enjoyed a 13 per cent growth (Euromonitor, 2015). Tempting offers such as free coupons, membership discount, value set discount, free side dishes and beverage make fast food more affordable for young adults compared to full-services restaurants (Davey, Allotey & Reidpath, 2013; Euromonitor, 2015). Even though eat-in remains a popular option (62.5 per cent), the expanding rate of the drive-through and delivery services as well as the 24/7 operation system have made fast food highly accessible and encourage late-night suppers trend among young Malaysian adults (Euromonitor, 2015).

Malaysians treat fast food as a treat and usually engaging in a celebratory mood when consuming it. This phenomenon has raised concern among dietician and health professionals because dietary belief and habits that are form during young adulthood might influence future health status (Blodin et al., 2016), and pass down this unhealthy lifestyle to the next generation. The health effect of

fast food is clear and public known. However, young adults still purchase fast food regularly (Dunn, Mohr, Wilson & Wittert, 2011).

The subject of fast food purchasing intention has been explored in various studies (Bagozzi, Wong, Abe & Bergami, 2000; Frank, 2012; Mahon, Cowan & McCarthy, 2006). Unfortunately, there is yet any attitudinal model to clarify the variance in fast food purchasing intention (Dunn et al., 2011). Dunn et al. (2011) has taken the initiative to specify the factors that influence the progress and build-up of attitude related to fast food purchasing intention and consumption to improve the attitudinal model fit. However, the study is based in Australia and generalization to a multi-racial and multi-religion society like Malaysian could be inappropriate due to cultural and social-economic differences. Also, western and Asian consumers are found to hold different values in their shopping preferences (Ackerman & Tellis, 2001).

The Malaysian studies on fast food consumption (Naina Mohamed & Mohd Daud, 2012; Osman, Osman, Mokhtar, Setapa, Shukor & Temyati, 2014) have yet to focus on measuring the development and maintenance of young consumers attitude toward fast food. Importantly, there is only a small number of studies are adapting Theory of Planned Behaviour to examine the consumption or purchase intention in the field of fast food, ready meal, and take away (Bagozzi et al., 2000). Fast food is not a staple food in Malaysia. It is affordable but not cheap. An à la carte double cheeseburger costs only \$1.59 in the United States; in Malaysia, the same burger is priced at RM8.95 (Euromonitor, 2015). Since it is more premium compared to local delicacies which are cheaper, healthier, and tastier; an application model of TPB (Ajzen, 1985, 1991, 2015) should be used assuming the decision to purchase fast food is neither impulsive nor heuristic. In other words, consumers actually plan for their purchase and are influenced by attitude, perceived behavioural control and subjective norm.

This research hence answers several research objectives: to assess the influence of (1) convenience (2) satisfaction (3) social conscience and (4) mood in influencing young adults' attitude (affective and cognitive) toward fast food; and to investigate the relationships between young adults' (5) attitude (affective and cognitive), (6) subjective norm (normative and descriptive) and (7) perceived behavioural control (perception of control and self-efficacy) and fast food purchasing intention.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1985, 1991, 2015) is a model that predicts consumers purchasing intention and behavioural usage towards a certain brand of product compared to the availability of a choice. In the TPB model, the intention is measured by three sets of belief namely attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1985, 1991, 2015). Attitude towards the behaviour is consumer's "degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). In the case of fast food, a consumer with positive attitudes should have a higher intention to buy fast food.

Affective attitude refers to "individual's general level of positive or negative feelings concerning the issue" while cognitive attitude refers to "individual's beliefs about the instrumental utility of the action for the attainment or blocking of his or her goals weighted by the value placed on such goals" (Norman, 1975 as cited in Jun and Arendt, 2016, p. 107). The strong emotional reaction toward the risk and reward associated in performing a certain behaviour (Finucane, Alhakami, Slovic, & Johnson, 2000; Dunn et al., 2011) is stronger when cognitive responses are restricted (Finucane et al., 2000) or when time is limited. In the food selection, cognitive attitude is consistently used by individuals with plenty of cognitive resources and do

not tend to engage in impulsivity (Trendel & Werle, 2016).

Convenience to assess food is an important consideration in today busy working lifestyle. To fulfil consumer demand for convenience, fast food restaurants with drive-through or home delivery services (Euromonitor, 2015) are found available not only in shopping malls but also in designated rest place and gas station (Osman et al., 2014). The luxurious convenience aspect suppresses the negative attitudes toward fast food to the extent people make a trade-off between convenience and future negative effects (Dunn et al., 2011). The aspects of convenience are not limited to the essence of quality time, but also on the physical and mental determinations related to food preparing activity, and the cleaning activity afterwards (Buckley, Cowan & McCarthy, 2007). Neumark-Sztainer, Story, Perry and Cassey (1999) for instance argued that modern families choose not to spend time in preparing foods even when they have time to do so, they rather get foods that are convenient to reduce the amount of task that they perform. Past studies conducted in Great Britain also found a positive relationship between the emerging women workforce and the demand for convenient food (Senaur, Asp & Kinsey, 1991; Buckley et al., 2007). Therefore:

- H1_a: There is a positive relationship between convenience and affective attitude.
- H1_b: There is a positive relationship between convenience and cognitive attitude.

The components of fun and enjoyment are important selection criteria of a specific type of food. Healthy food is generally perceived as boring, not fun, and not enjoyable (Chan & Tsang, 2011), whilst indulgence good such as fast food is found best to provide sensual pleasure (Drewnowski, 1999). Even though it does not generally portray a good image, the sensual pleasure and satisfaction on consuming fast food could alter consumer attitude toward fast food. Fast food consumers

tend to neglect the potential health effect and weighting more on the hedonic value (Frank, 2012) in gaining satisfaction, which is “*a sensual pleasure and exciting experience for oneself; a self-fulfilment response*” (Oliver, 1997, p. 34). The amount of calorie, fat, salt, and sugar content in fast food meals is often undervalued, whilst the nutritional value is overvalued (Teisl, Levy & Derby, 1999). Besides, the compromising act between short-term rewards and the potential long-term consequences is often made when it comes to purchasing and consuming fast food (Dunn et al., 2011). In other words, the perceived healthiness of fast food was not found to be significantly associated with the rate of fast food consumption (Dave, An, Jeffery & Ahluwalia, 2009) but satisfaction with the fast food in term of fun and enjoyment is. Therefore:

H2_a: There is a positive relationship between satisfaction and affective attitude.

H2_b: There is a positive relationship between satisfaction and cognitive attitude.

It is argued that the increase of consumers’ social awareness in the aspect of health, environment, family values and lifestyles, quality of life, and the consequences to these aspects when they consume fast food are found to affect people attitudes toward fast food (Osman et al., 2014). An individual with a higher level of social conscience should shy away from indulgent food (Teisl et al., 1999) as they form unfavourable attitudes toward fast food. Therefore:

H3_a: There is a negative relationship between social conscience and affective attitude.

H3_b: There is a negative relationship between social conscience and cognitive attitude.

The mood can influence an individual food selection process in terms of the amount and type of food (Jáuregui-Lobera, Bolaños-Ríos, Valero & Prieto, 2012). Food is viewed differently when people are happy, bored, stressed, depressed, or angered (Neumark-

Sztainer et al., 1999). Food is also used to cope with stress and reduce negative emotions (Van Strien et al., 2013; Collins & Stafford, 2014; Kroes, Wingen, Wittwer, Mohajeri, Kloek & Fernandez, 2013). Researchers found out that people tend to consume more indulgent food in a negative (Van Strien et al., 2013) and positive mood states (Collins & Stafford, 2014) compared to people in a neutral mood. Hence, people try to increase food consumption to maintain a positive mood. Importantly, Gutjar, Graaf, Kooijman, Wijk, Nys, Horst, and Jager (2015) found that food liking is somewhat linked to the emotional responses to the product while food choices were mainly associated with positive emotions. Consuming indulgent food could enhance an individual mood (Van Strien et al., 2013; Collins & Stafford, 2014; Kroes et al., 2013) because food that is high in sodium, glucose, and fat provide a higher level of sensual pleasure (Drewnowski, 1999; Gardner, Wansink, Kim & Park, 2011) and promote favourable attitudes. Therefore:

H4_a: There is a positive relationship between mood and affective attitude.

H4_b: There is a positive relationship between mood and cognitive attitude.

Affective attitude is crucial because of people’s strong emotional reaction toward the risk and reward associated in performing certain behaviour (Finucane et al., 2000; Dunn et al., 2011). It is argued that people consume fast food even when they are well aware of the health effect of fast food (Dave et al., 2009). Similarly, cognitive attitude also affects purchase intention, especially when fast food is neither staple nor cheap. Therefore:

H5_a: There is a positive relationship between affective attitude toward fast food and purchase intention.

H5_b: There is a positive relationship between cognitive attitude toward fast food and purchase intention.

Subjective norm refers to *"the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour"* (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). It consists of two components which are the injunctive norm (refers to what other people think) and descriptive norm (refers to how other people behave). It is argued that fast food buying is closely influenced by social factors based on how other people view them and what is socially accepted by social group. Dunn et al. (2011), proposed the possibility of the path between subjective norm and fast food buying intention to be affected by the fear of being negatively judged by the society, which has found to predict drive for body image concern, weight control and eating restraint (Levinson & Rodebaugh, 2011). An injunctive norm which refers to *"perceptions of which behaviours are typically approved or disapproved"* (Cialdini, 2003, p. 105) might influence an individual fast food consumption behaviour and intention. Descriptive norm refers to *"perceptions of which behaviours are typically performed"* (Cialdini, 2003, p. 105). It might be stronger than the injunctive norm because the descriptive norm is an actual behaviour demonstrated by the society despite the moral component of a specific action (Hamann, Reese, Seewald & Loeschinger, 2015). Therefore,

H6_a: There is a positive relationship between the descriptive norm and purchase intention.

H6_b: There is a positive relationship between the injunctive norm and purchase intention.

The third dimension in TPB model is perceived behavioural control which measures *"perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles"* (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). An individual's capability to purchase fast food and the level of confidence in doing so is determined by perceived behavioural control (PCB; Ajzen, 1985, 1991 & 2015). Perceived control is able to consciously influence an

individual behaviour under a specific event environment (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992) as it explains the ability and resource of an individual to overcome an obstacle in developing a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Bandura (1982, p.122 in Ajzen, 1991) specifies that self-efficacy *"is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with the prospective situation"*. It is important in developing an intention to perform because it is the root of self-confidence and perseverance in achieving it. In the case of fast food consumption, consumers with high perceived behavioural control should be able to restrain themselves from fast food. Therefore:

H7_a: There is a negative relationship between the perception of control and purchase intention.

H7_b: There is a negative relationship between self-efficacy and purchase intention.

METHODOLOGY

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a theory supported by concrete empirical validation to determine the intention to perform a specific behaviour based on a pinpoint prediction from attitude, social norm, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1985, 1991, 2015). Even though TPB has successfully explained the motivation behind the various type of behaviour; however, the usage of TPB in predicting food choices and eating behaviour appear to be relatively weaker (Dunn et al., 2011). Attitude is posited as the main predictor in TPB to determine food purchasing intention. Therefore, this research used an adapted conceptual framework proposed by Dunn et al. (2011) to enhance and improve the predictability and operation ability of the variables by measuring the factors that underlie the attitude to the behaviour. It is assumed that a person intends to perform behaviour will increase when he/she holds a positive attitude, favourable subjective norm and with a weak perceived behavioural control.

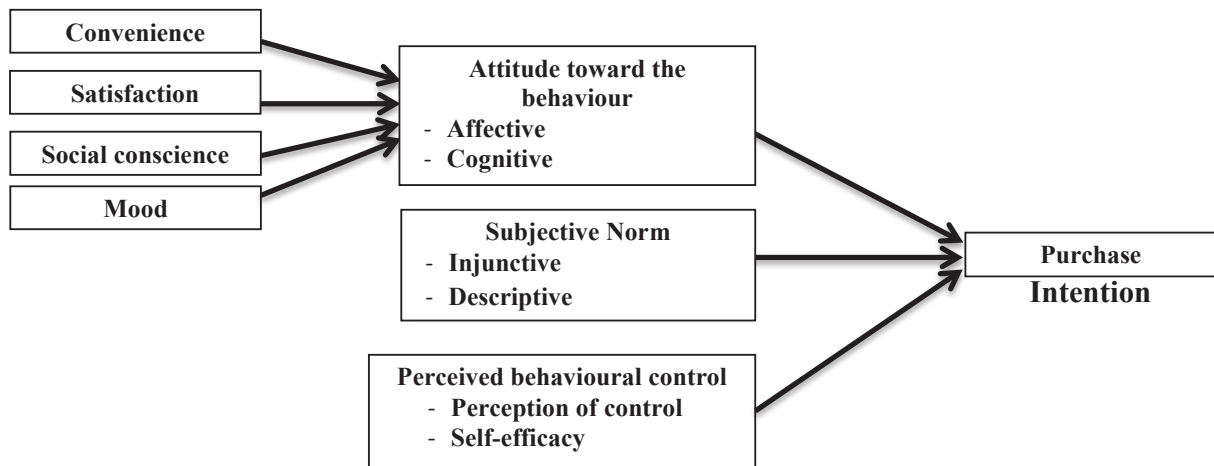


Figure 1 Conceptual model

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 210 valid questionnaires were used, with a response rate of 87.6 per cent. The samples were young Malaysian adults' aged between 20 – 40 years old. This age range was considered suitable as they consumed the fastest food (Dugan, 2013) and no longer dependable or required their parents' permission in food purchase. The sample size for this study was estimated using G-power analysis software at 90 per cent with an effect size of 0.15 (Cohen, 1998). The minimum sample size generated by G-power analysis was estimated at 129. The current sample size was hence appropriate.

Majority of the respondents were single (77.6 per cent) male (51 per cent) who aged between 25 – 29 years old (46.7 per cent). The age group distribution was representative of the Malaysian population (Department of Statistic Malaysia, 2010), where young adults aged 20 – 24 years old constituted the largest age group in Malaysia. The majority of them held a bachelor's degree (46 per cent) and worked with the private sector (34.8 per cent).

In term of fast food consumption pattern, all respondents reported to 'have' or 'currently is an active user' of fast food. Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) was the most popular fast food brand among the consumers (46.2 per cent), followed by McDonald's (36.2 per cent), Subway (8.1 per cent), Burger King (5.2 per cent), A&W (1.4 per cent) and others (2.4 per cent). 'Eat in' remained as the most preferred method to get fast food (54.3 per cent), followed by 'take away' (27.6 per cent), 'drive-through' (11.9 per cent) and 'delivery services' (6.2 per cent). The frequency of average fast food consumption in a week had been converted into two categories which were high and low, by the median split. 86.2 per cent of the respondent was categorized into high consumption while 13.8 per cent was categorized into low consumption.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Refer to Table 1, all item loadings were larger than 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and all AVE were exceeded 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliability (CR) exceeded 0.8 (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000) indicated sufficient convergence or internal consistency.

Table 1 Factor loadings, composite reliability and average variance extracted

Construct	Item	Loading	AVE	CR
Convenience	CON2	0.569702	0.538572	0.821268
	CON3	0.79337		
	CON4	0.760987		
	CON7	0.788157		
Satisfaction	SAS1	0.700886	0.507636	0.911018
	SAS2	0.761897		
	SAS3	0.650477		
	SAS4	0.691123		
	SAS5	0.746103		
	SAS6	0.731453		
	SAS7	0.775553		
	SAS8	0.735158		
	SAS9	0.564966		
	SAS10	0.742321		
Social conscience	SC2	0.580186	0.558179	0.83237
	SC3	0.740299		
	SC4	0.831238		
	SC5	0.810617		
	MD1	0.769556		
Mood	MD2	0.737766	0.611819	0.90418
	MD3	0.8522		
	MD4	0.787977		
	MD5	0.78783		
	MD6	0.75271		
	AA1	0.818275		
Affective attitude	AA10	0.752436	0.575595	0.870797
	AA2	0.819319		
	AA4	0.731006		
	AA9	0.660749		
	CA2	0.856692		
Cognitive attitude	CA3	0.886086	0.596198	0.808557
	CA5	0.519157		
	IJN1	0.696037		
Injunctive norm	IJN2	0.823137	0.549068	0.858341
	IJN3	0.764542		
	IJN4	0.680579		
	IJN5	0.73185		
	SBN1	0.880907		
Descriptive norm	SBN2	0.930263	0.812098	0.92836
	SBN3	0.891576		
	POC1	0.747524		
Perception of control	POC2	0.680856	0.616035	0.864069
	POC4	0.807764		
	POC5	0.888425		

Self-efficacy	SE2	0.89881	0.734565	0.846649
	SE3	0.813186		
Purchase intention	PI1	0.806466	0.603766	0.882376
	PI2	0.872574		
	PI3	0.79611		
	PI4	0.792637		
	PI5	0.587359		

Note: a. CR = (square of the summation of the factor loading) / (square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variance); b. AVE = (summation of the square if the factor loading) / (summation of the square of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)

Refer to Table 2, we have ensured the convergent validity because all the indicators load much higher in their hypothesized factor than on the other factors (Chin, 1998). Besides, the square root of the AVE was tested against the inter-correlation of the construct with the other construct in the model in Table 3 (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and the data reflected good discriminant validity.

Table 2 Cross loadings of items

Items	AFF	COG	CON	INJ	MD	INT	POC	SATIS	DESC	SC	SE
AA1	0.818	0.268	0.233	0.329	0.506	0.359	0.180	0.442	0.218	-0.125	-0.124
AA10	0.752	0.193	0.222	0.183	0.417	0.292	0.131	0.467	0.251	-0.091	-0.120
AA2	0.819	0.200	0.209	0.259	0.492	0.348	0.172	0.416	0.204	-0.100	-0.136
AA4	0.731	0.225	0.252	0.260	0.416	0.352	0.117	0.429	0.297	0.038	-0.096
AA9	0.661	0.152	0.044	0.080	0.254	0.270	0.159	0.254	0.205	-0.154	-0.225
CA2	0.176	0.857	0.345	0.211	0.256	0.128	-0.078	0.246	0.099	-0.044	0.020
CA3	0.243	0.886	0.399	0.253	0.233	0.201	-0.224	0.310	0.087	-0.060	0.072
CA5	0.260	0.519	0.104	0.079	0.171	0.216	-0.034	0.129	0.234	0.055	-0.065
CON2	0.019	0.219	0.570	0.077	0.231	0.100	-0.133	0.256	0.052	0.113	0.035
CON3	0.158	0.338	0.793	0.151	0.200	0.058	-0.200	0.336	-0.006	0.028	0.125
CON4	0.290	0.290	0.761	0.189	0.236	0.155	-0.072	0.321	0.135	0.023	0.025
CON7	0.233	0.309	0.788	0.208	0.242	0.232	-0.089	0.422	0.126	-0.001	0.015
IJN1	0.185	0.184	0.148	0.696	0.343	0.337	0.017	0.311	0.509	-0.120	-0.209
IJN2	0.180	0.247	0.168	0.823	0.381	0.409	-0.029	0.261	0.445	0.046	-0.194
IJN3	0.252	0.123	0.180	0.765	0.373	0.292	0.053	0.316	0.276	0.021	-0.182
IJN4	0.246	0.126	0.171	0.681	0.354	0.246	-0.001	0.300	0.185	0.003	-0.054
IJN5	0.301	0.223	0.172	0.732	0.368	0.332	-0.007	0.296	0.218	0.016	-0.080
MD1	0.465	0.291	0.203	0.420	0.770	0.374	0.128	0.595	0.299	-0.156	-0.095
MD2	0.406	0.235	0.271	0.421	0.738	0.328	0.046	0.614	0.237	-0.097	0.056
MD3	0.444	0.269	0.242	0.356	0.852	0.398	0.074	0.529	0.342	-0.074	-0.082
MD4	0.473	0.168	0.281	0.284	0.788	0.310	0.188	0.526	0.372	-0.008	-0.170
MD5	0.461	0.142	0.211	0.454	0.788	0.353	0.184	0.484	0.360	0.074	-0.131
MD6	0.388	0.227	0.214	0.363	0.753	0.304	0.131	0.461	0.475	-0.038	-0.115
PI1	0.350	0.181	0.115	0.221	0.311	0.806	0.131	0.300	0.395	-0.063	-0.272
PI2	0.375	0.154	0.178	0.385	0.399	0.873	0.072	0.365	0.362	-0.035	-0.239
PI3	0.286	0.172	0.173	0.433	0.373	0.796	-0.007	0.336	0.431	-0.020	-0.141
PI4	0.405	0.172	0.147	0.374	0.364	0.793	0.126	0.350	0.335	-0.076	-0.224
PI5	0.237	0.211	0.117	0.307	0.248	0.587	-0.052	0.268	0.112	-0.118	-0.045
POC1	0.209	-0.146	-0.097	-0.048	0.131	0.052	0.748	0.023	0.107	-0.019	-0.351

POC2	0.085	-0.128	-0.102	-0.015	0.023	0.020	0.681	-0.071	0.112	0.041	-0.418
POC4	0.166	-0.085	-0.116	0.016	0.146	0.050	0.808	0.127	0.238	-0.060	-0.548
POC5	0.150	-0.155	-0.165	0.033	0.145	0.089	0.888	0.035	0.131	-0.119	-0.527
SAS1	0.375	0.211	0.394	0.370	0.476	0.239	-0.037	0.701	0.146	-0.129	0.071
SAS10	0.363	0.278	0.365	0.187	0.454	0.285	-0.018	0.742	0.185	-0.166	-0.012
SAS2	0.399	0.202	0.392	0.326	0.453	0.300	-0.031	0.762	0.237	-0.204	-0.042
SAS3	0.311	0.283	0.413	0.222	0.403	0.275	-0.045	0.650	0.201	-0.026	-0.009
SAS4	0.331	0.125	0.180	0.312	0.544	0.298	0.066	0.691	0.269	-0.101	-0.070
SAS5	0.397	0.227	0.298	0.359	0.604	0.278	0.111	0.746	0.318	-0.005	-0.140
SAS6	0.431	0.272	0.348	0.355	0.589	0.312	0.190	0.731	0.337	0.030	-0.188
SAS7	0.492	0.237	0.352	0.307	0.553	0.424	0.085	0.776	0.256	-0.093	-0.057
SAS8	0.436	0.183	0.276	0.176	0.474	0.374	0.032	0.735	0.228	-0.253	-0.028
SAS9	0.229	0.176	0.212	0.179	0.275	0.118	-0.028	0.565	0.050	-0.117	0.034
SBN1	0.273	0.149	0.107	0.411	0.461	0.356	0.202	0.311	0.881	0.085	-0.267
SBN2	0.265	0.125	0.109	0.409	0.392	0.443	0.163	0.295	0.930	0.003	-0.288
SBN3	0.301	0.144	0.079	0.420	0.348	0.376	0.131	0.265	0.892	-0.005	-0.271
SC2	-0.056	-0.017	0.054	-0.082	-0.069	-0.098	-0.073	-0.096	-0.086	0.580	0.099
SC3	-0.072	0.028	0.080	-0.032	-0.057	-0.026	-0.127	-0.118	-0.006	0.740	0.045
SC4	-0.077	-0.078	-0.002	-0.006	-0.045	-0.059	-0.040	-0.165	0.013	0.831	0.036
SC5	-0.108	-0.021	0.021	0.049	-0.044	-0.047	-0.038	-0.068	0.101	0.811	-0.039
SE2	-0.235	-0.021	0.030	-0.173	-0.138	-0.239	-0.542	-0.100	-0.256	0.055	0.899
SE3	-0.040	0.089	0.096	-0.174	-0.048	-0.180	-0.458	-0.006	-0.274	-0.010	0.813

Note: Diagonals (in bold) represent the loadings of an indicator on its assigned latent variable.

Table 3 Discriminant validity

Item	AFF	COG	CON	DESC	INJ	MD	POC	SATIS	SE	SC	INT
AFF	0.759										
COG	0.278	0.772									
CON	0.265	0.398	0.739								
DESC	0.309	0.153	0.110	0.901							
INJ	0.307	0.252	0.224	0.458	0.741						
MD	0.563	0.286	0.303	0.442	0.489	0.782					
POC	0.199	-0.164	-0.161	0.182	0.006	0.160	0.784				
SATIS	0.539	0.311	0.459	0.322	0.395	0.686	0.054	0.712			
SE	-0.176	0.030	0.068	-0.306	-0.201	-0.115	-0.587	-0.069	0.857		
SC	-0.108	-0.038	0.040	0.028	-0.008	-0.067	-0.080	-0.146	0.031	0.747	
INT	0.430	0.222	0.190	0.438	0.445	0.442	0.078	0.419	-0.247	-0.073	0.777

Q^2 value test was included in explaining predictive relevance (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). The Q^2 value was obtained using blindfolding analysis (Hair et al., 2016). A Q^2 value of > 0 reflects predictive relevance and vice versa (Fornell & Cha, 1994). Based on the information of Table 4, all measurement items were shown to have predictive relevance.

Table 4 Q² testing

Item	Q ₂
Affective	0.205058
Cognitive	0.111506
Convenience	0.538598
Descriptive	0.812271
Injunctive	0.549073
Mood	0.611822
Poc	0.542144
Satisfaction	0.50763
Self-efficacy	0.73358
Social conscience	0.557939
Intention	0.183532

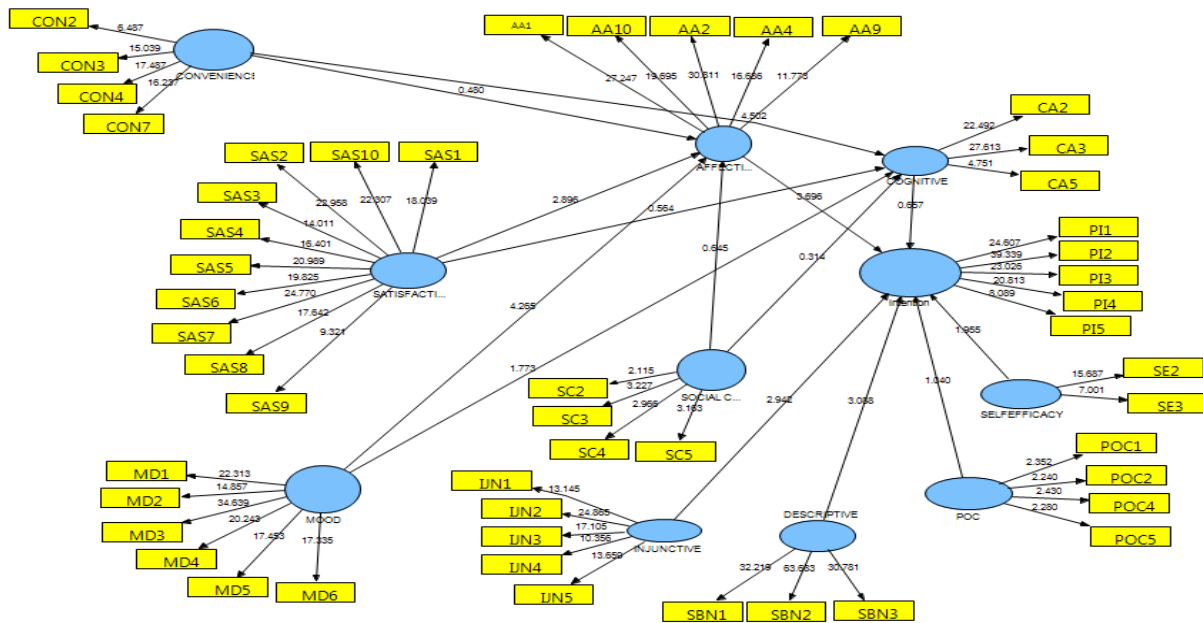


Figure 3 Structural model

Table 5 Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Path	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-Value	Decision
H1	CON -> AFF	0.034204	0.071329	0.47953	Not supported
H2	CON -> COG	0.329429	0.073181	4.50158**	Supported
H3	SATIS -> AFF	0.262925	0.090782	2.89621**	Supported
H4	SATIS -> COG	0.05496	0.09752	0.56358	Not supported
H5	SC -> AFF	-0.04651	0.072106	0.64496	Not supported
H6	SC -> COG	-0.03315	0.105489	0.31422	Not supported
H7	MD -> AFF	0.369656	0.086667	4.26524**	Supported
H8	MD -> COG	0.14615	0.082447	1.77266*	Supported
H9	AFF-> INT	0.276245	0.074735	3.69631**	Supported
H10	COG -> INT	0.045337	0.069039	0.65669	Not supported
H11	DESC -> INT	0.217547	0.070444	3.08824**	Supported
H12	INJ -> INT	0.22077	0.075049	2.9417**	Supported
H13	POC -> INT	-0.09518	0.09149	1.04038	Not supported
H14	SE -> INT	-0.145	0.074182	1.9546*	Supported

Note: ** $P < 0.01$, * $P < 0.05$

Table 5 presented the results of the hypothesis testing. First of all, there was no significant relationship found between the convenience of getting fast food and affective attitude ($t = 0.4795$) hence not supporting hypothesis 1(a). The significant t -value of 4.502 for convenience-cognitive attitude link supported hypothesis 1(b). These findings are consistent with Dunn et al.'s (2011) study that convenience dimensions such as accessibility and availability have very few explanations of the variability towards an individual affective attitude. It is argued that in Malaysian context whereby fast food is neither a staple food nor considered cheap, convenience is hence more relevant to the rational side of an individual's overall attitude, rather than the emotional aspects. The Malaysian government has heavily promoted and supported western fast food franchises under the 9th Malaysian Plan (9MP). The effort is continued by the 10th Malaysian Plan (10MP), whereby 55 per cent of women workforce is targeted by the year 2015, along with the support of Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (MWFCD, 2014). The growing number of working women is expected to disrupt the traditional mealtime, increase the importance of fast food purchasing intention and contribute to the rapid growth of fast food industry (Dunn et al., 2011) in Malaysia. The aspect of convenience is considered important to the young population even they do not earn much (Glanz, Basil, Maibach, Goldberg & Snyder, 1998).

Contradictory, satisfaction was found to have significant relationship with affective attitude ($t = 2.896$), but not cognitive attitude ($t = 0.56358$). These results are consistent with Dunn et al. (2011)'s study whereby satisfactory provided by fast food has a strong relationship with an individual's affective attitude. An increase in favourable or positive affective attitude is caused by the high level of satisfaction experienced from using or consuming a specific product (Westbrook, 1980). Rather than seeing the

concept of satisfaction as a mere outcome of experiencing, using, or consuming a service or a product, the current study and Dunn et al. (2011)'s study viewed satisfaction as part of consumers' knowledge, experience, and information from past consumption. The high proportion of respondents who were heavy consumers of fast food (86.2 per cent) might explain the significant relationship between satisfaction and affective attitude. These heavy users gained satisfaction from their consumption and hence form favourable attitudes toward fast food. This scenario is also validated by the increase in children and adolescents' obesity rate due to the radical growth of the fast food industry (Seubsman, Kelly, Yuthapornpinit). Consumers seemed to choose the more 'enjoyable' fast food over healthy food even when they are well aware of its negative effects (Osman et al., 2014, Dunn et al., 2011). The possible explanation for the insignificant result between satisfaction and cognitive attitude could be due to the general belief that fast food consumption was harmful. Consumers hence were unable to associate the enjoyable experience of eating fast food to their rational side of attitude.

The insignificant t -values between social conscience and affective attitude ($t = 0.645$) and cognitive attitudes ($t = 0.314$) indicated both H2 (a) and H2 (b) are not supported. These findings are inconsistent with Dunn et al. (2011)'s study, even though the negative standard betas for both relationships were in the expected directions, the relationships were insignificant. Dunn et al. argue that as an individual is having a high level of concern regarding the impact of fast food on the social issue, he/she will experience a lower level of acceptance toward fast food. In this study, the insignificant relationships could be due to the low civic consciousness among Malaysian (Ahmad, Rahim, Pawanteh & Ahmad, 2012) in which respondents failed to link fast food consumption to social issues such as environmental protection, family eating tradition, values and lifestyles.

The relationship between mood and affective is significant ($t = 4.265$) hence supported hypothesis 3 (a). This finding is consistent with Drewnowski (1999) and Gardner et al. (2011) whereby an individual mood is able to influence his/her attitude toward indulgent food. The positive relationship indicates that the better a person's mood, the more positive his/her affective attitude towards fast food become. This is consistent with our earlier argument that fast food consumption in Malaysia is closely related to the happy and celebratory mood. Positive mood is commonly used in fast food advertisements to portray a sense of happiness and family values. The findings indicated the relationship between mood and cognitive attitude ($t = 1.773$) is significant. Even though the predicting ability of mood on cognitive attitude is not as strong as an affective attitude, it is significant. Hypothesis 3 (b) is hence supported.

The findings indicated a significant relationship between affective attitude on purchase intention ($t = 3.696$) but not cognitive attitude ($t = 0.657$), supporting H5 (a) but not H5 (b). These results are consistent with Finucane et al. (2000) whereby affective attitude is a stronger predictor than cognitive attitude in fast food consumption. Purchase is made based on the affective aspect of attitudes such as level of acceptance and emotional reaction toward fast food rather than their belief and ideas (cognitive) toward fast food.

The findings indicated that young Malaysian adults were driven by how their social circle behaves in forming their fast food buying intention ($t_{\text{descriptive}} = 3.088$, $t_{\text{injunctive}} = 2.942$), hence supporting H6 (a) and 6 (b). They possess a higher intention to buy when their social circle prefers fast food. A descriptive norm which is the actual behaviour that can be observed play a larger role than the injunctive norm, consistent with Hamann et al.'s (2015) study. Malaysia in general is a nation with a very high collectivist cultural rating. It

is therefore expected for young adults who are closely knitted and heavily affected by family and social relationships, to base on both injunctive (what other people think) and descriptive (how other people behave) norms in fast food consumption.

The present study did not find a significant relationship between perception of control and purchase intention ($t = 1.043$) and hence not supporting H7 (a). This result is consistent with Dunn et al.'s (2011) study in which the young adults do not relate perception of control to the buying of fast food. Nevertheless, the negative beta coefficient is in the expected direction, showed that the higher the perception of control, the lower the buying intention become. This finding could be explained by Ajzen's (2015) argument that the stated component of perceived behavioural control is usually the weakest in term of food purchasing and consumption intention. Meanwhile, the negative relationship between self-efficacy and purchase intention was found significant ($t = 1.955$) hence supporting H7 (b). In other words, an individual who has a strong sense of belief toward his/her ability to control his/her eating behaviour, his/her intention to purchase fast food will decline.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In conclusion, the results of the present study suggested convenience as the strongest predictor of attitude toward fast food among young Malaysian adults. However, their affective attitude was found to predict purchase intention of fast food better than cognitive attitude, perceived behavioural control and social norm. Consumer mood, a newly added dimension, was also found to have a significant impact on attitude formation. Young adults were influenced by the people around them in term of what they think and how they should behave, even in the case of fast food buying. Their level of self-efficacy also affected fast food buying intention.

These findings posited several important marketing implications, especially in reactions to the changes in the demographic structure and consumer consumption pattern. Young Malaysian adults who aged between 20 – 39 years old accounted for almost one third (34 per cent) of the Malaysian population in the year 2010 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2011). This large group of consumers is found to consume less than the recommended daily serving of fruits and vegetables (Abdullah, Mokhtar, Bakar & Al-Kubaisy, 2015). In fact, they consume the fastest food (Dugan, 2013). Even though fast food is neither staple food nor cheap in Malaysia, mostly single young adults are found to base on affective rather than the rational side of thoughts, beliefs and ideas to form fast food buying intention. It is hence important to understand that knowledge and nutritional literacy might not be effective intervention methods in reducing young adults' fast food purchasing and consumption intention. This is further supported by the significant role of mood as a background factor in attitude formation. Therefore, NGOs or ministry of health needs to instil creativity and innovativeness in designing promotional campaign in reducing consumption of fast food. Alternative food that is considered as fun as and healthier than fast food should be introduced and promoted to young adults. A promotional campaign by stressing food eating as an enjoyable and fun social gathering occasion could be more effective not based on facts, but more on mood creation or feeling and emotion. Alternative food providers should also stress on the convenience variables such as the ease of access, not only on the aspect of time-consuming, but also on the physical and mental determinations related to food preparing activity, and the cleaning activity afterwards (Buckley et al., 2007). It is believed with a better understanding of the attitude and intention structures that marketing practitioners and academicians could plan for an effective marketing campaign and promote a healthy diet among young adults.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, N. N., Mokhtar, M. M., Bakar, M. H., & Al-Kubaisy, W. (2015). Trend on fast food consumption in relation to obesity among Selangor urban community. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 202, 505 – 513. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.08.189>
- Ackerman, D. & Tellis, G. (2001). Can culture affect prices? A cross-cultural study of shopping and retail prices. *Journal of Retailing*, 77 (1), 57 – 82. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359\(00\)00046-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00046-4)
- Ahmad, A. L., Rahim, S. A., Pawanteh, L., & Ahmad, F. (2012). The understanding of environmental citizenship among Malaysian youths: A study on perception and participation. *Asian Social Science*, 8 (5), 85 – 92. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v8n5p85>
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behaviour. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behaviour* (pp. 11 – 39). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 179 – 211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Ajzen, I. (2015). Consumer attitudes and behavior: The theory of planned behavior applied to food consumption decisions. *Italian Review of Agricultural Economics*, 70 (2), 121 – 138. <https://doi.org/10.13128/REA-18003>
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16, 74 – 94. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723327>
- Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., Abe, S., & Bergami, M. (2000). Cultural and situational contingencies and the theory of reasoned action: Application to fast food restaurant consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9 (2), 97 – 106. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP0902_4
- Blodin, S. A., Mueller, M. P., Bakun, P. J., Choumenkovitch, S. F., Tucker, K. L., & Economos, C. D. (2016). Cross-sectional associations between empirically-derived dietary patterns and indicators of disease risk among university students. *Nutrients*, 8 (1), 3. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu8010003>
- Buckley, M., Cowan, C., & McCarthy, M. (2007). The convenience food market in Great Britain: Convenience food lifestyle (CFL) segments. *Appetite*, 49 (3), 600 – 617. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2007.03.226>

- Chan, K., & Tsang, L. (2011). Promote healthy eating among adolescents: A Hong Kong study. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 28 (5), 354 – 362. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761111150008>
- Cialdini, R. B. (2003). Crafting normative messages to protect the environment. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12 (4), 105 – 109. <https://doi.org/10.1111%2F1467-8721.01242>
- Collins, R., & Stafford, L. D. (2015). Feeling happy and thinking about food. Counteractive effects of mood and memory on food consumption. *Appetite*, 84, 107 – 112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2014.09.021>
- Dave, J. M., An, L. C., Jeffery, R. W., & Ahluwalia, J. S. (2009). Relationship of attitudes toward fast food and frequency of fast-food intake in adults. *Obesity*, 17 (6), 1164 – 1170. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2009.26>
- Davey, T. M., Allotey, P., & Reidpath, D. D. (2013). Is obesity an ineluctable consequence of development? A case study of Malaysia. *Public Health*, 127 (12), 1057 – 1062. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2013.09.008>
- Department of Statistic Malaysia. (2011). *Population distribution and basic demographic characteristic report 2010*. Retrieved from https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/index.php?r=column/cthem&menu_id=L0pheU43NWJwRWVSZklWdzQ4TIhUUT09&bul_id=MDMxdHZjWtk1SjFzTzNkRXZzcVZjdz09
- Drewnowski, A. (1999). Intense sweeteners and energy density of foods: Implications for weight control. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 53, 757 – 763. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ejcn.1600879>
- Dugan, A. (2013, 6 August). *Fast food still major part of U.S. diet*. Retrieved from <http://www.gallup.com/poll/163868/fast-food-major-part-diet.aspx>.
- Dunn, K. I., Mohr, P., Wilson, C. J., & Wittert, G. A. (2011). Determinants of fast-food consumption. An application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Appetite*, 57, 349 – 357. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2011.06.004>
- Euromonitor. (2015). *Fast food in Malaysia*. London: Euromonitor International.
- Finucane, M. L., Alhakami, A., Slovic, P., & Johnson, S. M. (2000). The affect heuristic in judgments of risks and benefits. *Journal of Behavioural Decision Making*, 13, 1 – 17. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-0771\(200001/03\)13:1%3C1::AID-BDM333%3E3.0.CO;2-S](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0771(200001/03)13:1%3C1::AID-BDM333%3E3.0.CO;2-S)
- Fornell, C., & Cha, J. (1994). Partial least squares. *Advanced Methods of Marketing Research*, 407 (3), 52 – 78.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (1), 39 – 50. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F002224378101800104>
- Foster, D. W., Neighbors, C. L., & Keriger, H. (2014). Alcohol evaluations and acceptability: Examining descriptive and injunctive norms among heavy drinkers. *Addictive Behaviors*, 42, 101 – 107. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2014.11.008>
- Frank, B. (2012). The formation of consumer attitudes and intentions towards fast food restaurants How do teenagers differ from adults? *Managing Service Quality*, 22 (3), 260 – 282. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09604521211230987>
- Gardner, M. P., Wansink, B., Kim, J. Y., & Park, S. B. (2014). Better moods for better eating?: How mood influences food choice. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 24 (3), 320 – 335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2014.01.002>
- Gefen, D., Straub, D., & Boudreau, M. C. (2000). Structural equation modeling and regression: Guidelines for research practice. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 4 (1), 7. <https://doi.org/10.17705/1CAIS.00407>
- Glanz, K., Basil, M., Maibach, E., Goldberg, J., & Snyder, D. A. N. (1998). Why Americans eat what they do: taste, nutrition, cost, convenience and weight control concerns as influences on food consumption. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 98 (10), 1118 – 1126. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-8223\(98\)00260-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-8223(98)00260-0)
- Gutjar, S., de Graaf, C., Kooijman, V., de Wijk, R. A., Nys, A., Ter Horst, G. J., & Jager, G. (2015). The role of emotions in food choice and liking. *Food Research International*, 76, 216 – 223. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2014.12.022>
- Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Sage Publications.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective* (Vol. 7). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Hamann, K. R., Reese, G., Seewald, D., & Loeschinger, D. C. (2015). Affixing the theory of normative conduct (to your mailbox): Injunctive and descriptive norms as predictors of anti-

- ads sticker use. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 44, 1 – 9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2015.08.003>
- Jáuregui-Lobera, I., Bolaños-Ríos, P., Valero, E., & Prieto, I. R. (2012). Induction of food craving experience: The role of mental imagery, dietary restraint, mood and coping strategies. *Nutr Hosp*, 27 (6), 1928 – 1935. <https://doi.org/10.3305/nh.2012.27.6.6043>
- Jun, J., & Arendt, S. W. (2016). Understanding healthy eating behaviors at casual dining restaurants using the extended theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 53, 106 – 115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2015.12.002>
- Kroes, M. C., Wingen, G. A., Wittwer, J., & Mohajeri, M. H. (2014). Food can lift mood by affecting mood-regulating neurocircuits via a serotonergic mechanism. *NeuroImage*, 84, 825 – 832. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.09.041>
- Lee, S. H., & Tan, K. G. (2007). Examining Malaysian Household Expenditure Patterns on Food-Away From-Home. *Asian Journal of Agriculture and Development*, 3 (1), 11 – 24. <http://dx.doi.org/10.22004/ag.econ.165852>
- Levinson, C. A., & Rodebaugh, T. L. (2012). Social anxiety and eating disorder comorbidity: The role of negative social evaluation fears. *Eating Behaviours*, 13, 27 – 35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eatbeh.2011.11.006>
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. *Personality and social psychology Bulletin*, 18 (1), 3 – 9. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0146167292181001>
- Mahon, D., Cowan, C., & McCarthy, M. (2006). The role of attitudes, subjective norm, perceived control and habit in the consumption of ready meals and takeaways in Great Britain. *Food Quality and Preference*, 17 (6), 474 – 481. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2005.06.001>
- Malaysian Association for the Study of Obesity (1994). Causes of obesity [Internet]. Strategy for the prevention of obesity – Malaysia. Retrieved from <http://www.maso.org.my/spom/chap5.pdf>.
- Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD). (2014). *Study to support the development of national policies and programmes to increase and retain the participation of women in the Malaysian labour force: Key finding and recommendations*. Putrajaya: Author.
- Naina Mohamed, R., & Mohd Daud, N. (2012). The impact of religious sensitivity on brand trust, equity and values of fast food industry in Malaysia. *Business Strategy Series*, 13 (1), 21 – 30. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17515631211194599>
- Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., Perry, C., & Casey, M. A. (1999). Factors influencing food choices of adolescents: Findings from focus-group discussions with adolescents. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 99 (8), 929 – 937. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-8223\(99\)00222-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-8223(99)00222-9)
- Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Osman, I., Osman, S., Mokhtar, I., Setapa, F., Shukor, S. A. M., & Temyati, Z. (2014). Family food consumption: Desire towards convenient food products. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 121, 223 – 231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.1123>
- Razak, M. I., Abidin, N. E., Yusof, M. A., Sakarji, S. R., & Nor, K. M. (2014). Spending trends among youth in Malaysia. *Journal of Economics and Development Studies*, 2, 277 – 288.
- Senauer, B., Asp, E. & Kinsey, J. (1991). *Food trends and the changing consumer*. St Paul, Minnesota: Eagan Press.
- Seubsman, S. A., Kelly, M., Yuthapornpinit, P., & Sleigh, A. (2009). Cultural resistance to fast-food consumption? A study of youth in North Eastern Thailand. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 33 (6), 669 – 675. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1470-6431.2009.00795.x>
- Teisl, M. F., Levy, A. S., & Derby, B. M. (1999). The effects of education and information source on consumer awareness of diet-diseases relationships. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 18 (2), 197 – 207. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F074391569901800206>
- Trendel, O., & Werle, C. O. C. (2016). Distinguishing the affective and cognitive bases of implicit attitudes to improve prediction of food choices. *Appetite*, 104, 33 – 43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2015.10.005>
- Van Strien, T., Cebolla, A., Etchemendy, E., Gutiérrez-Maldonado, J., Ferrer-García, M., Botella, C., & Baños, R. (2013). Emotional eating and food intake after sadness and joy. *Appetite*, 66, 20 – 25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2013.02.016>
- Westbrook, R. A. (1980). A rating scale for measuring product/service satisfaction. *The Journal of Marketing*, 44 (4), 68 – 72. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F002224298004400410>

