The Influence of Cultural Environment on Consumer Behaviour in the Purchase of Cosmetics in China, Taiwan and the UK, with Particular Reference to the China Cosmetics Market

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by

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Abstract

China is one of the most promising markets, attracting the attention of marketers and industrialists worldwide. Recipient of the largest amount of foreign investment, China is predicted to become one of the world's four largest economies by 2010.

Insights into the role and influence of cultural norms on consumer behaviour are of the highest importance to foreign companies which contemplate entering the China market. Being the first to study the impact of culture on consumer purchasing behaviour in the Chinese cosmetics market, this dissertation puts forward the view that an understanding of the cultural background is essential for success in activities such as market segmentation, product and packaging design, distribution systems, pricing and promotion policy. The Chinese cultural concepts of *face* and *guanxi* are seen to be crucial factors here. These concepts can best be understood by marketers working in Western countries through the context of an intercultural comparison. For this reason, empirical research for this dissertation has focused on three countries (China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK).

A study of Cognitive and Behaviourist models of consumer purchasing behaviour indicates that, despite their obvious differences, both types of model regard culture as an important influencing factor in purchasing decisions. So both these models form a basis of the conceptual development of this research. It is also seen that companies operating globally do take account of the diversity of culture when they work out their marketing strategy.

Regarding the most promising segment of the China cosmetics market today, the literature shows this to be the younger generation of women (in the 18 to 29 age range). This group is seen as the one most likely to be fashion-conscious as well as having the necessary means to satisfy its tastes. The present study targets this group and a number of hypotheses are used to test the attitudes of its members regarding the purchase of cosmetics. Consumer attitudes within this age group in the three countries studied are examined by Factor analysis, and six factors with the same label are extracted. Despite significant differences in culture, Chinese and British young women are seen to have similar attitudes to cosmetics. Regression analysis shows that the purchase of cosmetics has similar influential variables in the above countries and that the same factor analysis variables have different effects on spending in each culture. Cross-tabulation analysis provides a means of comparing cultural differences between these three countries in

terms of fashion-consciousness, the importance that consumers attach to cosmetics, the custom of shopping around for the best bargain, present-giving, respect for the environment and concern about animal welfare in the manufacture and testing of cosmetics. In addition to the data analysis, other topics of commercial interest such as age of starting to use and purchase cosmetics, frequency of purchase, type of brand purchased and brand loyalty, concern for skin colour, use of whitener skincare products, the practice of reducing spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate on the needs of the child are also provided. The dissertation concludes with advice for companies selling to the China market.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The region of the Pacific Rim and mainland China is one in which considerable change can be expected in coming years. One important development that has already occurred is the handing back to China of the Crown Colony of Hong Kong long held by Britain. With almost one-quarter of the world's population (1.2 billion inhabitants) and one of the fastest economic growth rates, China is attracting the attention of marketers and industrialists and is the recipient of the largest amount of foreign investment. The future holds out interesting prospects and there is a consensus among government and business leaders that important business opportunities will abound in this region in the years to come. Economists predict that by the year 2010 China itself will have become one of the world's four largest economies. When China's economy is taken together with those of Hong Kong and Taiwan – Greater China in short — the prospects are even more impressive.

1.1 Research aims

This study uses a cross-cultural comparison of China, Taiwan and the UK to extend marketers' understanding of cultural influence on consumer purchasing behaviour. It also provides a more sophisticated and academically-based model of purchasing behaviour with respect to cosmetics purchase than those attempted by commercial market researchers. The breadth and depth of this contribution to the subject thus sets it apart from the customary commercial market research project.

This research focuses on the Chinese cosmetics industry and the purchasing behaviour of the younger generation of Chinese women. Changing attitudes on the part of Chinese consumers in general can be observed over recent years following the introduction by China's government of the new capitalist economic policy — the Open Door Policy. These changing attitudes are in evidence throughout the market for consumer goods. The purpose here is to identify them in the cosmetics market and measure their effect on purchasing behaviour. Traditional cultural values were subject to attack during the days of Chairman Mao. Since culture has a considerable effect on purchasing behaviour, it is important here to discover to what extent traditional cultural values are still prevalent. To understand the situation today, therefore, a number of hypotheses will be formulated in order to test whether certain of these cultural norms, which traditionally used to influence the way consumers behaved in making their purchases, remain significant. This will be helped by comparison with other countries and is of some importance to Western cosmetics manufacturers who are looking at the Chinese market.

In order to establish an international marketing operation, a company needs to create and maintain an extensive web of worldwide connections. This is of paramount importance when dealing with countries whose social system is based on Confucian teachings. This is true of China, despite the disturbance to traditional values caused by the communist regime. For example, as a popular saying puts it, "Who you know is more important than what you know." In China, the notion of "who you know" is embodied in the phenomenon of "*guanxi*". This is the name given to the connections and relationships between people, which facilitate all manner of transactions and endeavours. This concept, and the associated concept of "face", will be discussed later on in this dissertation (in Chapter 3). *Guanxi* is just one example of a Chinese cultural norm that has survived the Mao revolution. There are others. For a Western company to fully understand the significance of culture in the Chinese social setting, it is useful to make a cross-cultural comparison between the social values with which they are familiar at home and those of the country in which they might hope to sell their product. For this reason, a cross-cultural comparison will be undertaken in this research project. This will compare certain Chinese (mainland China and Taiwan) and British cultural norms as seen in the context of the purchase of cosmetics. Taiwan was chosen as a country in an intermediate position between China PRC and the UK as a Western culture. A further reason for choosing Taiwan and the UK was that the researcher is familiar with both: he is a Taiwanese citizen and has many contacts there and has also been resident in the UK over a number of years for study purposes.

1.2 The research gap

As mentioned already, the situation in China today offers special interest to market researchers in the West. China has opened its doors to world influence and Western companies. The focus of the present research is on the influence of cultural norms on consumer buying behaviour in China and the importance of culture in international marketing. Various studies have already been made on this subject, for example Yau (1994). Other research has been conducted by marketing professionals. The market surveys that have resulted from this provide information concerning income levels, consumer spending patterns, price sensitivity, shopping styles and attitudes towards advertising. Although some academic research has dealt with the impact of cultural norms on consumer behaviour in general, to the best of knowledge no research appears to have focused on the influence of cultural norms on purchasing behaviour in the cosmetics industry in China. The fact that no research has so far been published on this subject would seem to justify the present proposal. This research is limited to providing up-to-date information on the cosmetics market in China and thereby offering interested foreign companies some insights into the role and influence of cultural norms in consumer purchasing behaviour.

1.3 Need for focus

China possesses a long history providing her with a culture going back some 5000 years. As mentioned above, a major disruption was the take-over by the Communist regime in 1949 and the subsequent rule of Chairman Mao. His Cultural Revolution lasting from 1968 to 1978, destroyed much of the continuity with China's past. Two generations were particularly affected by this experience (present-day Generations I and II). When Mao died in 1978 and China soon after opened its doors to the world, it was the new, young generation (Generation III) which benefited the most. After 1979 there were 20 years of economic development and growth. To include in this study all three generations would be too lengthy and complicated a task. Therefore it is proposed to limit research to the younger generation (Generation III). These people have the greatest buying power since they are the ones who are today the most affluent, having prospered the most under the new economic policy.

China is also a vast country which contains large regional variations in terms of social life. The north differs radically from the south and the coastal regions and the inland regions differ from both, as well as from each other. There is also a world of difference between rural areas and the cities. To consider all these differing regions of China within the present research project would be impossible. For practical reasons, therefore, it is necessary to limit the research to two large regional centres: Beijing and Shanghai. The first is the capital of China, located in the north; the second is the largest and most important commercial city on the coast. Both cities are modernised and affluent and, as such, offer the best opportunities for research into a younger generation that is fashion-conscious and modern in outlook.

1.4 Research framework and objectives of the literature review

The research process will comprise the following stages:

- Literature review: secondary resources used to examine the existing environment and to identify the broad area of research interest
- Problem definition
- Scientific research design
- Generation of hypotheses
- Preliminary data gathering: questionnaire design and distribution
- Data analysis and interpretation
- Research findings and areas for future research

The literature review will have several objectives. The first is to gain an overview of the Chinese cosmetics market. Of particular interest here will be to assess the role of foreign and domestic operators, their past performance and future prospects. Now that China is moving forward and her economy is growing at a fast rate, it is also necessary to identify any changes in women's attitudes to cosmetics resulting from increasing affluence. The One Child Policy and its effect on family purchasing behaviour will be reviewed from the literature. Also, the main cognitive consumer behaviour models will be reviewed alongside the behaviourist model. The literature review will also take in the subject of culture and its main features.

1.5 Organisation of the research

This dissertation consists of nine chapters:

Chapter 1 Introduction (the present chapter)

Chapter 2 In this chapter an overview of the China cosmetics market is given. The operators in the market, buyers of cosmetics and market trends are assessed and also attention is devoted to difficulties of operating in the China market.

Chapter 3 The first part of this chapter reviews models of consumer behaviour which explain the process of *decision making* before and during purchase. Cognitive and Behaviourist models are discussed. The second part of this chapter deals with culture in general as well as the impact of culture on consumer purchasing behaviour and on the marketing strategies of global companies. In addition, certain characteristics of Chinese and British culture that have a bearing on consumer purchasing behaviour are described.

Chapter 4 The first part of this chapter examines the lifestyle and aspirations of several generations of adults in mainland China, including the one that was deprived of a normal education during the Cultural Revolution. The second part examines the One Child Policy and the important role of children in purchasing decisions made by adults. The third part discusses the changed status of women and their new consumption power.

Chapter 5 This chapter deals with the research design and the formulation of a number of key hypotheses. These will be used later in the research project to test whether attitudes to cosmetics purchasing behaviour are similar among young Chinese and British women, despite the obvious gulf that separates them culturally. The hypotheses will also be used to discover whether certain traditional Chinese cultural norms, which influenced consumer behaviour before the communist takeover, have survived.

Chapter 6 This chapter is devoted to questionnaire design and the arrangements for data collection in the three countries under study. The data collection will provide the necessary information for testing these hypotheses. In this way a cultural comparison can be carried out.

Chapter 7 The first part of the data analysis is carried out in this chapter. This concerns similarities and differences in cosmetics purchasing behaviour analysed by factor and regression analysis.

Chapter 8 This chapter completes the data analysis: the test of hypotheses relevant to commercial organisations by use of the cross-tabulation method. A comparison between the three countries is made from a cultural standpoint. Also, information of interest to commercial organisations is given.

Chapter 9 This chapter draws together the findings of the research and sets out the main conclusions and the implications for future marketing strategy. In particular, the chapter highlights the impact of culture on consumer purchasing behaviour relating to cosmetics and the influence of the relationship network of "*guanxi*" and the cultural norm of "face" in Chinese society. These concepts have considerable importance for international companies operating, or intending to operate, in the China market.

Chapter 2: An Overview of the China Cosmetics Market

2.1 Introduction

International companies of all types are drawn to China because of its huge potential consumer market. Therefore, there is intense competition to get in, as well as great difficulties for the newcomer. This overview will focus on one aspect of the China market, namely the cosmetics sector. Current market trends will be assessed and attention will be devoted to some of the operators who are already working there successfully. As will be seen, the cultural factors which make the China cosmetics market different from many others play a vital role in determining the success of a foreign operator.

Though there are problems facing a would-be entrant, there exist great opportunities in this market sector. To succeed, a basis of understanding of the cultural background and public policy is essential as well as an ability to establish and build up good relationships ("*guanxi*") with local government and one's business partners.

2.2 The China cosmetics market

After the introduction of the Open Door Policy in 1979, China experienced rapid increases in consumer incomes in the years from 1990 to 1993. These increases, in turn, led to a change in spending patterns which was favourable to the cosmetics industry. Sales of cosmetics, including skin, hair, facial, and nail care products went up by 210% in that period. In 1994 sales of cosmetics reached ¥9bn, an increase of 30% on 1993 (Euromonitor International report quoted by Swanson, 1995).

Foreign manufacturers of cosmetics increased their sales in China tenfold between 1985 and 1995. Foreign brands produced in western countries are expensive for the average consumer. Yet they are highly regarded and this is seen in the fact that imports increased by 77% in the period from 1992 to 1993 alone. Table 2.1 below compares the prices of imported cosmetics with those manufactured by foreign invested enterprises and domestic producers.

Table 2.1:

Prices of Selected Imported, Foreign-Invested Enterprise (FIE), and Domestic Cosmetics

Cosmetics	Imported	Price (¥)	FIE	Price (¥)	Domestic	Price (¥)
Eye shadow	Christian Dior (France)	520	Aupers (Japan)	90	Dabao	44
Blush	Christian Dior (France)	340	Gaozi (Hong Kong)	30	Dabao	20
Lipstick	Christian Dior (France)	235	Aupers (Japan)	90	Dabao	28
Skin cream	Oil of Olay (US)	60	Pond's (UK)	27	Dabao	20
Hair spray	Alberto VO5 (US)	43	Dep (US)	35	ZG101	31
Shampoo	Silk Keratin (US)	36	Rejoice (US)	21	Xiafei	11

Note: All prices are for products sold in Beijing and are based on products of equal size or volume for each cosmetic type. ¥: Yuan or Rmb (1£=13Rmb)
Source: US-China Business Council (quoted in Swanson, 1995, p.35)

Swanson (1995) reports that within this expanding market:

- skin care products accounted for 44% of sales
- hair care products accounted for 29% of sales
- perfumes accounted for 21% of sales

She writes: "*Foreign brands, including Oil of Olay, Pond's and Yin Fong, have captured over 20% of the skin care market, while domestically manufactured brands such as Maxam and Phoenix are also popular*" (p.35). She goes on to describe colour cosmetics (including facial and nail care products) as the industry's fastest growing sector (accounting in 1993 for 6% of the market), a growth which she attributes to the increased fashion consciousness of Chinese women. Also, lipsticks were "*selling quickly in Shanghai, China's fashion centre, as well as in northern coastal cities*" (p.35).

Further indications of market size and prospects are reported in a CAFFCI[1] report for cosmetics sales in China for 1996: *sales of cosmetics increased by 16% in 1996 to $ 2.6bn [.......] China produced just over $ 1bn worth of fragrances in 1996, while sales of imported fragrances reached $ 23.5m* (Market Report, Inside Cosmetics, September 1997, p.15). The same CAFFCI report is quoted as saying that although per capita spending is still very low today (around the $2 mark), annual growth for the foreseeable future will average about 20%, provided current economic conditions are maintained. Table 2.2 below shows the overall market value 1996-2001.

[1] CAFFCI = the Chinese Association of Fragrance, Flavour and Cosmetic Industries

Table 2.2: **Overall Forecast Cosmetics Market Value for China, 1996-2001**

(forecast, in millions of Yuan at 1996 prices)

	1997	1999	2001	CAGR (1996-2001)
Fragrances	2,225	3,804	6,505	30.8%
Make-up	3,665	5,800	9,178	25.8%
Skincare	16,140	23,128	33,141	19.7%
Total	**22,029**	**32,732**	**48,824**	**22.0%**

Source: Datamonitor (analysis, local trade interviews) quoted in Market Report, Inside Cosmetics September 1997, p.17.

Although China's economic growth has been slowing down in recent years and overall consumer spending remains sluggish, growth in the cosmetics and toiletries sector has continued at a remarkable pace. In 2000 sales reached Rmb 34bn (US$ 4.1bn). This is roughly double the figure for 1995 and 170 times the figure for 1982 (Rmb 200m; US$ 24m) (Business China, 2001). According to the more recent data in Datamonitor (shown below in Table 2.3) quoted by Erlina Hendarwan (2002), the China cosmetics and toiletries market in 2001 was estimated at $5.5bn. The China personal care market grew at a rate of 6.5 percent overall between 2000 and 2001. As can be seen in Table 2.3, it is expected that these markets will continue to grow to $ 6.3bn by 2005.

Table 2.3: **China's cosmetics and toiletries market, 2000-2005**

	2000 (US$m)	2001 (US$m)	2005 (US$m)	YOY 2000-2001 (%)	CAGR 2001-2005 (%)
Fragrances	263.7	284.6	416.1	7.9	10.0
Hair care	829.1	877.5	1,071.1	5.8	5.1
Makeup	534.1	631.8	888.7	18.3	8.9
Personal hygiene	634.3	703.7	926.8	10.9	7.1
Skin care	2,856.3	2,954.0	3,034.3	3.4	0.7
Overall	**5117.5**	**5451.5**	**6337.0**	**6.5**	**3.8**

(Source: Datamonitor, GCI magazine, October 2002, p.24, in Hendarwan, 2002)

Euromonitor (2002) reports that China now has about 3,514 cosmetics companies with over 250,000 employees. Fifty companies have sales of over Rmb 500m, and eight have sales in excess of that. The market share for local products is around 40% in terms of volume but only 6.7% in terms of value. Nearly 450 foreign-invested enterprises (FIEs) own over half of the market in terms of volume but their prices are several times higher than those of local brands. In recent years, some pharmaceutical companies and hospitals have also become involved in this industry. It is forecast that sales of cosmetics and toiletries will reach Rmb 80bn in 2010. International cosmetics companies are competing intensely in China. Therefore, it is essential that domestic companies introduce high technology and enforce proper management strategies in order to enjoy future development (Euromonitor, April 2002, p.9).

2.3 Operators in the China cosmetics market

2.3.1 Procter & Gamble and Wella Corporation

Leading brands of hair care products in the China cosmetics market are represented mainly by two foreign companies both of which have been operating in the market for a number of years: Procter & Gamble and Wella Corporation.

Procter & Gamble was one of the earliest foreign investors in China. Swanson (1995) points out that the company has successfully positioned its hair care products and gained a 30% share of the hair care market through its sales of Rejoice and Head & Shoulders shampoos. It manufactures these products in Guangzhou under a joint venture. In 2001 three products of Procter & Gamble: Rejoice, Head & Shoulders, and Pantene are all famous and popular brands. The company enjoyed a dominant 30% share of the hair care product market in 2001 (Euromonitor, April 2002, p.56).

The other company, Wella Corp., was the first foreign manufacturer of hair care products in the China market, penetrating the market in the early 1980's. Wella still maintained a leading position by pricing its joint-venture products close to locally produced Chinese products in 1995 (Swanson, 1995, p.35). Later, however, it lost its leading role in this sector. In 2001 it only obtained a market share of 0.9% of the hair care market which was far below the 9.4% recorded by Unilever China Ltd, the second largest hair care manufacturer in China (Euromonitor, April 2002, p.58).

2.3.2 Unilever (China) Ltd

Unilever set up its first joint venture in Shanghai in 1986. Subsequently, the company purchased the local brand Zhong Hua to extend its business into the areas of toothpaste and toothbrushes. Unilever offers 12 brands in the China market and almost all of them are among the top brands. Hazeline and Lux, particularly, are very popular with Chinese customers (Euromonitor, April 2002).

2.3.3 Domestic brands

Swanson (1995) reports that some domestically produced Chinese brands, such as Bee and Flower (with 5% of market sales), Maxam, Haazi and Piaoui, sell well because they are more affordable than imported or foreign invested enterprise brands (p.35). Euromonitor (2002) reports that in 2001 the most important domestic brands in the hair care sector were Slek, Olive and Bee & Flower.

Euromonitor (2002) affirms that there are several successful domestic manufacturers competing in the market. Shanghai Jahwa Co Ltd is the most successful one and is also included in the list of leading companies. It was established in 1958 and set up a joint venture with Johnson & Johnson in 1991. Its well-known brands are Liushen for floral water and shower gel products and Maxam for hand cream. Other successful domestic manufacturers listed in the group of emerging and niche companies are:

- Foshan Anan Cosmetics (Group) Corp, established in Fushan (Guangdong Province) in 1985 offers more than 200 kinds of products, including facial cleansers, facial moisturisers, and baby products;
- Tianjin Yumeijing Group Co Ltd offering high-quality products with low prices in baby care products has 20 distribution centres all over the country and sales counters in more than 200 large-scale department stores;
- Zhuhai Sunrana Cosmetics Co Ltd established in 1994 has its headquarters in the Zhuhai Special Economic Zone. Its Sunranan acne treatment series is the key product and has become one of the leading brands in the medical cosmetics market;
- Shenzhen Payven Cosmetics Co Ltd founded also in 1994 offers high-quality products for special groups of people who have facial skin problems such as heavy blackheads or pimples. Since June 1998 the company has enjoyed rapid growth and is considered to be one of the most competitive companies for the future;
- Beijing San Lu Factory, a large state enterprise, set up in 1985 is famous for the Dabao herbal series of cosmetics both in the domestic and international markets. The company has a New Product Research and Development Institute, seven workshops, 18 semi-automatic production lines, a beauty and health care products company, an advertising company, a wholesale company

and a beauty school. Its distribution networks cover the entire domestic market including 157 counters in major department stores in 27 provinces (Euromonitor, April 2002, p.13-17).

2.3.4 L'Oréal, Revlon, Coty and Shiseido companies

Other notable foreign companies operating in the China cosmetics market are L'Oréal, Revlon, Coty and Shiseido, the Japanese cosmetics manufacturer which has a branch in Shanghai. James Harding (1997) reported that L'Oréal had recently begun construction of a $40m plant at Suzhou, a city located south west of Shanghai; Revlon opened its Shanghai factory in 1997, launching its first product to be made in China - a Super Lustrous lipstick; Coty announced in 1997 a $15m joint venture with Yue Sai Kan Cosmetics with the aim of opening a Shanghai manufacturing facility in 1998. Also in 1997, Shiseido was in the process of building a factory in the Shanghai area with an intended opening date for its first beauty centre later that year (Harding, 1997, p.9).

2.3.5 Yue-Sai Kan

One of the most successful individual operators in the China cosmetics market over recent years has been Yue-Sai Kan, an entrepreneur who began her business career in the USA in 1971 and moved to China in 1992.

Catherine Ellis Hunter (1993) describes the early years and success of Yue-Sai Kan's business career. Yue-Sai Kan (pronounced: You Sigh Con) was born in Guanxi Province (China), brought up in Hong Kong & attended university in the USA. She and her sister opened an export-import business with capital of $25,000 in New York in 1971. Yue-Sai Kan later sold her share of the business to her sister for $500,000 before starting up her own TV production company. By 1992 her company had a regularly scheduled TV series in America which was watched by 51 million viewers nation-wide. In 1984 Yue-Sai Kan was awarded a contract for a TV series by the Chinese government. Produced for China Central Television (the State TV service), it was watched by 400 million viewers. Yue-Sai Kan became a celebrity.

By 1986 Yue-Sai Kan was thinking of creating a line of cosmetics specially designed for Asian women. As she later recalled, her desire was to help Chinese women to return to the normal standards of female attractiveness which had been outlawed under Chairman Mao, during whose period of rule the unisex attitude of Chinese Communism prevailed and women were not supposed to look like women.

Thanks to her well established contacts inside China from her work as a TV producer and her popularity as a leading TV personality, she was able to introduce her cosmetics into the Chinese market, in Shanghai, in the autumn of 1992. Her venture was very successful: sales accounted for $2m only in three months. By 1993 her cosmetics were on sale in 8 Chinese cities in central and northern China. In the same year sales were $12m. A new fragrance, First Love, was launched in Dec 1993 backed up with heavy promotion during the following Spring. At the same time Yue-Sai Kan produced a beauty guide video and a book geared to Asian women and launched a line of herbal shampoos and conditioners. In May 1996 she entered into a joint venture with Coty. The joint venture planned to open a manufacturing plant near Shanghai (due to become operational in 1998). Its products are addressed to the specific needs of Asian women. The advantage for Coty is that immediate access to the largest consumer market in the world has been achieved and with it an opportunity to benefit from Asia's rapid growth.

In October 1998, Yue-Sai Kan-Coty set up a most advanced manufacturing facility in Pudong in Shanghai with a US$ 20 million investment for the production of Yue-Sai colour cosmetics, skin care and fragrance products. According to the China State Statistic Bureau in February 1999, Yue-Sai cosmetics enjoyed the first position in sales in department stores in 1998 (Euromonitor, April 2002).

Various factors can be adduced for the success of these operators in the China cosmetics market. At the same time it can be seen that this market is not without its own peculiar, and considerable difficulties. The next two sections will examine the chief difficulties and success factors for anyone contemplating entry into the China cosmetics market.

2.4 Difficulties of operating in the China cosmetics market

Although Yue-Sai Kan has met with considerable success in operating her business in China, she admitted that she encountered many obstacles. These consisted of bureaucratic obstruction, higher charges for foreign companies (due to tax on imported cosmetics), and difficulties in enforcing contract with the government.

2.4.1 Problems on the market side

Apart from the bureaucratic obstacles, there were problems on the market side. Notable peculiarities of the China market include the following:

- China has 29 provinces and there is nothing uniform about them.
- The market in a new city is totally different from that in other cities.
- There are no chain stores in China.
- Every city has a different tax regime.
- Chinese companies have their own different policies. There is need to deal with them on a close personal level (Hunter, 1993, p.17).

Other difficulties facing international companies in their endeavour to contact businesses in China can be summed up as follows:

- The Beijing government gives preference to local companies in disputes arising over such matters as brand names, formulas, copyright and packaging.
- Counterfeiting of products is a major problem which particularly affects cosmetics and toiletries producers, especially those in the fragrances sector.
- The large number of very localised and very small companies are highly reluctant to supply statistics about themselves, thus seeking to avoid tax. The result is that there is no accurate method of assessing market size and that quoted sales figures basically apply to the higher-grade cosmetics and toiletries sectors and to imported goods (Market Report, Inside Cosmetics, Sep 1997, p.15).

2.4.2 High tariffs on foreign imports

Evidence of the discriminatory practices against foreign imports is seen in the fact that a tariff of 110-120% is imposed on finished products coming into China, while the tariff on ingredients amounts to 50-60% (Smith, 1996, p.26).

2.4.3 Ban on direct marketing companies

A particular example of the difficulties of operating in China is the case involving direct marketing companies. Direct marketing was introduced into China by Avon in 1988.

After that date, many Chinese and international companies, selling a wide range of goods, sought and obtained authorisation. However, direct selling soon incurred the disapproval of the government.

In October 1995 the relevant government department, the Administration of Industry and Commerce (AIC), obliged all direct marketing companies, of which there were at the time 173, both foreign and Chinese, to reapply for licences. These companies comprised two categories: multi-level marketing firms (MLM) and single-level direct sales firms (SLDS). Most were refused licences: only 41 MLM and 3 SLDS remained after February 1996 (Tung, 1997, p.61). In addition, an estimated 570 unlicensed firms were closed down. On April 21 1998, the government went further: it imposed a ban on all direct marketing companies. All selling was henceforth to be done through retail stores (Madden, 1998, p.56).

There were several reasons why the government terminated the activities of direct marketing companies. Firstly there was the incidence of fraud against the consumer. This was given prominence in newspaper reporting which highlighted the bogus sales schemes that were operating. These schemes preyed on unsuspecting consumers who were tricked into spending their savings on goods that were over-priced and of poor quality. There were also accusations that the direct marketing firms encouraged consumers to "*engage in superstition as well as reactionary and underworld gang activities*" (Direct Intelligence, Direct Marketing, 1998, p.6).

In the government's attitude towards the direct marketing companies was an element of political wariness. According to the state run Xinhua News Agency (Business, Inside Cosmetics, June-July, 1998, p.11) these companies were regarded as being closed organisations indulging in activities hidden from the official eye and as such were likely to disrupt the socialist economic order.

The 1998 ban on these companies was thus an indication of the government's deep suspicion of a marketing method involving independent distributor networks, door-to-door selling and motivation meetings (Business, Inside Cosmetics, June-July, 1998, p.11). Included in the ban are four large international cosmetics companies: Avon Products, Amway Corp, Mary Kay Cosmetics and Sara Lee Corp. These were forced to suspend their mainland China operations and in the process thousands of staff lost their jobs. Before the ban Amway was accused of allowing its Chinese employees to experience the power of the united team and shared goals. The company was also prevented from giving high remuneration to its distributors so that top earners would not be idolised (Tung, 1997, p.62).

The government's deep suspicion of direct marketing and its reluctance to allow this form of commercial activity to foster new ideas and enthusiasms is also reported by Chin-ning Chu, President of the Asian Marketing Consultant, San Francisco: "*The Chinese consider companies like Amway to be like a religion, because they make people passionate about new ideas. The Chinese government is very afraid of that*" (Ligos, 1998, p.14). In June 1998, Avon reached agreement with the government to operate as a wholesaler to retail stores and to convert its 75 supply branches into retail outlets. Amway and Mary Kay are reported to be still negotiating with the government. The company is unwilling to become solely a supplier to wholesalers and retailers. This is understandable, since Amway has had 80,000 distributors who in 1997 sold $178 million worth of products, accounting for 21 percent of total sales (Ligos, 1998, p.14).

The case of the direct marketing companies, in particular the four US giants, illustrates the risks to which international companies can be prone. As one commentator pointed out, "*the rules of the game change while you're playing*" (Tung, 1997, p.62).

2.5 Success factors for operating in the China cosmetics market

Companies operating in China can be seen to have based their successful penetration of the market on a number of factors.

2.5.1 Proctor & Gamble

The main element of success for Proctor & Gamble was entering into a joint venture which permitted the manufacture in Guangzhou of its products, thus avoiding the high import tariffs mentioned above. In addition, P&G profited from a sales & distribution network already in place. Finally, P&G developed a firm relationship with the official retail and other government authorities.

2.5.2 Unilever (China) Ltd

The success of Unilever (China) Ltd can be seen in the company's efficient marketing strategy. These can be summarised as:

- Acquiring Chinese brands to expand market share

  While striving to build up the image of its own brands, the company also examines those local brands which offer great potential. Through acquiring these local brands, the company has quickly expanded market share and increased revenue.

- Aggressive advertising in the market

  Unilever spends annually US$ 6bn on advertising across the world. The company's advertising expenditure in China accounted for 5% of sales value. For example, it spent Rmb 100m advertising the Pond's brand and, as a result, Pond's quickly became a household brand in China.

- Going public on the domestic stock market

  Although sales in China amount to only 2% of the company's global sales revenue, China is placed at the top of its global development strategy. Unilever's stock will soon be traded on the domestic stock market. This development will give the company greater presence and make its marketing and sales easier in China (Euromonitor, April 2002, p.12-13).

2.5.3 Yue-Sai Kan

The success enjoyed by the other operator of note, Yue-Sai Kan, can also be seen to be due to a number of factors.

1. Personal status

In her case, the already existing fame and celebrity status that she had, due to her TV company's popular products and her own appearances on TV, clearly provided her with a spring-board for her subsequent ventures into cosmetics. Celebrity status gave her valuable advantages in that she was well-known & respected by millions of potential customers, especially women, and also that she had already gained access to official circles.

2. Good relations ("*guanxi*") with government officials

Not content with that, however, Yue-Sai Kan concentrated on further building up the established good relations ("*guanxi*") with government officials at national and local level, for she understood quite well that this would be a key to success in her new business: bureaucracy and closed doors would be overcome by personal contacts with the right people. Thanks to her contacts, she was not required to enter into a joint venture with a Chinese company. This gave her a clear advantage over competitors such as Avon, Unilever and the Japanese manufacturer Shiseido, all of which were obliged to take Chinese joint-venture partners (Button, 1994, p.45).

3. Successful business approach and marketing strategy

Too much emphasis should not be placed upon Yue-Sai Kan's ability to see the right people. If we look at her business approach and her marketing strategy we can see other key factors for her success. These can be summed up as:

- the choice of the right market
- good quality and design of her products coupled with a appropriate pricing policy
- good promotion
- the choice of a cultural theme for her products.

As regards choice of the right market, Yue-Sai Kan is reported as saying "almost half the world's population is yellow-skinned"- an indication of the attractiveness in her eyes of the vast market potential in China (Hunter, 1993, p.16). Her pricing policy was to set prices in the lower middle part of the price range. This policy is successful since it makes the product available to the middle to lower segment of the market. To take the example of lipstick prices:

- local brands $4
- imported brands $20
- Yue-Sai Kan $6

As for promotion, Yue-Sai Kan publicised herself and her business by means of her video cassette and a book on beauty care; by training and deploying young women (known as "little Yue-Sai's") to staff department store counters where her products were on sale; by giving demonstrations and seminars and even private talks with such a prominent public figure as the wife of China's Prime Minister; Li Peng.

Yue-Sai Kan's choice of a cultural theme meant that she could tap into a traditional area that holds a vast potential. This approach can be seen, for example, in the selection of the lily as an emblem in her designs. In China the lily is traditionally used as a means of wishing a newly married couple a happy and prosperous life together. The lily symbolises the good fortune of having a male child. Yue-Sai Kan's perfume under the name "First Love" (a highly evocative phrase to Chinese ears) incorporates in the selling proposition the potent symbol of the lily. She promoted heavily this brand at the time, in April, the start of the wedding season in China.

2.6 The buyers of cosmetics

An indication of the extent to which social change has come to China can readily be seen in the growth of demand for cosmetics. As Harding (1997) observes, one can recall the time during the 1950's and 1960's when women were guided away from frivolity and fashion: "*lipstick, eye shadow and mascara, all fell under Mao's ban and were considered as symbols of western capitalist decadence*" (p.9). Harding quotes the words of a retired Shanghai factory worker, a Mrs Wang Longzheng: "*There was no make-up in the shops in the 1950's and 1960's. Nobody wore lipstick. Cosmetics were regarded as a capitalist thing*" (p.9).

It is important to discover who are the buyers of cosmetic products in China. According to Swanson (1995), the market can be divided into three groups. First are young urban women, tending to live at home with parents and thus benefit from low basic living expenses. They are stimulated by the desire to appear glamorous, emulating the fashion models of TV advertising or their favourite magazines. They are willing to spend a large portion of their income to keep up with fashion and also with the other members of their peer group. The second group consists of older women, similarly motivated. Together with the third group, young men, they account for a large proportion of cosmetics consumers (p.35).

Although there is a high demand for cosmetics among urban consumers, brand loyalty is a not strongly developed phenomenon. In Beijing consumers tend to be interested in quality and less influenced by the prestige attaching to trying out a new brand. Thus, they are likely to make repeat purchases of the same brand as before. In Guangzhou, capital of the southern Province of Guangdong, on the other hand, consumers are more likely to be affected by what is currently popular in Hong Kong. Consequently, they like to follow their Hong Kong neighbours' fashion trends in choosing a brand, rather than to stick on one brand because of the quality. The fact that there is no existing strong brand loyalty among consumers in general, foreign companies have seized the opportunity to advertise heavily to impose their own brands. Nevertheless, most consumers still purchase Chinese brands especially those that have a high reputation for quality (Swanson, 1995, p.35).

It is reported that Chinese consumers show a distinctive attitude in prioritising their purchases of cosmetics and toiletries, which is unlike that of their western counterparts. Chinese consumers look for:

- natural cosmetics products which are perceived as safe and free from side-effects;
- a high efficiency of product usage to cope with modern life, leading to multi-functional and time-saving products becoming more popular;
- famous brand names which are strongly differentiated from the large number of generic products on the market;
- products made in China, which are much cheaper to buy. (Smith, 1996, p.26)

The importance to the market in cosmetics of the younger generation of women is highlighted by James Harding (1997): "*now that China has opened its doors to the world, beauty products are back. Today's young, professional Chinese women are self-aware, fashion conscious and made-up*"(p.9). He quotes the head of Shiseido's branch in Shanghai who declared that every female now wished to be beautiful, although it was not so much the middle-aged ladies who shared this desire, for they tended to pay little attention to their clothes and their appearance, but rather the younger female generation. The latter was exposed to office culture and fashion magazines and knew how to enjoy life.

As a result, China has become the fastest growing cosmetics market in the world. Harding reports that spending on cosmetics almost quadrupled between 1992 and 1996, with sales valued in 1996 at Yuan 18.1bn (£1.33bn). Though this is a fraction of the US and European markets, the demand is likely to rise by 22% annually over the next few years according to Datamonitor (Harding, 1997). Harding describes the typical lipstick buyer in China today as a woman aged 25 to 35, who lives in a big city and works in a service industry, with modest pay but relatively high disposable income. This market is estimated by Revlon to comprise 39 million people (Harding, 1997).

2.7 Market trends

Market trends can be divided into two areas: first the broad general changes that have recently occurred in China & which have their effects in all branches of business & commerce; and secondly, the more specific changes affecting the cosmetics industry in particular.

2.7.1 The broad general changes

The main general change to be seen is the significant rise in average incomes, disposable incomes and in living standards. The effects can be seen in improved shopping networks and distribution systems. Another change of this nature is the increased awareness on the part of consumers regarding international fashions and a resultant increased interaction with the West in the form of a rise in demand.

2.7.2 Specific changes affecting the cosmetics industry

Looking at these changes in the cosmetics market, certain significant trends in consumption can be identified.

1. Changing attitudes on consumption and fashion consciousness

One of these changes in attitude is today's assumption among urban Chinese that skin and hair care products are basic necessities rather than optional extras. There is above all the growing affluence of Chinese women, with obvious implications both for Chinese companies (wishing to upgrade their products) and for foreign companies (wishing to increase their share of the market). Not only are Chinese women keen to display their wealth but also there is a trend among them to demonstrate to what extent they have become fashion conscious.

2. Attitudes to skin care and skin colour

Another noticeable trend has occurred in the area of skin care. China's consumers have traditionally been reluctant to draw attention to themselves. In the past they tended to avoid colour cosmetics. This attitude is seen to be a factor responsible for the success in selling skin care products: "*Cosmetics companies have had more success selling skincare products than colour cosmetics*" (Scarry, 1996, p.34).

Attitudes to skin care are culturally specific to a large degree in China. There is no real difference between the anatomical structure of Asian skin and that of Caucasian skin, though subtle physiological differences do exist between individuals, the sexes and races. However, cultural behaviour plays a vital role in skin care and the choice of products for this purpose. It is a matter of concern for a person to show "face" in a way that reflects as high a social standing as possible. It is still a widely held cultural norm that a darker skin colour is associated with the poorer working classes, while a fairer skin generally denotes higher social status and a higher level of prosperity (Pacific Rim review, SPC, May 1997, p.24). This contrasts markedly with the Western attitude to a darker, tanned complexion, which is seen as a sign of affluence and leisure.

Harding (1997) reports that most international companies are catering for Chinese tastes and mentions L'Oréal as one company which markets its skincare products by emphasising the special oil-free formula designed to "*combat the greasy skin that can be caused by Chinese cuisine and humid climate*" (p.9). Other brands appeal in their advertisements to the Chinese liking for pale complexions, by stressing that their lotions will whiten the skin. An example is Shiseido with its mid-market Chinese brand, *Auprès*.

3. Growing popularity of colour cosmetics

Recent trends in the cosmetics market reveal that women are now turning to colour. Harding (1997) quotes the words of Ms Guo Jing, senior consultant to the US cosmetics group Estée Lauder, who has reported that consumers are learning fast how to use colour, though there is still some way to go: "*China is a bit slow compared with other countries* *in Asia. There is still a lot of homework to do on how to look at a colour"* (p.9). Ms Guo describes the current taste for bright colours, particularly reds (which are traditionally associated with good fortune). Also increasing in popularity are pink and brown lipsticks; eye shadows in cool colours such as light blues and greys.

4. Health consciousness and awareness of natural products

That people in general are today becoming more and more health conscious and aware of the possibility of obtaining natural products can be regarded as an influence at work within the China cosmetics market and the basis of a market trend. This trend can be set in the context of an already existing traditional market for those natural herbal products which have always been extensively used in China. The trend can be seen firstly in the production of fragrances from natural, local & renewable sources and secondly in the research and production by the Italian company Indena of plant-derived active principles and the company's aim of expanding its knowledge of the plants used in Chinese medicine (Market report, <u>Inside Cosmetics</u>, Sept 1997, p.17).

Euromonitor (2002) also reports the presence of a developing trend in China for natural functional and health-orientated products. In particular, those brands with natural plant extracts will be more popular in the future. This phenomenon has already been seen in the market, for example Synform Aloe products are well received by consumers (p.2).

5. Price factor in the market

Price is still an important factor when choosing products. According to Harding (1997), it is the criterion for most Chinese buyers. Local producers, such as Shanghai Jahwa, dominate the market for lower and middle range products. Harding quotes the sales manager for a local merchandising company: *"Chinese-made cosmetics are cheaper. Most Chinese people, restricted by their income, will use middle or lower-class products"* (p.9). However, this is not true of the younger generation of women, as the head of one of the many Shanghai beauty salons (the Zhenghua Comprehensive Beauty Institute) explains. She points out that younger women would prefer higher-quality, foreign products: *"Most ladies coming to my beauty clinic like to use foreign cosmetics. They* *believe a suitable lipstick can make them look more energetic or, perhaps we can say, sexy"* (p.9).

Moreover, customers in eastern coast cities have more money for everything, especially luxury products. According to US market research firm AC Nielsen, in Shanghai alone at least 600,000 people are potential consumer for luxury products. What is more, the spenders are young. Data from the Shanghai Statistical Bureau also indicate that consumers aged 25-35 are the highest spenders on luxury items in the city and tend to save less than their parents (Business China, 2001, p.5).

2.8 Future prospects

Planning for the future necessitates taking into account a number of positive indicators in the China cosmetics market. For example, China's urban population is forecast in the decades ahead to enjoy raised levels of affluence and its young people to become even more fashion-conscious than they are today.

The market is still being driven by demand, particularly among young urban consumers, for overseas brands. At the same time the less affluent rural population remains loyal to local brands. A significant element in all this is that the long-held perception among Chinese consumers in general that overseas brands are superior to domestic ones is beginning to fade. The local manufacturers are now benefiting from their earlier importation of the latest technology and marketing know-how. These benefits have been introduced by overseas Chinese (such as Yue-Sai Kan) who want to establish a presence in their homeland.

It is expected that the recent dynamic growth of the China cosmetics market and the presence of overseas companies within it will produce even greater competition. This will be assisted by the expected improvement of the distribution system, which will make the market more accessible and more attractive. Manufacturers are already planning to expand from their present key bases: Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. They are aiming at the new, high-growth, cities in order to grow their mass and mid market business.

2.9 Conclusions

Certain conclusions can be drawn from all this. Firstly, there is need to understand public policy which affects the foreign companies operating in the China consumer market and to be aware that regulations, as in the case of direct marketing, can change abruptly and with damaging consequences. Secondly, there is great potential in the market for cosmetics manufacturers. As we have seen above, the growing trend towards natural products is one example of the opportunities offered to manufacturers. Thirdly, new entrants to the China cosmetics and toiletries market need to understand the major Chinese cultural phenomena, especially "*guanxi*" and "face". They also need to be aware that there is some regional variation in cultural norms between areas set far apart from each other, such as Beijing in the north and Shanghai further to the south and Guangzhou close to Hong Kong. These cultural phenomena clearly have influence on all social behaviour, including consumer purchasing behaviour.

There would appear to be little research on the role played by Chinese cultural norms in consumer purchasing behaviour in relation to cosmetics. Consequently, there is need to give greater attention to these phenomena. The Chinese cultural norms of "*guanxi*" (relationship) and "face" are particularly important. They are underlying factors not only in personal social life but also in all business relationships. Their role in the customs of present-purchasing, present-giving, and thus brand selection, need to be explored. Their ultimate influence on product design, pricing policy, promotion and distribution is also of great importance. These cultural norms will be discussed in a later chapter of this dissertation.

Chapter 3: Review of Consumer Behaviour Models and the Importance of Culture

3.1 Introduction

Various models of consumer behaviour have been put forward to explain the process of *decision making* before and during purchase. The majority of these models are referred to as cognitive. In contrast to the latter, there is the behaviourist model, as advocated by Foxall (1996). The cognitivist models attribute consumer decision-making to the intrapersonal processes of the mind. They devote attention to reflection, knowledge, memory, attitudes and values. The behaviourist model, however, is based on the interaction of the consumer with his immediate environment. Here, the decision-making process is determined by a stimulus-response procedure through which experience is gained and this becomes the basis for further action. Both cognitive and behaviourist models recognise that culture exerts a considerable influence on consumer behaviour.

The first part of this chapter (Sections 2 and 3) is devoted to a survey of consumer behaviour models. The second part (Sections 4 and 5) deals with culture generally and the impact of culture on the marketing strategies of global companies. Also, it deals with certain characteristics of Chinese and British culture that have a bearing on consumer purchasing behaviour.

3.2 Definitions of consumer behaviour

Various authors put forward definitions which appear to differ only in emphasis.

- Consumer behaviour according to Williams (1982) is:

  " all purchase-related activities, thoughts, and influences that occur before, during, and after the purchase itself as performed by buyers and consumers of products and services and those who influence the purchase (p.5).
- Wilkie (1990):

> *"the activities that people engage in when selecting, purchasing, and using products and services so as to satisfy needs and desires. Such activities involve mental and emotional processes, in addition to physical actions"* (p.12).

Aware of increasing concern for the environment and the need to recycle resources, other authors include the activity of disposal in their definition of consumer behaviour:

- Engle, Blackwell & Miniard (1990):
  "those actions directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions" (p.3).
- Schiffman & Kanuk (1991):
  "the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs" (p.5).
- Wilkie (1994):
  "the mental, emotional, and physical activities that people engage in when selecting, purchasing, using, and disposing of products and services so as to satisfy needs and desires" (p.14).
- Solomon (1996):
  "the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires" (p.7).

3.3 Models of consumer behaviour

3.3.1 The function of a model

The many variables involved in consumer behaviour and their interaction on each other lead to complexity. To overcome this complexity various attempts have been made to simplify the process into a model (Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979; Williams, 1982). Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) define a model as *"a simplified representation of* *reality*" (p.35). Williams (1982) defines the purpose of a model as identifying the more significant activities, characteristics and determinants of a phenomenon and dealing with the interplay of those activities, characteristics and determinants (p.48).

Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979) describe a model as follows:

- *A model is a representation of something (in our case, a process). Usually a model connects several components in such a way that there is a final whole which represents the "something". The consumer model represents consumer decision process.*
- *A model exhibits the structure of whatever is being modelled. Thus, a consumer behaviour model shows the structure of the behaviour of consumers. Usually the modelled behaviour is the decision making process.*
- *A model tells us something about the properties or activities of the phenomenon of consumer behaviour. Thus, it is a framework, a schema, a representation of what is believed to actually occur when consumers make decisions about purchases.* (p.515~6)

These last two authors explain what in their view constitute the desirable features of a model: A model should be:

1. *Capable of explanation as well as prediction*
2. *General*
3. *High in heuristic power*
4. *High in unifying power*
5. *Internally consistent*
6. *Original*
7. *Plausible (have face validity)*
8. *Simple*
9. *Supported by facts*
10. *Testable, Verifiable* (p.518)

For them the difficult task is to understand and fit together all of the components of consumer behaviour. They acknowledge that no model of consumer behaviour can exist which meets all of the above criteria. Therefore, in their view, it is not justified to criticise a particular model for failing to do so.

3.3.2 Cognitive models

The following diagrams (Figures 3.1 to 3.5) provide a simplified overview of cognitive models of consumer behaviour:

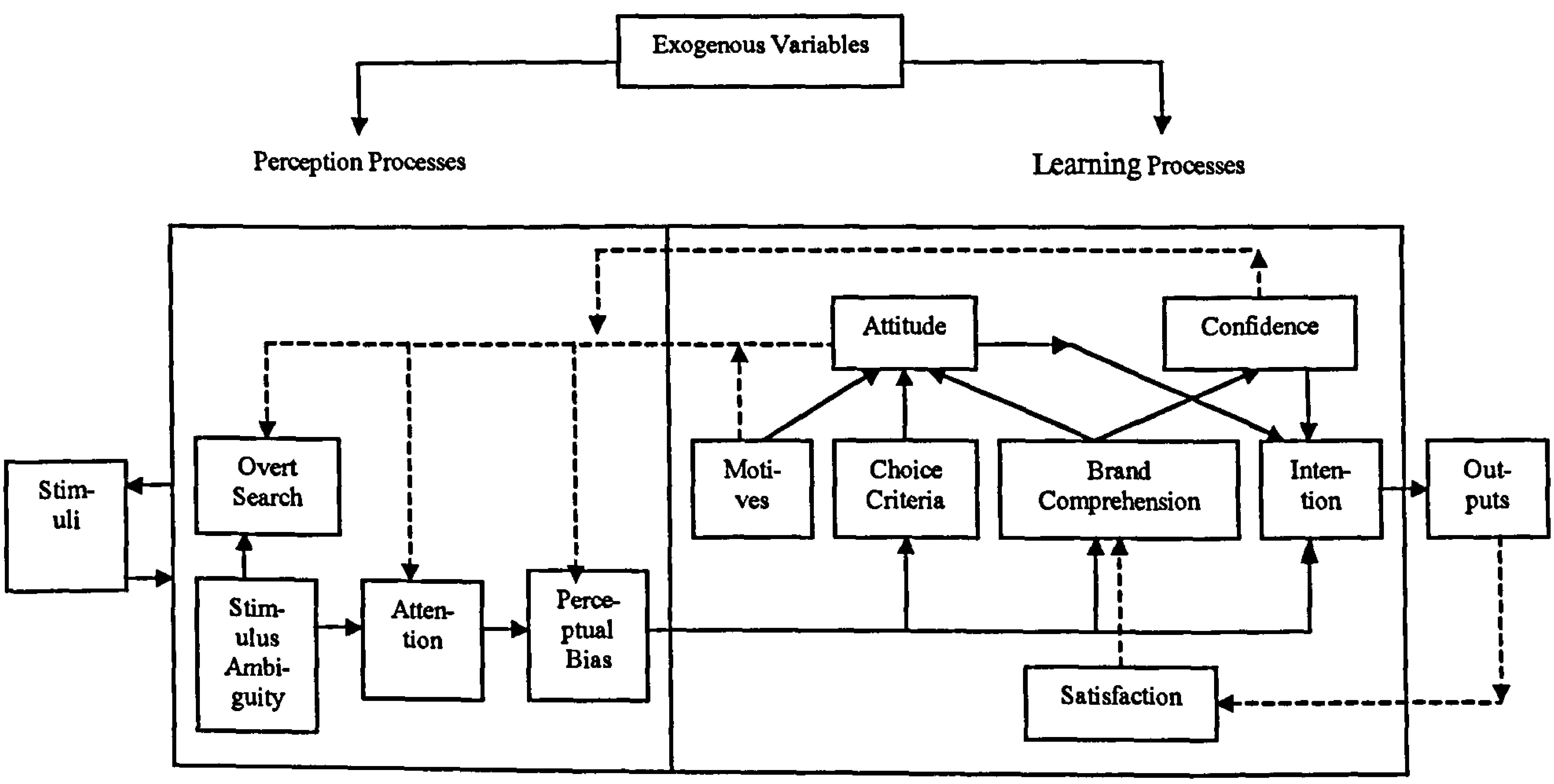
- the Howard and Sheth model
- the Sheth family decision-making model
- the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (E.K.B) model
- the Kerby model
- the Nicosia model

3.3.2.1 Howard and Sheth model

Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979) devote considerable attention to the Howard and Sheth model of consumer behaviour because of its wide acceptance and use. It has also been used as a base for other models (p.520).

Zaltman and Wallendorf explain that the following diagram represents a simplified version of the Howard and Sheth model.

Figure 3.1: **Diagram of the Howard and Sheth model**



Simplified version of Howard & Sheth model (in Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, p.523)

This model highlights the processes and variables affecting behaviour before and during a purchase. It emphasises three key variables:

- perception
- learning
- attitude formation

Stimuli are perceived, learning takes place and outputs are achieved (such as a purchase). The three stages are affected by exogenous variables. The components in the basic structure of the model include contributory variables. Stimuli come from commercial or social sources and include "*product quality, price, distinctiveness, service and product availability as well as information from one's family and reference groups*" (p.521). Under exogenous variables, we see socio-psychological buyer characteristics such as "*the importance of the purchase to the person, the person's culture, social class, personality traits, the social and organisational setting, time pressure and financial status*" (p.521).

The model does not attempt to explain how these exogenous variables (especially, for example, a particular personality trait such as introversion) occur or why they change with time. It tries to explain how they affect the perception and learning processes. The authors stress the importance of taking into account the sources of these exogenous variables and give the example of the differing behaviour of two people from the same social class. The one who was born in and remained in the middle class will behave differently from the one who has risen into the middle class from working-class origins. For these writers, therefore, it is important to consider the sources of change in exogenous variables (p.521).

This model lays emphasis on processes and variables which affect behaviour before and during a purchase. Zaltman and Wallendorf's evaluation of the Howard-Sheth model can be summarised in Table 3.1 below.

3.3.2.2 Sheth family decision-making model

Williams (1982) states that the wide range of research carried out on family-decision-making draws attention to the need to regard the family not as a set of individual consumers but as a complex interacting unit: "*Seldom can one family member be singled out as the chief purchaser or decision maker*" (p.205).

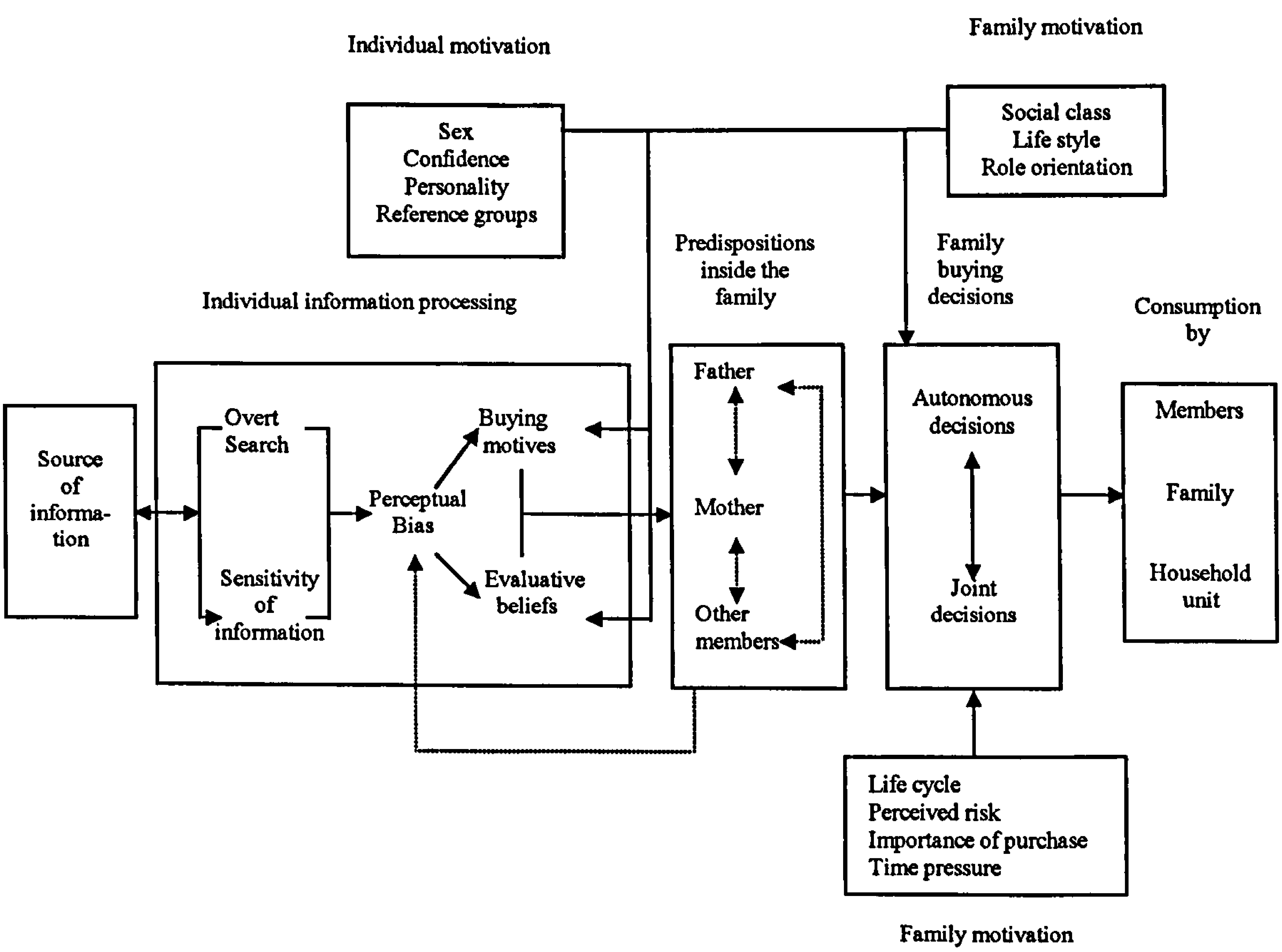
Table 3.1: **Evaluation of the Howard-Sheth model**

Function served	Weaknesses	Strengths
• shows the processes and variables affecting an individual's behaviour prior to and during a purchase. • most widely used and discussed of the different models of consumer behaviour. • has served as the foundation for other models.	• problems with explanation and prediction. • limited in its generality. • limitations arise from treating social influences in a tangential way.	• good for explaining brand choice decisions. • facilitates learning and discovery, and encourages more research on consumer behaviour. • its unifying power brings together several topical areas in one model. • can be tested experimentally.

(Adapted from Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, pp.525-527)

Figure 3.2 below represents a simplified version of Sheth's model of family decision-making.

Figure 3.2: **Diagram of the Sheth family decision-making model**



Simplified version of Sheth family decision-making model
(adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991, p.582)

As can be seen, from Figure 3.2, information input is followed by individual information processing within the family, leading to psychological systems representing the distinct predispositions of the father, mother and other family members. These separate predispositions lead into family buying decisions, which can be individually (autonomously) or jointly determined. This is followed by a consumption stage involving members, family and household. There are factors which influence whether a specific purchase decision will be autonomous or joint. Some of these factors relate to individual motivation: sex, confidence, personality and reference groups; other factors relate to family motivation: social class, life style, role orientation, family life-cycle, perceived risk, importance of purchase and time pressure.

A family's life-style differs from social class to social class. It also varies a great deal within classes. Family life style is determined by individual family members' values, personalities, interests and attitudes. The latter, in turn, are influenced by culture, subculture, social class and other reference persons and groups (Williams, 1982, p.205).

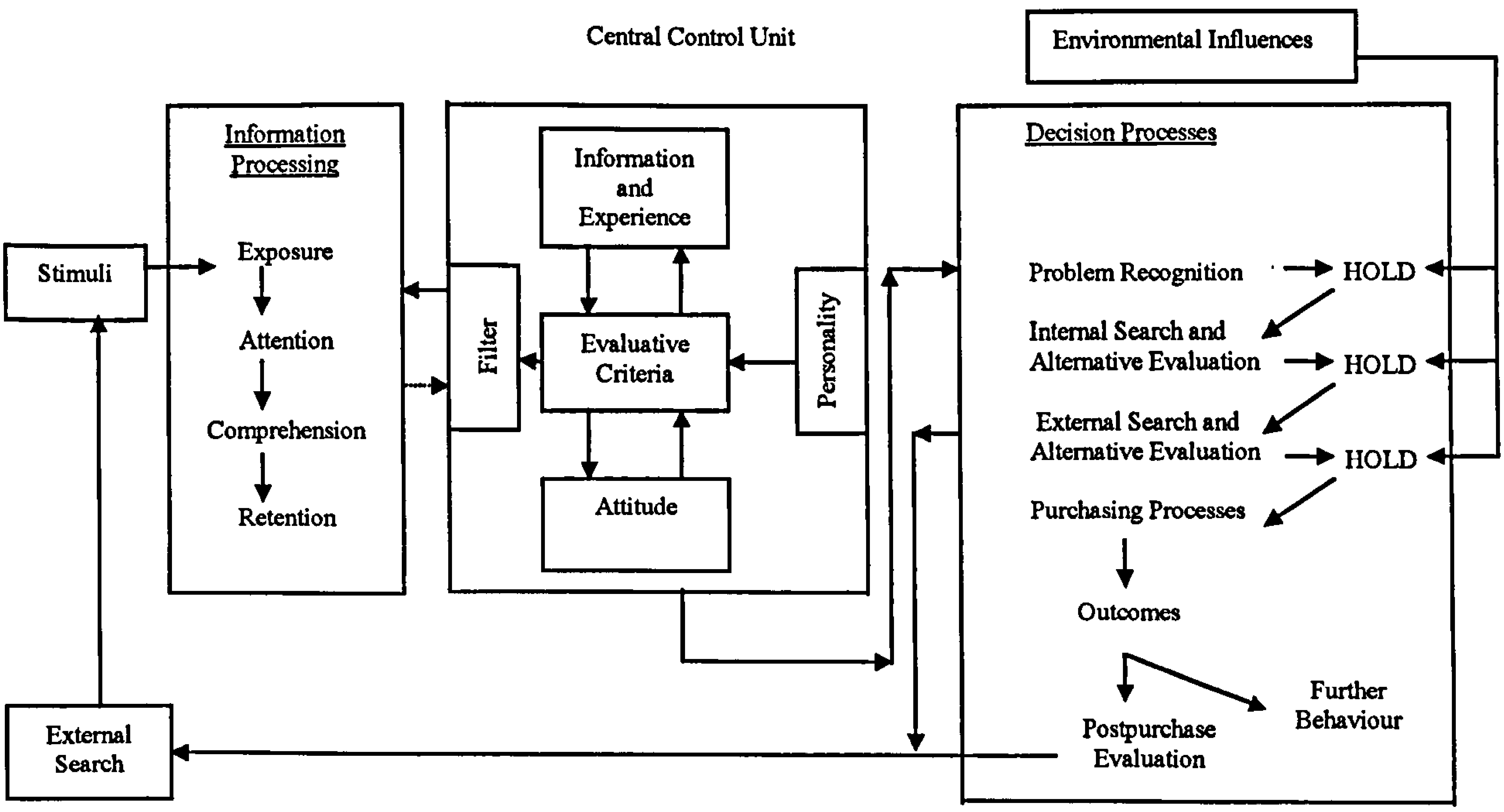
3.3.2.3 Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (E.K.B) model

The E.K.B model resembles the Howard-Sheth model in that it, too, is based on the learning processes. The different kinds of search behaviour (depending on how routine or unusual the purchase is) of the E.K.B model can be compared to the extended, limited and automatic problem-solving situations described by Howard and Sheth (Zaltman & Wallendorf, 1979, p.530).

Figure 3.3 below shows the diagram, simplified by Zaltman & Wallendorf (1979). The basic components of the E.K.B model are stimuli, processing of information, the decision process and environmental influence. Zaltman & Wallendorf explain the operation of the model. The consumer is made aware of information or a product by the stimuli, then the information is processed and forms the basis for an attitude. When a situation arises in which the consumer finds himself faced with a task or problem, such as buying a present for someone, he retrieves the information stored in his memory and considers various possible presents. If there is insufficient information, the consumer looks for further information before making his decision. Environmental influences play a role in determining whether the consumer continues through the output decision process. These environmental influences are culture, social class, personal influences, family and situation (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995, pp.144-145).

The strengths of the E.K.B. model are said to lie in its "*unification of concepts and propositions rather than in the originality inherent in its linkages*" (Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, p.532). The same authors describe it as having many of the same problems of explanation which the Howard & Sheth model has: it does not indicate when particular variables influence others, how this influence takes place, or how strong the influence is. Moreover, the E.K.B. model has never been tested and, as Zaltman and Wallendorf point out, it would be difficult to develop a method for testing it (p.532).

Figure 3.3: **Diagram of the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (E.K.B) model**

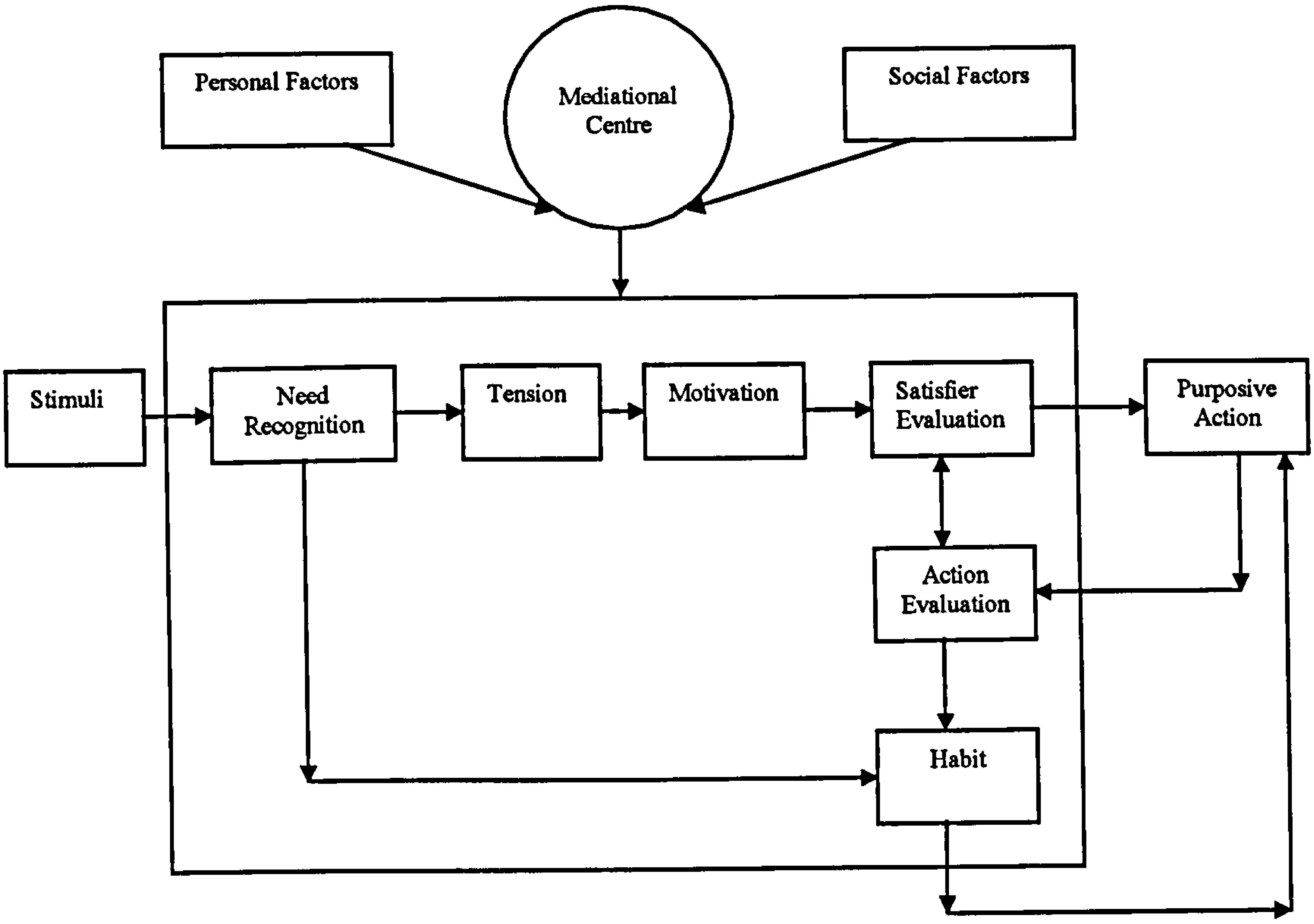


Simplified, earlier, version of the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (E.K.B) model
(in Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, p.531)

3.3.2.4 Kerby model

The Kerby model of consumer behaviour is described by Zaltman & Wallendorf as being simple and, for that reason, useful in deriving the essentials of further models of consumer behaviour (p.533). The following diagram (Figure 3.4) shows a simplified version of the model, devised by Zaltman & Wallendorf.

Figure 3.4: **Diagram of the Kerby model**



Simplified version of Kerby model (in Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, p.534)

Zaltman & Wallendorf (1979) explain the functioning of the model. Stimuli cause the consumer to feel and recognise a need. In a non-routine type situation, this need pushes the consumer towards taking action and induces him to assess the range of possible alternatives which could lead to the satisfying of his need. This process then produces the major output: purposive action. The model provides for the evaluation of previous action. An action may become a habitual response if it is seen to be always the best and most satisfying response among the available alternatives. The consumer is able to reflect on his past experience in evaluating each fresh situation (p.533).

What in the Howard-Sheth model are termed "*exogenous variables*" are here called "*personal factors*" and "*social factors*". The former include "*perceptions, attitudes, learning, personality, attention, memory, and economic constraints*". Social factors are "*emulation, social class, reference groups and the cultural environment*" (p.533).

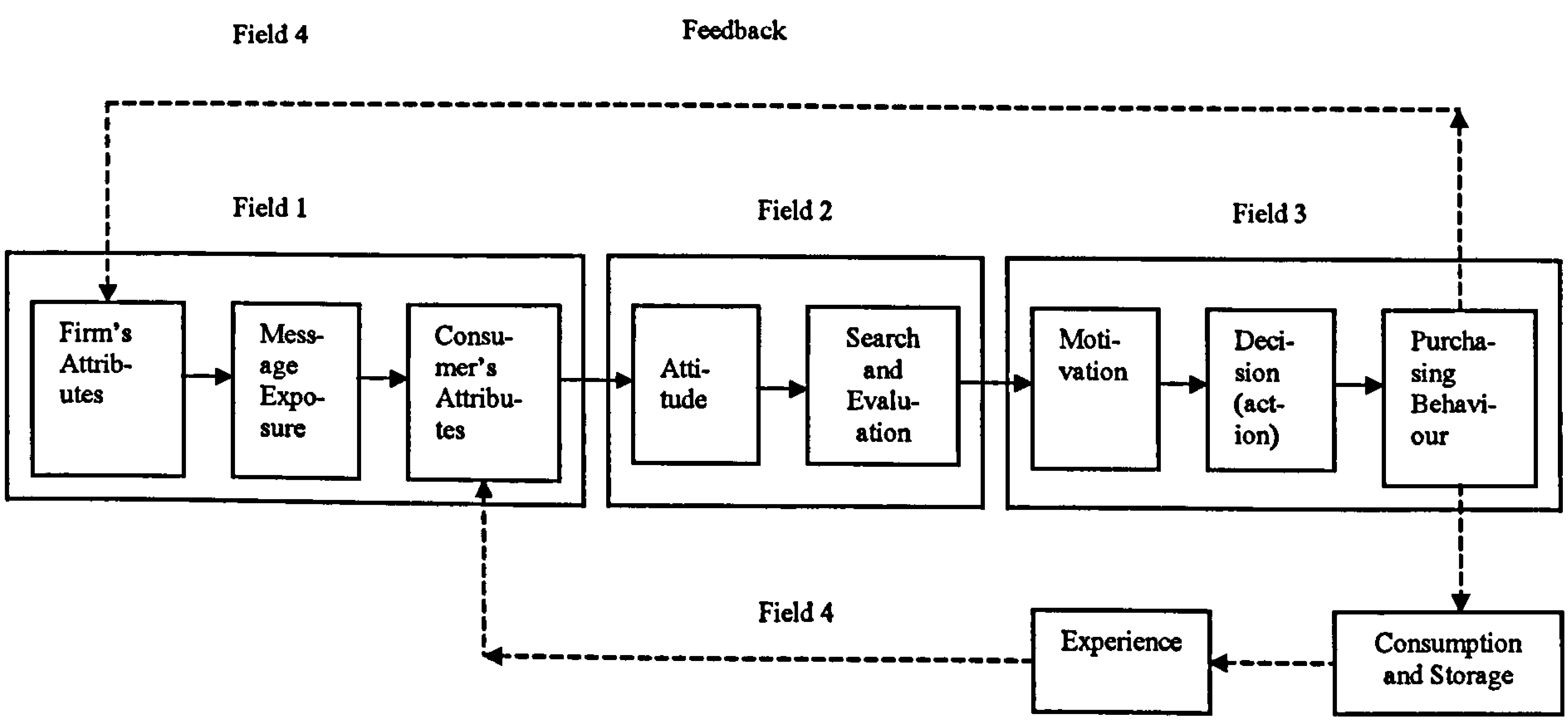
The strengths of the Kerby model are described by Zaltman and Wallendorf as being its simplification of the processes underlying consumer behaviour and its inclusion of the basic variables. According to these authors, four main problems are recognised by Kerby concerning his model: the personal factors and the social factors are not connected; there is no feedback to the personal factors and the social factors; the factors are not given any weighting (therefore it would be difficult to represent the model in mathematical terms for testing purposes); finally, the model is static and does not allow for the continual change within a person which comes from learning and experience (pp.533-534).

3.3.2.5 Nicosia model

This model is termed dyadic in the sense that it regards consumer behaviour not as behaviour by an isolated individual but as the product of an interaction between two parties: the consumer and the selling firm. Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979) explain: " *the firm affects the consumer, the consumer affects the firm and the consumer's behaviour affects his or her behaviour in the future*" (p.535).

Figure 3.5 shows the processes within the model.

Figure 3.5: **Diagram of the Nicosia model**



Simplified version of the Nicosia model (in Zaltman and Wallendorf, 1979, p.538)

These processes are divided into four fields. In Field 1 are located the processes which pass a message from the selling firm to the consumer. Field 2 contains immediate responses by the consumer to the message. Here, attitudes are formed and alternative courses of action are assessed prior to entry to the action stage of the model. Field 3 is where the consumer develops motivation for action and then takes action (i.e. makes the purchase). Field 4 contains post-purchase feedback linkages. One item of feedback goes to the firm in the form of sales data, another goes to the consumer's memory and forms part of his stored experience available for later retrieval (pp.537-538).

As shown in the above diagram, Field 1 contains the firm's attributes, which lead to message exposure and then feed into "consumer's attributes". The latter appears to be a broadly-based category and would appear to cover such things as the individual's background, including social, cultural values and personality traits. In this way, the model, like all the others considered so far, appears to make provision for cultural influence in the creation of attitude.

One of the strengths of Nicosia's model is the fact that it is the only model which explicitly includes the seller. Other strengths are described as being its recognition of the many stages between attitude formation and actual behaviour (which go same way to explaining the problems that marketers have when they discover that professed attitudes are not always reliable predictors of actual consumer behaviour). A further strength lies in the fact that the model shows the change in consumer attributes which comes about as a result of the experience of evaluating, selecting, purchasing and using a product. A weakness of this model is its lack of explicitness in describing how and when the attributes of consumers or sellers function. In this sense, the model requires further elaboration.

It can be concluded from this that researchers and authors in this field have identified a variety of important variables that influence buyers. These are included in the five models outlined above and may be summarised as: exogenous variables (Howard and Sheth model); family life style (Sheth family decision-making model); environmental influences (E.K.B. model); social factors (Kerby model); and consumer attributes (Nicosia model). Of significance to this thesis it that all of them recognise that culture exerts a powerful influence on consumer behaviour.

3.3.3 Behaviourist model

The cognitive models examined above belong together because they are based on the same fundamental assumptions concerning the way human beings think and act. Another, different, approach to the same problem of human motivation is represented by the behaviourist school of psychology. This approach provides the base for an alternative theory of consumer behaviour. The following table shows in summary form the main differences between the cognitive and behaviourist schools of psychology.

Table 3.2: **Differences between Behaviourist and Cognitive Schools of Psychology**

Behaviourist	Cognitivist
Observed behaviour is all important	What goes on in the person's mind is most relevant
Behaviour is predictable	Behaviour is unpredictable
A person is an information transmitter	People are information generators
The world is seen as objective	The world is seen as subjective
Behaviour is rational	Behaviour is irrational
People are all alike	Each person is unique
Behaviour is described in absolute terms	Behaviour is described in relative terms
Human characteristics can be studied independently	A person must be studied as a whole
Emphasises what a person is	Emphasises what a person can be
Behaviour is completely understandable	Behaviour cannot be completely understood

(Taken from Williams, 1982, p.15)

The behaviourist model advocated by Foxall (1996) is known as the Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM). This model is seen to be an appropriate instrument for dealing with the complexities of consumer behaviour in the sense that it places consumer behaviour in the context of the act of purchase and consumption, taking into account the environmental variable stimuli which control that behaviour. Foxall expressed dissatisfaction with the inability of cognitivist measures of attitude and intention to predict consumer behaviour (except under conditions which provided the closest situational correspondence). Accordingly, he registered the need for alternative explanations and sought an alternative paradigm which was not based upon cognitive information processing and intrapersonal, mentalist psychological theories.

Foxall's approach relies on B.F. Skinner's radical behaviourism. The paradigm brought out by Skinner is termed the Experimental Analysis of Behaviour (EAB).

3.3.3.1 The Experimental Analysis of Behaviour (EAB)

The EAB theory attributes the causation of behaviour to factors that lie outside the subject, in direct contrast to the explanations of consumer behaviour put forward by cognitivism. Two important elements that go to make up the EAB are radical behaviourism and operant conditioning.

1. Radical behaviourism

Foxall (1990) states that radical behaviourism is a *"philosophy of science which explains behaviour by reference to its environmental consequences"* (p.26). It rejects the explanations according to which behaviour is caused by prior intrapersonal events. These intrapersonal events are variously described by Skinner as *"mental, neural or hypothetical" and depend on "states of mind, feelings, traits of character, purposes and intentions"* (quoted in Foxall, 1990, p.26 and 1996, p.171). Radical behaviourism reinterprets these mental events as the responses to earlier stimuli rather than the causes of behaviour.

2. Operant conditioning

The experimental technique termed operant conditioning suggests that the rate of performance of a response is controlled by antecedent and contingent stimuli. The theory of operant conditioning states that the determining factor in any behaviour is the environment in which it is performed. The likelihood of a particular behaviour being repeated, and the rate, at which it will be repeated, is determined by the consequences of that behaviour. Thus, a particular behaviour operates on the environment and is termed an operant. The operant is likely to be repeated provided that it is reinforced by its consequence (its reinforcer).

3.3.3.2 Operant behaviour

If we look more closely at radical behaviourism in Foxall (1996) we find the explanation that *"the probability of a response depends on the consequences that similar responses have produced in the past"* (p.8). Where such consequences have been followed by an increase in the response rate, they are termed *"reinforcers"* (strengthening that particular response): conversely, where they are followed by a decrease in the response rate, they are termed aversive or "*punishers*". Consumer behaviour is thus considered to be a series of responses that operate on the environment to produce consequences. This behaviour is termed *operant behaviour.*

Foxall (1996) sums up the operant behaviour model in the following paradigm:

$$S^{D} \rightarrow R \rightarrow S^{R/A}$$

where S^{D} represents a discriminative stimulus (such as a store logo), R is the response to that stimulus (entering the store) , and $S^{R/A}$ represents reinforcing or aversive stimuli (obtaining a valued product or parting with one's money) which feed back into a person's learning history and act as an influence on his future behaviour (p.10).

Foxall (1996) rejects any possibility within the behaviourist paradigm of attributing the causation of behaviour to internal mental events or processes, such as memory, attitudes or intentions (p.10). He states that radical behaviourism does not deny the existence of the mental process of thinking, reasoning, feeling and consciousness, but defines them as behaviours. They are a function of the environmental history of the human being, rather than the direct causes of his overt actions.

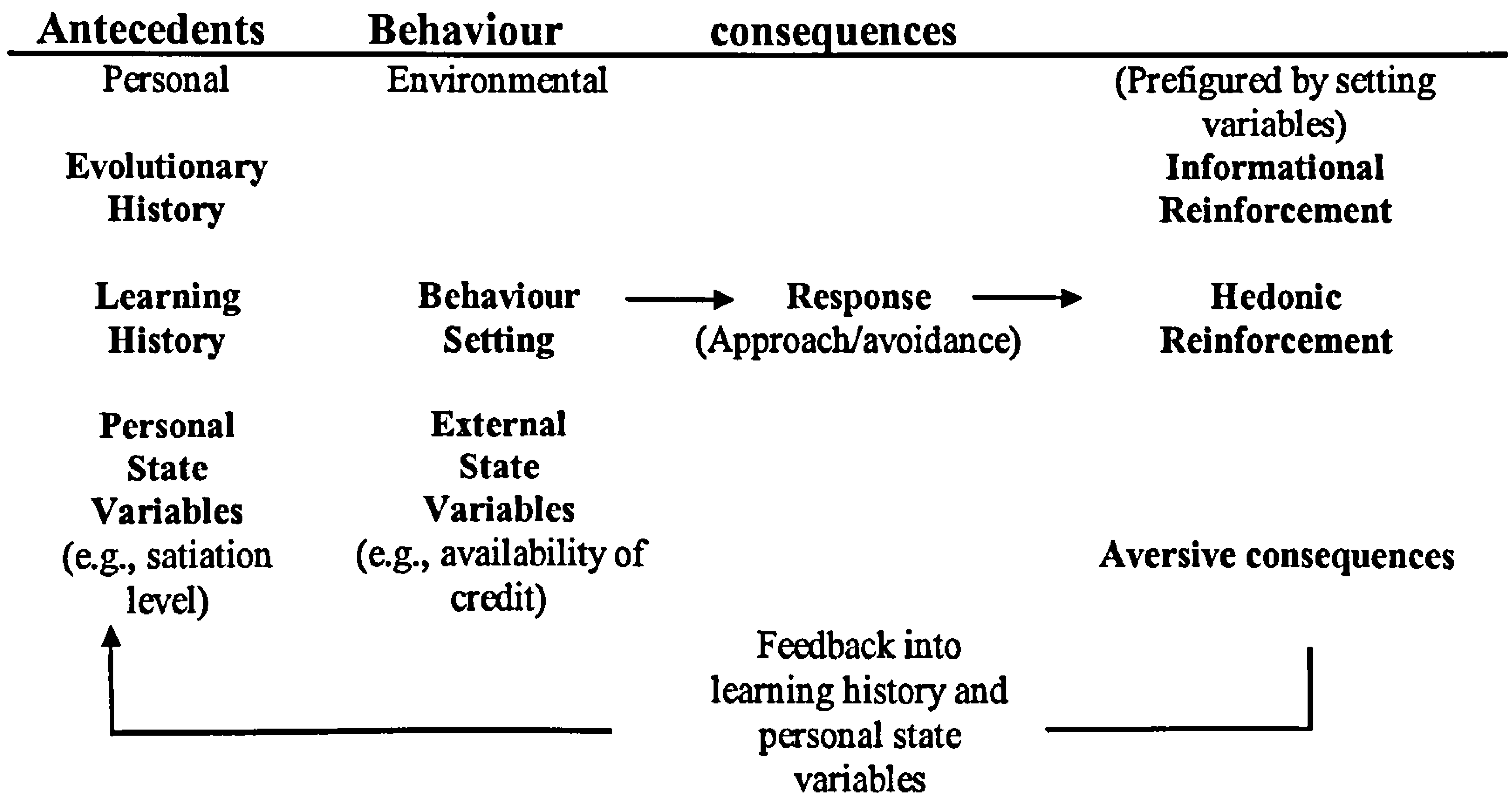
3.3.3.3 Foxall's Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM)

Foxall (1996) goes on to adapt the operant behaviour model in order to produce his own more elaborate version, the Behavioural Perspective Model, which is designed to apply the simple operant conditioning model to the complexities of consumer behaviour in affluent societies. Figure 3.6 below shows the BPM paradigm.

In Foxall's BPM, stimulus is a complex phenomenon comprising personal antecedents (evolutionary history, learning history, personal state variables) and environmental factors (behaviour setting and external state variables). These produce a response on the part of the consumer (whether approach or avoidance), leading to reinforcement (either informational, hedonic or aversive). The latter feeds back into the personal antecedents of the consumer.

Figure 3.6:

Paradigm of the Foxall's Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM)

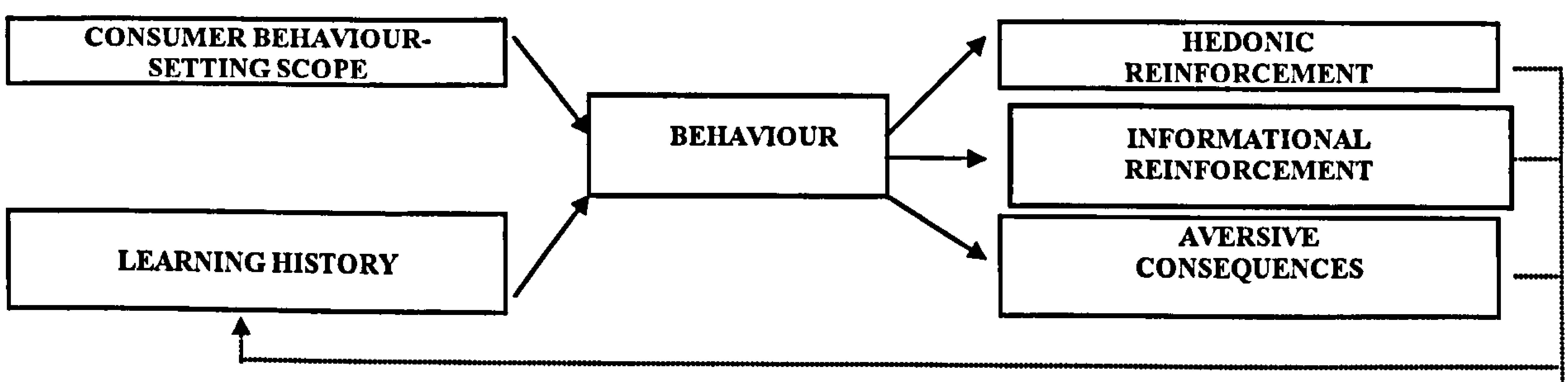


The BPM paradigm (Foxall, 1996, p.15)

For Foxall, the virtue of the BPM is that it *"contextualizes prepurchase, purchase and postpurchase responses by situating them at interaction of the consumer and the behaviour setting in which he or she acts"* (p.346). Foxall thus interprets consumer behaviour as the result of the interaction of the current behaviour setting and the learning history of the consumer. He summarises his model as shown in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7:

Diagram of the Behavioural Perspective Model of consumer choice



The Behavioural Perspective Model of consumer choice (Foxall, 1996, p.26)

In the Behavioural Perspective Model, the category of Learning History contains the learning accumulated by the consumer throughout his life. This would appear to include the raw material of experience contributing to the creation of his cultural values. For cultural values are acquired by an individual from his environment and can thus be seen to correspond to what is here termed "learning history". In this way, Foxall's model, like the cognitive models examined earlier, makes provision for cultural influence on buying behaviour.

It would appear difficult to use any single model exclusively to explain the complexity of consumer buying behaviour. It is interesting to note that Foxall (1990) points out that he recognises the limitations of a purely behaviourist approach to explaining and predicting consumer behaviour (p.1). He does not claim exclusivity for his view over all other theories nor does he argue for complete a switch away form cognitivism, or for the superiority of behaviourist explanations of complex human behaviour. What he does try to establish is the inadequacy of any single theory to provide a complete explanation of such behaviour. He thus believes that it is necessary to pay attention to all theories in the interests of advancing scientific knowledge (Foxall, 1990, p.1).

Nevertheless, as already noted above (section 3.3.3, p.37) he does criticise the cognitivist approach. As he points out, empirical evidence shows that the notion put forward by some cognitivists, according to which attitudes mediate behaviour regardless of circumstances or situational factors, is unreliable. Once it is recognised that situational factors have a prior importance in the prediction of consumer choice, then the latent process conception must make way for a more probabilistic, behavioural conception (Foxall, 1983, p.108).

Foxall (1983) refers to the use of a behavioural conception of attitude in marketing research and management: "*To the extent that they have accepted a behaviourally based idea of attitude, both social psychologists and consumer researchers have moved from cognitive information processing as their fundamental anchorage point towards behaviourism*" (p.109). He is anxious to emphasise the fact that these social psychologists and consumer researchers avoid extremes in both approaches, cognitive and behavioural alike. Those arguing the case for behaviour theory do so without, however, denying the legitimacy of cognitive learning perspectives. Thus Foxall (1983) raises the question of the way by which the behaviourist viewpoint can be accommodated: "*The idea that behaviourist and cognitive psychologies can co-exist, each being employed in the study of a particular subset of human behaviour, is* *predictably anathema to those who adhere steadfastly to one or other of these philosophies"* (p.109).

He points to one promising possibility. Consumer choice can be dichotomised in such a way that a new framework (behavioural) can be introduced, while at the same time retaining the old (cognitive). The obvious place for a behaviourally based paradigm in consumer research has been located, according to Foxall (1983), in the explanation of low involvement behaviour. A useful hypothesis, therefore, would be that the behaviourally based learning paradigm is useful for explaining and prediction of low involvement consumer choice and the cognitive paradigm is better for explaining high involvement consumer choice, though further research is needed on the subject. Although consumer research is a young science, as already noted above, Engel and Blackwell in 1982 had already acknowledged the cognitive/behavioural dichotomy and accommodated it within two models, one for high involvement consumer choice and the other for low involvement (p.112). This would appear to offer a suitable way to take in two viewpoints which, as Foxall observes, are antithetical regarding the causes and effects of human choice (p.109).

Foxall's Behavioural Perspective Model of consumer behaviour implicitly takes account of culture as an influential variable. In his model, the Learning History category covers the learning accumulated by the consumer throughout his or her life and this includes acquired cultural values. Thus, it can be seen that culture is important to the behaviourist model, just as it is to the cognitive models.

Table 3.3 below summarises the influential variables affecting consumer behaviour as seen by the cognitive and behaviourist models. This table highlights the factors that affect those processes of purchase decision-making which come from individual differences and environmental influences. It also shows the presence of cultural and environmental influences within each model and points to the general acceptance by the authors of these models that culture plays a significant role in their explanations of buyer behaviour.

Table 3.3:

Selected influences affecting consumer behaviour as identified in the models of Howard-Sheth, Sheth, E.K.B, Kerby, Nicosia, and Foxall

Howard-Sheth model	**Sheth family decision-making model**	**E.K.B model**	**Kerby model**	**Nicosia model**	**Foxall's BPM model**
"**exogenous variables**" these are: • *culture* • social class • personality • social & organisational setting • time pressure • financial status	"**individual motivation**" these are: • sex • confidence • personality • reference groups "**family motivation**" these are: • social class • life style • role orientation • *life cycle (influenced by culture, subculture, social class, and reference groups)* • perceived risk • importance of purchase • time pressure	"**environmental influences**" these are: • *culture* • social class • personal influences • family • situation	Kerby's person & social factors resemble closely Howard-Sheth's exogenous variables. "**personal factors**" these are: • perceptions • attitudes • learning • personality • attention • memory • economic constraints "**social factors**" these are: • emulation • social class • reference groups • ***cultural environment***	"**Consumer's Attributes**" these are: • *culture* • social class • personality	"**Learning History**" these are: • social and ***cultural values***

From the above examination of the cognitive and behaviourist models, it is argued that the cognitive models seem to be the most appropriate for explaining the cultural and environmental influences on consumer purchasing behaviour. While all acknowledge the impact of culture, the cognitive models obviously give a more detailed description, particularly where customers think carefully about their purchase, whether it is for themselves or for others. Out of all the cognitive models mentioned in this chapter, the E.K.B. model was selected as it provides the best explanation for the cultural and environmental influences on consumer behaviour. It includes measurable variables (such as personal income, spending and attitude to the product) and allows the researcher to formulate hypotheses and test the impact of cultural influence on the behaviour of present-giving and shopping around, as well as customer attitudes to environment, animal welfare and animal ingredients.

3.4 Cultural and environmental influences

3.4.1 Definitions of culture

Since culture is identified as an important influential variable, it is necessary to clarify its meaning. The literature offers definitions of culture which broadly resemble one another. Where they differ is in detail or in emphasis. For example, the definition contributed by Tylor (1871), which is regarded by Wilkie (1990) as still valid today as a classic statement, describes culture as: .... *that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society* (p.348).

This definition was adopted by Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) and is similar to those put forward by Block and Roering (1979) as well as Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995):

- *The term "culture" is used to mean the complex set of values ideas, attitudes, and other meaningful symbols created by humans to shape behavior and the artifacts of that behavior that are transmitted from one generation to the next.* (Block and Roering, 1979, p.101)
- *A set of values ideas, artifacts and other meaningful symbols that help individuals communicate, interpret, and evaluate as members of society.* (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995, p.611)

All these writers thus view culture as a set of ideas, beliefs and attitudes which are given to a person as a result of living in a particular society and which serve to influence behaviour and furnish that society with art forms and artifacts.

3.4.2 The components of culture

Culture can be described as possessing two sorts of component: non-material and material. Table 3.4 below shows the different elements which make up each category, as seen in a context of marketing and consumer behaviour.

Table 3.4: **Elements within the components of culture**

	Non-material component of culture	Material component of culture
Elements within the component	• the words used by people • the ideas, customs, and beliefs shared by people • the habits pursued by people	• all the physical substances that have been changed and used by people (such as tools, artifacts and so on...)
Elements as seen in a marketing and consumer behaviour context	• the way which consumers shop in supermarkets • the desire of consumers for new and better products • responses by consumers to the word "sale"	• all the products and services which are produced and consumed • marketing institutions (shops and other retail outlets) • advertisements

(Summarised from Loudon and Della Bitta, 1998, p.164)

3.4.3 The characteristics of culture

Culture has been described as satisfying people's needs (Block and Roering, 1979; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991). These needs are the basic biological ones as well as those which are learned (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988). These authors point out that cultural norms will not persist once they cease to satisfy the needs of those that follow them.

Culture is characterised as something that is learned, inculcated and passed from one generation to the next (Block and Roering, 1979; Williams, 1982; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995). As Loudon and Della Bitta point out, people invent their culture and three interdependent systems (ideological, technological and organisational) contribute to the invented culture. It is also generally observed that culture is shared, socially organised and integrated (Block and Roering, 1979; Williams, 1982; Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991; Solomon, 1996).

It is generally recognised that culture is not static, but rather dynamic and adaptive (Block and Roering, 1979). Cultures are seen to change at different rates, some slowly, others more rapidly (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988). They must change over time in order to survive (Berkman and Gilson, 1978) and function in the best interests of the people (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991).

Although they can all be seen to possess certain ideological, technological and organisational systems (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1998), cultures differ from each other. Thus, as soon as it is necessary to get beyond generalities and go into detail, it becomes necessary to recognise the individuality of the culture in any given society. Moreover, it is necessary to recognise the existence of subcultures within nations. These are minority groupings which subsist in a different form within the larger community. Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) explain: "*All cultures exhibit certain similarities. For example, each of the following elements is found in all societies: athletic sports, bodily adornment, a calendar, cooking, courtship, dancing, education, family, gestures, government, housing, language, law, music, religious ritual, and numerous other items. There is, however, great variation from society to society in the nature of each of these elements* (p.166).

The following table sums up the various characteristics of culture as seen in the literature.

Table 3.5:

The characteristics of culture according to different authors

Berkman and Gilson (1978, pp.86-93)	**Block and Roering** (1979. pp.102-105)	**Williams** (1982, pp.175-177)	**Loudon and Della Bitta** (1988, pp.165-167)	**Schiffman and Kanuk** (1991, pp.393-402)	**Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard** (1995, pp.613-614)	**Solomon** (1996, pp.540-541)
Culture gratifies people's needs	Culture is gratifying	-	Culture is gratifying and persistent	Culture satisfies needs	Culture rewards socially gratifying responses	-
Culture is learned	Culture is learned	Culture is learned	Culture is learned	Culture is learned	Culture is learned	Belief and practices in culture are taught
Culture is a basic factor in the mentality of its members and commands obedience	Culture is inculcated	Culture defines and constrains behaviour	Culture is invented and prescriptive	Culture is deep-seated and engrained and commands obedience	Culture is inculcated	
-	-	Culture is shared	Culture is socially shared	Culture is shared	-	Ideological worldview is shared
-	Culture is a social phenomenon	Culture is generally integrated	Culture is organised and integrated	-	-	Social structure is maintained
Culture is adaptive	Culture is adaptive		Culture is adaptive	-	Culture is adaptive	Culture reflects adaptation to habitat
Cultural change is on-going	-	Culture is dynamic	-	Culture is dynamic	-	-
-	-	-	Cultures are similar but different	-	-	-

3.4.4 The impact of culture in globalisation and localisation

3.4.4.1 Globalisation and localisation

Hutt and Speh (1995) point out that the main forces which drive companies around the world to globalise by expanding their participation in foreign markets are the lowering of trade barriers as well as maturity in domestic markets (p.257). The following table provides a framework showing factors for globalisation and strategies for entering international markets.

Table 3.6:

Factors for globalisation and strategies for entering international markets

Factors for globalisation	Market factors: • Homogeneous market needs • Global customers • Shortening product life cycle • Transferable brands and advertising • Internationalising distribution channels Economic factors: • Worldwide economies of scale in manufacturing or distribution • Steep learning curve • Worldwide sourcing efficiencies • Significant differences in country costs • Rising product development costs Environmental factors: • Falling transportation costs • Improving communications • Government policies • Technology changes Competitive factors: • Competitive interdependence among countries • Global moves of competitor • Opportunity to preempt a competitor's global moves
Strategies for entering international markets	• Exporting • Licensing • Franchising • Management contracts • Strategic alliances • Joint venture • Direct investment

(From Hutt and Speh, 1995, pp.258-268 and Jobber, 2001, pp.745-746)

No matter how a company was driven to enter international markets, by whatever factors, and no matter what strategies were chosen, the impact of cultural and environmental influences should be taken into consideration. The reason is that these influences can not only affect the strategy of the international marketing mix (product, promotion, price and place), but also have an impact on the ways of business communication and negotiation, as well as the management of human resources. In other words, multinational companies need to consider ways and means of rendering their operation compatible with local cultures and consumer preferences, as well as local business practices, that is to "localise" their operational strategies. Localisation can thus be defined as the adaptation to different political and cultural conditions and the establishment of direct contact with local consumers and employees, while at the same time preserving the benefit of global economies of scale (Segal-Horn, 1994, p.110). It includes the use of local labour wherever possible.

It was seen earlier, in Chapter 2, that Western companies are today making inroads into China. As Geng Cui (1997) points out, the success stories of larger international companies such as Avon, Proctor & Gamble, Unilever, Coca Cola, and Pepsi Co serve to entice more newcomers to the market. The availability and popularity of Western goods in China have been increasing steadily. As Johnstone (1996) states, almost every popular brand of goods, including clothes, fashion goods and cosmetics, is available. Up to a thousand different brands may be offered in some sectors of the market, as both Chinese and international producers compete for the attention of the new Chinese consumer class. Geng Cui (1997) groups Chinese consumers into four groups. Three of these: the "nouveaux riches" (haofabu); the emerging group of young people that he calls China's "yuppies" (dushi yapishi); and the "salary-men" (gongxin jieceng) have the necessary purchasing power to afford foreign products. The yuppies, together with the nouveaux riches, can be regarded as China's emerging middle class and the primary consumers of foreign goods. Geng Cui (1997) draws attention particularly to the yuppie group of consumers. Aged 25-45, with college education or technical training and working in China's new enterprises, joint ventures and foreign companies in return for what are by Chinese standards generous wages, these young urban professionals are likely to be open to new ideas and new products. Moreover, many of them have travelled or studied abroad, which makes it all the more likely that they are familiar with Western branded goods and Western-style amenities and therefore receptive to foreign products (Geng Cui, 1997). The impact of Western influences on Chinese consumers can thus be seen to be considerable.

The necessity to localise operational strategies was not heeded by all foreign entrants to the China market. Indeed, a number of multinationals found soon after establishing their presence in the market that China's huge population did not translate into a steady stream of customers. Instead, many of them saw disappointing returns on their investment: in rushing to expand their operations in the country and led on perhaps by the publicity regarding the new spending power of Chinese consumers and the success of others in the market, they made the error of not understanding fully Chinese consumer preferences. Geng Cui (1997) explains: the miscalculation made by these companies was a reflection of the tendency of foreign marketers to view China as a single, homogenous market.

Clearly, there is especial need in such circumstances for a sophisticated marketing research, based on a more intimate and discriminating knowledge of the Chinese diversity. For, as Coutts (in Crimp and Wright, 1995, p.45) observes, good international research is the basis for understanding different cultural environments: it is able to provide information and guidance leading to an appropriate assessment and pursuit of marketing opportunities on offer, and at the same time reduces risk (p.45).

3.4.4.2 Branding strategies

A brand has been described variously as something that is bought by a customer (Piercy, 2002, p.468); a means of imparting to a product a unique identity that differentiates it from its near competitors (Palmer, 2000, p.91); a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or some combination used to identify the products of one company and to differentiate them from competitive offerings (Kurtz & Boone, 1984, p.315). Brand building is seen as the only way for a firm to create a stable, long-term demand at profitable margins (Doyle, 1989, in Palmer, 2000, p.91). It is by adding values attractive to its customers that a firm is able to construct a base for expansion and product development and thereby protect itself against the strength of intermediaries and competitors (Palmer, 2000, p.91). Three key characteristics enable a brand to have value for customers: consistency in offering a high standard of quality or service; reduction of the buyer's perceived risk from physical, psychological and financial performance; the offer of a range of functional characteristics (for example, taste, shape and reliability) and emotional attributes (for example, liking and sophistication)

(Palmer, 2000, pp.94-97). Piercy (2002) adds a further characteristic: to reduce the customer's search costs, by making it easier to find the things we want (p.470). The benefits of brands are summed up by Kurtz & Boone (1984): they allow consumers to purchase the same product repeatedly; they associate the purchaser's satisfaction with brand name; they serve as the cornerstone of the product's image and quality; and they soften the rigours of price competition (pp.315-316)

When a company has decided on a distinctive brand identity for a product, the next step is to have a strategy for developing the brand. One strategy would be to develop a single strong brand; an alternative would be to develop differentiated brands or brand families (Palmer, 2000). The following table indicates the various branding strategies and their advantages and disadvantages.

Table 3.7: **Branding strategies**

Branding strategy	Advantages	Disadvantages
Development of a single strong brand: a way to apply the same brand name to everything that a company produces.	• Enables a company to concentrate all its resources on one brand, thus to obtain economise of scale in promotion.	• May risk confusing the values of a brand if the same brand which stands for a premium priced and high quality product range are applied to a budget version product. • A poorly performing product carrying its brand can tarnish all products carrying that name. • May make it more difficult for the company to dispose of the manufacture and to market products which no longer fit in its corporate plan.
Differentiated brands: a way to overcome the problem of confused brand values, by developing different brand names to serve different market segments.	• Enable a company to target different segments of the market in terms of age, disposable income, and lifestyle by using a number of different brand names.	• Less efficient in achieving economise of scale in promotion by promoting many minor brands through small campaigns.
Brand family: a way to use a number of brand names in which each product range or market segment is identified with a different brand name.	• Easy to develop a number of product ranges and under each range a line of products can be included.	• Risk of confusion in the minds of consumers about what each brand stands for.
Brand extension: a way to extend the company's brand to new product ranges.	• Easy to start a new range of products with a name whose values are familiar to consumers.	• May undermine the core values of the brand, if the extension goes too far into unrelated product areas.

(after Palmer, 2000, pp105-108)

In the context of globalisation and localisation, it is an essential task for international companies to practise their brand strategies in different countries and cultures. Therefore, whichever branding strategy is adopted, there is a need for such companies to take account of the cultural influences on brand. As Kotler (1997) points out, a brand is able to convey up to six levels of meaning: attributes, benefits, value, culture, personality and user (p.443). The most enduring meanings of the brand are its values, culture and personality (p.444). In a global marketplace, companies need to choose brand names that are appropriate across linguistic and cultural borders. Brand names must be meaningful and pronounceable in all relevant languages, otherwise firms will find that they are unable to use well-known local names as they expand abroad (Kotler, 1997, p.451; and Usunier, 2000, p.330).

In transposing a brand that was originally created for a specific national context, simple translation cannot be used. The consequences of doing so would be unfortunate, unintended meanings, dissipated brand image and failure to build international brand recognition (Usunier, 200, p.332). Kotler (1997) gives the example of the name Nova for a car: in Spanish-speaking countries "No va" means "doesn't go" – an unfortunate sobriquet to give to a vehicle (p.451). To avoid such problems, it is necessary for marketers to ensure that consumers from the target country are interviewed in order to assess the perceptual effects of intended brand names (Usunier, 2000, p.336). Usunier (2000) points out that in East Asia and particularly in China, foreign companies face a difficult task regarding brand names. Calligraphy and meaning become more important than in standard Western branding. In China, even CoCa Cola is not known exactly by its original name, for the pronunciation of "koka kola" would have conveyed to Chinese ears an unfortunate, negative meaning (Wilkie, 1990, p.383). Instead, the name "kekou kele", which means "tasty and enjoyable", was used in conjunction with the appropriate Chinese ideographic characters (Wilkie, 1994, in Usunier, 2000, p.336). In Asia, as Usunier (2000) states, a brand name must have a positive connotation. This is achieved by a combination of the following:

- Characters which convey favourable meaning, which can be pronounced in about the same way in as many regions as possible, while avoiding the pitfalls due to tonality.
- Characters which convey favourable meaning, if possible related to the brand's advertised qualities.
- A balance between yin (even number of strokes) and yang characters (odd number of strokes).

- A favourable content in terms of lucky numbers such as 8.
- Suitable calligraphy for the brand: the calligraphy must convey certain visual signs which fit with the brand imagery (p.337).

The selection of appropriate advertising of a brand is also important. The question is whether to standardise or to adapt the whole marketing mix. As Hollensen (2001) explains, standardisation permits a company to achieve economies of scale in the production of advertising materials, to reduce advertising costs and increase profitability. Set against this, is the fact that advertising is based largely on language and images. Consequently, advertising is mainly influenced by the socio-cultural behaviour of consumers in different countries (p.542).

3.4.4.3 Global healthcare awareness and the healthcare and cosmetics industries

In the context of globalisation, the factor of growing emphasis on healthcare and demand for healthcare products is a global phenomenon which cannot be ignored by the multinational marketers, whether their business is dealing with healthcare or is beauty-related. Nowadays, customers in both Asia and the West are not only seeking a more safe and more natural daily nutrition, requiring such thing as organic food and refusing genetically modified (GM) products, but also looking for more natural and safe medical and pharmaceutical products. This concern extends to the world of cosmetics and beauty products. Western medicine has for a long time dominated healthcare throughout most countries in the world. However, the traditional Eastern ways of caring for health, such as acupuncture, herbal medicine, Tai Chi (a style of exercise), Yoga and meditation, have spread from their original homelands and are now finding an increasingly firm foothold in the West.

One of the results has been, within the cosmetics industry, a trend towards including beauty or health-related properties in products. This has resulted in a certain blurring between markets in the toiletries and cosmetics industry (Key Note Report, 1992). Examples of such products include: lipsticks with sun filters (Sensiq's Pure Performance); face make-up with sunscreens (Revlon's Sunglow); eye shadows containing silk protein, and vitamins A, C and E to condition and moisturise the eye (Almay's products); nail varnish containing "Provitamin B5" for extra protection and improved nail condition (Cutex's Lasting Colour); make-up containing silk protein, vitamin E and a sunscreen (Rimmel's Silks); products with an "anti-pollution complex" and sun filters (Clarin's cosmetics range); and face powder with sun filters (Estée Lauder's Lucidity) (Key Note Report, 1992, p.34). In recent years, some new beauty or health-related properties have been developed for use in cosmetic products, such as: foundations with vitamin C, ginseng and ginkgo; blushers and rouges with skin-caring formulation which look natural on the skin; and fragrances with aromatherapy ingredients that claim to relax, calm or invigorate (Mintel, Make-up, August 2000; Mintel, Women's fragrances, July 2001). This new approach can also be seen in the marketing of cosmetics and toiletries in the China market. As mentioned earlier (in Chapter 2, p.23), cosmetics and toiletries manufacturers are responding to the fact that people are becoming more and more health-conscious. In the China market they are recognising and appealing to traditional health beliefs by adding natural ingredients to their products. Euromonitor (2002) reports that natural, functional and health-oriented products are the developing trend in China and predicts that those products containing natural plant extracts will become increasing popular over the next decade (p.2).

From the above description it can be seen that there are no major cultural differences among Eastern and Western consumers in their attitudes to the beauty or health-related properties in cosmetic and healthcare products. Consequently, it is crucially important for manufacturers in the healthcare and cosmetics industries to take full account of the global trend towards greater healthcare awareness among consumers when they develop and market new products for markets overseas.

3.4.5 Cross-cultural communication

The fact that cultures vary has implications for all types of contact and interaction between countries, whether they are political, social, economic, or technological. Cross-cultural communication has an importance impact not only in the areas such as international politics and economy but also in business and marketing strategy, since culture plays an influential role in the way that business is conducted and consumer behaviour in purchasing goods and services in the international market. As Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) point out, variation in cultural norms "*result in important consumer behaviour differences around the world*" (p.166).

Gesteland (1996) refers to a "*Great Divide*" between business cultures and points to the importance of this in the marketplace: *Whether marketing, sourcing or negotiating a joint venture, the fundamental differences between relationship-focused (RF) and deal-focused (DF) markets impact our business success throughout global marketplace. ……… This "Great Divide" between the world's cultures affects the way we conduct business from the beginning to the end of any commercial relationship* (p.17).

Relationship-focused markets are those in which the culture is based on personal relationships; that is, markets where business people operate through intricate networks of personal contacts. They are located in the Arab world, Latin America and the most of the countries of the Asia Pacific region. On the other hand, the deal-focused markets are found in North America, Northern Europe, Australia and New Zealand, where people are open to doing business directly with strangers. There is a third group of cultures which belong somewhere in between which tend to take a moderately deal-focused approach. These include most southern and eastern Europe countries and also Hong Kong and Singapore (Gesteland, 1996, p.17).

China and Taiwan belong to the relationship-focused type of culture. Relationship focused people get things done primarily through their relatives, friends, contacts and relationships. These connections are summed up in Chinese by the word "*guanxi*", a term familiar to people throughout East and Southeast Asia (Gesteland, 1996, p.22). The UK, in contrast, belongs to the deal-focused type of culture. Having useful connections and knowing the right people helps to get things done in deal-focused cultures, too, but the importance of such connections is not so great. The fact is that in relationship-focused societies it is practically impossible to succeed in any endeavour involving other people's assistance without first having recourse to one's connections. As Gesteland (1996) points out, in strongly relationship-focused markets it is possible to initiate a business relationship only if one knows the right people or if one can arrange to be introduced to them by an intermediary: "*Just try setting up a joint venture in China, for example, without having guanxi or using someone else's guanxi*" (p.22). In Taiwan also, it is very difficult to do business without *guanxi*. Admittedly, Taiwan in recent decades has come under Western influence, particularly from America, and this is reflected in its society today. However, despite all this, Taiwan shares essentially the same relationship-focused culture as mainland China.

3.4.6 *Guanxi* and the similarities and differences between Chinese and Western cultures

Yeung and Tung (1996) state that, in Chinese society, *guanxi* is a general term referring to social networking. The literal translation of the Chinese characters which make up the term is "gate/pass" or "to connect." *Guanxi* signifies the setting-up of a connection between two independent persons in order to permit bilateral personal or social transactions. In the process, each person must derive benefit from the transaction in order for the relationship to be maintained.

The similarity between *guanxi* and aspects of Western culture lies in friendship and networking patterns. However, there are also significant differences. These cultural differences are shown in the following table. The latter are analysed under six headings: the motives for engaging in social relations; reciprocation in social exchanges; time orientation; power differentiation; nature of power; and sanction practice (Yeung and Tung, 1996).

Table 3.8: **Comparison between *guanxi* and Western cultural norms**

	Guanxi	**Western culture**
The motives for engaging in social relations	Role obligation: individuals are part of a system of interdependent relationships, not isolated entities.	Self-interest
Reciprocation in social exchange	Self-loss: repay favours and increase the value of the favour given.	Self-gain: the balance of disadvantage is tilted towards the other party, not the self.
Time orientation	Long-term perspective: *guanxi* is maintained and reinforced through continuous, long-term association and interaction.	Short-term perspective: social transactions are seen as isolated occurrences and emphasis is on immediate gain from the interaction.
Power differentiation	Those in positions of power and authority must assist the disadvantaged. In return, the former gain face and a good reputation.	The powerful are under no obligation to assist those who are at a disadvantage.
Nature of power	Emphasis on personal power promotes the practice of *guanxi*, since an individual (rather than institutional authority) defines what is permissible in a given context at a particular time.	Reliance on institutional law to ensure smooth and orderly progress.
Sanction practice	Shame: this is the primary deterrent against immoral or illegal behaviour; "face and face-saving" are emphasised.	Guilt: this comes from an internalised understanding of sin; individuals feel guilty if their behaviour deviates from the cultural standards of morality.

(Yeung & Tung, 1996, pp.2-4)

3.4.7 Ways to build up and maintain *guanxi*

As mentioned earlier, it is impossible to do business successfully in relationship-focused markets without *guanxi* or something resembling it. It is essential in pursuing a successful business dealings in the Chinese market including China and Taiwan to build up and maintain good relationships with business partners. Tables 3.9 and 3.10 below provide a summary of ways to facilitate the process of *guanxi* and strategies for establishing and maintaining these good relationships.

Table 3.9: **Two ways to facilitate the process of *guanxi***

Group identification	There are two types of group identification: ascribed and achieved: • The two most common forms of ascribed *guanxi* bases are kinship and locality. Kinship refers to members of a person's immediate and extended families. Locality refers to the ancestral village or province. • Achieved *guanxi* is based on common or shared experience, such as going to the same school, serving in the same military unit, or working in the same organisation or organisational unit.
Altercasting	Most non-Chinese investors are not related to Chinese by blood and locality and therefore rely on "altercasting" to establish *guanxi*: • This refers to building up *guanxi* between two individuals who have no ascribed commonalty. • The objective is to rearrange the targeted person's social network in order to involve the individual who wishes to be included in it. • To use an intermediary who is a mutual friend of both parties is an effective way to attain the goal of *guanxi* building. • The intermediary can vouch for the behaviour and sincerity of either party. Many of these intermediaries are ethnic Chinese who have been educated abroad and have a good knowledge of both Chinese and Western cultures.

(Yeung and Tung, 1996, p.10)

Table 3.10: **Four strategies for establishing and maintaining *guanxi***

Tendering favours	To offer immediate rewards is the quickest way to establish *guanxi* in China. This can be applied by ways such as: • Gift giving • Entertainment at lavish banquets • Overseas trips • Sponsoring and supporting the children of Chinese officials at universities abroad
Nurturing long-term mutual benefits	The intent of this approach is to create an interdependence between the two parties in the relationship so that there will be great long-term benefits for both sides such as: • Achieving the primary goal of the foreign investor: business success in China. • The principal gains for the Chinese partner: the acquisition of materialistic rewards and/or enhancement of a political career.
Cultivating personal relationships	It is important to develop a personal relationship with the partner that cannot be readily imitated by others. The way to achieve it includes: • Building up an intimate relationship with the Chinese. For this, sincerity and frankness are absolutely essential • Learning an in-depth knowledge of the Chinese business associate and finding out what appeals to his or her personal needs.
Cultivating trust	Trust is an essential condition for building and maintaining *guanxi* relationships. Without trust it is impossible to build *guanxi*. Effective ways of building trust: • Deliver what you have promised • Don't cheat • Learn the Chinese culture, including its language

(Yeung and Tung, 1996, p.10-11)

3.4.8 Gift-giving in different cultures

From Table 3.10 above, it can be seen that gift-giving plays an important role in establishing and maintaining *guanxi*. Nevertheless, there are some differences between cultures in respect to gift-giving in cross-cultural negotiations. Chen (1996) states that in Asia gifts are a means of establishing and developing personal relationships and friendships both within business and in personal life. Gift-giving is a sign of a desire to cultivate and maintain goodwill. However, the Westerner may feel uneasy about the custom of gift-giving particularly in business: a gift which seems too lavish or generous can carry with it the overtones of some ulterior motive and may even appear to be a form of bribery. Chen points out that gift-giving for the Chinese is a way of "giving face" to the recipient, establishing rapport and initiating friendship. Schütte and Ciarlante (1998) also stress the importance in Asian culture of the custom of gift-giving: within a business or social context gifts provide a crucial opportunity to gain – or lose – face.

Gesteland (1996) draws a contrast between Eastern and Western cultures regarding gift-giving in business negotiations. He states that Relationship-focused cultures (RF cultures) tend to value the exchange of gifts, as this is an accepted means of building and cementing strong personal relationships. In contrast, Deal-focused cultures (DF cultures) tend not to be gift-giving. For example, in North America, as elsewhere in the West, many companies maintain strict policies regarding gifts, especially when company employees with responsibilities for purchasing are involved. The following countries are mentioned by Gesteland as RF cultures in which gift-giving is customary: China, Vietnam, Japan, Korea, Middle-Eastern countries, Brazil, Mexico. Indonesia stands out as being a country where the practice is not customary. Notable DF cultures such as the USA, Germany and the Netherlands are not gift-giving. In contrast, in Belgium and Finland, which are DF cultures, some modest gift-giving is customary.

Schütte and Ciarlante (1998) point to the importance of the packaging of gifts and consumer products throughout Asia. The packing is seen as a reflection of the quality of the contents which in turn enhance the standing of the recipient. In China, the preferred colour for packaging is red as it carries a connotation of happiness and good fortune. These authors report that the Chinese appreciate the extraordinary shapes and colours of the bottles in which expensive cognac is sold. This adds an unusual and artistic element and makes them an exclusive gift. In gift-giving or entertaining, expensive items are perceived as symbols of the value of the relationship between giver and recipient. Thus, in honour of a guest in a Chinese restaurant anywhere in Asia, only expensive brands of cognac can be offered. Asians being sensitive to the risk of losing face, regard paying the higher price for a gift as being worthwhile on account of the psychological security that it provides. In Japan, respect for the receiver means that a gift must be bought at a prestigious department store: goods for one's own personal use, however, can be bought from a discount store or supermarket. The wrapping of the gift indicates which store it comes from and automatically confers status and prestige, providing that is, it is from a leading store.

From the above views of different authors it can be seen that the practice of gift-giving in business is not common to all cultures. However, all cultures make use of gifts in their personal, non-business life, on certain occasions and in certain ceremonies (such as weddings, birthdays and feast days) (Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, 1999, p.387). The present study focuses on these personal gifts to ensure avoidance of any problems caused by cultural differences regarding the practice of business gifts.

The next section deals with some of the differences between China and Taiwan on the one hand and the UK on the other, in terms of cultural norms that have a relevance for consumer-buying behaviour.

3.5 A cross-cultural comparison of characteristics in relation to consumer behaviour between China, Taiwan and the UK

Clearly, there are considerable economical, social and political differences between people in different countries. There are differences, for example, in income level, educational attainment, employment conditions and living standards. There is need to take these differences into consideration in designing the questionnaires for the three countries. However, the emphasis in this dissertation is on a cross-cultural comparison.

3.5.1 Basic divergence between Chinese and British culture

The notion of culture, as we have seen above, is vital to the study of the variation in human behaviour that occurs from one country to another. To highlight the differences between consumer buying behaviour in China, Taiwan and the UK, it is necessary to understand the fundamental social and cultural context in which the behaviour takes place. The root causes of difference between China, Taiwan and the UK in this respect lie in the fact that China and Taiwan belong to the cultural type that is described as collectivistic, whereas the UK belongs to that described as individualistic (Gao and Ting-Toomey, 1998, pp.2-4).

The following table shows a comparison between individualistic and collectivistic cultures:

Table 3.11:

Comparison between individualistic and collectivistic cultures

Individualistic cultures	Collectivistic cultures
• Tend to emphasise self-actualisation and individuals' initiatives and achievements • Focus on an " I " identity • Emphasise an individual's rights, such as individuality, independence and freedom • Family relations, loyalty, and harmony are less important	• Emphasise fitting in with and belonging to the in-group • Focus on a " we " identity • The needs, goals, and beliefs of the in-group take precedence over those of the individual • Family relations, loyalty, and harmony are very important

(Gao and Ting-Toomey, 1998, pp.3-4)

3.5.2 A comparison of some features of Chinese and Britain culture

Collectivistic cultures often exhibit a behaviour pattern summed up by the word "face". This provides one of the contrasts between the countries under investigation. "Face" has a number of dimensions or features which are described below. In addition, there are a number of more recent concerns influencing consumer behaviour with respect to cosmetic products, particularly in the West. They are the concerns about the environment and the human use of animals in cosmetics and these will be considered after the discussion of "face".

3.5.2.1 The concept of "face" and family relationship

Face in one form or another is a concept common to most cultures. Face can be defined as the respect which a person receives from others. It pertains to a sense of positive image claimed by the individual person in a relational and network context (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998, p.53). Consequently, one's self-image and self-respect depend to a large extent on the way that one is regarded by other people (Gesteland, 1996, p.37). Essentially, saving face is about "*avoiding being made to look stupid or being forced to back down in front of other people*" (Taylor et al, 1996, p.59).

Gao & Ting-Toomey (1998) point out that people living in individualistic and collectivistic cultures give different meanings to the content notions of face. In individualistic cultures, face is mainly concerned with self-worth, self-presentation, and self-value; in collectivistic cultures it is concerned more about what others think of one's worth, especially in the context of one's in-group and out-group, than about oneself (p.54).

Thus, in collectivistic cultures, face refers to a projected social image and social self-respect. More specifically, in Chinese culture, gaining and losing face is connected closely with issues of social pride, honour, dignity, insult, shame, disgrace, humility, trust, mistrust, respect, and prestige (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998, p.54). Therefore, in the strongly collectivistic cultures of China and Taiwan, face can be seen to exert a particularly strong influence on social behaviour.

Gao and Toomey (1998) point out that Chinese, traditionally, perceive themselves as being involved in relationships with others. Through their emphasis on family relations and harmony in a collectivistic culture, "*Chinese are inspired ideally to live in harmony with family members, to be on good terms with neighbours, to achieve unity with the surrounding environment, and to make peace with other nations*" (p.7).

An important aspect of culture in China (including Taiwan as well as the Chinese society in the other parts of the world) is the central role that the family occupies in society. The family today retains its position as the basic unit of society. Taylor et al (1996) point out that Confucianism reinforced this notion, though it did not invent it in the first place. They explain that the key to family order is filial piety — respect for and duty towards one's parents. Associated with this is respect and duty in relation to one's forbears — ancestor worship — and the concept of face. It is essential to preserve face. To let down one's family or the group to which one belongs is a great shame, or loss of face. For Chinese that is a loss of honour or self-respect. The concept of family, with all its duties and obligations, produces a relationship between parents and their children in which the children owe a duty of filial piety. Where parents are anxious for their children to do well in everything, they make great efforts to help children to succeed and are prepared to make great sacrifices. For the consequence of seeing one's children less successful in life than others would be a loss of face for the family as a whole.

In contrast, the concept of face and the preservation of face in the Chinese sense is absent from Britain. In China, face is bound up with family and family relationships. In Britain, family ties are not as close as in many other countries, including China. Consequently, the idea of face and loss of face exists more in relation to the individual and his or her perception of self. The strength of any felt need to preserve face is therefore dependent on the individual, rather than on any external society-based expectation.

Other more specific concerns relating to "face" are:

1. Acquisition of branded goods

Traditionally, Chinese people have always liked to display as far as possible evidence of their high social standing and prosperity. This was shown in the acquisition of consumer goods, such as clothes, shoes and other fashion goods and accessories, as well as in property, household goods and cars. The reason for this concern to show one's affluence was the desire to preserve face in society and among associates. This explains the taste for expensive branded, often foreign, goods.

Some of the distinguishing features ascribed in the previous section to Chinese culture in relation to buyer behaviour can also be seen in the purchasing behaviour of UK consumers. The latter, for example, show similar desire for the acquisition of branded goods, often for purposes of enhancing status and prestige. Consequently, it can be seen that the desire among Chinese and British consumers alike to acquire status symbols by means of purchasing branded goods indicates an interesting similarity in behaviour — conspicuous consumption.

2. Self-sacrifice by parents

The ramifications of the concern to preserve face can be found in other Chinese traditional attitudes, such as the willingness of parents to sacrifice their own expenditure needs in the interests of ensuring that their children receive the best possible start in life.

The phenomenon of self-sacrifice on the part of parents in their expenditure can be seen in the UK as well as in China. The desire to give one's children the best possible start in life is a common emotion in Britain and other Western countries.

3. Attitude to skin colour

Another example of the Chinese cultural concern with face can be seen in the traditional attitude to skin colour: a white or light skin colour has always been regarded as a sign of high social standing. This attitude to skin colour and the associated social significance have their equivalent in the West. The Chinese desire for a light skin colour is paralleled in Britain and other Western countries by a desire to have a deep suntan, which is associated with affluence and status.

4. Gift-giving

As we saw in an earlier section (Section 3.4.8), further important example of traditional Chinese behaviour which also has its base in the concept of face, is the practice of gift-giving. In pre-Communist times, presents were traditionally bought around the time of the Lunar New Year and all the other festivals throughout the year, and also whenever a relative or a friend got married. Thus, a present was not just a gift representing one person's kindness to another, it was also an expression of respect for the status of the recipient. As Schütte and Ciarlante (1998) explain, among Chinese people the importance of maintaining a high degree of moral control, at least in public, is stressed. The Chinese are very conscious of the need to assess with care the likely effects of their behaviour on those around them before they decide to undertake a particular course of action. They are keen not only to avoid the risk of losing face for their family, but also to try to gain face by the acquisition of personal wealth, prestige, power and status. Gift-giving in both the business and social contexts is normal but caution needs to be exercised. As mentioned earlier, gift-giving is an essential opportunity to gain face, or lose face. Its importance is indicated by the elaborate norms and rituals that surround it. However, as Schütte and Ciarlante (1998) point out, gifts which are deemed inappropriate, whether by their content or cost, can lead to an embarrassing loss of face for both donor and recipient. Thus it can be seen that present-giving usually has had a deeper and more complex meaning and served a much wider purpose in Chinese society than being simply an act of kindness or generosity.

Gift-giving is an important feature in most countries and not something exclusive to China. In the West, however, it tends to be reserved for family occasions like weddings, birthdays, or certain feast days. In China it is a highly developed practice which occurs not just within the circle of friends and family but also within the business and social world, that is, as a tool for the establishment and maintenance of *guanxi*, described earlier in this chapter (Section 3.4.7).

5. Shopping around

Shopping around is a further example in traditional Chinese culture which affects consumer purchasing behaviour. Traditionally, when Chinese decide to buy goods in the market place, they customarily try to look for the best quality at the best price.

The saying "Compare prices for goods in several shops and you won't lose", is a traditional one. This concept encouraged people to compare prices in different shops. If they failed to do this, they felt that they had not only wasted their effort in shopping but also lost face for the simple reason that they might have failed to get a bargain. The desire to achieve the best price is a particular feature of traditional Chinese society and relates to the old custom of shop-owners having not just one price for goods, but three. The first price was the normal one, charged to the ordinary customer. The second price was a discounted one (10-15%) for regular customers and the third one was further discounted (20-30%) for one's relatives and friends. In some cases, in the interest of "*guanxi*" and "face", the goods could be offered to a customer free of charge. Thus, in China, the practice of shopping around is not simply a matter of visiting a number of shops in order to see the goods on display and from that to form judgements as to which ones to purchase. The prime purpose is to find the best price for the goods and then to move on to a secondary phase, namely, the bargaining phase in which the customer actively seeks to bring down the price.

It can be said that the practice of shopping around is to be seen as a feature of Western consumer behaviour today. It consists of visiting different shops in order to view goods and prices. However, in Britain, unlike in China and Taiwan, the practice is limited to viewing and does not normally include that bargaining phase which is typical of the Chinese consumer's approach. The Chinese practice of bargaining to obtain a better price would appear to relate to an older style of shopping which has more or less disappeared in Britain. Laermans, (1993, quoted in Corrigan, 1997) describes this old style of shopping as one in which *"the customer implicitly engaged in a double contract with the merchant: one had to buy something at a price about which one had to bargain"* (p.52). In former times, products were neither advertised nor displayed. Instead, he continues, *"Merchants dug goods out of big drawers or closed closets, recommended and praised them and, on being asked, mentioned a price about which one had to haggle"* (p.52). This haggling over price is no longer common in the UK. Bargain hunting consists of visits to the sales held periodically at various points in the calendar, usually in winter and summer. Periodic sales do not involve bargaining over price.

As Corrigan (1997) points out, the advent of the department store consolidated the shopping experience into what it is today: *"Prices were fixed, there was free entry, and anybody's coin was as good as anybody else's"* (p.50). And, inevitably, *"the fixed price meant that there was none of the* *interminable haggling and bargaining that had characterised shopping*" (p.50). Free entry also made the consumer feel free from the obligation to make a purchase and able to say to the salesperson "*Just looking*". In this way, the department stores with their fixed prices and free entry, whilst removing the opportunity to bargain, are seen to have given female shoppers, in particular, a new freedom to shop around. Barth (1980, quoted in Corrigan, 1997) states that "*the department store made the phenomenon of a feminine public possible*" and that the buying stage of shopping around became, as a result, "*the most widely visible sign of female emancipation in the modern city*" (p.61).

3.5.2.2 More recent phenomena influencing consumer behaviour

There is a widespread concern in Britain and other advanced Western societies for the environment and for animal welfare and an increasing aversion to animal ingredients in products.

1. Concern for the environment

Over recent years concern for the environment and measures designed to reduce pollution and protect nature have become matters for debate at many different levels in various countries. The meetings of the United Nation Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), particularly the Earth Summit at Rio in 1992 and the Kyoto Summit in 1997, focused world attention on the problem of environmental damage arising from industrial development (Todaro, 2000, pp.706-707).

At national level companies, pushed by legislation and influenced by consumers and pressure groups, have continued to work out ways to minimise their harmful impacts on the environment. As Kleiner (1991) points out, referring to American businesses "*Today a company does not expect to be considered 'environmentalist' unless it is moving not only beyond the law but ahead of its industry and many of its consumers*" (p.38). He goes on to quote Gallup surveys which showed that "*more than 75% of US consumers included environmentalism in their shopping decisions*" (p.39). American companies, like those in many other parts of the world, have responded by making themselves more "green" in their operations. In the process important questions have been raised, such as: what products should a company bring to market; how should it package them and what material should it include in them; and how can a company reduce waste at source (p.39).

One of the ways in which the cosmetics industry has shown itself to be environmentally aware has been to use recycled material for their products. Zink (1996) states that large companies such as Clairol, L'Oréal and Vidal Sassoon have realised the benefits of using recycled materials in packaging, recognising the concern felt by consumers for the environment. Thus, recycling has become essential to the cosmetic industry and "*pioneers such as Estee Lauder, Prescriptives, Origins. Thierry Mugler, The Gap, The Body Shop and Zirh Skin Nutrition have researched and created new cost effective ways to reduce or eliminate packaging*" (p.42). Thierry Mugler also was the first to introduce the concept of an on-counter fragrance refill unit in America with its Angel Source (now called the Star Service) in 1994. The Source was created to meet customer demand for refills and to eliminate the need to throw away empty bottles. This saved the company from using new cellophane, cardboard and paper wrappings for the new purchase.

The Body Shop's environmental message proclaimed in its stores is 'reuse, refill, recycle' and the company uses a minimal amount of packaging, especially with tubes, bottles and lipsticks where outer packaging is removed altogether. Each of its stores offers a discount on refills (Zink, 1996) and also a return on empty bottles, which are then shipped off to a plastic recycler (Hendy, 1996). Zink points to the benefits of recycling and the efforts to persuade producers to reduce waste in their packaging: "*Experts encourage buying larger sized products, using concentrates and refilling. Environmentally-conscious corporations can also be more aware of avoiding the marketing of products with excess packaging – or eliminating the packaging altogether*" (p.47). The popularity of recycled products is expected to increase with time, as Zink indicates: "*Consumers are expected to show a strong preference for products containing recyclable properties*" (p.47). One of the reasons for this is likely to be the growing shortage of landfill sites for waste disposal.

In contrast to Britain and other Western societies, in China and Taiwan government and society generally do not seem to have shown strong concern for the environment. Evidence for this would be the large amount of pollution resulting from large-scale industrialisation in the past. It is possible that attitudes are now changing, but there is not the same sensitivity to environmental matters that can be seen in the West today.

2. Animal welfare

In Key Note Report: Cosmetics (1992), it was reported that the campaign against testing cosmetics and toiletries on animals had continued to gain momentum. An important contributory factor in change of attitude towards animal testing on the part of the cosmetics industry was the intervention on the issue during the 1990's by the European Commission. In 1993 EU governments acting on the initiation of the Commission approved legislation that would have made it illegal after January 1998 to sell cosmetics tested on animals. The ban was then postponed until June 2000 in order to give the cosmetics companies time to find alternative methods of testing. However, the Commission's mass resignation in March 2000 prevented implementation of the ban at the due time. The latest draft of the proposed legislation calls for a ban on the testing of finished products on animals from June 1st 2003 (Country Monitor, 1999, p.2).

A Mori opinion poll organised by the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV) quoted in Key Note Report: Cosmetics (1992) showed not only that *85% of purchasers of cosmetics were against testing on animals, but also that a significant proportion would change brands if they knew animals had been used to test that product* (p.35). In 1990 research done by Yardley revealed that *the proportion of consumers who rated "cruelty-free" as the most important criterion when choosing cosmetics had gone up from 8% to 61% in a nine-month period* (p.35). As the Key Note Report: Cosmetics (1992) points out, the effect of these opinion surveys and mounting consumer pressure was to make an increasing number of manufacturers (include Rimmel, Yardley, Avon, Revlon, Max Factor, Estee Lauder and Boots) abandon testing on animals so as to be able to promote their products as "cruelty-free".

One of the results of the promotion of "cruelty-free" products, including the prominent labelling of the product to that effect, has been to make consumers less conscious of the need to consider whether a product has been tested on animals. As Market Intelligence (1995) reported, while non-animal testing remained the single most important reason influencing consumers' purchasing decision, the percentage of responses in opinion surveys had dropped by five percentage points between 1992 (57%) and 1994 (52%). The Market Intelligence report explained the fall by the fact that nowadays the majority of brands were no longer tested on animals and consumers felt that they no longer needed to search for products making "cruelty-free" claims (Market Intelligence, Make-up, 1995). In 2000, Market Intelligence reported a further decline in the importance of the "cruelty-free" factor as a purchase influence: in 1998, 41% of consumers rated this factor as the second most important influence in their purchasing decision; in 2000 this had dropped to 32% (Market Intelligence, Make-up, 2000). Again, the reason given for the drop was that consumers expected the cosmetics they purchased to be non-animal tested and, consequently, the "cruelty-free" factor was no longer a conscious reason for purchase.

Concern for animal welfare is much less strong in China and Taiwan. The testing of cosmetic products on animals is not an issue at present. No law exists which forbids the practice, despite the presence in both China and Taiwan of various pressure groups supporting animal welfare.

3. Animal ingredients

For many years cosmetics regularly included animal ingredients in their formulation. These ingredients were everywhere traditionally taken principally from the whale, musk deer, the civet cat, the beaver, the cow and sheep. According to Groom (1999), the main animal ingredients that were once staples of the top perfumes were ambergris (excreted by the sperm whale), musk (taken from the male musk-deer of the Himalayas), civet (taken from the civet cat found in Ethiopia, Burma and Thailand) and castoreum (taken from the beaver).

Tallow (mainly from beef and also from mutton) is the most important animal fat for the cosmetics and toiletries industry. Animal waxes, used in cosmetics and toiletries, are lanolin (from the wool of sheep) and, until recently, spermaceti (obtained from the head oil of the sperm whale). As Knowlton and Pearce (1996) point out, "*This material is less commonly encountered nowadays because of the public concern for use of animal derived products and whales as an endangered species*" (p.24).

Widespread reaction against the use of animal ingredients in many countries fitted into a general pattern of love of animals and concern for nature and the environment. Movements whose aim was to protect endangered species, such as the Save the Whale campaign of the 1970's, were headed by animal rights activists but supported by large sections of the public. Governments, too, played their part. As Mitsui (1997) points out, *"In recent years, musk and ambergris have been very difficult to obtain as a result of the Washington Treaty which bans international trade in protected species of wild animals and plants"* (p.104). As a result of this pressure, aroma chemicals which posses the same scents as natural musk and ambergris have been synthesised and are now widely substituted for the animal derived product.

Revulsion on the part of the consumer against the use of animal ingredients in cosmetic products caused the manufacturers to change their practices. For example, Clarins of Paris reformulated its Cell Extracts range, replacing "cell extracts" with "plant marine cell extracts". Kate Gordon of Clarins observed: *"We have to follow consumer demand. People in the UK are very aware of the environment and are keen that skincare products don't contain animal extracts"* (quoted in Cave, 1994, p.24).

Another example of a manufacturer keen to respect the needs of the consumer interested in natural solutions for skincare and makeup is Estee Lauder. This company has developed *"new ways to formulate, package and ship its products in innovative, earth-preserving ways"* (Darconte, 1991, p.30). The company's Origins line of cosmetics is committed to a policy of using no animal-derived materials, no animal testing, recycled paper, recyclable packaging and shipping materials.

The position of cosmetics manufacturers in China and Taiwan regarding animal ingredients has shown itself to be quite different from that of American and European manufacturers. On the one hand, the Chinese have always had love and respect for nature. They have traditionally desired to live in harmony with nature and elements. On the other hand, Chinese have traditionally considered it appropriate to make use of all animals, birds, insects in their medicinal preparations as well as their cuisine. Gascoigne (1997) writing on Chinese traditional medicine explains that attitudes in China are still today quite different from those encountered in the West and acknowledges that *"the use of products derived from living beings may be questioned by people on both ethical and moral grounds"* (p.104). He points to the cultural differences which underlie the Chinese approach by quoting a personal anecdote: *"A* *friend of mine has a father with Parkinson's disease. A doctor who had just arrived from China came to see him to recommend treatments. As he was listening to his symptoms, the man's pet tortoise walked across the lawn. The Chinese doctor suggested that he could cook the tortoise and make a soup to drink. The patient was shocked and surprised by the suggestion that he should boil up his pet; the Chinese doctor was, in turn, surprised that there should be any problem with the suggestion"* (p.104). Gascoigne goes on to remind his reader that the use of medicinal products derived from endangered animal species, such as tiger bone, bear's gall bladder and rhinoceros horn, still continues today particularly, but not exclusively, in mainland China, and continues to attract world-wide criticism.

As regards the use of animal derived ingredients in cosmetics in China and other Asian countries, manufacturers in these countries have followed the practices traditionally employed in the past by most other producers. That is they, in common, with Western manufacturers, have used all the ingredients described earlier in this section. In addition, unlike their Western counterparts, Chinese producers have always made use of natural pearls for making a skincare preparation. But in most other respects they followed Western practices.

There is no evidence available as to the actual use of animal ingredients in Chinese cosmetic products today. Nor is there any evidence of declarations being made by marketers of Chinese cosmetics that their products are free of animal ingredients or, indeed, produced without testing on animals. The absence of such declarations in the labelling of products suggests that these matters are not issues at the moment for marketers and, that being the case, there is no corresponding concern over these matters in the mind of the consumer or indeed the public at large.

What does stand out in evidence of the Chinese public consciousness regarding animal ingredients can be seen in the calm acceptance of these ingredients in traditional medicines as something normal and necessary. For example, goat's liver extract is considered an effective eye tonic and other organs of animals, such as lungs, liver, kidneys and heart are regarded as useful for strengthening the corresponding human organs (Bradley, 2000, p.115). Bonavia (1980) states that the highly complex ancient Chinese medical science, though inferior in many respects to modern Western medicine, can still produce surprisingly good results and that the Chinese, especially the common people who have had little access to Western medicine, have continued to use it in the belief that it is less drastic and more suited to the Chinese physiology than the powerful new drugs with their side effects. The ingredients used in Chinese medicinal preparations are made up of the natural extracts of plants, animals, fish, birds, lizards, turtles, fossils of prehistoric creatures (known as "dragons' bones") and products of the human body (Bonavid, 1980, p.110). The attitude of the average Chinese person can be summed up as one of: if the product is effective and does me good, then it is to be used, whether or not it contains animal ingredients.

The evidence, circumstantial though it is, would appear to point to a corresponding lack of concern over the presence of animal ingredients, and the practice of animal testing, in the Chinese cosmetics industry and among Chinese purchasers of cosmetics. It certainly seems likely that manufacturers still continue to use those animal-derived ingredients which are commonly available, such as animal fats (beef and mutton) and animal waxes (lanolin). Whether they use other ingredients such as those derived from protected or endangered species of animals, such as the musk-deer, civet cat, beaver and sperm whale is uncertain.

3.6 Conclusions

This chapter reviewed cognitive and behaviourist consumer behaviour models. It was seen that no simple model can fully explain the complexity of consumer purchasing behaviour. All the models, however, acknowledge the importance of environmental influences, including culture. This has obvious implications for marketers. The E.K.B. model was seen to offer the best explanation of cultural and environmental influences on consumer purchasing behaviour and for that reason was selected to formulate and test hypotheses concerning the cultural aspects which influence cosmetics purchasing behaviour.

Increased competition and internationalisation of business creates the need for international companies to understand consumer markets better than they did previously. It is necessary to focus attention on consumer purchasing behaviour, since this has an impact in the market at the point of sale and is therefore an element in the market structure. In markets where the culture is different from that of a company's home base, consumer behaviour is different, too. This is because among the motivating factors which enter into purchasing decisions there are pressures generated by culture. Although culture taken as a general sociological concept exhibits a common core of fundamental characteristics, the observer examining a range of cultures in their national or regional setting can easily see radical differences that set them apart.

If it is accepted that marketers need to pay attention to the culture of the country into which they propose to sell goods or services, then it is necessary for them to differentiate between cultures. Global companies operating successfully in overseas markets do take account of the impact of culture on their marketing strategies.

In the present study it is the intention to examine the characteristic features of culture in China and their significance in terms of consumer behaviour in the purchase of cosmetics. It is also the intention to draw comparisons and contrasts in consumer buying behaviour in cosmetics between China, Taiwan and the UK. The results of such a comparative analysis could be used by Western marketers engaged in devising a strategy for selling into mainland China.

As can be seen above, most of the writers reviewed agree that marketers need to adapt their strategies to the culture of the target country. At the same time they also agree that culture is dynamic. Marketers are thus faced, on the one hand, with the need to be prepared to adapt to a foreign culture and, on the other, with a possible opportunity to influence a culture. A methodical analysis of cultural features would enable marketers to decide to what extent they needed to adapt themselves and to what extent it might be possible to exert influence and shape the new forms of culture as they evolve.

It is necessary to understand the changes that have taken place in China's economic life over the past twenty-five years. During this period China witnessed the ending of the Cultural Revolution and the start of the new economic policy which is in place today. A study of these economic changes will reveal also a profound change in the outlook of China's population. In particular, the younger generation of adults who did not experience the rigours of the Cultural Revolution have benefited from the new opportunities provided by the Open Door economic policy. Their affluence has increased and with it their taste for the modern consumer goods which were not available to their parents. A parallel development has been an improvement in the status of women, who now possess unprecedented spending power due to wider opportunities in the workplace. During this period, also, the introduction of China's

One Child Policy has had an important impact on the way in which families spend their disposable income. These new developments and their significance for consumer behaviour in the purchase of consumer goods will be reviewed in the next chapter of this dissertation.

Chapter 4: New Patterns of Consumption: China's New Generation of Young Adults and the Changing Status of Women

4.1 Introduction

Of all the changes that have taken place in mainland China over the past fifty years since the coming to power of Mao Zedong and the Communist Party in 1949, probably two of the most important have been the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) and the Open Door Policy pursued since 1979 under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping.

The first was intended as a renovation of society and the economy, but ended in economic failure and the destruction of traditional values and structures. The second was introduced in order to establish an environment in which the political power of the Communist Party would remain supreme but at the same time coexist with the forces of capitalism.

One of the most socially damaging consequences of Mao's Cultural Revolution was the shutting down of schools and universities and thus depriving a whole generation of young people of a normal education. Today, the effects of this are to be seen in the lives of the adults whose opportunity for learning and advancement was curtailed. This can be observed particularly in terms of jobs, lifestyle and consumption.

The Open Door Policy introduced far-reaching economic reform. As a result of this, there has been increased prosperity for many people since 1979. Among the consequences of the economic reform, is the fact that Chinese women have been changing their status in the workplace and increasing their decision-making power within the household. At same time as the increase in prosperity there have been changes in the birth rate. In 1979 China introduced its One Child Policy. Thus the increase in prosperity came at a time when women were starting to have fewer babies. The changing status and attitudes of the new generation of young adults offer considerable opportunities for the marketers to operate in the market of China.

This chapter examines in more detail with the lifestyle and aspirations of several generations of adults, including the one that was deprived of a normal education under the Cultural Revolution. It also examines, in a second section, the One Child Policy and the important role of children in purchasing decisions made by adults. A third section discusses the changed status of women and their new consumption power.

4.2 China's new generation of young adults

Research on the lifestyle of Chinese consumers in mainland China has been conducted by the advertising agency Dentsu Inc. since the 1980's[1]. Quantitative surveys were carried out in 1986 (in the cities of Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou); in 1993 (in the same cities, plus Chongqing); in 1995 (Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chengdu and Dalian). The object of these surveys was to locate precisely the target groups possessing real purchasing power and identify their needs (Ariga, Yasue and Wen, 1997).

4.2.1 Comparison of the generations

From this research it was established that the younger generation of consumers, aged 18 to 29, constitute the most promising group. They are the group which has most flexibly and rapidly adapted to the new market economy system introduced by the Chinese leadership. They are labelled "China's Generation III" by Ariga, Yasue and Wen (1997). The latter describe them as following increasingly westernised purchasing patterns. They also outnumber the members of the other adult age groups (the older Generation I of 45-59 year olds; and the middle Generation II of 30-44 year olds).

One of the most important factors in the evolution of attitudes among the younger 18-29 year-old generation is their good fortune in not having experienced the full violence of the Chinese Cultural Revolution, unleashed on the country by Mao in May 1966 and lasting until 1976. For during those years education was virtually suspended. Those unfortunate enough to be of school and university age at that time missed their chance of receiving a proper education. These people are now aged 30-44 and are termed Generation II. Their general educational level is considered low. A large proportion (40%) are now blue collar workers, mostly employed in State enterprises

[1] The Japanese advertising company Dentsu Inc. was the first foreign-based advertising agency to open an office in Beijing in 1980 (Ariga, Yasue and Wen, 1997).

where job performance does not reflect income. The married couples of Generation II are described as being willing to spend as much of their income as possible on their only child at the expense of their own needs and pleasures: "*in many cases, what Generation II purchases is based on what the child wants or needs*" (Ariga, Yasue and Wen, 1997, p.21).

The older Generation I, though more fortunate than Generation II, received education under the tightly controlled repressive Communist system and are not noted for individual initiative and enterprise. A large percentage of those still at work are now blue collar workers (22%) or in professions (22%) while others work as Government officials (15%).

4.2.2 Consumer characteristics of Generation III

The Dentsu surveys studied the younger generation (Generation III) with a view to establishing their consumption power, the values which determine their behaviours and their actual consumption tendencies. According to the Dentsu surveys, Generation III possesses certain essential attributes:

- good educational background,
- opportunities to work for foreign-affiliated firms and thus to be knowledgeable about and favourably disposed towards the market economy system,
- ambition to get on in material terms and strong self actualisation needs.

Five critical aspects of attitude commonly seen in members of the younger generation are identified as being those which marketers are advised to address in any attempt to capture their hearts. These are summed up as follows :

1. the luxury principle (a willingness to devote a large amount of money to a single expensive item at the expense of other items);
2. the consumption of a western-style experience (the desire for products which provide the experience of western culture);
3. the orientation toward big brand names (a faith in these names rather than the less well-known brands);
4. the "newer the better" principle (the mania for acquiring state-of-the-art products in the belief that buying the newest products is the recipe for happy living) ;

5. the "one cut above the rest" mentality (the desire for conspicuous consumption in order to gain recognition and respect among one's friends, neighbours and colleagues).

All this seems to indicate that one section at least of China's population, Generation III, is acquiring the consumption characteristics that are customarily to be seen among consumers in western societies. That is, they have acquired tastes and needs which they are intent on satisfying, in so far as circumstances permit. However, apart from a general feeling of desire to purchase luxurious, western style goods and prestigious brands, these Generation III young consumers do not have any precedents or role models to follow, since they are themselves the first exponents of the new spending power, the first generation with the inclination and the means to satisfy that inclination. This absence of any role model provides, as Ariga, Yasue and Wen (1997) point out, important opportunities to western marketers, in particular the advertisers. For it is they who can provide through advertising a stimulus to young Chinese people to acquire a new lifestyle: "*the success of future advertisements will depend on their ability to offer a new lifestyle which can serve as a convincing goal for China's contemporary youth*" (p.24). This is clearly something that marketers should keep in mind when they are operating in the China market.

4.3 The One Child Policy and its consequences

China has undergone economic reform since 1979, the year when its One Child Policy was introduced. Increasing prosperity for many people and the consequent increase in disposable income came at a time when Chinese women were starting to have fewer babies.

The increase in spending power among Chinese households that has been referred to above raises the question of the way in which expenditure priorities are determined within the family. Scarry (1996) states that consistent patterns appear to guide consumers in the way they spend money on their children, themselves and their households. Scarry cites the data provided in three consumer surveys: Gallup (1995), Argonaut (1993) and Great Wall (1985). All three surveys highlight the importance which Chinese consumers generally attach to providing for the needs of their children. Indeed such needs appear as top priorities in the list of spending needs.

4.3.1 Effects of the One Child policy

In mainland China, the reasons for attaching importance to children and their needs can be seen within the country's cultural tradition. As Scarry (1996) points out, this tradition holds that childlessness is one of the worst forms of unfilial behaviour on the part of married couples vis-à-vis their parents. This traditional attitude has been affected by the introduction of the "one child per family policy" in 1979.

The One Child Policy is highly unpopular and couples often attempt to get round the restriction, especially in rural areas where the law tends to be not as rigorously enforced as in the urban areas. The One Child Policy also has "*inflamed age-old prejudices against females*" (Burton, 1990, p.36). Burton states that rural and minority families who have a daughter regularly lie, cheat or pay fines in order to have a second pregnancy in the hope of having a son. The reason for preferring a son to a daughter lies in the fact that a son, in contrast to a daughter, provides greater physical strength for farm work. What is most important of all is that a son fulfils the traditional role of providing care for his aged parents and carrying out the duty of burning offerings in veneration of the family's ancestors.

4.3.2 The "4-2-1 indulgence factor" and the "little emperor"

The fact that fewer children are born to Chinese women today has affected the birth rate adversely (an average of 3.6 children in a Chinese woman's lifetime in 1975 fell to 2.3 by 1982). It has also led to what is called the "little emperor" syndrome. Where there is only one child in the family, that child becomes the single focus of all the love and attention, which otherwise would have to be shared if there several children. Cutler (1988) writes:

"This dramatic population adjustment has come in the midst of economic liberalisation, leaving families with more money to spend on fewer children. In urban areas, annual per capital income has nearly doubled in six years: from US$85 to US$164 in 1984" (p.58).

Cutler refers to what he calls the "4-2-1 indulgence factor," which is seen today in Chinese families. This is the concentration of affection from four grandparents and two parents towards one child. The result is often the spoiling of the child— the placating of the "little emperor". Jeffrey Taylor, an economist specialising in China at the Centre for International Research, commented about a visit he made to Shanghai in 1987: *There are tantrums, kids throwing themselves on the floor screaming "I have to have it!"* (quoted in Cutler, 1988, p.58). Cutler mentions children's clothing as an item that has captured parents' attention, with the result that in Beijing and other large cities children are the focus of attention in terms of fashion. This is borne out by the comment by another visitor to China in 1987: "*children are often the best-dressed members of their families*" (Barbara Torrey, Director of the Centre for International Research, quoted in Cutler, 1988, p.58).

The prioritisation of children's needs is reinforced according to Scarry (1996) by two long-standing Chinese characteristics: practicality and asceticism. The need to focus on the wishes of the group rather than those of the self, which was encouraged in the strictly Communist past, has left its trace in today's consumers, who appear humble and selfless. An example of this is the priority placed on providing for children's education, often at the cost of great sacrifice in financial terms and in everyday comforts. Education at successful and prestigious schools, involving higher tuition fees than at neighbourhood schools, is a common phenomenon. Scarry states that parents and grandparents choose for their offspring products of superior quality that offer a competitive edge. Conversely, they place a low priority on their own needs as adults. An example quoted by Scarry is that of adults who use low-priced, mass-produced product such as shampoos and other toiletries. Scarry explains that the biggest factor in the popularity of these products is that their price is low enough to prevent the purchasers from feeling self-indulgent at the expense of their children's needs. The fact that skin-care products sell better than colour cosmetics is also cited as evidence that Chinese consumers do not wish to draw undue attention to their own appearance or to stand out in the crowd (Scarry, 1996).

4.3.3 The role of children in purchasing decision-making

As McNeal and Yeh (1997) point out, children in China represent a great economic and marketing potential firstly because of their very large numbers (28 million children are born each year compared to 4 million in the USA). This potential is also based on the rapid growth in income of their families and the strong influence which children have over family expenditure. These writers describe children's income as consisting of two elements: regular income (made up of small gifts of money from parents, and an allowance and money gifts mainly from grandparents) and special income (which is given by parents and grandparents on special occasions such as the Chinese New Year).

Although children are expected to save a portion of their income, they are still able to be regular spenders of money throughout the year. This picture is generally supported by other writers. It is reported that children hold significant decision making influence when families make purchases of various kinds. (Carey, Zhao, Chiaramonte and Eden, 1997) These writers state that the market for children aged 7-12 is over 36 million in urban areas alone (this compares with 23 million in the USA).

McNeal and Yeh (1997) describe the influence which children exert on family purchasing. Their influence is seen to be high in respect of purchases of items such as cakes & biscuits, candy, clothing, fruits, fruit juices, chewing gum, ice-cream, imported candy, movies, nuts, shoes, stationery, toys and video games. Children's influence is relatively low in the case of purchases of deli items, meats, seafood and vegetables (items which one would regard as being properly the province of adult members of the household).

McNeal and Yeh (1997) have assessed the influence of children on parents' purchasing decisions. These writers have produced an overall index of influence, which shows the estimated percentage of influence by children of various ages in their parents' decision-making (shown in Table 4.1). As can be seen from Table 4.1, the index of influence exerted by Chinese children on family purchasing of 25 items is around 68%. This compares with 40% in the case of US children in respect of similar items. The conclusion reached is that children's influence in purchasing decisions creates a so-called "filiarchy" in Chinese households which is as strong as the patriarchal power for which China perhaps better known.

As pointed out above, children are expected by their elders to save a portion of their income. This reflects a traditional, Confucian concern for moderation in all things (in this case, the care not to spend all one's money), as well as a concern for future security and contentment. This value is instilled in children from an early age. McNeal and Yeh (1997) state that the children reviewed in their study saved on average 60% of their income, with some variation in rate according to age (from 75% for 4-year-olds to 51% for 12-year-olds). Most of these savings are placed in commercial depositories and kept there until there is need to use some of the money for expensive items. The money deposited in savings accounts in this way is of some interest to marketers, as well as to financial institutions. For children's savings can be regarded as deferred spending. Consequently, it is important, as McNeal and Yeh point out, that marketing communications concerning relatively expensive and desirable items such as athletic shoes and computers would receive a favourable response from these young savers who are, in reality, deferred spenders.

Table 4.1: **Chinese children's influence on parents' purchasing decisions, by age, in percentage terms**

Item	Age								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Bakery items *	95	95	95	95	94	94	92	89	84
Books	58	59	63	57	57	84	59	71	59
Bread	65	76	61	61	58	61	59	56	65
Candy	88	82	79	79	74	76	70	78	79
Clothing	80	82	84	88	88	88	89	90	90
Cookies	72	68	58	56	60	71	59	58	69
Deli items	35	45	46	48	48	46	48	43	43
Fruits	89	91	91	92	92	93	93	93	93
Fruit juices	89	89	91	92	92	93	93	93	93
Gum *	91	93	90	91	91	88	76	83	84
Hair care items	59	59	61	29	30	46	43	53	55
Ice cream *	93	94	95	95	95	93	90	88	88
Imported candy	98	98	98	97	97	96	95	95	94
Meats	48	28	37	35	35	38	36	39	35
Milk *	71	74	64	70	74	71	60	62	63
Movies	74	98	94	92	90	95	93	93	90
Nuts	92	92	90	90	90	91	91	90	88
Seafood	52	48	51	39	39	60	51	53	50
Soft drinks	71	72	74	73	73	76	68	73	76
Shoes	79	81	60	74	74	82	78	83	75
Stationery	66	62	80	82	88	87	86	85	86
Toothpaste/brush **	63	63	61	64	64	75	75	75	76
Toys *	93	93	92	92	90	91	90	86	86
Vegetables	38	28	28	18	18	26	28	27	26
Video games	73	98	94	92	90	95	93	93	94

Notes: * Significant decline in influence with age
** Significant increase in influence with age
(Taken from McNeal and Yeh, 1997, p.52)

It is a common experience for parents to see their children develop a concern for their looks and personal appearance as they grow from childhood to adolescence. At some stage children seem suddenly to begin to take a sudden interest in clothes and teenage fashions. They then become consumers of toiletries of their own choosing, including hair & skin care products and cosmetics such as nail varnish, lipsticks and eye shadows. In this way they begin to use some of their personal spending power. The habit of deferring spending begins to be replaced by the urge to consume, and discrimination between brands becomes a part of the purchasing process.

4.4 The changing status of Chinese women

The traditional status of women in mainland China has been low in the past. In the more recent past, however, this has changed considerably.

Women have seen their roles transformed, as the opportunities for obtaining employment outside the home have increased. This process began as early as the 1931-1949 period in Chinese history — the period of the creation of the People's Republic of China under Mao. In that period women were called upon to play an equal part in the building of the new China. Women's education was extended and consequently their participation in the work force and their social status grew. Despite this improvement in their status, complete equality of the sexes was not attained. Gender-role differences remained.

Today, working women have become increasingly wealthy. This has enabled women to increase their decision-making power within the household. Their new spending power has also made them an important sector of the market for consumer goods.

4.4.1 Women's lifestyle patterns in Greater China

Mainland China is the country where most Chinese people live (over 1.2 billion, according to Tai and Tam, 1997). However Chinese people also inhabit Taiwan (20.6 million, according to *Republic of China Year Book 1993*, quoted by Tai and Tam, 1997) and Hong Kong (6 million, according to Taylor et al, 1996). Despite their differences in historical development and present-day politics, there is increasing interchange between the three regions and increasingly close ties at the human level. All this appears to be leading towards the creation in the future of a new economic entity. Together, mainland China, Taiwan and Hong Kong can be called the Greater

China. Of particular interest here are the women of each of the three regions and their lifestyles and their consumption attitudes and behaviour.

1. Women in Hong Kong

The biggest change in consumer attitudes among Hong Kong's women was reported in 1993 by the Asian journal *Media and Marketing* (quoted in Tai and Tam, 1997) to be in the younger generation. They are seen to be more interested in living for the day rather than in saving for the future. This changing attitude has had a considerable influence on their consumption and spending pattern. Women in Hong Kong appear to have made considerable progress in achieving greater economic power, thanks to the opportunities in obtaining education and work. Their ability to take decisions on household expenditure, including major purchases (such as cars), has increased. Although women have benefited from their careers and financial independence, they continue to believe in their traditional role within the home and the family. As regards attitudes, they show concern for status and their image as perceived by other people. No doubt this plays an important role in their consumption attitudes.

2. Women in Taiwan

In 1994, *Media and Marketing* (in Tai and Tam, 1997), pointed out that women in Taiwan are, like the rest of the population, still profoundly influenced by the traditional values of Confucianism: family loyalty, obedience and respect for one's elders. Women seek traditional Confucian status symbols in the goods they purchase. Their consumer behaviour is based on an acceptance of the prestigious images of foreign brands. In 1989, *Asian Media and Advertising* (in Tai and Tam, 1997), stated that young Taiwanese women, especially, attach great importance to imported brands when buying clothes and accessories. This is in spite of the higher cost of foreign imported goods, compared to domestic brands.

3. Women in mainland China

As mentioned already, women in mainland China have over the years become an increasingly important part of the workforce. Women have gained in status and in economic power. The trend has been that as women grew wealthier and more sophisticated, they demanded higher-quality products and better design. Young women especially are more fashion-conscious and often have the means to purchase the more expensive (foreign) brands (China in Focus, 1995, in Tai and Tam, 1997). It is pointed out that almost a half of China's population was in the 15 to 39 age bracket and also that one of the characteristics of this group was a greater willingness to accept new products and fresh influence (Hang Seng Economic Monthly, 1993, in Tai and Tam, 1997).

The Chinese market is described as a collection of heterogeneous submarkets with distinct spending patterns (Hang Seng Economic Monthly, 1993, in Tai and Tam, 1997). The spending power in the south is higher than in the north, though consumers in the north tend to be more selective in their purchasing behaviour. For example, consumers in Shanghai are reported to have a greater taste for international fashion trends. In contrast, Guangzhou consumers, who enjoy greater purchasing power, are more strongly influenced by products from Hong Kong (Hang Seng Economic Monthly, 1993, in Tai and Tam, 1997).

4.4.2 Women's consumption power in mainland China today

Of China's total population, 548 million are female and of these at least 100 million live in cities and other urban areas. The younger age groups from 20 to 44 years of age make up 40% of all women. The majority of these (90%) are working women. Thus there are around 30 million women of prime consumption age who live in urban areas (Sum, 1997).

Sum (1997) points out that, compared with international standards, the personal levels of income among Chinese working women are low: US$ 100 per month (this pertains to the key cities: Guangzhou, Shanghai and Beijing). Total household incomes average US$ 250 per month. As regards expenditure, the following pattern can be seen:

- basic, fixed expenses (housing, transportation and medical care) are low and amount to 12% of expenditure
- food accounts for 40%
- clothing 11%

- savings 20%

Though income levels are low by international standards, Chinese households have significant disposable income. From the above figures it would appear that around 17% of household income is disposable income, which can be spent on such things as leisure, fashion goods and cosmetics.

A common feature of the Chinese economy today is the growing number of people who run their own business or who work for private firms. Women, as well as men, have become entrepreneurs, as is seen in the figure of 2 to 13% of women who run their own business as sole proprietors (Ge-Ti-Hu) in the metro cities. This still leaves 80 to 90 % of women employed in State-owned enterprises. However, another increasingly important change is the rise of the joint venture companies. These employ 3 to 10 % of women in the large cities. Such women are well educated, earn higher incomes than the rest and experience in their work foreign influences and management practices.

Nevertheless the role of Chinese women in the household remains similar to that seen in most Asian countries. The majority of women (70%) make the key grocery expenditure decisions and they control the finances of the family. Only about 25% of men control the family finances. This gives women great responsibility and buying power in addition to their growing earning power as individuals in their own right. (Sum, 1997)

4.4.3 The changing appearance and position of Chinese women

Over the past few decades the image of Chinese women has radically changed. Under Mao and especially at the time of the Cultural Revolution women had their hair short and in plaits, wore black rimmed spectacles and were seen everywhere in the drab grey Mao suit.

Women have since that time become much more sophisticated, at least in the cities, thanks to their improved economic conditions. Today they are more concerned than they were in the past with their personal elegance and grooming. Sum (1997) describes the differences which are discernible between women from different regions. In general terms, the women in Shanghai appear trendy and have a style of their own. Those of Guangzhou follow fastidiously the fashions seen in neighbouring Hong Kong. The women of Beijing who appear to be not as concerned as the others about their external appearance, prefer to regard intrinsic beauty as a more important factor in their lives.

These regional differences are rooted in the past. Shanghai was formerly (in the 1920's and 30's) China's leading and most Western-influenced city. Its inhabitants were noted for their sophisticated tastes and sense of fashion. In contrast Beijing, the capital city of China, has always been the centre for culture and government. Its inhabitants take pride in being citizens of the political centre. They are conscious of the national pre-eminence of their city and the sense of dignity which this confers upon them makes them look down on mere trappings of wealth. As for Guangzhou, this southern city reflected the wealth of Hong Kong: it was a smaller scale version of that city (Sum, 1997)

One of China's leading women's movement activists, Professor Chen Yiyun, has conducted research into social and economic change affecting urban and rural women in China. To clarify the changed situation of women she divides female population into four groups and one sub-group: women in rural areas; middle-aged women in urban areas; 20-30 year-old women; radical feminists; and uprooted young women (Walker, 1995).

These groups are described as follows:

1. Women in rural areas

First there is the very large group of women in rural areas (80% of the female population). The lives of these women have improved though their main preoccupation remains that of economic survival, especially in the poorer regions of the country. Professor Chen points out that there are 230 million illiterates in China and of these 70% are women, almost all of whom live in rural areas. She describes them as relatively untouched by the recent economic changes.

Another, more recent, commentator (Kate Xiao-Zhou, 1998) draws a somewhat different picture of the effects of economic change on rural women than does Professor Chen. According to Xiao-Zhou, rural women since the late 1970's have played an important role in the demise of the collective agricultural system. By the early 1990's there were about 4.6 million females from rural areas running their own private commercial businesses and thus making up one third of private business in the countryside. Thus rural women have gained in economic power and the old sexual division of labour has begun to change, with greater number of women than before entering what previously were male-dominated occupations. The commercial revolution in the countryside has produced a noticeable change in the household consumption patterns of rural people which has led to an increase in their living standard. Rural women's greater participation in the economy has, according to Xiao-Zhou, helped to transform Chinese industrial structure and also to strengthen female autonomy. Consequently, the increased freedom and economic power of rural women presents consumer goods' marketers, especially those in the cosmetics industry, with a possibly important new market on which to focus in the future

2. Middle-aged women in urban areas

Another group identified by Professor Chen is that of the forty and fifty-year old women who mainly live in urban areas. Many of these have suffered as a result of the changes, simply because they have lost their jobs in the state-run factories and have had difficulty in adapting to their new circumstances. Xiao-Zhou (1998) refers to the urban women whose lives have been adversely affected by the new policies of economic liberalisation: *"their jobs are now threatened by competition from rural factories"* (p.26). Female textile workers in the cities had been among the most highly paid workers in China. However, "*as rural textile mills began to grow, rural competition upset this comfortable arrangement*" (p.26). The impact on cosmetics within this group would appear to be negligible.

3. 20 to 30 year-old women

The third of Professor Chen's groups is that of women in their 20's and 30's. These have benefited most from the market economy. They are better educated than the rest, work in joint-venture enterprises or in foreign owned companies. They make up an important element of the new rich middle class and, therefore, would appear to present good marketing opportunities.

4. Radical feminists

The fourth group is composed of a relatively small group of "radical feminists" or "superwomen", who reject the prospect of marriage, motherhood and dependence on men. Many of these women have been educated outside China. Women in this group are enjoying higher income and increased power of consumption on their own and would also appear to present good marketing prospects, although the group represents a very small number of individuals.

5. Uprooted young women

Finally, there is a sub-group comprising millions of displaced young women who moved from rural to urban areas in search of work. Their standard of living has improved in comparison with that of the other female members of their family. Xiao-Zhou (1998) refers to the "*massive influx of young rural women into the cities*" (p.28). This influx "*exacerbates the pain and anxiety of the urban working women, especially unskilled and uneducated middle-aged females*" (p.28). These younger rural women have tended to do very well for themselves in their new surroundings. Xiao-Zhou refers to the findings of two economists, Thomas G. Rawski and Maurer-Fazio, who stated that between 1988 and 1994, the ratio of women's wage to men's declined in the state sector from 0.742 to 0.567. This gap worsened as the state began to close down factories. By contrast, the wage gap between the sexes remained much smaller in the non-state sector. According to Xiao-Zhou, these economists reported that: " *the wage ratio of female to male wages in rural industries and foreign joint enterprises was a relatively high 0.856. The ratio was even greater for young and relatively educated rural women who took advantage of the opportunity to empower themselves*" (p.28).

Although the economic reform has generally enabled women to earn money in their own right and has also given them a greater say in family spending decisions, the account given by the above commentators shows that the rapid economic transition has produced winners and losers. Those women who could be described as winners tend to belong to the younger generation of professional women in their 20's and 30's. It is in this group that one can also see the sophistication, fashion-consciousness, ambition and spending-power which offer market opportunities for the sale of consumer including cosmetics.

4.5 Conclusions

In this chapter the lifestyles of several generations of Chinese adults have been compared. It has been seen that members of the younger generation aged between 18 and 29, of both sexes, have the best prospects and offer the best opportunities to marketers. China's One Child Policy has also been examined. Children are seen to play an important role in adult purchasing decisions. They also possess their own spending power, which is exercised as they reach adolescence and has an impact upon the sales of consumer goods, including cosmetics.

An examination of women's lifestyle patterns in Greater China shows noticeable regional variation in consumer habits. It has also been seen that many women in China have gained in consumption power as a result of their enhanced status in various occupations. At the same time, they have become more concerned with personal elegance and grooming. This has led to an upsurge in the consumption of cosmetics where, again, regional differences in consumer attitudes play an important part in purchase decision. Finally, an overview of the effects of the market transition from a Communist centrally planned system to a market-based society shows that there are economic winners and losers. Among the winners, are the emerging class of young professional women. These are identified as the most promising prospects for marketers in general and for the cosmetics industry in particular.

It is the intention in this study to identify the consumer buying behaviour of the female 18 to 29 generation in their purchase of cosmetics. In particular, it is necessary to investigate such matters as the following:

- the age at which these women start to use and purchase cosmetics;
- the frequency of purchase and the amount spent;
- place of purchase;
- the choice of brand type and degree of brand loyalty;
- external factors influencing purchasing decisions;

- shopping around;
- present-giving and the type of products given as presents;
- their fashion-consciousness;
- the importance attached to cosmetics;
- concern for price, quality and brand;
- concern for skin colour and social status;
- concern for the environment and animal welfare and desire for non-animal ingredients;
- willingness to reduce personal spending in order to concentrate on the needs of the child.

It is worth noticing that most of these matters listed above, also play a role in cosmetics purchasing behaviour in Taiwan and the UK societies as was mentioned in Chapter 3. These issues will contribute to the formulation in the next chapter of the hypotheses to be tested in this research and will form the basis of the questionnaire survey to be carried out in China PRC, Taiwan ROC, and the UK.

Chapter 5: Research Design and Hypothesis Formulation

5.1 Introduction

As we have seen in Chapter 4, the lifestyles of women in China and Taiwan, show significant contrasts. In mainland China in recent years there has been much change in the status of women. This is due in large part to the transformation of the centrally planned economy to one that is market based. The process has created economic winners and losers. Among the former are the women who have gained greater access to professional occupations. These women have become more concerned with personal elegance and grooming and this is reflected in an upsurge in the purchase of cosmetics. Of particular interest is the emerging class of young professional women. Because of their fashion-consciousness and cosmopolitan tastes, the latter can be viewed as the most promising prospects for marketers in general and for the cosmetics industry in particular.

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a research design and to construct a number of key hypotheses. The aim is to test whether attitudes regarding cosmetics purchasing behaviour are similar among young Chinese (mainland Chinese and Taiwanese) and British women, despite the obvious gulf that separates them culturally. The aim is also to discover whether certain traditional Chinese cultural norms, which influenced consumer behaviour before the communist takeover, have survived.

5.2 Research process and research design

In 1995, The American Marketing Association (AMA) defined marketing research as "the function which links the consumer, customer, and public to the marketer through information — information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; generate, refine, and evaluate marketing actions; monitor marketing performance; and improve understanding of marketing as a process". This definition of marketing research given by AMA is the one recognized and employed by various other authors (Zikmund, 1997; Churchill, 1999; Malhotra, 1999).

Sekaran (1992) distinguishes two types of research in terms of purpose. In other words, research can fulfil two different objectives, whatever the subject matter. One purpose is that of solving a currently existing problem in the work setting. This is termed applied research. The second has the aim of adding or contributing to the general body of knowledge in a particular area of interest: this type is termed basic or fundamental research.

Zikmund (1997) describes research in a similar way to Sakaran. Malhotra (1999) suggests business organizations undertake research for two reasons, namely to identify and solve marketing problems. This leads to a classification of marketing research into problem identification research, which is undertaken to help identify problems that are perhaps not apparent on the surface and yet exist (or are likely to arise in the future), and problem solving research which is undertaken to arrive at a decision on how to solve specific marketing problems (Malhotra, 1999, p.12). Of course, these categories are closely linked together and a particular marketing research project may combine both of them. Malhotra summarizes the various applications of these two types of marketing research as follows (Table 5.1):

Table 5.1:

Classification of marketing research and applications

Classification of marketing research	Applications
Problem identification research	• Marketing potential research • Marketing share research • Image research • Market characteristics research • Sales analysis research • Forecasting research • Business trends research
Problem solving research	• Segmentation research • Product research • Pricing research • Promotion research • Distribution research

(Malhotra, 1999, p.12)

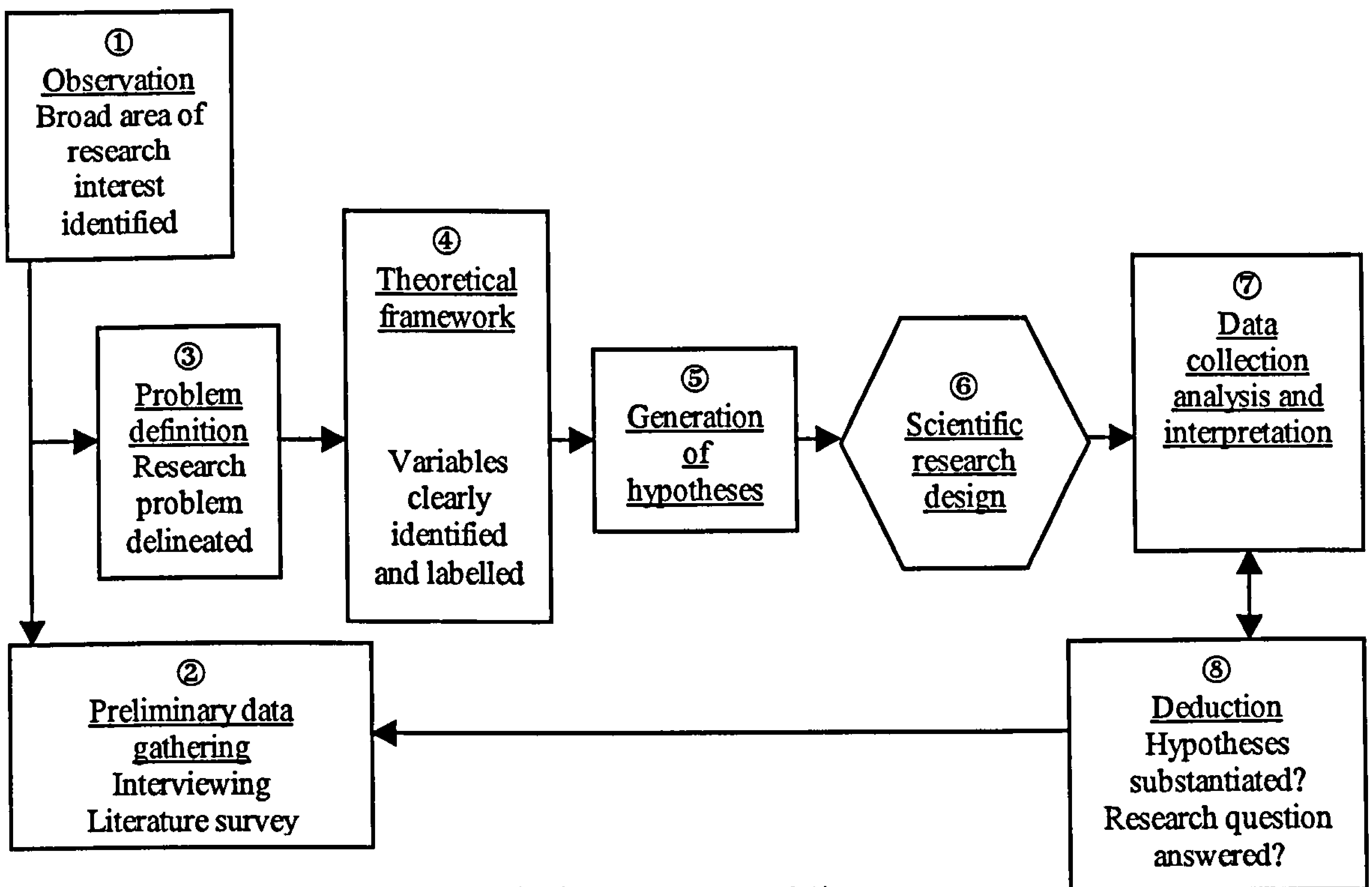
5.2.1 Stages in the research process

The literature presents a pattern of stages for the research process that appears similar, though not identical, in all its aspects. All the authors mentioned so far place problem definition at the start, though Sakaran (1992) prefaces this stage with an observation phase, in which the broad area of research interest is identified, and also a preliminary data-gathering phase, which involves interviewing and a literature survey.

Although the research process is framed differently by each of the above authors, in essence the process covers the same activities. Thus Sakaran (1992) has the following flow chart:

Figure 5.1:

Flow chart of research process in Sakaran



(Sakaran, 1992, p.31)

Malhotra (1999) lists his stages as follows:

Step1: problem defintion

Step 2: development of an approach to the problem

Step 3: research design formulation

Step 4: field work or data collection

Step 5: data preparation and analysis

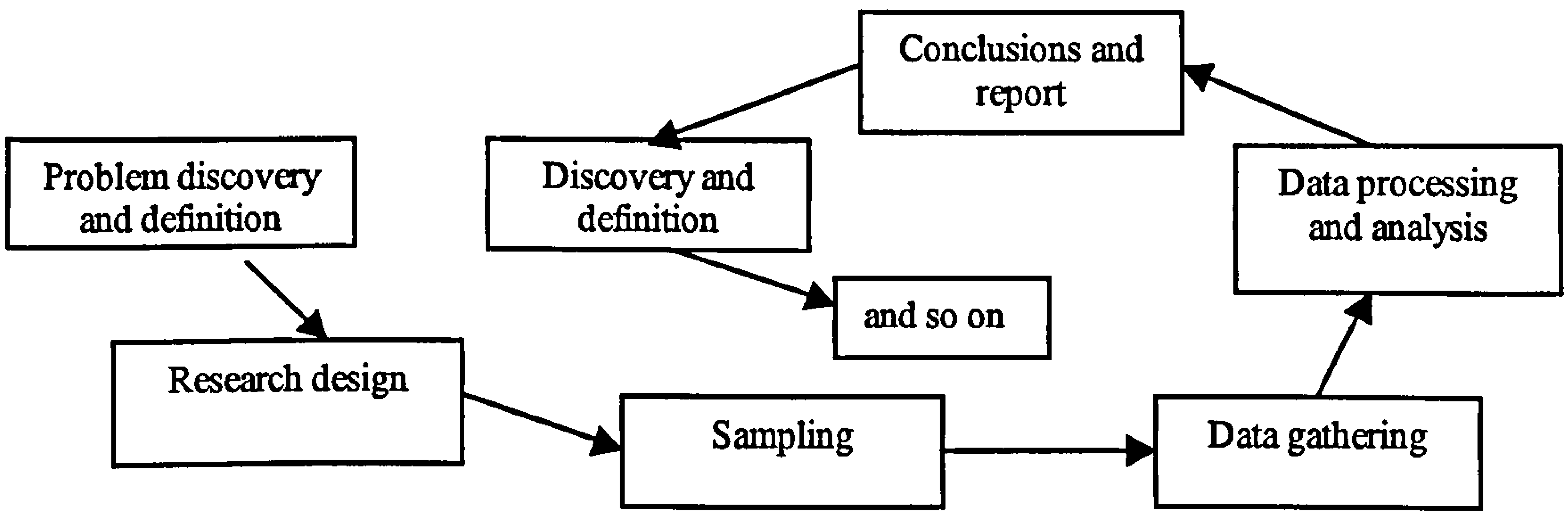
Step 6: report preparation and presentation

(Malhotra , 1999, pp.24-25)

Zikmund (1997) shows the stages of the research process as a generalized pattern:

Figure 5.2:

Stages of the research process in Zikmund

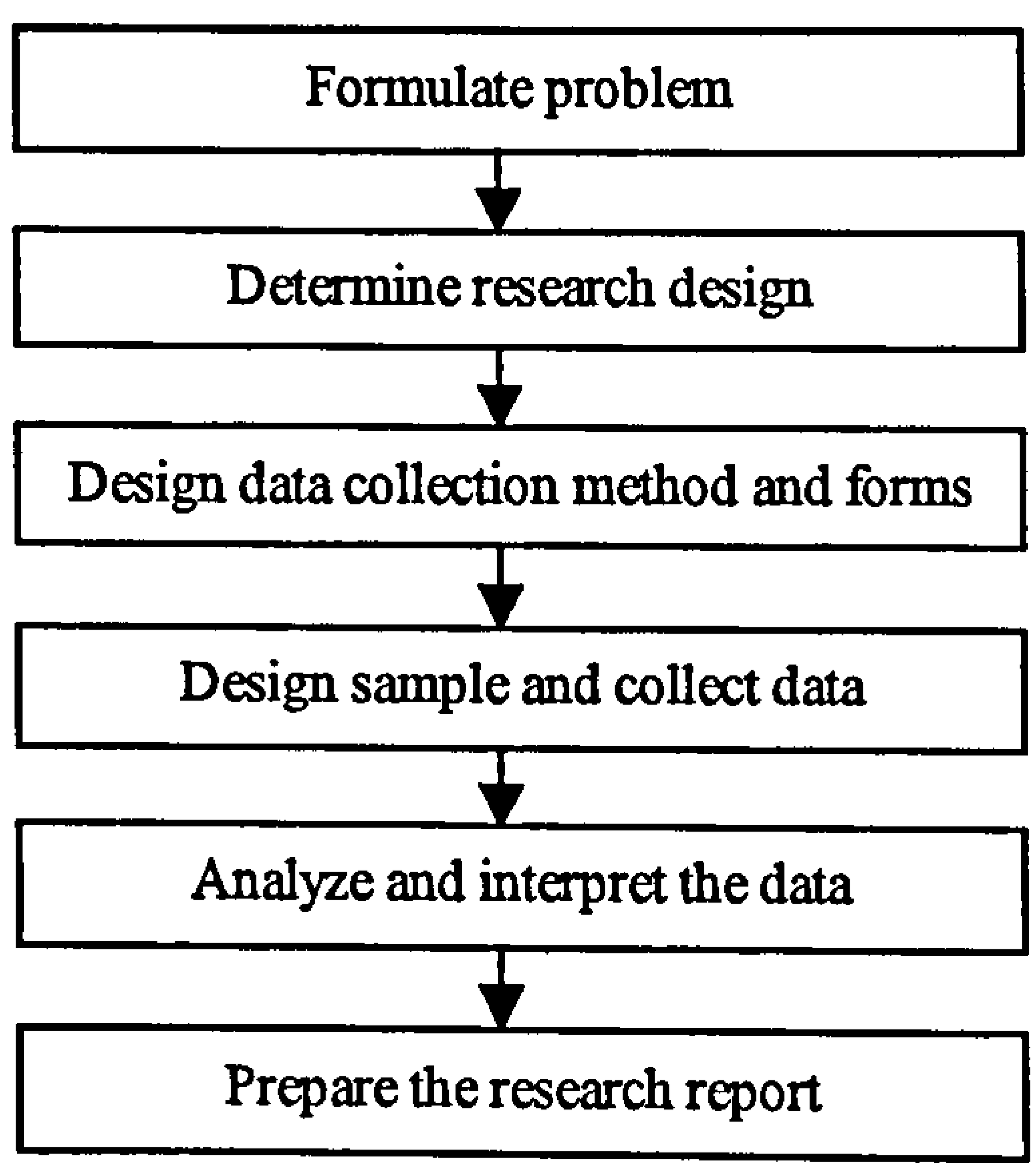


(Zikmund, 1997, p.55)

Churchill (1999) draws a relationship flow chart showing the stages in the research process:

Figure 5.3:

Stages in the research process in Churchill



(Churchill, 1999, p.64)

As can be seen from the above flow charts and lists, the authors concerned see the research process as an essentially similar undertaking. This is borne out in their accompanying explanations and comments. Therefore, while they are somewhat different in appearance, the research process stages in each model follow a similar pattern.

5.2.2 Research design as defined in the literature

Zikmund (1997) states that the research design is the framework for the research plan of action — a master plan which lays down the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the required information. The plan includes the objectives of the research, which are determined at the early stages of the project so as to ensure that the data acquired are appropriate for solving the research problem which has been set. The researcher also specifies what sources of information are to be used, the research methods to be employed, the sampling methodology, the schedule and the cost of the research.

The literature identifies three types of research, based on purpose: exploratory, descriptive and causal (Zikmund, 1997; Churchill, 1999; Malhotra, 1999). These three kinds of research purpose determine what particular techniques are to be employed for carrying out the research. The first purpose, exploratory, concerns research where the main emphasis is on the discovery of ideas and insights (Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook, 1976, in Churchill, 1999). Zikmund (1997) and Malhotra (1999) emphasise the tentative nature of exploratory research. Its aim is to help the researcher to get a better understanding of the dimensions of the problem and thus aid further analysis, rather than to establish evidence on which to base a particular course of action. It presupposes a subsequent research effort. Typically, it is a first step performed during the initial stage of the research in order to narrow the scope and to transform ambiguous problems into well-defined ones which contain specific objectives (Zikmund, 1997).

The second type of research purpose, descriptive, is concerned with determining the frequency with which an event occurs, or the relationship between two variables. It involves the formulation of an initial hypothesis (Selltiz et al, 1976, in Churchill, 1999). As Zikmund (1997) points out, the major purpose of descriptive research is to describe characteristics of a population. It is characterized by its seeking to answer the questions who, what, when and how; by its overriding need for accuracy; its assumption that the nature of the research problem is already understood to some degree; and its concern for establishing the extent of differences among subgroups regarding needs, attitudes and opinions. Malhotra (1999) sums up the characteristics of descriptive research in a similar way.

The third type of research purpose, causal, is defined as being concerned with determining cause and effect relationship (Selltiz et al, 1976, in Churchill, 1999). Zikmund (1997) points out that causal research follows exploratory and descriptive research. It seeks to explain relationship, such as predicting the effect of such things as price, packaging and advertising on sales. Similarly, Malhotra (1999) describes this type of research as one that tries to understand which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which are the effect (dependent variables); to determine the nature of the relationship between causal variables and the effect to be produced. As Churchill (1999) and Malhotra(1999) both point out, causal research typically takes the form of experimentation, as the latter is an appropriate method for determining cause and effect.

From the above, it is clear that these research purposes are not mutually exclusive, but rather complementary. As regards descriptive and causal research, a number of basic methods are identified in the literature. These are: surveys, experiments, use of secondary data collected during an earlier exploratory stage and observation (Zikmund, 1997).

5.3 The research process and the research design for the present study

The present study consists of marketing research performed in pursuit of a double objective: it combines the practical collecting of information on a particular topic — cultural differences in consumer behaviour in several market areas — with the requirements of an academic discipline. It seeks to accomplish the research process in the stages put forward in the literature in a way that particularly reflects the nature of the subject under investigation. Thus, the present chapter deals with the earlier stages in the process: definition of the research problem, research design, formulation of hypotheses and sampling. Subsequent chapters deal with planning the collection of data, including questionnaire design and data collection (Chapter 6), analysis of data and testing hypotheses (Chapter 7 and 8), interpretation of data and findings (Chapter 9).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the aims of this research are to investigate consumer purchasing behaviour of the younger generation of women in mainland China, Taiwan and the UK regarding cosmetics, and to examine the ways in which cultural norms affect such behaviour. Although much marketing research has been carried out regarding China, no research has been published on the subject of cultural influences on cosmetics purchasing behaviour.

It is necessary, therefore, to deepen existing knowledge and to open up the area where there is little or none to be found. To accomplish this task, it is intended to collect primary data by means of a survey. Moreover, as regards the cosmetics market, and as identified in Chapters 3 and 4, it is women of the younger generation (in the age bracket of 18 to 29) who seem most likely to have benefited from the changes resulting from China's economic reform in 1979. This generation enjoys greater freedom and sufficient means to satisfy new tastes for the newly available consumer goods. For this reason the present survey targets this group of young females in mainland China and the same age bracket of 18 to 29 young women in Taiwan and the UK for the purpose of cultural comparison.

This study is based on both primary and secondary sources. The primary source investigation consisted of a questionnaire survey. This was carried out in three countries: China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK. The purpose was to gain information in order to make a comparison of consumer purchasing behaviour influenced by cultural differences. The secondary source investigation consisted of a study of relevant literature. This included books, journals, magazines, newspapers and reports. Some of these were able to provide useful evidence from consumer surveys done recently. A third dimension of the present study was personal observations made during visits to China and Taiwan by the researcher. These visits provided good opportunities for meeting and talking not only to colleagues but also members of the public.

The exploratory stage of the research consisted of a study based on secondary sources of the following topics: the China cosmetics market; consumer behaviour models and the significance of culture; new patterns of consumption in China today, with particular reference to the new generation of young adults and also the changing status of women. This enabled the researcher to gain a clearer picture of changing lifestyles in China PRC and to compare the differences in cultural norms between Chinese and British society. This laid the foundations for the formulation of hypotheses and the second of the three types of research outlined above — descriptive research.

5.4 Formulation of hypotheses

In Chapter 3 the cognitive and behaviourist models were examined. From this it was seen that culture and environment play an important influencing role on consumer purchasing behaviour and marketing strategies. The variable of environmental influences in the E.K.B model can thus be applied in this dissertation to draw up a Policy-Economy-Culture framework which is relevant for mainland China after the Communist Party came to power. The Policy-Economy-Culture framework is then developed to include consumer buying behaviour in relation to cosmetics purchase, and to formulate hypotheses for testing the cultural and environmental influences on cosmetics purchasing behaviour in the three countries under study. The figure below shows the steps in this process.

Figure 5.4:

Flow chart showing the stages of hypothesis formulation

Cognitive models	Behaviourist model
• the Howard and Sheth model • the Sheth family decision-making model • the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (E.K.B) model • the Kerby model • the Nicosia model	• Behavioural Perspective model (BPM)

↓

Cultural and environmental influences (in E.K.B model)

↓

The Policy-Economy-Culture framework

↓

The Policy-Economy-Culture framework in relation to cosmetics purchasing behaviour

↓

Formulation of hypotheses

In Chapter 4 an examination of women's lifestyle patterns in Greater China (China PRC, Taiwan ROC and Hong Kong) showed noticeable regional variations in consumer habits. It had also been seen that many women in mainland China have gained in consumption power as a result of their enhanced status in various occupations. At the same time, they have become more concerned with personal elegance and grooming. This has led to an upsurge in the consumption of cosmetics where, again, regional differences in consumer attitudes play an important part in purchase behaviour. The literature on the subject revealed that there were economic winners and losers as a result of the transition from a centrally planned economy to a market based economy. Among the winners, were the emerging class of young professional women. These were identified as the most promising prospects for marketers in general and for the cosmetics industry in particular.

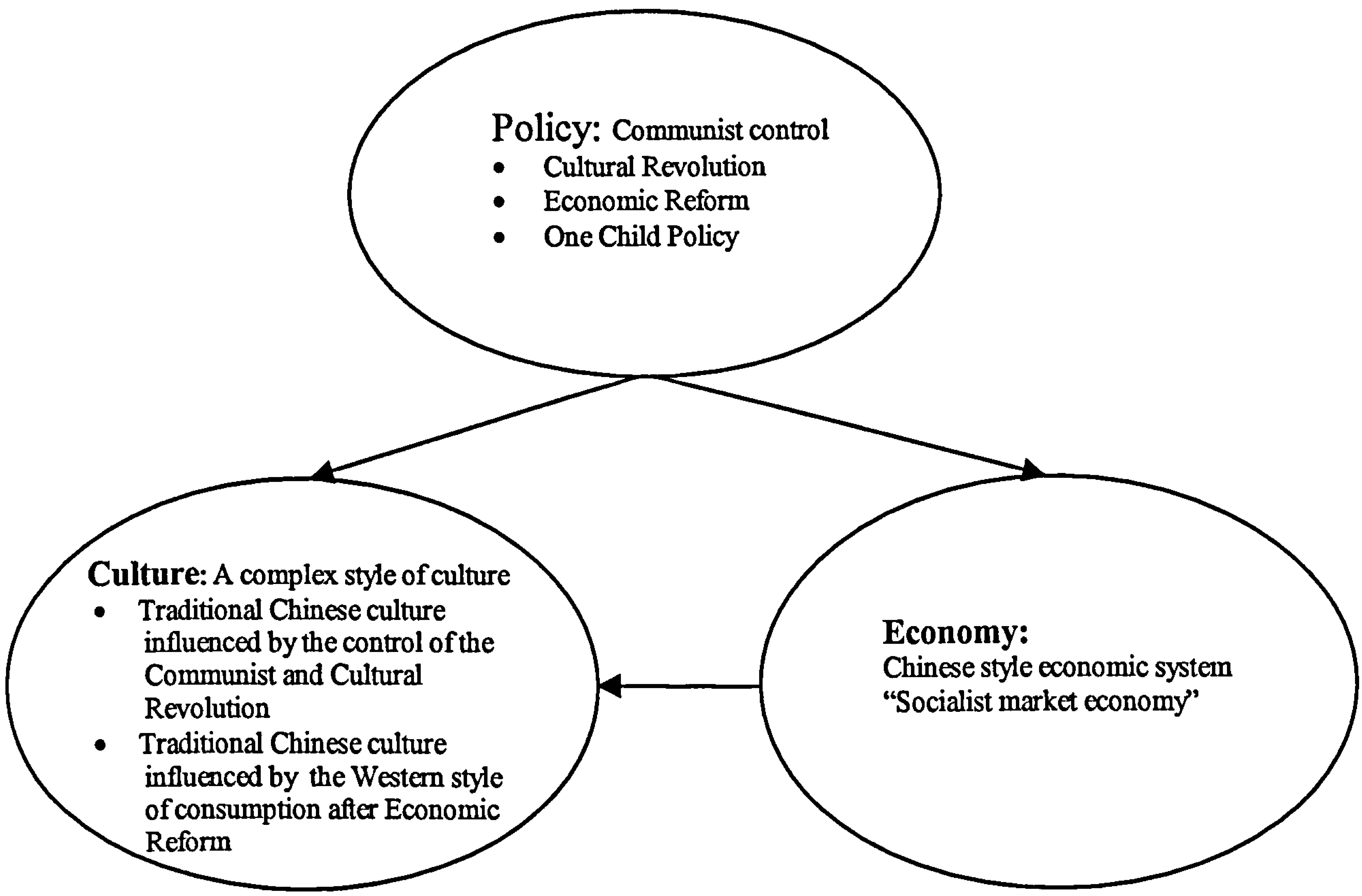
The purpose here is to formulate a number of key hypotheses which will be used to test whether certain Chinese cultural norms, which have traditionally influenced the way in which consumers behave when making purchases, are still prevalent in mainland China today after the recent economic changes. In doing so it is necessary to take into account the political and economic conditions of the country over the past 50 years, as well as the traditional culture of the Chinese people. For it is possible that changes to traditional cultural norms and, consequently, to consumer purchasing behaviour, have occurred as a result of past changes in public policy, economic goals and social conditions.

5.4.1 The Policy – Economy – Culture framework under China's Communist regime

As we have seen in the previous chapter, the picture that China presents to the observer is a complex one. Over the past 50 years the Chinese people have been subjected to continuous change. The establishment of Communist rule led to revolutionary changes in every field of activity. During these years the Communist Party has remained in control and at various times has instigated new policies: first the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) which ended in failure; then the economic reform under the Open Door Policy introduced in 1979, accompanied by the One Child Policy. Every time the government brought in a new policy the economic outlook changed and this in turn led to social and cultural transformation. A framework (shown in Figure 5.5 below) illustrating this relationship would be:

Figure 5.5:

The Policy – Economy – Culture framework



This framework is useful for illustrating the research problem. To apply this simple model, however, certain relevant details first need to be added for the purpose of relating it to the research design and thus affording greater clarification.

In the wake of the more recent of the changes mentioned above, namely the Open Door Policy and the One Child Policy, a new generation has sprung up, relatively unaffected by the traumas of the Cultural Revolution which substantially affected the lives of their parents and grandparents. As mentioned previously in Chapter 4, this new generation has benefited from the growing economic prosperity. It is reasonable to assume that the members of this generation of females aged between 18 and 29 have different patterns of behaviour from those of their elders. It is of some concern to the marketer to find out whether their allegiance to traditional cultural norms has been changed in any way as a result of their increased affluence, and to establish to what extent, if any, such change is reflected in their consumer purchasing behaviour.

It is of interest, for example, to discover their attitude to the concept of face and whether the preservation of face affects their attitude to the purchase of cosmetics. As described in the previous chapter (Chapter 3) showing one's social standing and prosperity in Chinese society is bound up with face. Consequently, face not only influences the relationship between family and society but also involves the attitude of the parents towards the child. For example, a child at school will lose face among his schoolmates if he or she cannot keep up with them, not only in school subjects but also in personal possessions and fashionable clothes. The need to compete in this respect ensures that children put pressure on parents in order to have all the necessary items of attire which guarantee their face with their friends. It is interesting to find out whether this phenomenon causes a young mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics for herself in favour of satisfying the needs of the child. Other attitudes which are formed or affected by the need to preserve face are those concerning skin colour, present-giving and shopping around for best price. It is also of interest to ascertain to what extent the cosmetics purchasing behaviour of women in the 18 to 29 age group is influenced by these concerns.

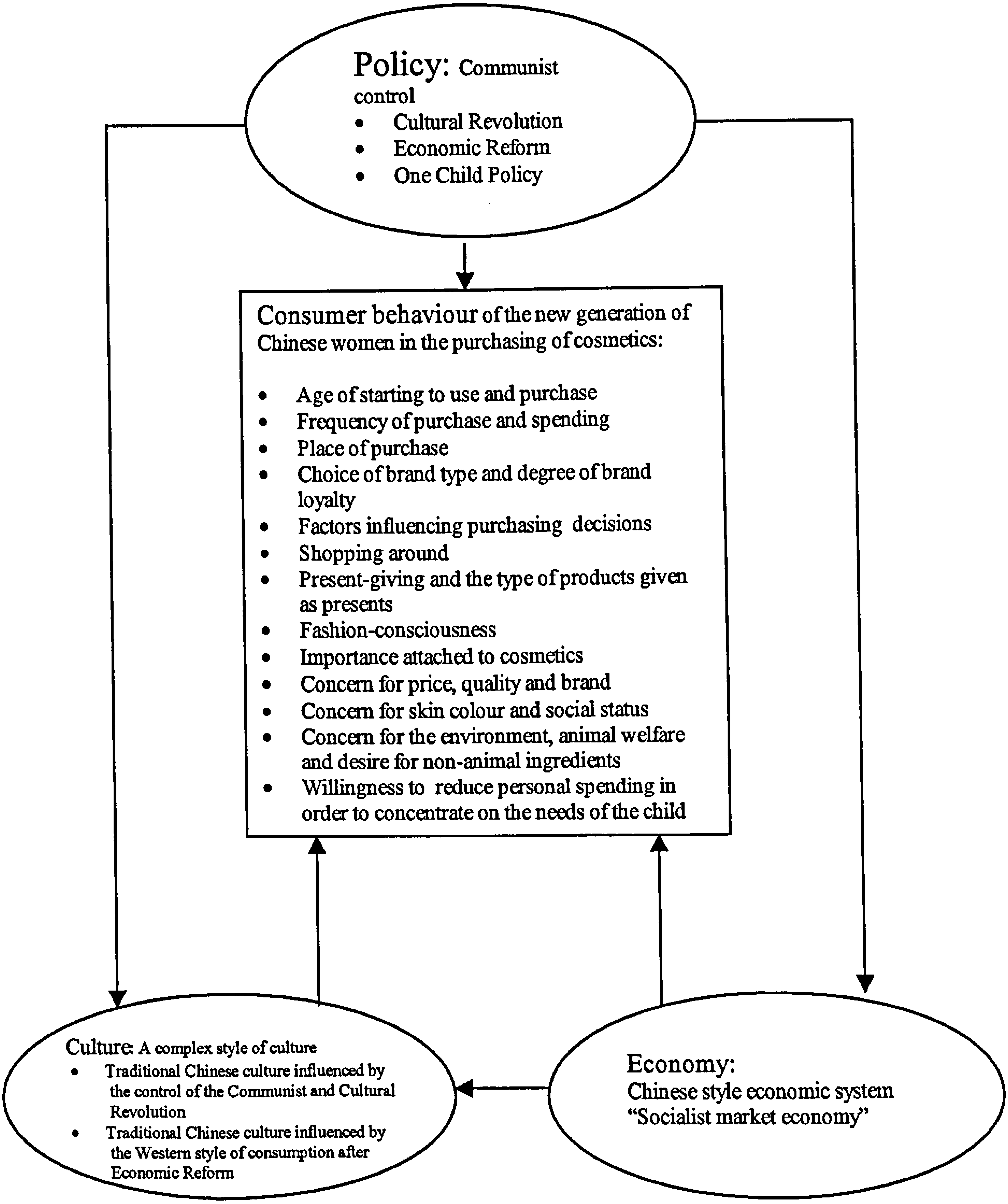
5.4.2 The Policy – Economy – Culture framework in relation to cosmetics purchasing behaviour

It is necessary to ascertain the effect of the Open Door Policy and the One Child Policy on the new generation of young females between 18 and 29, both the young single woman and the young mother. The extent to which a Western style of living and fashion-consciousness play a role in the consumer behaviour of young women also indicates a possible modification of traditional cultural norms. Place of purchase, brand choice and brand loyalty are areas affected by any such modification. Other areas of interest are the attitude of young women consumers of cosmetics towards the environment and towards animal welfare.

The simple Policy – Economy – Culture framework takes on a more meaningful appearance when the concerns of consumer purchasing behaviour in relation to cosmetics are added to the picture, as Figure 5.6 below shows.

Figure 5.6:

The Policy – Economy – Culture framework in relation to cosmetics purchasing behaviour



These concerns are the main interest of this researcher in studying the consumer behaviour of the new generation of Chinese women in the purchasing of cosmetics. Topics include the following:

- Age of starting to use and purchase
- Frequency of purchase and spending
- Place of purchase
- Choice of brand type and degree of brand loyalty
- Factors influencing purchasing decisions
- Shopping around
- Present-giving and the type of products given as presents
- Fashion-consciousness
- Importance attached to cosmetics
- Concern for price, quality and brand
- Concern for skin colour and social status
- Concern for the environment, animal welfare and desire for non-animal ingredients
- Willingness to reduce personal spending in order to concentrate on the needs of the child

5.4.3 Hypotheses which relate to the impact of culture on purchasing behaviour

In general, in different cultures, one can observe quite different human attitudes. These differences are apparent in matters such as social behaviour, politics and religion. In the present study the main interest is in consumer purchasing behaviour, particularly in the market for cosmetics. It is of interest here to test whether attitudes in relation to the use and purchase of cosmetics are similar or not in cultures which are indeed manifestly different in most respects.

The attitudes to cosmetics listed in the above Policy – Economy – Culture framework in relation to cosmetics purchasing behaviour (p.102) include many items which are attitudinal in nature. The first stage of analysis is, therefore, to clarify the nature of attitudes to cosmetics prior to testing behavioural hypothesis. In formulating the first hypothesis the following attitudinal elements will be highlighted:

- Fashion-consciousness
- Importance of cosmetics
- Concern for skin colour and social status
- Concern for price, quality and brand

- Concern for the environment, animal welfare and desire for non-animal ingredients
- Willingness to reduce personal spending in order to concentrate on the needs of the child

The first specific hypothesis to be tested will be:

Chinese and British customers have different attitudes to cosmetics.

Once the attitudinal dimensions have been clarified they will be included in the second and third hypothesis concerning behaviours. It is interesting first to discover whether the purchase of cosmetics has similar influential variables in these different cultures. The influential variables taken into account in framing the second hypothesis are the environmental and situational features included in discussion of the various models in Chapter 3:

- Income
- Age
- Marital status
- Parenthood
- Education
- Occupation
- Attitudes to cosmetics (same as for the first hypothesis)

The second hypothesis to be tested is:

The purchase of cosmetics will have different influential variables in each of the two cultures.

The hypothesis will be tested by means of regression equation of the general form:

$$\text{Spending on cosmetics} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income} + \beta_2 \text{Age} + \beta_3 \text{Marital status} + \beta_4 \text{Parenthood} + \beta_5 \text{Education} + \beta_6 \text{Occupation} + \beta_7 \text{Attitudes to cosmetics} + \varepsilon.$$

In the case of this hypothesis it is expected that the different cultures will have a varying pattern of significant β coefficients.

It is also important to discover whether and to what extent the effect of the influential variables included in the second hypothesis is different in each culture.

Therefore, the third hypothesis to be tested is:

The influential variables will have a different effect in each culture.

This hypothesis will be tested by examining the size of different regression coefficients in the regression model listed under hypothesis 2. In the case of this hypothesis it is expected that the coefficients will be of different magnitude in each culture.

5.4.4 Hypotheses relevant to commercial organisations

It is generally agreed that the most important consideration for any commercial enterprise is the customer. Without customers, the four essentials of the marketing operation: product, price, place and promotion are impossible to determine. Information about customers, such as who they are (their sex, age, educational level, occupation and family relationships); where they are (accommodation, social and religions groups); when and where they do their shopping; what they buy; what they are interested in; how they make purchasing decisions, are all of the greatest interest and importance for marketers.

In this section, the formulation of hypotheses which are relevant to commercial organisations, takes into account the cross-cultural comparison between Chinese and British culture in relation to consumer behaviour made earlier in Chapter 3, and also the above Policy – Economy – Culture framework applied to the cosmetics purchasing behaviour of Chinese consumers. Those aspects of Chinese and British culture and consumer purchasing behaviour which are used in the following construction of hypotheses are: the attitudes towards cosmetics; face; shopping around; present-giving; and concern for animal welfare and the environment.

5.4.4.1 Fashion-consciousness and the importance attached to cosmetics

In Chapter 3 a comparison of Chinese and British culture revealed significant differences in attitudes to skin colour: for the Chinese a white or light colour is important, whereas for the British a deep suntan is desirable. Beauty for a woman is an important part of her public persona. No matter which age group she belongs to, she wants to be seen as young and attractive. Looking beautiful is not just for her own benefit – it is also an enjoyable thing for other people such as her family and friends. Thus, a fashion-conscious young woman is naturally inclined to attach great importance to cosmetics. This appears to be a generally observed and universally accepted fact.

However, in Chinese society there appears to be less compulsion to use cosmetics at a very early age, in contrast to what happens in Britain. It is unusual, for example, for Chinese teenage girls to wear cosmetics. Young Chinese females generally begin to use cosmetics when they take up employment. In Western society, by contrast, parents allow their daughters to use cosmetics while they are still teenagers. Western teenage magazines also play a role in supplying plenty of advice and information on matters such as make-up, clothes and other fashion accessories for their young readers. Consequently, Western teenagers grow up familiar with and concerned about cosmetics. In the case of young Chinese females who appear to come to cosmetics at a somewhat later age than their British counterparts, there are possibly a number of factors in play which might explain this phenomenon. One of these might be culture, another income level.

It is interesting to test the hypothesis below and also to find out whether culture has any particular effect on the level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among young women in mainland China, Taiwan and the UK, or whether the above attitudes are determined simply by other factors such as age, income and education.

The fourth hypothesis to be tested is:

Young British females are more fashion-conscious and attach greater importance to cosmetics than young Chinese females.

5.4.4.2 Concerns arising from the desire to preserve "face"

Under this heading there are two phenomena which have an important bearing on consumer behaviour in the purchasing of cosmetics.

1. Search for superior quality at the lowest price

As we have seen in the previous chapter (Chapter 3, section 5), the notion of shopping around, "seeking the best quality at the best price" when engaged in making purchases, is a well-known part of traditional Chinese culture. The question, however, is whether the principle of shopping around in China has been completely eliminated from people's everyday behaviour as a result of China's Communist regime.

In the years following the takeover by Mao and later during the Cultural Revolution, the Chinese people had little consumer choice. Goods generally were of a uniform quality and at a standard price as far as the ordinary citizen was concerned. There was little or no need for advertising as there was no room for discrimination on the part of shoppers: they bought whenever and wherever they could. This was true of all products. However, in the case of cosmetics, there was no supply at all during those years, the reason being a total government ban on the wearing of cosmetics. Since then, 1979's economic reform in China has introduced consumerism under the overall political control of a more open-minded Communist regime. Following the new Open Door Policy which allowed capitalism, the government relaxed to a certain extent its control on prices. As time went on the controls were further relaxed. It is interesting, therefore, to discover whether the age-old, traditional culture of seeking the best bargain by shopping around was merely dormant during those years of strict communist control, living on under the surface but unable to manifest itself, and has now revived with the coming of a more consumer-oriented regime, or whether it died out completely and is no longer to be found to any noticeable or significant degree.

The habit of shopping around can also be seen to a certain extent as a feature of Western consumer behaviour, although the development of societies in the West has been different from that of society in China. This research focuses on the consumer behaviour of those purchasing cosmetics, rather than purchasing goods in general. It is important, therefore, by means of cross-cultural comparison, to discover if and to what extent and for what reasons young British women shop around when purchasing their cosmetics. Also, it is of interest to test this hypothesis to discover whether, within the same basic Chinese culture as that of mainland China (but, unlike China, strongly influenced by contact with the West), the young generation of Taiwanese women still keep alive the traditional practice of shopping around.

The fifth hypothesis to be tested is:

Young Chinese women (mainland Chinese and Taiwanese) shop around when buying cosmetics, whereas young British women purchase cosmetics at their own favourite shops.

2. Present-giving

Although present-giving is a world-wide cultural activity, it would appear that in Chinese society it assumed generally a much more important role than in most Western societies. Of course, in all these societies people customarily give presents to celebrate important occasions in the calendar, such as birthdays, weddings, christenings and feasts such as Christmas and Easter and various other dates of lesser importance. In both China and Taiwan, presents have also customarily been given, not only on these occasions, but also at the important popular festival, the Lunar New Year. The following table provides a selection of the type of presents normally given on these important occasions in the year in Chinese and British society based on the researcher's personal observation and experience and therefore is not intended as an exhaustive list.

Table 5.2:

Common examples of presents given in Chinese and British society

Occasions	Chinese society	British society
Lunar New Year and Christmas	Lunar New Year: • Clothes, shoes • Food and drink • Gifts of money	Christmas: • Clothes, shoes • Books, CD's • Cosmetics • Confectionery • Food and drink
Wedding	• Gifts of money • Household goods and equipment	• Household goods and equipment
Birthday	• Clothes, shoes • Fashion accessories	• Cosmetics • Fashion accessories • Flowers
Other occasions	• Fruits • Food and drink	• Flowers • Drink • Confectionery

Present-giving in Chinese society has served a much wider purpose than that of family celebration. Three main interpersonal functions were carried out by means of giving presents: asking for help, thanking for help and building and keeping relationships. These functions occurred not just within families but in society at large.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, present-giving is directly connected with the concern for "face". It is also connected with the concept of "*guanxi*" ("connections between people"). The two concepts are woven together in the practice of present-giving. Chinese people must, when giving presents, observe the niceties of "*guanxi*" and take care that face is preserved. In other words, they need to show respect for the status of the recipient and, accordingly, make sure that the choice of present is appropriate for expressing the necessary degree of respect. If this requirement is not met correctly, then the giver and the receiver of the present both risk loss of face. In view of this, great care was taken not only in the choice of present, its quality and brand, but also the manner in which it was presented, including the packaging and wrapping materials.

As the focus in this research is on the 18 to 29 generation of females in both societies, it is important to ascertain to what extent present-giving is still a custom with member of this generation. In particular, it is important to discover the role played by cosmetics in their present-giving.

The sixth hypothesis to be tested is:

> ***In both Chinese society and British society cosmetics are a customary form of gift on festive occasions.***

To discover what differences there are between mainland China, Taiwan and the UK on this point, the hypothesis will be tested in all three countries.

5.4.4.3. Attitudes towards the environment and the use of animals in cosmetic products

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, UK and other Western consumers generally appear to have more concern than their Chinese counterparts for the environment and for the welfare of animals, and thus to be more likely to object to the use of animal ingredients in cosmetics. Indeed, a culturally significant phenomenon in Chinese society has always been the high regard for Chinese traditional medicine and medicinal products. The ingredients for these products are often taken from animals, including those species which are recognised as rare or threatened. The socio-cultural norms of "face" and "*guanxi*" are deep-rooted in Chinese society. As mentioned in Chapter 3, in giving gifts the Chinese pay attention to the way the gift is presented, that is, packaged and wrapped. The practice is all part of the requirement to preserve "face" and show the necessary degree of respect to the receiver. The fact that the use of elaborate and wasteful packaging and wrapping materials contributes indirectly to environmental damage takes second place to the need to show respect.

Though the Chinese generally do not object to the use of animal ingredients in products and the use of elaborate packaging, it could be argued that among the 18 to 29 population some modification of attitude may be taking place. The basis for such an argument in relation to mainland China is that this younger generation, unlike their elders, have received a normal education at school. The benefits resulting from this, combined with new opportunities presented to them by the fresh economic conditions introduced under the Open Door Policy, have instilled a mentality very different from that of their parents and grandparents. The new mentality is likely to be more freedom-loving, more curious about the outside world and generally more enterprising. It is possible, through their access to new ideas, including those carried by the foreign media to which many have access thanks to foreign language skills, that they have been influenced by some of the topical and widely publicized concerns of Western industrialised societies. These may include concern for the natural environment and concern for wild life and the welfare of animals.

As regards, the members of the 18 to 29 younger generation in Taiwan, the argument would be that these have been exposed continually to new ideas and foreign fashions and, as a result, are likely to be environmentally friendly and concerned for animal welfare. Thus, concern for the environment and animal welfare in both China and Taiwan among the 18 to 29 generation would represent a radical new departure and reveal a sharp contrast with the attitude of the older generation.

If concern for the environment and for the welfare of animals (that is an aversion to the use of animals in testing products and to the use of animal ingredients) were to be typical of a sizeable section of this younger generation, it would have some significance for the future marketing strategy of the cosmetics industry in both China and Taiwan. For the 18 to 29 year old females in both countries would reveal this concern in their purchase of cosmetics. Marketers would therefore need to take it into consideration in their packaging design and their new product development.

The seventh hypothesis, therefore, can be formulated as follows:

> ***In purchasing their cosmetics, the younger generation of Chinese women, like their British counterparts, feel concern for the environment and for the welfare of animals.***

It is important to discover attitudes towards the environment and welfare of animals among the 18-29 year-old young females in each of the three countries concerned in order to highlight any significant similarities or differences. It is possible that attitudes in all three countries may be evolving, as suggested, as a result of a growing worldwide concern over the environment and the natural world (including animal life on earth). If attitudes are evolving, then it is reasonable to assume that young people are in the forefront of the shift in values. The effects of such a shift, whether it be in the UK or Taiwan or China, or all three, would be bound to be felt in consumer purchasing behaviour and therefore of great importance to marketers.

5.5 Sampling

Zikmund (1997) defines sampling as any procedure which uses a small number of items or parts of a population in order to draw a conclusion regarding the entire set of items or the total population. This definition reflects the general view of sampling seen elsewhere in the literature (Sekaran, 1992; Churchill, 1999; Malhotra, 1999).

The following table shows how different authors view the stages in the sampling design process.

Table 5.3: **Sampling design process put forward by Malhotra and Churchill**

Malhotra, 1999, p.329	Churchill, 1999, p.498
The sampling design process are: 1 Define the population 2 Determine the sampling frame 3 Select sampling technique(s) 4 Determine the sample size 5 Execute the sampling process	Six-step procedure for drawing a sample are: 1 Define the population 2 Identify the sampling frame 3 Select a sampling procedure 4 Determine the sample size 5 Select the sample elements 6 Collect the data from the designated elements

Malhotra (1999) and other authors mentioned above classify sampling techniques broadly as either the probability type or the nonprobability type. With probability sampling, as Zikmund (1997) explains, every element of a population has a known, nonzero probability of selection. The sampling units are selected by chance. In contrast, with nonprobability sampling, the elements in the population do not have any probabilities attached to their being selected as sample subjects (Sekaran, 1992). As

Malhotra (1999) points out, nonprobability sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher rather than chance to select sample subjects.

As regards probability sampling techniques, there are four main types: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Nonprobability sampling technique are convenience sampling, judgmental sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling.

The following table gives a brief explanation of probability and nonprobability sampling techniques.

Table 5.4: **A brief indication of sampling techniques**

Probability sampling techniques	Nonprobability sampling techniques
Simple random sampling is a technique which guarantees that each element in the population will have a known and equal chance of being selected for the sample (Zikmund, 1997; Churchill, 1999; and Malhotra, 1999).	**Convenience sampling** is a nonprobability sampling technique which attempts to obtain a sample of convenient elements (Malhotra, 1999). Selection of sampling units is often decided on the basis that respondents are happen to be in the right place at the right time. The actual selection is left to the researcher.
Systematic sampling is one in which the elements in the sample are determined by selecting a random starting point and picking every *n*th element in succession from the sampling frame (Sekaran, 1992; Zikmund, 1997; Malhotra, 1999).	**Judgemental sampling** is a technique in which the researchers select the sample on the basis of his or her own judgement concerning some appropriate characteristics required of the sample member. Thus selection is not made on the basis that the population elements are representative, but simply that they satisfy specific purposes identified by the researcher (Zikmund (1997).
Stratified sampling uses a two-step procedure to partition the population into subpopulations or strata. Churchill (1999) explains that the parent population is divided into mutually exclusive and exhaustive subsets. Then a simple random sample of elements is selected independently from each subset.	**Snowball sampling** consists of an initial group of respondents being selected, usually at random. After these have been interviewed they are asked to identify others who belong to the target population of interest. Subsequent respondents are selected on the basis of these referrals.
Cluster sampling involves dividing the target population into mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive subpopulations, or clusters. Subsequently, a random sample of clusters is selected, based on a probability sampling technique such as simple random sampling. To arrive at each selected cluster, either all the elements are included in the sample, or a sample of elements is drawn probabilistically (Malhotra, 1999). If all the population elements in the selected subpopulations are included in the sample, the procedure is termed one-stage cluster sampling. If a sample of elements is drawn probabilistically from the selected subpopulations, the procedure is termed two-stage cluster sampling (Churchill, 1999; Malhotra, 1999).	**Quota sampling** is described as a two-stage restricted judgemental sampling. In the first of the stages, control categories, or quotas, of the population elements are developed. The researcher does this by listing relevant control characteristics and determining the distribution of these characteristics in the target population. These control characteristics are identified by the researcher on the basis of his or her judgement, and may include sex, age and race (Malhotra, 1999). The control categories (quotas) are often developed in such a way that the proportion of the sample elements with the control characteristics is the same as the proportion of population elements with these characteristics. In this way, the quotas guarantee that the composition of the sample is the same as the composition of the population regarding the characteristics of interest. The second stage of quota sampling consists of the selection of sample elements on the basis of convenience or judgement.

5.5.1 The difficulty of sampling in the present study

The present study attempts to make a comparison of cultural differences in consumer purchasing behaviour in the cosmetic industry in three countries. Some difficulties are obviously unavoidable. As Malhotra (1999) points out, implementing the sampling design process in international marketing research is not often an easy task. He points to several potential areas of difficulty for researchers:

- the relevant population element may differ from country to country;
- the degree of accessibility to the population element also varies from country to country;
- compiling an appropriate sampling frame can be a difficult task.

Problems associated with the development of sampling frames stem from the fact that reliable information about the target population may not be available from secondary sources:

- official data may be unavailable or highly biased;
- population lists may not be available commercially;
- the time and money needed to compile these lists may be excessive.

Malhotra states that because of factors such as the lack of suitable sampling frames, the inaccessibility of certain respondents, notably women in some cultures, and the dominance of personal interviewing, probability sampling techniques are not common in international marketing research. He points out that quota sampling has been widely used in both consumer and industrial surveys in developed and developing countries. Another type of nonprobability sampling, snowball sampling, is also attractive when the characteristic of interest is rare in the target population or where access is difficult.

For the present study the difficulty of sampling can be listed as follows.

1. Statistical resources

These consist of censuses published by the government; annual reports; abstracts and indexes containing information on the population regarding sex, marital status, age bracket, education, etc. In the three countries studied, information regarding marital status, accommodation, occupation and income level of the female population in the 18 to 29 age bracket is unavailable. Therefore it is impossible to compile a sample frame.

2. Advance knowledge of the population

The possibility of stratified sampling was considered, but compiling the list of sample units is a difficulty for the researcher. Phone books, yellow pages contain lists of company and household phone numbers and addresses. These can be used in probability sampling techniques for different kinds of surveys such as the health service, shopping habits, leisure pursuit, attitudes to the brands and brand loyalty, the image of products, shops and salesmen.

Lists of addresses and telephone numbers are available, but there is no information regarding females in the 18-29 age bracket. As Zikmund (1997) points out the lack of suitable lists of population members effectively rules out systematic sampling, stratified sampling, or other sampling designs.

Snowball sampling is attractive when the characteristic of interest is rare in the target population or when respondents are hard to reach. Malhotra (1999) cites the example of Saudi Arabia graduate students being employed by researchers to hand-deliver questionnaires to relatives and friends. The latter were then asked for referrals to other potential respondents, and so on. Such an approach is likely to result in a large sample size and a high response rate.

3. Budget and time restraint

For commercial marketing research, it is easier to use an expert research company such as A. C. Nielsen to conduct an international study. For a graduate student working on a master's thesis, conducting a national or international survey is almost always out of the question because of limited resources of time and money (Zikmund, 1997). It is prohibitive for the researcher to stay in each country for any length of time to collect the sample units.

5.5.2 Sampling technique used in the present research

For the above reasons, the present research used a mixture of nonprobability sampling techniques: convenience and snowball sampling. The choice of this technique reflects the limitations of an investigation involving the collection of data in three countries. Here, speed of data collection, cost and the response rate are important considerations to the researcher. The procedure was to establish a personal network of willing helpers. Thus, the sampling units were composed of family members, friends and colleagues and their personal contacts.

Firstly, the population was defined as the female 18-29 population in three countries: Taiwan, China and the UK. Secondly, the sampling frame was determined as the cities of Taipei and Kaohsiung in Taiwan ROC, Beijing and Shanghai in China PRC, and the regions of Southern England (London area) and Northern England (Manchester area) in the UK. Thirdly, the sampling technique selected was nonprobability sampling: a mixture of convenience and snowball sampling. Finally, the sample size was determined as 600 in each country by using the rules of thumb established by Roscoe (1975). The latter establishes several rules of thumb for determining sample size:

1. Sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are considered appropriate for most research.
2. If the samples need to be broken into subsamples (male/females, juniors/seniors, etc.), a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is required.
3. In multivariate research (including multiple regression analyses), the sample size needs to be several times (preferably 10 times or more) larger than the number of variables in the study.
4. For simple experimental research with tight experimental controls (matched pairs, etc.) it is possible to conduct successful research with samples as small as 10 to 20. (Roscoe, 1975, in Sekaran, 1992, pp.253-254)

Table 5.5 below shows the elements of the sampling design process used in the present study:

Table 5.5:

Elements of the sampling design process in the present study

Stages of the sampling design process	Elements
Define the population	Female in 18 to 29 age bracket
Determine the sampling frame	• China PRC: Beijing and Shanghai • Taiwan ROC: Taipei and Kaohsiung • UK: Southern England (London area) and Northern England (Manchester area)
Select sampling technique	A mixture of nonprobability sampling techniques: convenience and snowball sampling
Determine the sample size	600 in each country
Execute the sampling process	Collect the data from China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK

5.6 Conclusions

This chapter has focused at first on the theoretical background of the research process. The various stages in the research process have been identified in order to establish a systematic approach to the present study. The chapter has then concentrated on the early stages of the process, relating the theoretical framework put forward in the literature to the actual subject of the present research. Thus the broad area of interest has been defined and the research gap and the objectives have been discussed. Research design and formulation of hypotheses have also been dealt with here. As regards the formulation of hypotheses for the present study, certain key issues have been examined. These are attitudes to the role of cosmetics generally held by purchasers of cosmetics; concerns felt by purchasers arising from their desire to preserve "face"; and purchasers' attitudes to the environment and the use of animals in the manufacture of cosmetics. The last part of this chapter has reviewed the various sampling methods as described by the literature, in order to determine the most appropriate technique for use in the present study.

In the next chapter, the further stages of the research process will be taken up and dealt with. These will include design of the data collection method to be used, taking into consideration the principles of questionnaire design. Attention will also be given to the particular issues involved in the design and distribution of a questionnaire for use in countries with different cultures.

Chapter 6: Questionnaire Design and Data Collection

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 examined the theoretical framework of the research process and research design. Three hypotheses relating to the impact of culture on cosmetics purchasing behaviour were formulated. In addition, four hypotheses of importance to commercial organisations were devised.

In this chapter the purpose is to design a questionnaire survey and to describe the arrangements for the data collection in the three countries. This data collection will provide the necessary information for testing these hypotheses. In this way a cultural comparison can be carried out. Shopping around, present-giving, frequency and place of purchase, spending on cosmetics, type of brand purchased are topics of interest. Also of interest are attitudes regarding the use and purchase of cosmetics. These include fashion-consciousness, importance attached to cosmetics, attitudes to skin-colour and concern for the environment and the welfare of animals.

6.2 Principles of questionnaire design in the literature

A questionnaire survey presents a challenge to the communication skills of those involved in its design. Preparation calls for attention to the differing needs of the potential respondents and the designer. The latter determines the purpose, content or subject-matter of the survey. The needs of the recipient are more to do with the way the questions are chosen and framed. In other words, the questionnaire must be primarily "user-friendly". At all stages of the questionnaire survey the designer must take account of the need for clarity and convenience in order to achieve his own ends, that is the successful collecting of information.

The literature on marketing questionnaires emphasises these points. The authors of recent studies on the subject (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Hague, 1993; and Churchill, 1999) agree on the need for careful planning and preparation. Tull and Hawkins (1993) point to the need to understand the position of the potential respondent to a questionnaire. The design process is not simply the application of a set of principles alone. It is also necessary to employ a good measure of common sense, a feeling for the respondent's needs, a clear idea of what sort of information is required and a thorough pretesting.

Table 6.1 below compares guidelines for questionnaire design recommended by the above authors.

Table 6.1: **The guidelines for questionnaire design**

Seven decisions for questionnaire construction	**Eight rules for guiding the framing of the questionnaire**	**Nine steps for developing a questionnaire**
Tull and Hawkins, 1993, p.332	Hague, 1993, p.41	Churchill, 1999, p.329
1. Preliminary decisions: • Exactly what information is required? • Exactly who are the target respondents? • What method of communication will be used to reach these respondents? 2. Decisions about question content: • Is this question really needed? • Is this question sufficient to generate the needed information? • Can the respondent answer the question correctly? • Will the respondent answer the question correctly? • Are there any external events that might bias the response to the question? 3. Decisions concerning question phrasing: • Do the words used have but one meaning in all the respondents? • Are any of the words or phrases loaded or leading in any way? • Are there any implied alternatives in the question? • Are there any unstated assumptions related to the question? • Will the respondents approach the question from the frame of reference desired by the researcher? 4. Decisions about the response format: • Can this question best be answered as an open-ended, multiple- choice, or dichotomous question? 5. Decision concerning the question sequence: • Are the questions organized in a logical manner that avoids introducing errors? 6. Decision on the layout of the questionnaire: • Is the questionnaire designed in a manner to avoid confusion and minimize recording errors? 7. Pretest and revise: • Has the final questionnaire been subjected to a thorough pretest, using respondents similar to those who will be included in the final survey?	1. Think about the objectives of the survey 2. Think about how the interview/ questionnaire will be carried out 3. Think about the knowledge and interest of the respondent 4. Think about the introduction 5. Think about the order of the questions 6. Think about the types of questions 7. Think about the possible answers at the same time as thinking about the question 8. Think about how the data will be processed	1. Specify what information will be sought 2. Determine type of questionnaire and method of administration 3. Determine content of individual questions 4. Determine form of response to each question 5. Determine wording of each question 6. Determine sequence of questions 7. Determine physical characteristics of questionnaire 8. Reexamine step 1-7 and revise if necessary 9. Pretest questionnaire and revise if necessary

Tull and Hawkins (1993) explain that it is not always easy for people to feel comfortable with filling in a questionnaire requiring them to disclose information of a precise personal nature, such as age, income, spending habits, occupation and type of accommodation and, to an even greater degree, their name and address. This advice is echoed by the other authors mentioned above. All agree that a questionnaire should be designed so as not to cause inconvenience, misunderstanding, stress or offence.

At a detailed level of the design, the issue arises of the wording of questions used in the questionnaire. There is a clear difference between the open and closed question. For a face to face contact in which a questionnaire is completed by the respondent in the presence and with the assistance of the researcher, the open ended question can be appropriate. However, in the case of a self-completion questionnaire, without the researcher being present, a less free arrangement is recommended by the above authors.

Hague (1993) sets out the possibilities regarding choice of question wording and, at the same time, draws a distinction between categories of question according to their purpose (shown in Table 6.2 below).

Table 6.2: **Classification of question types**

Question types	Open ended question		Closed question	
Behavioural question	Free response	Fixed response	Fixed response	
Attitudinal question	Free response	Fixed response	Fixed response	Scalar response
Classification question	Free response	Fixed response	Fixed response	

(Hague, 1993, p.38)

In Table 6.2 Hague categorizes questions according to their function: behavioural, attitudinal and classifying. Behavioural questions attempt to discover what people (or companies) do (p.30); attitudinal questions seek the opinions or beliefs of the respondent (p.31); and classification questions, as the name suggests, seek to classify the information, once it has been collected (p.34), in categories such as sex, household status, marital status, social class, residence occupation, location, and number of employees (in the case of companies).

As Table 6.2 shows, Hague indicates that both open and closed questions can be used with a fixed response (i.e. the researcher may list possible answers in the form of a number of alternatives on the questionnaire). In the case of attitudinal questions the closed question can also be used with a scalar response. Where fixed response is used, the method is that of providing the respondent with a number of boxes in which he or she can place a tick as appropriate. The present research, which involves the self-completion type of questionnaire where the respondent will be alone, used open and closed questions with fixed response. Hague and the other writers also point out, the important factor in asking respondents to tick a box is the convenience for the respondent and also for the researcher (if questions are set with pre-coded answers for ease of analysis later on).

Hague states that the postal questionnaire in which the recipient fills in the responses on his or her own is the most difficult to prepare. The reason is that there is no researcher present to assist with explanations in case of need. In addition, with the postal questionnaire there are certain factors influencing the response rate. The interest factor depends on the existence of a topic-based relationship between recipient and researcher. In other words, the subject-matter must be compelling. The cover letter accompanying the questionnaire needs to give clearly the purpose of the survey and convince the recipient of its importance as well as ensuring confidentiality. There is also the question of incentive: a gift is a possible means of motivating a response. Above all, a clear layout is important. An orderly, logical procedure, starting with easy questions and moving on to those demanding more reflection on the part of the recipient is required, as well as an attractive professional presentation with clear instructions wherever appropriate (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Hague, 1993; Churchill, 1999).

6.3 Difficulties and precautionary measures taken in the present survey

The questionnaire in the present survey is a 'multinational' questionnaire, as it is intended for use in three different countries. As such, it calls for particular attention to the difficulties involved in researching across different cultures or subcultures. As Tull and Hawkins (1993) point out, these difficulties can be difference or variation in language, in culturally defined behaviours and in the characteristics of the respondents.

6.3.1 Reliability of information provided by respondents to questionnaires

The issue is that of veracity in self-reporting. It would appear to be a natural tendency for people to try to project a favourable image, whenever possible, when speaking about themselves to others. There is a natural desire to emphasize the positive and minimize the negative aspects of one's persona. This tendency can be seen in various examples of behaviour, such as conspicuous consumption and the predilection for branded goods. Where the financial means do not stretch to the actual acquisition of highly regarded goods, human beings may still not be deterred from paying lip-service to them and, when they can get away with it, laying claim to an affluent life style that they can only dream of, thereby giving what they perceive to be a better impression to the listener.

It is in responding to a questionnaire survey that opportunities to project an exaggerated version of the truth may present themselves. The relative security from verification of information might sometimes be a temptation to make exaggerated claims about expenditure and lifestyle. Since this possibility of exaggeration is rooted in human nature itself and questionnaire surveys solicit a free response, it would appear that such surveys carry with them a certain risk of inaccuracy of information. However, one could also argue that, whilst some people might be tempted to give misleading information out of vanity, most would not do so. Regard for the truth being a moral and social norm, most people, it could be argued, are sincere and tell the truth.

Culture also enters into the discussion of the issue of veracity in self-reporting. In Chinese society it can be seen as a cultural norm to wish always to give a positive answer to a question. The Chinese like to say "yes" and thus avoid negative feelings, even when it would be more accurate to answer "no". With rating scales in research questionnaires, it seems likely, therefore, that Chinese respondents would be strongly influenced by their tendency to wish to appear positive, opting for a neutral response in preference to a negative one which might, however, be more in keeping with the truth. These possibilities will be considered further at the analysis stage.

6.3.2 Respondents' fear of getting involved in politically sensitive matters and fear of loss of "face"

In the case of China, these difficulties were apparent. The country is different from most others in its system of government. Political control is exercised in the typical fashion of a communist country, although the regime has become much more relaxed in recent times than it was formerly. However, care needs to be taken so as not to offend communist sensitivities on certain issues. One of these concerns the very action of conducting a questionnaire. In the past it would have been out of question for a foreigner to enter China to undertake a marketing survey. The very act itself would have been regarded as an act of spying on the country. Even today, a questionnaire survey may attract suspicion on the part of the authorities. The answer, under such circumstances, is not only to pass everything through the official channels, so as to have approval for every stage of the process, but also to ensure that nothing is in the questionnaire itself which would arouse official displeasure.

Another consideration which is of high importance is one which has already been mentioned earlier. It is the question of Chinese sensitivity to loss of "face". The Chinese generally take great care of "face". It is not easy for them to answer a questionnaire, revealing the true nature of their thoughts, inhibitions and motivations. These are usually hidden from view, with the result that many respondents would hold back in answering questions about themselves and their way of life. It is not easy for them to speak from the heart, in the same way as other, Western educated, people are able to disclose themselves to others. As a result it can be very difficult for a marketer to obtain accurate, detailed information, unless he/she has a personal relationship with a respondent in some way.

A further problem still present in China, which has moved on economically and to some extent politically from the aftermath of the Cultural Revolution, is one which affects relationships among people. It is the burden of fear stemming from the memory of the past under a strong, repressive Communist dictatorship. Under such a regime fear and suspicion are rife. Ordinary citizens are afraid to get involved unnecessarily with maters that are not of immediate concern to them. They tend to avoid such unnecessary involvement. This could include the answering of questions in a questionnaire — a matter which is not of prime importance or urgency in their lives. This is especially the case if the person asking the questions happens to be a foreigner and one coming from a country considered hostile by the authorities.

In view of this possible reluctance to disclose oneself, certain precautionary measures were taken. In addition to ensuring the anonymity of the respondent, it was decided that the questionnaire would not elicit information which could pin the respondent down to a particular city or area, so as to provide further protection.

6.3.3 Difficulties in designing the questionnaire arising from cultural differences

As was pointed out in Chapter 3, differences in cultural norms between the UK on the one hand and China PRC and Taiwan ROC on the other, necessitated some modification in the design of the questionnaire. There were some difficulties regarding language equivalence. For example, the term "toiletries" has different connotations in Chinese and English. In English, the word refers to products such as shampoos, hair conditioners, soap and shower gel. In Chinese it refers to detergents used for cleaning toilet, kitchen and bathroom surfaces.

Likewise, divergent attitudes to skin colour in the three countries reveals a basic cultural difference. As previously mentioned in Chapter 2 (Section 2.7.2), in Chinese society a light skin is associated with a high social status and prosperity, whereas a dark skin denotes low status. However, in Western society a darker, tanned, complexion is fashionable and suggests affluence and easy access to leisure. Other cultural differences centred on contrasting attitudes to present-giving, shopping around and family relationships as they affect children and young people. As a result, the wording of the questionnaire intended for use in the UK was slightly different from the wording of the questionnaire for China PRC and Taiwan ROC.

6.3.4 Other difficulties in designing the questionnaire arising from social differences

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3 (Section 3.5), economical and social differences exist between consumers in different countries. Between the three countries surveyed there are significant differences in education systems, living conditions for teenagers, types of occupation, and the respect that people have for the various types of occupation.

6.3.4.1 Differences in education systems

As regards education, Table 6.3 below shows the education systems in the three countries, in which the structure of the English system can be seen to be quite different from those of China and Taiwan.

England has nursery schools, primary and secondary schools, and various kinds of higher educational institution (college and university) offering undergraduate and postgraduate studies. China and Taiwan have structures roughly similar to each other: kindergartens, primary schools, junior high schools, high schools, junior colleges, colleges and universities.

Table 6.3: **The education systems in the three countries**

UK	China P.R.C.	Taiwan R.O.C.
Nursery school	Kindergarten	Kindergarten
Primary school	Primary school	Primary school
Secondary school	Junior high school	Junior high school
	High school	High school
Further/higher education	College/university	Junior college
		College/university
Postgraduate	Postgraduate	Postgraduate

Sources: Britain 1996: an official handbook, pp.430-446.
E. I. U. country profile: China & Mongolia 1994-95, pp.21-22.
The investment environment of the R.O.C. on Taiwan, 1996, p39.

6.3.4.2 Living conditions for teenagers

Living conditions for teenagers vary between the UK on the one hand and China and Taiwan on the other. In Britain teenagers, once they have completed their school studies, tend to move away from their home town in order to attend the university or college of their choice. Even if they do not go on to higher education, they tend to look for jobs wherever there are opportunities and this often causes them to leave home. In this way British youngsters live independently quite early on in their lives compared with similar age groups in China and Taiwan. In these two countries it is more usual for teenagers, after they have completed their school studies, to remain at home with parents during their course at college or university, or in their jobs. Even when they have got jobs and are no longer in their teens, and are perhaps married, young people tend to live with parents rather than set up a home on their own. Thus, in China and Taiwan the family remains more of a unit than in Britain, as far as living accommodation is concerned.

6.3.4.3 Types of occupation and different degrees of respect for the various occupations

As regards the various types of occupation in the three countries, the table below provides an overview of the general structure, indicating the main categories of employment.

Table 6.4: **Types of occupation in the three countries**

UK	China P.R.C.	Taiwan R.O.C.
Student	Student	Student
Company employee (plc and private)	State-owned enterprise employee	State-owned enterprise employee
	Private company employee	Private company employee
School teacher or school support staff	School teacher or school support staff	School teacher or school support staff
Self-employed	Self-employed	Self-employed
State or local government employee	State or local government employee	State or local government employee
Other work or profession	Other work or profession	Other work or profession

It can be seen from this table that the category comprising "State-owned enterprise employee" stands out in both China and Taiwan, while in the UK this category has practically disappeared.

The researcher has considerable experience of the culture and popular attitudes in Taiwan, being a national of that country and having lived and worked there for many years. Additionally, his educational background has provided insights into the culture of mainland China. The following observations are based on his own knowledge and experience:

> *The traditional attitude in China and Taiwan reveals great prestige for employees of the State (government officials, teachers, etc), followed by farmers (the producers of food), workers and, last of all, the business people.*
>
> *The Cultural Revolution in China caused farmers to be regarded as the most esteemed section of the workforce, followed by factory workers, State administration employees and teachers and, lastly, business people. Today, after the economic reforms from 1979 onwards, business people have assumed*

> *first place in the prestige league table, followed by State administration employees and teachers, factory workers and, lastly, farmers.*
>
> *Taiwan did not experience the Cultural Revolution and therefore the development of popular attitudes to the various types of occupation has been different from that seen in China. In some respects Taiwan nowadays has retained its traditional attitude: the highest prestige is still enjoyed by State administration employees and teachers, followed by white-collar and blue-collar workers, business people and, lastly, farmers.*

In contrast, popular attitudes in British to the various occupations are somewhat different from those seen in mainland China and Taiwan. The evidence is taken by the researcher from his reading of the British national press and it is on that basis that the following rankings are made. One of the most noticeable differences in popular attitude from that observed in China and Taiwan is the low esteem that State and local government officials, especially teachers, are held at the present time. The British press frequently contains reports on the unsatisfactory situation in the teaching profession and in the schools which it serves. Several recent articles in newspapers can be cited. For example, Laura Clark in the Daily Mail (6 September 2000) writes of a crisis caused by the shortage of teachers: 4,000 vacancies causing the "worst crisis in a decade", and also quotes the figure of 5,000 teachers engaged in teaching mathematics but without maths degree or teaching qualifications. The morale in the profession is considered low and the attitude of parents is reported as being negative.

Liz Lightfoot in the Daily Telegraph (22 September 2000) writes:

> *Parents continue to distrust teachers despite the Government's efforts to improve the profession's image,*

and David Charter in the Times (22 September 2000) observes:

> *A generation of "cynical" teachers gave the profession a poor reputation from which it is still struggling to recover.*

adding that Lord Puttnam (Chairman of the new General Teaching Council) aims "*to raise the status and esteem of the profession.*"

The greatest prestige nowadays in Britain appears to go to business people, well-known sportsmen and media personalities, followed by successful self-employed people, skilled and unskilled workers and farmers.

To enable a comparison to be made succinctly regarding attitudes to types of occupation between China, Taiwan and the UK, Table 6.5 below summarises the above observations. In this table, the levels of prestige and respect attaching to the various categories range from 1, for those held in the most respect, to 4 for those held in the least respect.

Table 6.5: **A comparison of attitudes to various types of occupation in China, Taiwan and the UK**

		Employees of the State (government officials, teachers, etc)	Farmers (the producers of food)	Workers	Business people
China PRC	Traditional	1	2	3	4
	Cultural Rvolution	3	1	2	4
	Economic reform	2	4	3	1
Taiwan ROC	Traditional	1	2	3	4
	Nowadays	1	4	2	3
UK		4	3	2	1

6.4 Selection of cosmetic products

6.4.1 Overview of cosmetics, past and present

Cosmetics can be defined as substances intended to be applied to the human body for the purpose of cleansing, beautifying or altering its appearance (Goldschmiedt, Jacobs and Kuehns, 1997). The actual definition under the law is seen to vary slightly from one country to another. In general, however, it is agreed that a cosmetic product is any article that is intended to be applied to the body by rubbing or sprinkling for the purpose of cleaning, rendering attractive or altering the appearance of the body. Included in this purpose is an aim to maintain the health of the skin and to ensure that the action of the cosmetic product is a mild one (Mitsui, 1997).

Although it is difficult to say when cosmetics began to be used, it is certain that they have a long history. Early people painted themselves with oils or mixtures of oils, clays and vegetable material to protect their bodies from dryness, cold, strong sunlight, or irritation caused by insect bites. Cosmetics were also used for religious purposes and for protection against evil (Mitsui, 1997).

6.4.1.1 Cosmetics in ancient civilisations

As Goldschmiedt, Jacobs and Kuehns (1997) point out, the records of ancient civilisations such as the Egyptians, Sumerians, Hebrews and Babylonians reveal the use of cosmetics as part of their religions practices.

The Egyptians used their cosmetics in embalming the dead as well as for personal embellishment. Their priests also applied cosmetics to the eyes of their idols. The Jews of the Old Testament used cosmetics in both religious and political ceremonies such as the crowning of kings. Their use for bodily adornment is seen in the Bible, in the story of Jezebel, the Phoenician queen of Israel, who painted her face, and adorned her head (II Kings 9:30).

The Babylonians used body perfumes and painted their faces with various substances such as vermilion and white lead. The Medes likewise used eye paint, perfumes and false hair. Scythian women used a preparation made from frankincense and cedar and cypress woods as a kind of body pack for making their skin soft and glossy. As for the ancient Greeks, they dyed their hair and used a plant derivative to colour lips and cheeks. They also used compounds to produce perfume with fixative powers. The Romans came to use cosmetics through the influence which they received from peoples they had conquered — the Greeks, Egyptians and other Eastern subjects.

6.4.1.2 From the fall of Rome to the nineteenth century

When Rome fell, the art and science of cosmetics were continued by the Arabs. The Koran refers to musk as a perfume and to the use of eye cosmetics by Arab women. The latter also used face and skin powders. Those who had contact with Arabs at this time — largely Crusaders and pilgrims — were instrumental in introducing their cosmetic practices into Europe (Goldschmiedt, Jacobs and Kuehns, 1997).

The Renaissance saw an increase in the use of cosmetics in European countries. This was to be seen in aristocratic circles where both men and women used perfumes, toilet waters, face, body and hair powders as well as face patches. It was also to be seen among the poorer people, in their use of more simple substances such as beet juice for colouring lips and cheeks and flour as face and body powder. As time passed, the skills of those making cosmetics became more sophisticated and refined. The chemists of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries made important contributions to the development of cosmetics, and the use of the modern types of cosmetics can be traced back to their work (Goldschmiedt, Jacobs and Kuehns, 1997).

6.4.1.3 The modern times

Today, the cosmetics industry has grown into a large-scale industry with an international mass market. The volume of sales has increased greatly since the start of the century. In 1914, retail sales of cosmetics, as estimated by the Toilet Goods Association, amounted to $39,800,000. In 1940 they were $449,900,000 and by 1975 they had reached $3,450,000,000 (Goldschmiedt, Jacobs and Kuehns, 1997).

As can be seen from the above historical survey, cosmetics in primitive and ancient times were used for religious and sometimes political purposes and also for beautifying the body. Angeloglou (1970) observes that cosmetics have maintained their place in public esteem with the same tenacity as religion with which they have much in common. She adds with a touch of humour at the expense of the modern day user of cosmetics: *"As both practices lurch precariously towards the end of the twentieth century they can be compared as equally illogical, egotistical and based upon primitive necessities"* (p.7).

Though there may be some truth in this, it is necessary to point out that the main purpose of cosmetics is no longer that of the primitive peoples who wished to give expression to religious piety, superstition or to protect themselves against evil. Today as Mitsui (1997) points out, cosmetics are in widespread use in modern societies for personal hygiene, to enhance attractiveness by means of make-up, to improve self-esteem and promote tranquillity, to protect skin and hair from damaging ultraviolet light, pollutants and other environmental factors, to prevent ageing and in general to help people to enjoy a more full and rewarding life.

6.4.2 The classification of cosmetics and the difficulty of the product selection

Numerous brands of cosmetic products are displayed on the shelves of retail outlets, such as pharmacies, supermarkets and department stores. These include hundreds of toiletries, make-up, skin and body care, hair care, hair colour and styling, and fragrance products. More and more of them are still coming out. How to choose and use these products properly is a time and energy-consuming occupation for anybody.

Mitsui (1997) points out that cosmetics (including quasi-drugs) can be classified according to their use and area of application. Cosmetic products are also classified by composition and structure. Table 6.6 below shows the classification of cosmetics based on usage:

Table 6.6: **Classification of cosmetics**

Classification		Usage	Main products
For skin	Skin care cosmetics	Cleansers	Face cleansing creams and foams
		Conditioners	Lotions, packs, massage creams
		Protectors	Milky lotions, moisture creams
	Makeup cosmetics	Base makeups	Foundations, face powders
		Point makeups	Lipstick, blushers, eye shadow, eye liners
		Nail care	Nail enamels, nail polish removers
	Body cosmetics	Bath	Soaps, liquid cleansers, bath preparations
		Suncares and suntans	Sunscreen creams, sun oils
		Antiperspirants and deodorants	Deodorant sprays
		Bleaching, depilatory	Bleaching creams, depilatory creams
		Insect repellents	Insect repellent lotions and sprays
For hair and scalp	Hair care cosmetics	Cleansing	Shampoos
		Treatments	Rinses, hair treatments
		Hair styling	Hair mousses, hair liquids, pomades
		Permanent waves	Permanent wave lotions (agent No.1, No.2)
		Hair colours and bleaches	Hair colours, hair bleaches, colour rinses
	Scalp care cosmetics	Hair growth promoters	Hair growth promoters, hair tonics
		Treatments	Scalp treatments
For oral	Oral care cosmetics	Toothpastes	Toothpastes
		Mouthwashes	Mouthwashes
	Fragrances	Fragrances	Perfumes, Eau de colognes

(Mitsui, 1997, p.5)

This table with its large number of items shows that the difficulty for the researcher lies in the selection of cosmetics for inclusion in the questionnaire.

For the present purpose, it is perhaps more useful to group cosmetics under 6 main headings, which largely indicate their usage, as follows:

1 Skin care cosmetics

2 Makeup cosmetics
3 Body cosmetics
4 Hair care cosmetics
5 Oral care cosmetics
6 Fragrance

6.4.3 Need to use different cosmetics terminology in the English and Chinese versions of the questionnaire

This research includes five of the above 6 groups: oral care cosmetics are excluded. Items included in two of the above groups, hair care cosmetics and body cosmetics, are usually included under the heading of "toiletries" in western countries. Indeed, in the English version of the questionnaire, the term "toiletries" is used as a heading to cover shampoo, hair conditioner and soap/shower gel. In Asia, however, shampoo, hair-conditioner and soap/shower gel come under heading of "personal washing products". Accordingly, in the Chinese (mainland China and Taiwan) versions of the questionnaire the phrase "personal washing products" is used instead of "toiletries" (for these slight variations in the wording of the three questionnaires, see Appendices 2, 3, and 4). However, for the purposes of the discussion below, the terms "hair care cosmetics (i.e. shampoos and conditioners)" and "body cosmetics (i.e. soap and shower gel) " will be used.

6.4.4 The products selected for the present questionnaire

1. Skin care cosmetics

These may be defined as products for cleansing and moisturising the skin. Their purpose is to keep the skin functioning properly and its mechanisms working well. Skin care cosmetics aim to protect the skin from the harmful effects of drying, ultraviolet radiation and oxidation and to keep it looking beautiful and healthy (Mitsui, 1997). Under the heading of skin care are found face cleansing cosmetics, lotions, milky lotions, creams, gels, essences or beauty lotions, packs and masks, and shaving cosmetics (For further details of skin care cosmetics, see Appendix 1, section 1).

The skin care products selected for the questionnaire were chosen on the basis of regular daily use by young females: cleansing cream and lotion, toner/astringent lotion, and moisturising cream and lotion. On this basis certain skin care cosmetics were not included, for example shaving cosmetics and anti-ageing products. The more visible and apparent effects of skin ageing usually show themselves after the age of thirty (Lougham, 1996, p.27). To include anti-ageing cosmetics in the questionnaire for the 18-29 age group would, therefore, be inappropriate. As for shaving cosmetics, these are intended for male use and to include them in the questionnaire would be also inappropriate.

2. Makeup cosmetics

The main purpose of these is to make the user look more beautiful as well as to protect the skin. Makeup cosmetics convey a psychological effect which gives the wearer an increased sense of well being, greater enthusiasm for doing things. They also enable the users to alter their appearance in whatever way they may desire (Mitsui, 1997). Makeup cosmetics comprise face powder and pressed powder, foundation, lipstick, rouge, eyeliner, mascara, eye shadow, eyebrow cosmetics, nail enamel, enamel remover and nail treatment (For further details regarding makeup cosmetics, see Appendix 1, section 2).

The makeup cosmetics selected for the questionnaire were chosen on the same basis as the skin care products, namely regular use by young females: lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow , blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder and foundation. For the sake of simplicity and brevity, the heading of lipstick is intended to cover various kinds of lip colour products (lipsticks, lipliners, lip pencils, pearly lip colours, matt and semi-matt lip colours). Similarly, eye shadow covers eyeliners, eye pencils and mascara.

3. Hair care cosmetics

Hair care cosmetics take in a wide range of products. These have various uses: hair cleansing products; hair growth promoters; hair grooming products, permanent waving products; hair colour and hair bleach (For further details regarding hair care cosmetics, see Appendix 1, section 3).

The present research focuses exclusively on hair cleansing products: shampoos and conditioners (rinses). The role of these products is to remove dirt from the scalp and hair, treat dandruff and itchiness and maintain the hair in a clean and beautiful condition. Shampoo is used to wash the hair and conditioner is used afterwards to give it a smooth feeling and adjust its surface condition in order to make it easy to manage. There is a one-step shampoo (that is, a shampoo having both shampoo and rinse functions), which is generally known as a two-in-one shampoo. In the questionnaire, the heading of "shampoo" includes this one-step product.

4. Fragrance products

This is a wide range of products including perfume, eau de cologne, eau de toilette, eau de parfum, fragrance powder, solid perfume, and perfumed soap (For further details of fragrance products, see Appendix 1, section 4). Additionally there are also cosmetic products which have been impregnated with a fragrance: body lotion, bath oil, potpourri and candles. Their common property is that they focus on fragrance.

The questionnaire addresses only three of these products: perfume, eau de toilette/cologne. The main difference between them lies in their different dosages of perfume. Perfume is the strongest, containing a perfume dosage of 15-30%; eau de toilette and eau de cologne have a much lower perfume dosage: eau de toilette 5-10%; eau de cologne 2-5%.

5. Body cosmetics

These, too, include a very wide range of products: soap, body shampoos (including shower gel), sun care products, hand care products, deodorant cosmetics, bleaches and depilatories, bath preparations and insect repellents (For further details on body cosmetics, see Appendix 1, section 5). Their purpose is to deliver a particular beneficial physiological effect on different parts of the body.

The questionnaire includes two common products for cleansing the body: soap and shower gel. These are listed under "toiletries" (as mentioned above, in the UK products such as hair shampoo, hair conditioner, soap and shower gel are regarded as toiletries, whereas in China and Taiwan these products are called "personal washing products" rather than "toiletries" which carries a distracting connotation).

The questionnaire also includes sun care products. The main function of the latter is to protect the body from the harmful effects of UV (ultraviolet rays). They can be divided into three types: suntan cosmetics (used to cut out UV-B and enable the skin to acquire an attractive sun tanned colour); sunscreen cosmetics (used to cut out UV-A and UV-B); after sun care cosmetics (used for treating the skin after exposure to sun). The first two of these products, suntan cosmetics and sunscreen cosmetics, are used in the questionnaire.

6.5 Procedure of the questionnaire design in the present survey

The aim of this questionnaire is to provide a cultural comparison in three countries: China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK. Its purpose is not only to make an analysis of what the respondents (age group of 18-29) purchase, but also to discover their attitudes to cosmetics. Certain cultural differences between British and Chinese consumers are one of the centres of interest in this survey, such as attitudes to skin-colour, shopping around and to children. Other topics of interest are frequency of purchase, the amounts spent on various types of product, place of purchase, the influences which help to determine choice of product, the type of brand purchased and brand-switching.

6.5.1 Objectives of the set of questions in the questionnaire

The questionnaire is based on the rationale established in the formulation of key hypotheses in Chapter 5. In its design, it follows the normal guidelines prescribed for the self-completion (postal) questionnaire recommended by the authors mentioned earlier. It includes behavioural, attitudinal and classification questions. The ordering of the questions ensures that the easy questions come first followed by those calling for more thought on the part of the respondent. For the most part, closed questions with fixed response (ticked boxes) are employed. In some questions, however, there is an opportunity for respondents to give answers other than those offered by the boxes. Every attempt has been made to avoid misunderstanding and ambiguities. The cover letter gives the background, purpose and the arrangement made for conducting the present survey. It also thanks recipients for their assistance and gives an assurance of confidentiality.

The questionnaire falls into three parts: first, questions of a demographic and personal nature; second, questions relating to the actual buyer-behaviour of purchasers of cosmetics; third, questions of a more general nature concerning consumer attitudes but which have a significant bearing on the purchase of cosmetics.

6.5.1.1 Questions of a demographic and personal nature

1. Question 1 — Age group

The intended respondents are the young professional women in the 18 to 29 age group. The reason is that this group represents the up-and-coming generation possessing the income and spending power needed to purchase cosmetics on a regular basis, as well as being highly sophisticated and fashion-conscious. This question acts also as a filter question: those respondents who do not fall into the right age group would not continue to fill in the questionnaire.

2. Question 2 — Marital status

It is necessary to establish whether a respondent is single or married. If a respondent is single she will probably be inclined to spend more on cosmetics for herself than a woman who is married and has a child. In the latter case the weight of the spending would be towards the child's needs rather than towards her own.

3. Question 3 — Education

Information on educational background is important, for this information will be a guide to the respondent's career development and prospects. It is of some interest in the present research to discover to what extent levels of education are an influencing factor in fashion-consciousness, importance attached to cosmetics, and concern for the environment and animal welfare in the three countries under survey.

4. Question 4 — Accommodation

Type of accommodation will help to determine levels of disposable income, with those living with parents or relatives possessing a greater amount than those who have to pay rent.

5. Question 5 — Occupation

Occupation is an important factor in establishing social position and standard of living. It is of interest to discover to what extent occupation can be an influential factor in spending on cosmetics.

6. Question 6 — Income

Income gives an indication of spending power. It is a factor which affects the attitudes to fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics in the two different cultures: British and Chinese.

6.5.1.2 Questions on the actual behaviour of the buyer of cosmetics

1. Questions 7 and 8 — Use/Purchase of cosmetics

Questions 7 and 8 seek to establish at what age the respondent first began to use and to purchase cosmetics. By comparing mainland China, Taiwan and the UK, a better understanding of the differences in culture will be gained.

2. Question 9 — Frequency of purchase

Question 9 establishes the frequency of purchase of the various kinds of cosmetics over the previous 12 months.

3. Question 10 — Spending on different types of cosmetics

Questions 10 reveals the respondent's spending on various categories of cosmetics. This will be used to discover the influence of education level and occupation on spending habits in the three countries.

4. Question 11 — Place of purchase

The place where a respondent customarily purchases her cosmetics provides on indication of her spending power, sensitiveness to price and concern for quality. At a local grocery store or supermarket low price is a usual feature providing the benefit of economy, whereas at a departmental store or boutique a higher price tends to be a feature providing the benefit of quality and prestige.

5. Question 12 — Alternative ways to purchase cosmetics

This question seeks information from the 18-29 age group of young females in different cultures regarding the alternative methods of Mail order, Internet shopping and Direct selling (by agent) to purchase cosmetics.

6. Question 13 — Influences affecting the decision to purchase

It is important to discover which sources of information available to the respondent have the greatest impact on her when she makes her buying decision. A cultural comparison between British and Chinese could be made under this heading.

7. Question 14 — Purchase of cosmetics according to brand type

This question seeks to discover the respondent's spending power by asking whether she buys the expensive foreign brands or the less expensive domestic ones.

8. Question 15 — Brand loyalty

This question is created to discover the respondent's brand loyalty.

9. Questions 16 and 17 — Culturally specific questions concerning skin colour

Questions 16 and 17 deal with the respondent's purchase over the previous 12 months of cosmetic products which facilitate a lighter skin colour. These questions lead on to the later questions concerning the Asian cultural norm of preference for a light skin colour as a symbol of social standing.

These questions will be used to carry out a cultural comparison between British and Chinese respondents.

10. Question 18 — Custom of shopping around

Question 18 tries to discover whether the traditional Chinese approach to purchasing goods still prevails today in mainland China, now that shops present a wider selection and choice to shoppers. A cultural comparison with regard to shopping around can be made among respondents in the three countries.

11. Questions 19 and 20 — Custom of present-giving and purchasing cosmetics as presents

Question 19 reflects the practice in both cultures of using cosmetics as gifts and allows recording especially of the traditional Chinese custom of present-giving. It seeks to find out how prevalent this custom is and what form it takes. This question has a bearing on matters such as product and packaging design, distribution and promotion. Question 20 seeks to discover the custom of present-giving in relation to cosmetics.
(These two questions will be used in a cultural comparison between the three countries)

12. Question 21 — Reducing spending on cosmetics and giving priority to children's needs

This question is created to find out the extent of maternal selflessness in different cultures. A cultural comparison will be carried out regarding attitudes of respondents to the idea of reducing spending and ways of reducing spending on cosmetics.

6.5.1.3 Questions eliciting consumer attitudes

Question 22 contains a series of questions about attitudes to the use and purchase of cosmetics. It is important to have some idea of the degree of fashion-consciousness and sophistication of the respondent, in particular whether she is thoughtful and discriminating regarding cosmetics and to what extent these concepts contribute to forming her self-image (sub-question 1-5).

Also, in this series of questions, it is hoped to gain information about attitudes to price (sub-question 6), quality (sub-question 7) and brand (sub-question 8) when it comes to buying cosmetics.

Further questions here deal with attitudes to natural skin colour and seek information on the respondent's regard for the Asian cultural norm, that is, the preference for a light skin colour, denoting high social status and wealth (sub-question 9-12).

Finally, question 22 seeks to discover any concerns for the environment (sub-question 13), animal welfare (sub-question 14), and any preference for ingredients of non-animal origin (sub-question 15). Sub-question 16, regarding attitude to the child, seeks to find out the cultural differences between younger British and Chinese females of different marital status.

6.5.2 Differences between the three questionnaires (China PRC, Taiwan ROC, and the UK)

1. Question 3 — Education

As mentioned previously, the education systems in China, Taiwan and the UK differ in their formal structure and pattern. Table 6.7 below shows these differences which appear in the three questionnaires (China, Taiwan and the UK).

Table 6.7:

Differences in education system between the three countries as seen in the questionnaires

UK	China PRC	Taiwan ROC
Secondary school	High school graduate	High school graduate
Further/Higher education	College/University graduate	Junior college graduate
		College/University graduate
Postgraduate	Postgraduate	Postgraduate

2. Question 5 — Occupation

Regarding occupation, some differences can be seen between the questionnaires. In particular, the questionnaires for China and Taiwan contain a section for State-owned enterprises employees. This is because State-owned enterprises make up a large sector of the economy in China and Taiwan, whereas they have largely disappeared in the UK over the recent past.

In the China and Taiwan questionnaires, there is a section for teachers and school support staff. There is no corresponding section in the UK questionnaire. The reason for its inclusion in the questionnaires for China and Taiwan lies in the special respect in which teachers are held and also the security of their employment. Regarding the UK questionnaire, it was deemed inappropriate to include a section specifically for teachers and other school staff as their status and security are not the same as in China and Taiwan. The section entitled State or local government employee in the UK questionnaire includes teachers.

3. Question 6 — Income

As can be seen in Question 6, in the UK questionnaire income is recorded as annual, whereas in the China and Taiwan questionnaires it is recorded as monthly. The difference here is due to the fact that in the UK when speaking of income it is customary to think in terms of an annual figure, whereas in China and Taiwan it is normal to treat income as a monthly figure.

As also can be seen, the currencies are pounds sterling (£) for the UK, Renminbi (Rmb) for China PRC and New Taiwan dollars (NT$) for Taiwan ROC. Exchange rates for the pound sterling, the Renminbi and the New Taiwan dollar in August 1999 (the questionnaire was written and piloted between August and November, 1999) are as follow:

£1 = 13 Rmb

£1 = 57 NT$

4. Questions 16 and 17 — Culturally specific questions on attitudes

The text of Question 16 (the purchase of the sun-protect products) is the same for all three questionnaires, but the implication in the UK questionnaire is different from that contained in the China and Taiwan questionnaires. The latter relate to the use of sun-screen products not only to protect the skin from damage by the sun but also to prevent darkening of the skin through tanning. In the UK question, however, the use of sun-screen products implies the desire for protection against the harmful rays of the sun but also the desire to acquire a sun tan.

Question 17 in the UK questionnaire concerns the purchase of self-tan products for achieving a satisfactory tan during sunbathing. The latter is a common practice in the UK, but uncommon in China and Taiwan. This question has been replaced, therefore, in the questionnaires for China and Taiwan by a question which is more culturally appropriate for those two countries. This deals with the purchase of cosmetics products intended for whitening the skin.

5. Questions 19 and 20 — Custom of present-giving

Questions 19 and 20 provide a comparison between the three countries (China, Taiwan and the UK), regarding the custom of present-buying. It is interesting to discover whether this custom is still prevalent in China today. Also, it is interesting to discover how the custom varies between the three countries. While each country may have this custom, the occasions on which present are given differ, for example

Christmas in the UK and New Year in China and Taiwan. This difference is reflected in the wording of the questionnaires.

6. Question 22 — Attitude to cosmetics

In Question 22 on attitude to cosmetics, there is variation between the UK questionnaire and those for China and Taiwan (sub-section 9-12 on skin colour). This variation occurs because of the difference in culture between the UK and the other two countries regarding attitude to skin colour (as explained above in reference to Question 17).

6.5.3 Limitations of the questionnaire design

The aim of this questionnaire is to provide an analysis of what consumers (i.e. members of the public) purchase. It is not to conduct a detailed technical survey of the range of brands, colours and fragrances. In view of the complexity of the subject, such a survey would more appropriately be carried out by manufacturers with their retailers, for it would require a more technical knowledge of the many and various products and brands on offer. The general consumer would not possess such knowledge. She would be aware of brands and indeed perhaps be brand loyal (that is, influenced by the promotion mounted by marketers), but she would not be sufficiently knowledgeable to be able to go into all the details of the products.

For this reason, the questionnaire focuses on centres of interest which are familiar to, and within the experience of, the average female shopper. These are the various kinds of cosmetic on sale:

- Make-up: lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder and foundation.
- Skin-care products: cleansing cream/lotion, toner/ astringent and moisturising cream/lotion.
- Toiletries: shampoo, hair conditioner and soap/shower gel.
- Fragrances: perfume and eau de toilette/ cologne.

The questionnaire also seeks information on frequency of purchase and amounts spent on various kinds of product. The constraints imposed by the amount of time respondents are normally willing to devote to answering a questionnaire and the amount of space that would be required for a more lengthy and detailed questionnaire made it necessary on certain topics to ask for general rather than precise and detailed answers. For example, regarding place of purchase (Question 11), it was felt that to ask for the precise place of purchase, i.e. the name of the shop, would be impractical in a multi-choice type questionnaire. Similarly, regarding those factors which influence purchasing decisions (Question 13), it was felt that it was important to discover what these factors were and, in view of the lengthiness that would have been involved by including attitude measurement questions here, to concentrate only on the influencing factors and to omit attitude measurement.

6.5.4 The translation into Mandarin (for Taiwan and China) and back translation

A useful method of overcoming language problems in questionnaires which are designed for use in different countries and cultures is back translation. Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995), Zikmund (1997) and Malhotra (1999) refer to the latter as a procedure in which the questionnaire is first translated from one language (the base language) into another (the target language) by a bilingual translator whose native language is the language into which the questionnaire is being translated. The questionnaire is then translated back into the base language by a second, independent translator. This process is useful for revealing inconsistency between the original version of the questionnaire and the translated version.

1. Translation into Mandarin of the questionnaire intended for Taiwan ROC

The English language version of the questionnaire was translated into Mandarin by a Taiwanese national resident in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. When the Mandarin version was later translated back into English by a different Taiwanese resident for the purpose of checking for accuracy, it was found that some language modifications were necessary.

The back translation method proved very useful in removing misunderstandings. The modifications were of a minor nature. A typical example occurred in Question 3

(Education). Here, the title "Polytechnic graduate" had led to the selection of what turned out to be an inappropriate Chinese character signifying "Professional High School graduate". Consequently, that character in the Chinese version of the questionnaire for Taiwan was replaced by another signifying "Junior College graduate" and meaning a level higher than High School but lower than University.

2. Translation into Mandarin (Putong Hau) of the questionnaire intended for China PRC

The English language version of this questionnaire was translated into Mandarin by a Chinese national currently resident in the UK. This Mandarin version was then translated back into English by another Chinese national resident in the UK, to ensure that the Mandarin translation was accurate.

Generally, the translation was found to be satisfactory. However, two omissions of products (Rouge and Foundation) in the back translation into English were noted in Question 7 and were rectified. There was also a mistranslation in the back translation in Question 13 (on advice/opinions from friends). This was corrected in the version of Chinese questionnaire for mainland China. In addition, some explanation was needed regarding the wording in a number of questions in the Mandarin translation. Again, these modifications were of a minor nature. For example, in Question 11 (Place of purchase), the English phrase "cosmetic supplier shop (e.g. manufacturer's outlet)" had been translated into Mandarin by characters which mean "cosmetic factory outlet". This is incorrect for the present purposes as the phrase excludes wholesale distributors and retail shops. These Mandarin characters were replaced by ones which mean "cosmetic supplier shop (including manufacturer's outlet and direct import, retail discount outlet)".

6.5.5 Pretesting the questionnaire and the changes made subsequently

In the literature, pretesting of questionnaires is seen as something essential. Mohrle (1997, in Malhotra, 1999) states that even the best questionnaire can be improved and therefore no questionnaire should be used in the field without adequate pretesting. Churchill (1999) points out that the real test of any questionnaire is its performance under the actual conditions of data collection and, for the latter to take place successfully, the questionnaire pretest is vital. The purpose of pretesting is to:

- identify and eliminate potential problems (Martin and Polivka, 1995, in Malhotra, 1999);
- detect ambiguity or bias in the questions and to iron out any fundamental problems in the instructions or administrative procedure (Zikmund, 1997);
- time the interview (in case there is need for shortening for budgeting purposes) and eliminate questions that are not useful for distinguishing among respondents (where almost all respondents answer the question in the same way (Sudman and Blair, 1998);
- assess both individual questions and their sequence in the questionnaire (Hunt, Sparkman and Wilcox, 1982, in Churchill, 1999).

Churchill (1999) points out that the pretest is the most inexpensive insurance that the researcher can buy in order to ensure the success of the questionnaire and research project. Questionnaire pretesting involves conducting the questionnaire under field conditions with a small sample of respondents. The size of the pretest sample varies from a figure of ten to fifty respondents (Sudman and Blair, 1998) to a figure of fifteen to thirty (Malhotra, 1999).

6.5.5.1 The questionnaire for Taiwan

1. First pilot in Taiwan: 30th August – 4th October 1999

The first draft of questionnaire was completed and 10 copies were printed out. Thanks to the help of a Taiwanese student, who was studying in Oxford Brookes University. She took the questionnaires to Taiwan during her summer vacation and 7 completed questionnaires were returned. In the Taiwan questionnaire, two minor changes were made and one leading question was rephrased after the piloting exercise.

In Question 3, dealing with education, two of the original sections entitled " Junior high school graduate" and " High school graduate" were replaced by a single section: "High school graduate". The reason is that this was considered more appropriate in view of the fact that very few students leave school after completing the Junior high school programme. The vast majority go on to High school and graduate there. Thus, the separate section for Junior high school graduates is redundant.

Before change:

3. Education: □ Junior high school graduate □ High school graduate
□ Junior college graduate □ College/university graduate □ Postgraduate

After change:

3. Education: □ High school graduate □ Junior college graduate
□ College/university graduate □ Postgraduate

The second change was in Question 9 dealing with frequency of purchase. The original headings " once a month", "twice a month", once every 2-3 months", "once every 4-5 months" and "once every 6 months", were simplified in order to establish the four categories of heavy user ("once a month" and "once every two months"); moderate user ("once every three months" and "once every four months"); light user ("once every five months" and "once every six months"); and seldom user ("over a year ago").

A leading question occurred in Question 18 dealing with the custom of shopping around. The researcher used the traditional Chinese saying "Compare prices for goods in several shops and you won't lose" to create the question: "It is often said that if one shops around, one is sure to get a better bargain. When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer?" After the questionnaire was piloted in Taiwan, it was found that almost every respondent answered this question in the affirmative. This question is not useful for distinguishing among respondents and therefore was modified to: "When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer?" The sentence "It is often said that if one shops around, one is sure to get a better bargain." which caused the leading question was eliminated.

2. Second pilot in the UK: 5th – 26th October 1999

The questionnaire was revised and 10 copies were printed. With the help of a Taiwanese student, who was an MBA student of De Montfort University, Leicester, 10 questionnaires were administered on campus. No subsequent changes were required.

6.5.5.2 The questionnaire for China

1. First pilot in China PRC: 27th August – 1st November 1999

The questionnaire for piloting in mainland China was completed and 10 copies were prepared. These questionnaires were taken to China in August 1999 by Professor Tao, a senior member of staff at the Nanjing Industrial Technology University. 10 completed questionnaires were sent back by post in November 1999.

In the China questionnaire, a minor change was made. Question 10 regarding spending on different types of cosmetics, gives a range of money spent on the products in the past twelve months. In the completed questionnaires, most respondents gave the answer of up to 100 Rmb. Few respondents estimated their spending above 450 Rmb. Thus, it was necessary to revise the figures. The tables below show the range of money changed.

Table 6.8:

Before changes to question 10 in the China questionnaire

10. How much did you spend (approximately) on the following products in the last twelve months?

(in Rmb)	Make-up (lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder, foundation)	Skincare products (cleansing cream/lotion, toner/astringent, moisturising cream/ lotion)	Toiletries (shampoo, hair conditioner, soap/shower gel)	Fragrances (perfume, Eau de toilette/ cologne)
Up to 100	☐	☐	☐	☐
101 ~ 150	☐	☐	☐	☐
151 ~ 200	☐	☐	☐	☐
201 ~ 250	☐	☐	☐	☐
251 ~ 300	☐	☐	☐	☐
301 ~ 350	☐	☐	☐	☐
351 ~ 400	☐	☐	☐	☐
401 ~ 450	☐	☐	☐	☐
451 ~ 500	☐	☐	☐	☐
501 ~ 550	☐	☐	☐	☐
551 ~ 600	☐	☐	☐	☐
Above 600	☐	☐	☐	☐

Table 6.9:

After changes to question 10 in the China questionnaire

10. How much did you spend (approximately) on the following products in the last twelve months?

(in Rmb)	Make-up (lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder, foundation)	Skincare products (cleansing cream/lotion, toner/astringent, moisturising cream/ lotion)	Toiletries (shampoo, hair conditioner, soap/shower gel)	Fragrances (perfume, Eau de toilette/ cologne)
Up to 40	☐	☐	☐	☐
41 ~ 80	☐	☐	☐	☐
81 ~ 120	☐	☐	☐	☐
121 ~ 160	☐	☐	☐	☐
161 ~ 200	☐	☐	☐	☐
201 ~ 240	☐	☐	☐	☐
241 ~ 280	☐	☐	☐	☐
281 ~ 320	☐	☐	☐	☐
321 ~ 360	☐	☐	☐	☐
361 ~ 400	☐	☐	☐	☐
401 ~ 440	☐	☐	☐	☐
Above 440	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Second pilot of the China questionnaire conducted in the UK: 11th October 1999 in Leicester and 18th October 1999 in Oxford

The same questionnaire was also piloted in the UK with the help of Chinese students from mainland China, two of whom studying in Brookes University, Oxford, and two in De Montford University, Leicester. There were no wording or sequence problems, but the figures for spending on cosmetics needed to be revised.

6.5.5.3 The questionnaire for the UK

Several minor changes were made in the UK questionnaire after the piloting exercise.

1. First pilot in Oxford: 12th October 1999

Five copies of the questionnaire were distributed among students at Oxford Brookes University of which three were completed. Some changes were made after this questionnaire pretest.

There is a wording change in Question 2 regarding marital status. The phrase "With child" was replaced by "With one child or more", as the original words are open to misunderstanding. Also, there were some changes in all the questions providing tables listing cosmetic products. In the section headed "Toiletries", the item "shower gel" was included with "soap", since shower gel is also a popular product with the targeted population. The inclusion of shower gel with soap was also made in the other questionnaires for China PRC and Taiwan ROC. Also, in the section headed "Fragrances", the words "Toilet water" were replaced by "Eau de toilette/cologne", since toilet water was considered by some respondents as being outdated and little used today by young adult women. In the section headed "Make-up", the item "blush" was included with "rouge", since young females in the UK are becoming more familiar with the term "blush".

2. Second pilot in Leicester: 5th-26th October 1999

With the help of the researcher's first supervisor, 10 copies of the English questionnaire were distributed in De Montfort University, Leicester. A good return rate was achieved – 8 copies were sent back, and some changes were subsequently made.

In Question 11 regarding place of purchase, the heading "Local grocery store" received no response from those questioned. On reflexion, it was decided that this heading should be replaced by a more appropriate one: "Pharmacy"; and also a new one: "Cosmetic supplier shop (e.g. manufacturer's outlet)" should be included. The latter can be described as a retail outlet which specialises in the sale of cosmetics at discounted prices. Such outlets can be seen in the larger UK towns and also are becoming increasingly common in Taiwan. They are now making their appearance in the larger cities in mainland China, such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guandzhou and Hong Kong. In some returned pilot questionnaires, beauty salon and hair salon were written in the column marked "other place(s)" by respondents. This shows that these places are also selling cosmetics to their customers. Thus, a new column headed "Beauty/hair salon" was included. This was added also to the Chinese versions of the questionnaire for China and Taiwan.

Question 18 (regarding the custom of shopping around) as phrased in the original Chinese questionnaires for Taiwan and China is a leading question ("It is often said that if one shops around, one is sure to get a better bargain. When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer?"). It is interesting that the pretest of the English questionnaire yielded varying responses to Question 18. Two out of three pilot questionnaires returned in Oxford answered "No" to this question. In Leicester, four out of eight returned pilot questionnaires answering "Yes" to the same question. This varied response contrasts with the almost universal "Yes" response to the same question in the China and Taiwan questionnaire pretests. An explanation of this noticeable difference between the UK respondents and Chinese and Taiwanese respondents could be that there is not the same custom as "shopping around" in the UK. Question 18 was rephrased to: " When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer?"

6.6 Distribution of the questionnaires and data collection

6.6.1 The classic ways of administering surveys in the literature

There are several methods, discussed in the literature (Sudman and Blair, 1998), for administering surveys. These are:

- Personal survey: This is the oldest form of survey research. It consists of interviewing at the respondent's home or workplace. It provides good control over who actually answers the survey and also allows the researcher a great deal of flexibility in the design of the questionnaire. This method is costly and is therefore not as commonly used as other types.
- Intercept survey: This is a face to face interview in a public place, such as a shopping area, where the interviewer intercepts shoppers or other visitors. The interviewee is selected on the spot at the discretion of the interviewer. This method is not as costly as the personal survey and is therefore used more frequently.
- Telephone survey: This method is widely used by market researchers, especially with consumers. It offers good coverage of the population, but has the drawback of not being in a face to face situation and therefore the respondent cannot be shown anything. In surveys of organisations the relevant telephone numbers are obtained. In consumer surveys, telephone

numbers are selected from the directory by the technique of random digit dialling and therefore the interviewer does not know who the respondent is. Thus there is little control over who answers the survey. This method is comparable in cost with the intercept survey.

- Mail survey: This type of survey does not require any interviewing staff. A sample of addresses (and usually names) is obtained and the questionnaire sent out with a covering letter. In the case of non-response, a follow-up questionnaire and letter can be sent two weeks after the first. Also, telephone interviews can be used to contact non-respondents and their responses can be compared and contrasted with those of respondents. This survey method has some major disadvantages. One major limitation is that they can only be used for short surveys and elicit answers only to closed questions. There is also the problem of response rate. If the length is greater than four pages, the response rate decreases. Response depends on the motivation of the respondent. In the case of highly motivated professionals the response can be high. This tends not to be the case with consumers. Similarly, if some personal relationship or bond of obligation exists already or can be established between researcher (or his/her helpers) and the targeted respondent, then the response rate can be high. The cost of mail surveys is generally less than in the case of telephone or personal survey. However, if the response rate in a mail survey turns out to be low, then value for money is low.

6.6.2 Use of personal contacts

In the case of the present research, however, quite apart from the problem of low response rate, the above methods were considered not be feasible, in view of the heavy cost involved. There is here an argument for employing a somewhat different approach to these problems. This was to use a questionnaire distributed through a network of personal contacts. The method was to select a number of areas on a regional basis, for example in the UK, a northern region and a southern region of the country, so as to achieve a balance between the North and the South. As discussed earlier in Chapter 5, given the international complexity of this research, a combination of convenience and snowball sampling was adopted as the best approach in each of the three countries. Within each selected region a balance was sought between the various sections of the female 18-29 population. Questionnaires were distributed to students, employees and the self-employed. In order to achieve a satisfactory response rate, the questionnaires were given to friends, relatives and colleagues who then passed them on to members of their families in the right age bracket. In this way a network was created, based upon personal contact and friendly co-operation. In addition, approaches were made to staff in retail outlets. Here, managers were requested to allow their young staff to fill in the questionnaires. In Taiwan the personal relationship factor was particularly effective. In mainland China, too, much was achieved through personal relationships. This reflects the importance concept of "*guanxi*" in all social matters in both countries.

A further advantage of networking with friends and colleagues and their young female relatives is that, as the responses come in, one can gain an overview of the numbers from each occupational group within the targeted population. In this way, if any occupation is under-represented, the fact is made known early on in the survey and steps can be taken to ensure that responses are obtained from the under-represented group and in that way a more balanced result may be achieved.

6.6.3 Questionnaire survey in the UK

The consumer survey was conducted in the UK between December 1999 to December 2000 and included both the North and the South of England. In the North, Manchester was chosen as the location. The reason for this was that members of staff of De Montfort University were able to put the researcher in touch with their friends and colleagues in that city. Also, Manchester is a large commercial and industrial city with a high population. In Southern England the survey was conducted in the London area. The reason for this is that London is the capital city and the largest conurbation in the country, as well as a major commercial, industrial and administrative centre. The questionnaire was also sent out in Leicester, as this city is the home of De Montfort University, where the researcher is based. The researcher is particularly indebted to the staff of the University for all their help. In addition, the survey was conducted in the Oxford area, as this is where the researcher has his home and many friends and acquaintances who were willing to help.

The survey in the UK met with quite a good response. Out of a total of 969 questionnaires sent out, there were 348 responses (a response rate of 35.9%). The best response in terms of number of questionnaires returned was from personal friends and relatives and other personal face to face encounters. In particular a lecturer in Oxford and a schoolteacher in London were helpful not only in distributing the questionnaires but also in ensuring their return. Both of them kindly arranged for extra copies to be produced. Because of difficulties in obtaining responses from Northern England, a number of questionnaires were distributed there via a commercial interviewing organisation.

6.6.4 Questionnaire survey in Taiwan ROC

The consumer survey was conducted in Taiwan in April 2000. The sending out and return of questionnaires took up the best part of one month. The areas selected for the survey were Kaohsiung a major city in the South of Taiwan and Taipei in the North, which is the capital city. The latter was selected for the purpose of this questionnaire survey as it has the largest population and is the country's administrative and commercial centre. The other location, Kaohsiung, was selected as it is a large prosperous industrial centre and major seaport and contains a large population. Another reason for the choice is that Kaohsiung is the researcher's own home city with which he is most familiar and in which he has many relatives, and numerous contacts whose help he would be able to call upon in conducting the survey.

The choice of these two cities turned out to be highly successful in terms of response. Out of a total of 439 questionnaires sent out in Kaohsiung City, there were 360 responses (a response rate of 82%). In Taipei City a response rate of 50.8% was achieved (565 questionnaires sent out and 287 responded). The total response for Taiwan was 63.4% (1004 questionnaires sent out, 647 returned).

This high response rate was due to the help given by friends and relatives. Various reasons can be adduced for this. One of the most important lies in the attitude which people often have regarding a person who is engaged in some endeavour and is soliciting help from them. This attitude is expressed in the form of willingness to help, coupled with feelings of respect for effort and hard work and is accompanied by a glow of satisfaction at being asked and being able to partake in some way in the other's achievement. This phenomenon is to be seen in many countries of the world.

In Chinese society this attitude is a particularly strong determining influence in interpersonal behaviour. If a person whom one assists eventually succeeds in whatever he or she is doing, the helper, too, will experience a feeling of pride in that achievement. Thus, there is a sense of pride in the success achieved by one's friends or relatives. This was of considerable benefit in the course of the questionnaire survey in Taiwan.

A second major reason for high response rate is linked, like the previous one, to cultural norms existing in Chinese society. This is the well-known attention paid to the concept of "face". This concept is rooted in a deep sense of relationship between persons based on friendship. Once two people are joined in friendship then there is a feeling that they are bound by a strong sense of duty to respond to each other's needs. Whenever a person who has already responded in the past to a friend's needs by giving him assistance, himself requires help from that friend he expects to receive assistance in the same way. It is particularly important in Chinese society to respect this deep sense of relationship and duty, as not to do so could result in loss of "face".

6.6.5 Questionnaire survey in China PRC

The consumer survey was conducted in China between June and September 2000. The procedure adopted for the conduct of the questionnaire survey in China resembles that followed in the UK and Taiwan in its fundamental approach. Both the UK and Taiwan surveys relied almost entirely on networking with friends, relatives and supporters. This was also the principle followed in the case of the China survey.

In June 2000, the researcher went to mainland China and was fortunate in securing the help of Professor Tao, a senior member of staff at the Nanjing Industrial Technology University mentioned earlier (Section 6.5.5.2). He is the head of the Postgraduate Studies Department and is the academic responsible for directing newly qualified postgraduates seeking positions in industry to their first posts. This is in accordance with the practice in China by which the Universities, in consultation with industrial companies and with the blessing of the State, place students in posts when they have successfully completed their course. In this way, he is in an ideal position to distribute copies of the questionnaire. He kindly agreed to send out copies to those ex-students who have recently passed through his hands and are now working in the various companies which make up his network. Thus the questionnaire was distributed among a large number of persons (800). As a result of this, it was possible for the researcher to have the questionnaire distributed over a very wide area.

The response in China, in terms of numbers of copies returned (27 September 2000), is highly gratifying: in Beijing, of the 400 copies distributed 324 were completed and returned (81%); in Shanghai, of 400 distributed 339 were returned (84.8%). The high response rate can partly be attributed to the "*guanxi*" factor which appears to have functioned very successfully, thanks to Professor Tao and his network of former students. It can be surmised from this that the latter hold Professor Tao in considerable esteem.

This procedure is a good example of the way in which things are done in Chinese society. The essential ingredient is "*guanxi*" — the personal relationship factor which has to be present before any transaction or arrangement can be envisaged with any chance of succeeding.

6.7 Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed questionnaire design as seen in the literature. From this, a questionnaire for present study was designed. Certain problems regarding the design of the questionnaire were identified and resolved. The basis for selecting kinds of cosmetic products for inclusion in the questionnaire was also discussed. In all, twenty-two questions were selected. The procedure of translating and back-translating the questionnaire into Mandarin was described. Details of the pretesting of the questionnaires and subsequent changes were given. Finally, the distribution method for carrying out the survey was discussed. The response rates for all countries was high, particularly so for mainland China and Taiwan. Consequently, the method of using sampling units composed of family members, friends and colleagues and their personal contacts can be regarded as a success.

The next chapter will focus on the analysis of data and the testing of the hypotheses.

Chapter 7: Cosmetics Purchasing Behaviour in Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

7.1 Introduction

As we have seen, Chapter 5 focused on research design and the formulation of hypotheses, while Chapter 6 focused on questionnaire design and data collection. In the present chapter the purpose is to carry out data analysis and testing of hypotheses which relate to the underlying similarities or differences in cosmetics purchasing behaviour in different cultures. The statistical techniques used in this chapter for data analysis are Factor and Regression Analyses. The aim is to examine underlying patterns and relationships for the sixteen statements of attitude set out in the questionnaires (by means of factor analysis) and to explain how these attitudes, used as independent variables, affect the dependent variable "spending on cosmetics" (by means of regression analysis), allowing for other independent variables such as income and age difference.

7.2 Examination of the patterns underlying the 16 statements of attitude

For the purpose of looking at the patterns underlying the sixteen statements of attitude regarding cosmetics purchasing behaviour, factor analysis is a useful statistical technique.

7.2.1 Factor analysis in the literature

Hair et al (1998) describe factor analysis as "*a technique particularly suitable for analyzing the patterns of complex, multidimensional relationships encountered by researchers*" (p.88). These authors show that factor analysis can be used for examining the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables and for determining whether the information can be condensed or summarised in a smaller set of factors or components.

Factor analysis provides a means of condensing the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of new composite dimensions or variables (factors) with a minimum loss of information. In this, it seeks and defines the fundamental constructs or dimensions which are assumed as underlying the original variables (Hair et al, 1998).

For the purpose of data reduction, factor analysis can also perform two other functions. First, it can identify representative variables from a larger set of variables for use in multivariate analysis later on. Second, it can establish a completely new set of variables, much smaller in number, to partly or totally replace the original set for inclusion in subsequent techniques (Hair et al, 1998). In both of these cases, the aim is to keep the nature and character of the original variables, but to reduce them in number so as to simplify the subsequent multivariate analysis.

Factor analysis can be applied to many areas of business research which involve problem solving and decision making, especially to areas such as determining the pattern of consumer perception and customers' attitudes toward the products and services offered by various enterprises. For example, it is used by banks in order to study how customers evaluate banking services and by commercial enterprises to determine how customers evaluate discounts and other inducements (Malhotra, 1999, p.586 and p.601).

Factor analysis techniques can fulfil their objectives using either an exploratory or confirmatory approach. These two approaches are outlined in the following table:

Table 7.1: **Outline of exploratory and confirmatory approaches of factor analysis**

Exploratory	Confirmatory
• Useful in searching for structure among a set of variables or as a data reduction method. In this approach, factor analysis techniques "take what the data give you" and do not set any a priori constraints on the estimation of components or the number of components to be extracted.	• The researcher has preconceived thoughts on the actual structure of the data, based on the theoretical support or priori research. In this approach the aim might be to test hypotheses which involve issues such as which variables are to be grouped together on a factor, or the precise number of factors. Here, factor analysis takes a confirmatory approach so as to determine the extent to which the data meet the expected structure.

(Taken from Hair et al, 1998, p.91)

In the present research factor analysis adopts the exploratory approach in order to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for the 16 statements of attitude in China P.R.C., Taiwan R.O.C. and the UK.

A problem was mentioned in Chapter 6 (p.121) regarding the tendency of the Chinese to express always-positive feelings, which would prompt them to give a neutral response in preference to a negative one in research questionnaires. By standardization of data in factor analysis, and because each country is analysed separately, this problem is removed.

7.2.2 Labelling of variables for the statements of attitude on cosmetics purchasing behaviour

The statements of attitude on cosmetics purchasing behaviour in Table 7.2 (shown on the next page) are taken from the questionnaires used in China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK (see Appendices 2, 3 and 4). This table lists the statements of attitude with corresponding variable labels which are used in factor analysis.

7.2.3 Examination of the underlying patterns and selection of the best factor solution for testing the hypotheses

7.2.3.1 Examination of the underlying patterns

Technically there are a number of methods for deciding the number of factors to extract. The two most commonly used are the latent roots criterion (or eigenvalues) and the scree test (Churchill, 1999).

1. Eigenvalues

Hair et al (1998) point out that only the factors having latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1 are considered significant. All factors with latent roots less than 1 are considered insignificant and are disregarded.

2. Scree test

The scree test is a method used for identifying the optimum number of factors that can be extracted before the amount of unique variance begins to dominate the common variance structure. It is derived by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction. The shape of the resulting curve is used to evaluate the cutoff point. The point at which the curve first begins to flatten out is considered to indicate the maximum number of factors to extract. (Hair et al, 1998).

Table 7.2:

Statements of attitude and corresponding variable labels used for factor analysis

Statements of attitude	Variable labels
1. I consider myself to be very fashion-conscious.	Fashion-consciousness
2. I attach great importance to cosmetics.	Importance of cosmetics
3. Choosing between kinds of cosmetics is a very important decision.	Choosing cosmetics
4. Buying cosmetics requires a lot of thought.	Thought in cosmetics purchase
5. It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cosmetics.	Unsuitable cosmetics purchase
6. When buying cosmetics, price is my most important consideration.	Attitude to price
7. I believe the higher the price of cosmetics, the higher the quality.	Price and quality connection
8. I believe that if I use the best brand of cosmetics that will enhance my image and social status.	Brand and status connection
9a. I believe that a sun-tanned appearance shows one's social status.*	Sun-tanned appearance and link to status
9b. I believe that skin colour reveals one's social status.**	Skin colour appearance and link to status
10a. I consider that it is important to have a sun-tanned appearance.*	Importance of sun-tanned appearance
10b. I consider that it is important to have a light-coloured skin.**	Importance of light-coloured skin appearance
11a. I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid the harmful effects of the sun.*	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation
11b. I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid skin-darkening.**	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening
12a. I believe that by using self-tan creams/lotions I can achieve a satisfactory tan without sun bathing.*	Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products
12b. I believe that using whitener skincare creams/lotions can help to achieve a satisfactory lightening of the skin.**	Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products
13. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging.	Attitude to environment
14. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients.	Attitude to animal welfare
15. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products whose ingredients have not been tested on animals.	Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients
16. I think it is important for a mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate more on the needs of the child/children.	Attitude to child/children

Note:

Because the attitudes to skin colour are different in Chinese and British cultures, the questions (question 22 sub 9, 10, 11 and 12) relating to skin colour, social status, and belief in the effectiveness of skincare products are different in each country's questionnaire. Thus, Statements 9a, 10a, 11a and 12a are from the UK questionnaire; and Statements 9b, 10b, 11b and 12b are from the Taiwan and China questionnaires.

* 9a, 10a, 11a, 12a are contained in the questionnaire used in the UK (see Appendix 2)

** 9b, 10b, 11b, 12b are contained in the questionnaires used in Taiwan and China (see Appendices 3 and 4)

The following tables and charts show eigenvalues (Tables 7.3, 7.4 and 7.5) and the scree plots (Figures 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3) of the factor analysis for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK. The eigenvalues whose values are bigger than 1 (shown in bold type) indicate that there are five underlying patterns (five factors) for the 16 original statements of attitude in Taiwan, China and the UK. However, the shape of the curve of the scree plots suggests that only three factors are to be extracted from the 16 statements of attitude in each country.

Consequently, it is necessary in the following section 4 to examine the three, four, five and six factor analysis in each country in order to get the best solution for factor extraction.

Table 7.3:

Total variance explained for Taiwan ROC

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	**4.206**	26.285	26.285	4.206	26.285	26.285	2.513	15.705	15.705
2	**1.969**	12.306	38.591	1.969	12.306	38.591	2.077	12.979	28.684
3	**1.503**	9.392	47.983	1.503	9.392	47.983	2.067	12.919	41.603
4	**1.198**	7.486	55.469	1.198	7.486	55.469	1.689	10.557	52.160
5	**1.061**	6.633	62.103	1.061	6.633	62.103	1.591	9.943	62.103
6	.875	5.468	67.571						
7	.761	4.755	72.326						
8	.678	4.240	76.567						
9	.622	3.890	80.457						
10	.596	3.723	84.180						
11	.536	3.353	87.533						
12	.483	3.021	90.554						
13	.457	2.858	93.412						
14	.417	2.608	96.020						
15	.382	2.388	98.408						
16	.255	1.592	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.4:

Total variance explained for China PRC

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	**4.931**	30.819	30.819	4.931	30.819	30.819	3.064	19.147	19.147
2	**1.657**	10.354	41.174	1.657	10.354	41.174	2.250	14.062	33.209
3	**1.569**	9.806	50.979	1.569	9.806	50.979	2.055	12.845	46.054
4	**1.166**	7.285	58.264	1.166	7.285	58.264	1.722	10.761	56.815
5	**1.109**	6.932	65.197	1.109	6.932	65.197	1.341	8.381	65.197
6	.912	5.700	70.897						
7	.760	4.749	75.646						
8	.655	4.096	79.742						
9	.603	3.768	83.510						
10	.519	3.244	86.753						
11	.490	3.061	89.815						
12	.443	2.767	92.582						
13	.362	2.261	94.843						
14	.334	2.088	96.931						
15	.264	1.649	98.580						
16	.227	1.420	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.5:

Total variance explained for the UK

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	**3.950**	24.684	24.684	3.950	24.684	24.684	2.870	17.936	17.936
2	**2.378**	14.863	39.548	2.378	14.863	39.548	2.649	16.557	34.493
3	**1.756**	10.974	50.522	1.756	10.974	50.522	2.297	14.358	48.851
4	**1.228**	7.673	58.195	1.228	7.673	58.195	1.414	8.836	57.687
5	**1.059**	6.619	64.814	1.059	6.619	64.814	1.140	7.128	64.814
6	.880	5.499	70.314						
7	.752	4.702	75.015						
8	.682	4.260	79.276						
9	.640	4.002	83.278						
10	.581	3.628	86.906						
11	.503	3.143	90.050						
12	.415	2.592	92.642						
13	.360	2.249	94.891						
14	.319	1.995	96.886						
15	.252	1.577	98.463						
16	.246	1.537	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 7.1:

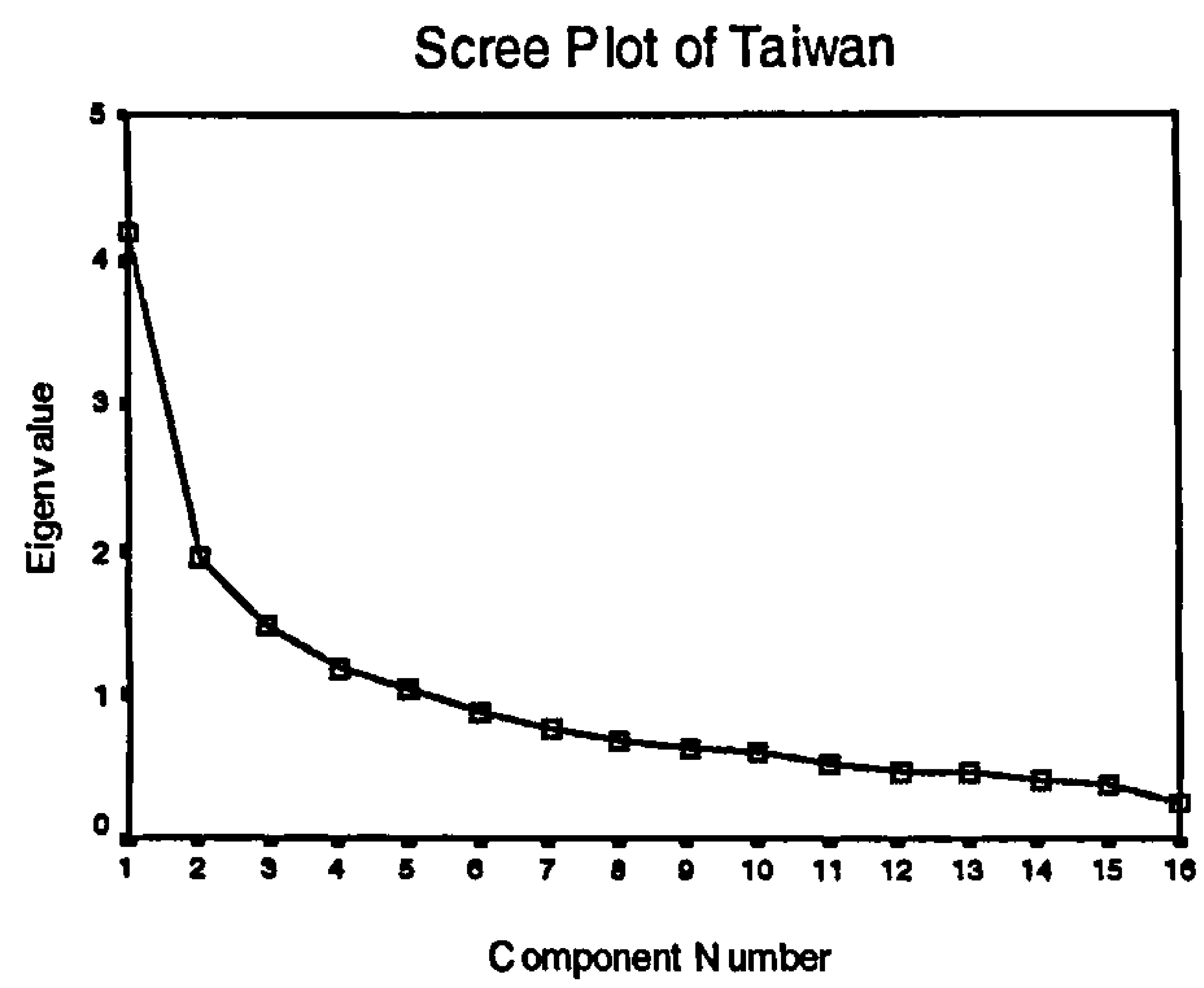


Figure 7.2:

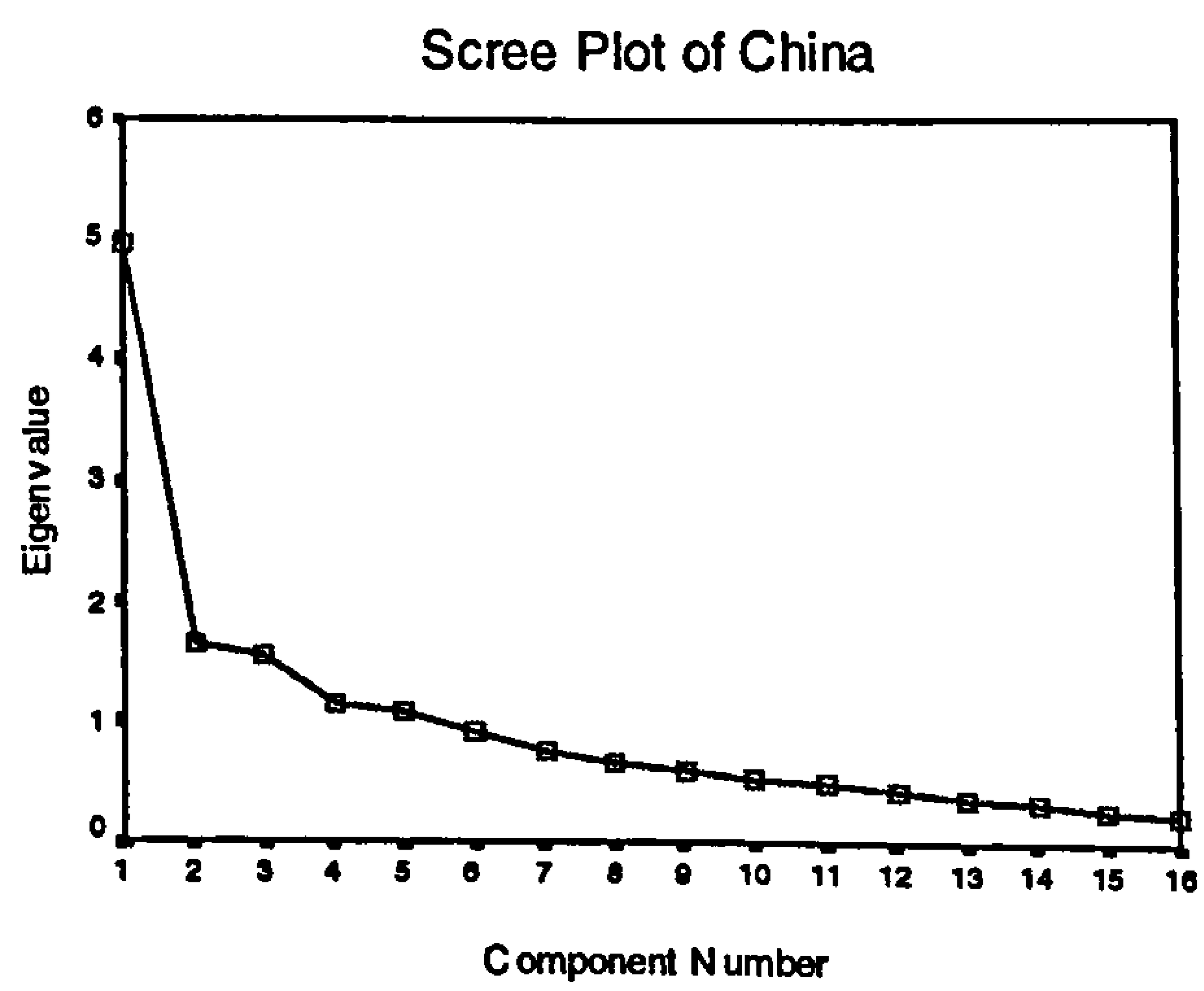
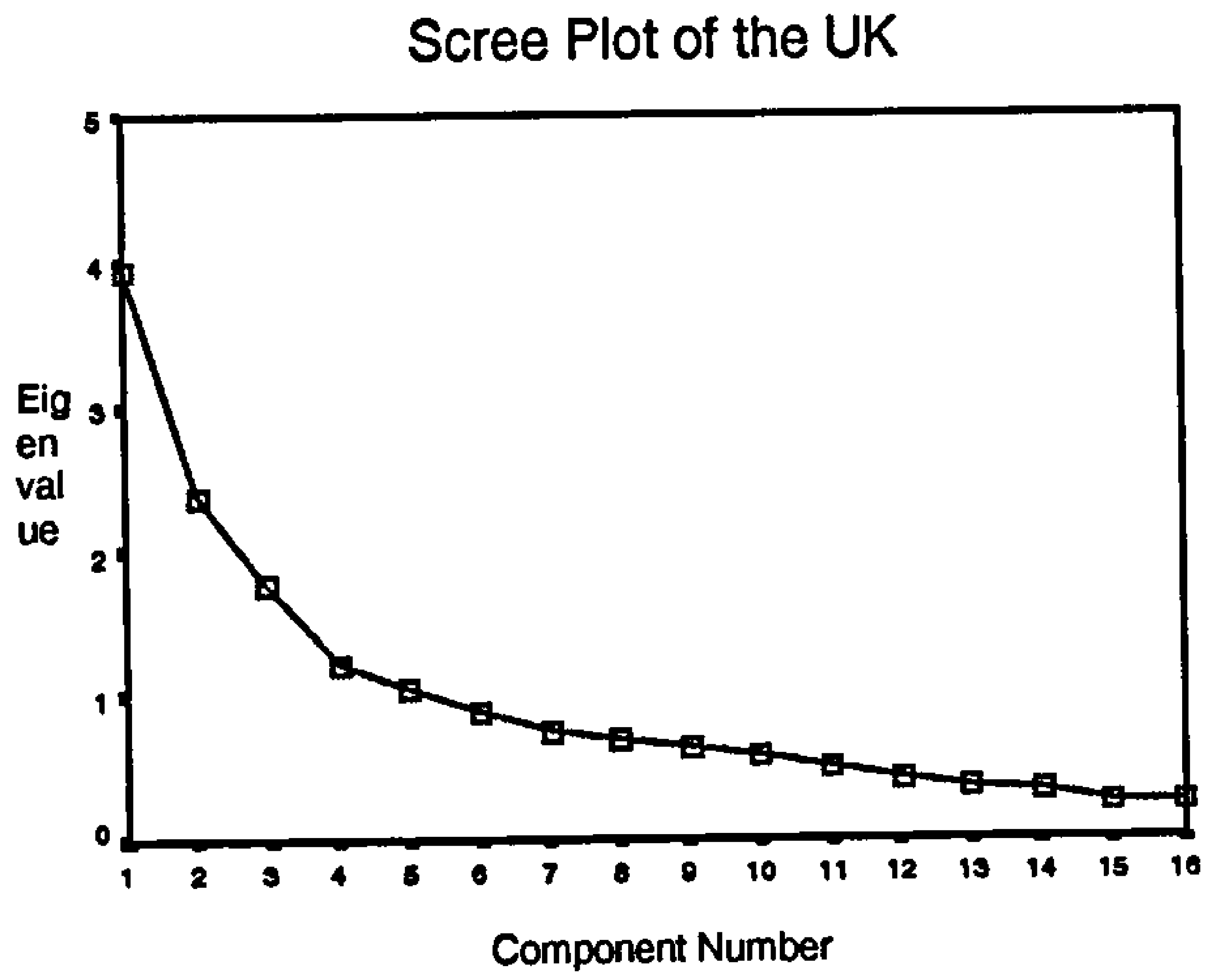


Figure 7.3:



7.2.3.2 Naming of the factor loadings

There is no precise rule for naming the factors. It is possible that different names will be assigned to the same results by different researchers. This is because researchers have often different training and different backgrounds. It is justifiable to assign a logical name which represents the underlying nature of the factors and which thus enables the factor solution to be presented in a meaningful way (Hair et al, 1998).

The following table shows the names of factors in which the 16 variable labels further condensed into a new set of factor loadings. These names can be given to factors which summarise the subject-matter contained in the variable labels with which they are associated.

Table 7.6: **Names of factors for 16 variables elicited by factor analysis**

Names of factors	Variable labels of 16 statements of attitude	
Importance	1	Fashion-consciousness
	2	Importance of cosmetics
	3	Choosing cosmetics
Purchase	4	Thought in cosmetics purchase
	5	Unsuitable cosmetics purchase
	6	Attitude to price
	7	Price and quality connection
Status	8	Brand and status connection
	9a	Sun-tanned appearance and link to status*
	9b	Skin colour appearance and link to status**
	10a	Importance of sun-tanned appearance*
	10b	Importance of light-coloured skin appearance**
Health	11a	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation*
	11b	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening**
	12a	Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products*
	12b	Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products**
Welfare	13	Attitude to environment
	14	Attitude to animal welfare
	15	Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients
Child	16	Attitude to child/children

* 9a, 10a, 11a, 12a are contained in the questionnaire used in the UK (see Appendix 2)

** 9b, 10b, 11b, 12b are contained in the questionnaires used in Taiwan and China (see Appendices 3 and 4)

7.2.3.3 Sample size and significant factor loadings

A rule of thumb suggested by Hair et al (1998) for making a preliminary examination of the factor matrix is as follows: factor loadings bigger than ± .30 are regarded as meeting the minimal level; loadings of ± .40 are regarded as more important; if the loadings are ± .50 or greater, then they are considered practically significant (p.111). As these authors point out, the larger the absolute size of the factor loading, the more important the loading becomes in the interpretation of the factor matrix.

Table 7.7 below, showing the return rates and usable percentages of questionnaires distributed in China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK, gives a view of sample size in the various cities/regions concerned.

Table 7.7:

The return rates and usable percentages of questionnaires for China, Taiwan and the UK

Country	Cities /Regions	Questionnaires sent out	Questionnaires returned	*Return rate	Usable questionnaires	**Usable percentage
China P.R.C.	Beijing	400	324	81%	307	76.8%
	Shanghai	400	339	84.8%	338	84.5%
Subtotal		800	663	82.9%	645	80.6%
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	565	287	50.8%	286	50.6%
	Kaohsiung	439	360	82%	358	81.5%
Subtotal		1004	647	64.4%	644	64.1%
UK	Northern England	371	106	28.6%	106	28.6%
	Southern England	598	242	40.5%	237	39.6%
Subtotal		969	348	35.9%	343	35.4%
Total		2773	1658	59.8%	1632	58.9%

*Return rate (%) = questionnaires returned ÷ questionnaires sent out

**Usable percentage (%) = usable questionnaires ÷ questionnaires sent out

7.2.4 Three-, four-, five- and six-factor solution for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

7.2.4.1 Three-factor solution

1. Taiwan R.O.C.

By using three-factor solution, three factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. Those variables which correlate highly with a group of other variables with significant correlation coefficients are shown in bold type in the following tables.

Data reduction is carried out by searching for the variables which correlate closely with a group of other variables, but correlate very poorly with variables outside that group.

Some explanation is needed at this point as to why sorting by size is not used. The reason is that it is not easy to make a comparison between factors in the rotated component matrix tables. There are several instances of a different factor loading (Factor 1, 2 and 3) for the three countries, as will be explained below in more detail.

The following tables 7.8, 7.9 and 7.10 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Taipei and Kaohsiung, and also a matrix "Taiwan R.O.C." which combines the matrices for Taipei and Kaohsiung.

In tables 7.8, 7.9, and 7.10, the first column shows the 16 statements of attitude while the other columns show the components of each of the three factors.

Table 7.8:

Rotated component matrix for Taipei by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	**Components**		
	1	**2**	**3**
Fashion consciousness	**.462**	.282	-6.052E-02
Importance of cosmetics	**.415**	.376	9.474E-02
Choosing cosmetics	.207	.386	**.431**
Thought in cosmetics purchase	7.557E-02	9.910E-02	**.756**
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	8.137E-02	.341	**.581**
Attitude to price	.127	-4.700E-02	**.738**
Price and quality connection	**.746**	1.120E-02	.179
Brand and status connection	**.794**	1.272E-02	.141
Skin colour appearance and link to status	**.818**	2.848E-02	1.891E-02
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.695**	.258	.127
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.359	**.637**	5.551E-03
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.435	**.570**	-.123
Attitude to environment	8.687E-02	**.734**	.151
Attitude to animal welfare	-2.817E-02	**.813**	.210
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	1.978E-02	**.649**	.286
Attitude to child/children	-1.389E-02	.104	**.576**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

From Table 7.7, it can be seen that Taipei City has a sample size of 286 (usable questionnaires). According to Hair et al (1998), this represents a factor loading of ± .35. Factor loadings greater than ± .35 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

Table 7.8 indicates that for factor 1 there are six components which have high factor loading (shown in bold type); for factor 2 five components; and for factor 3 five components. All factor loadings bigger than ± .40 are considered practically significant.

Churchill (1999) points out, with regard to naming the factors, that it is necessary to focus on the significant loadings and to try to name the factors on the basis of what the variable loadings on a given factor appear to have in common. In the case of factor 1, six components have high factor loading. Of these, "skin colour appearance and link to status" and "brand and status connection" stand out above the rest. Therefore, an appropriate label for factor 1 can be "Status". Similarly, in the case of factor 2, three components stand out higher than the rest: "attitude to animal welfare", "attitude to environment" and "attitude to non-animal origin ingredients". For this reason "Welfare" can be an appropriate label for factor 2. With factor 3 three components stand out: "thought in cosmetics purchase", "attitude to price" and "unsuitable cosmetics purchase". Therefore, "Purchase" would be the most appropriate label for factor 3.

Table 7.9:

Rotated component matrix for Kaohsiung by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	**.507**	.212	.230
Importance of cosmetics	**.448**	.282	.250
Choosing cosmetics	.205	.273	**.518**
Thought in cosmetics purchase	.207	-3.593E-03	**.744**
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.159	.125	**.665**
Attitude to price	5.514E-02	4.700E-03	**.666**
Price and quality connection	**.700**	-.116	.241
Brand and status connection	**.817**	1.933E-02	7.478E-02
Skin colour appearance and link to status	**.804**	8.119E-02	-6.293E-02
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.631**	.229	1.260E-02
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.276	**.571**	1.510E-02
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.192	**.624**	-6.476E-02
Attitude to environment	-.106	**.631**	.271
Attitude to animal welfare	1.105E-02	**.690**	.174
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.121	**.633**	.136
Attitude to child/children	-.140	.230	**.379**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Kaohsiung City has a sample size of 358 (see Table 7.7), which represents a factor loading of ± .30, a minimal level of significant correlation.

As can be seen from Table 7.9, for factor 1 there are six high factor loading components; for factor 2 there are five; and for factor 3 there are five. All factor loadings greater than ± .35 are considered practically significant. Labels for these factors can be "Status" (factor 1), "Welfare" (factor 2) and "Purchase" (factor 3).

Taiwan ROC, which combines the samples of Taipei and Kaohsiung cities, has a sample size of 644 (see Table 7.7), which represents a factor loading of ± .30, a minimal level of significant correlation.

From Table 7.10 below, as in the two preceding tables, it can be seen that for factor 1 there are six high factor loading components; for factor 2 five; and for factor 3 five. All factor loadings greater than ± .40 are considered practically significant. The labels "Status", "Welfare" and "Purchase" can once again be applied respectively to the three factors.

Table 7.10:

Rotated component matrix for Taiwan R.O.C. by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	**.510**	.218	.116
Importance of cosmetics	**.446**	.314	.186
Choosing cosmetics	.212	.311	**.491**
Thought in cosmetics purchase	.161	3.201E-02	**.750**
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.143	.191	**.653**
Attitude to price	9.707E-02	-3.231E-02	**.696**
Price and quality connection	**.728**	-6.791E-02	.188
Brand and status connection	**.808**	1.222E-02	8.347E-02
Skin colour appearance and link to status	**.803**	6.019E-02	-4.329E-02
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.644**	.243	6.139E-02
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.306	**.604**	1.244E-02
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.298	**.599**	-8.962E-02
Attitude to environment	-2.684E-02	**.685**	.217
Attitude to animal welfare	-1.705E-02	**.742**	.206
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	8.074E-02	**.633**	.194
Attitude to child/children	-8.378E-02	.163	**.459**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

2. China P.R.C.

By using three-factor solution, three factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. The following tables 7.11, 7.12 and 7.13 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Beijing and Shanghai, and also a matrix "China P.R.C." which combines the matrices for Beijing and Shanghai.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given for Beijing (from Table 7.11) as "Status", "Welfare" and "Purchase"; for Shanghai " (from Table 7.12)

"Importance", "Welfare" and "Health; and for China PRC (from table 7.13) "Importance", "Welfare" and "Price" respectively.

3. UK

By using three-factor solution, three factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. The following tables 7.14, 7.15 and 7.16 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Northern England, Southern England and also a matrix "UK" which combines the matrices for Northern England and Southern England.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given for Northern England (from Table 7.14) as "Status", "Purchase" and "Welfare"; for Southern England (from Table 7.15) as "Status", "Purchase" and "Welfare"; and for the UK (from Table 7.16) as "Importance", "Status" and "Welfare" respectively.

Table 7.11:

Rotated component matrix for Beijing by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	.685	.198	6.775E-02
Importance of cosmetics	.686	.241	.266
Choosing cosmetics	.586	.371	.263
Thought in cosmetics purchase	.420	.563	.124
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.457	.271	.581
Attitude to price	3.737E-02	-.140	.786
Price and quality connection	.681	4.258E-02	7.020E-02
Brand and status connection	.789	3.740E-02	5.403E-02
Skin colour appearance and link to status	.739	1.843E-02	-.339
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.618	.444	-.366
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.397	.668	-.213
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.383	.285	.320
Attitude to environment	-7.301E-02	.673	.302
Attitude to animal welfare	8.344E-02	.847	5.346E-02
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.177	.759	6.111E-03
Attitude to child/children	-1.466E-02	.108	.467

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Status", "Welfare" and "Purchase" respectively.

Table 7.12:

Rotated component matrix for Shanghai by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	**.723**	.265	.229
Importance of cosmetics	**.771**	9.839E-02	7.230E-02
Choosing cosmetics	**.774**	.194	-.115
Thought in cosmetics purchase	**.642**	.261	.309
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.481**	3.993E-02	.140
Attitude to price	-8.239E-02	4.746E-02	**-.513**
Price and quality connection	.145	.257	**.478**
Brand and status connection	.197	**.556**	-.189
Skin colour appearance and link to status	.168	-.168	**.531**
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.600**	-9.745E-02	.469
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.122	.328	**.817**
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	6.338E-02	.278	**.717**
Attitude to environment	.172	**.791**	.153
Attitude to animal welfare	.137	**.811**	.116
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.104	**.584**	.250
Attitude to child/children	-2.007E-02	**-.434**	-2.893E-02

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Importance", "Welfare" and "Health" respectively.

Table 7.13:

Rotated component matrix for China P.R.C. by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Component		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	.777	.144	1.353E-02
Importance of cosmetics	**.810**	9.665E-02	-.150
Choosing cosmetics	**.698**	.225	-.198
Thought in cosmetics purchase	**.582**	.440	-6.140E-04
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.586**	.220	-.340
Attitude to price	8.301E-02	-4.147E-02	**-.700**
Price and quality connection	**.461**	.172	.293
Brand and status connection	**.484**	.156	5.182E-02
Skin colour appearance and link to status	**.547**	-.129	.544
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.586**	.209	.422
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.274	**.597**	.507
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.260	**.456**	.214
Attitude to environment	6.463E-02	**.789**	-.128
Attitude to animal welfare	.161	**.805**	-8.207E-03
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.205	**.678**	6.903E-02
Attitude to child/children	8.470E-02	-1.843E-02	**-.347**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Importance", "Welfare" and "Price" respectively.

Table 7.14:

Rotated component matrix for Northern England by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Component		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	-6.412E-02	.777	2.171E-02
Importance of cosmetics	.297	**.788**	3.633E-02
Choosing cosmetics	7.421E-02	**.841**	.113
Thought in cosmetics purchase	6.565E-02	**.815**	.156
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.198	**.408**	-3.349E-02
Attitude to price	**.635**	-.114	-.110
Price and quality connection	**.790**	3.137E-02	8.032E-02
Brand and status connection	**.816**	.222	9.408E-02
Sun-tanned appearance and link to status	**.736**	.347	.241
Importance of sun-tanned appearance	**.595**	.406	.255
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	.119	5.842E-02	**.272**
Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	**.503**	.248	.262
Attitude to environment	.387	.224	**.683**
Attitude to animal welfare	-7.276E-02	4.808E-02	**.823**
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	-.183	4.790E-02	**.896**
Attitude to child/children	.293	-9.747E-02	**.540**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Status", "Purchase" and "Welfare" respectively.

Table 7.15:

Rotated component matrix for Southern England by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Component		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	.266	**.636**	-4.338E-02
Importance of cosmetics	.323	**.756**	-4.349E-02
Choosing cosmetics	.224	**.798**	2.758E-02
Thought in cosmetics purchase	.161	**.768**	-5.873E-03
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	-.147	**.612**	-5.546E-02
Attitude to price	.251	-1.565E-02	**.297**
Price and quality connection	**.544**	.121	-2.094E-02
Brand and status connection	**.781**	.182	-.101
Sun-tanned appearance and link to status	**.818**	7.853E-02	.132
Importance of sun-tanned appearance	**.791**	2.035E-02	.115
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	-5.591E-02	**.269**	2.525E-02
Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	**.381**	-5.710E-03	.361
Attitude to environment	.120	2.883E-02	**.647**
Attitude to animal welfare	-.104	-9.425E-03	**.864**
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	-.133	2.759E-02	**.867**
Attitude to child/children	.246	-.286	**.359**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Status", "Purchase" and "Welfare" respectively.

Table 7.16:

Rotated component matrix for the UK by three-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Component		
	1	2	3
Fashion-consciousness	**.696**	.136	9.415E-03
Importance of cosmetics	**.799**	.257	-7.065E-03
Choosing cosmetics	**.827**	.133	3.884E-02
Thought in cosmetics purchase	**.787**	9.934E-02	1.312E-02
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.516**	-5.220E-02	-5.677E-02
Attitude to price	-5.716E-02	**.402**	.146
Price and quality connection	8.612E-02	**.637**	-9.482E-02
Brand and status connection	.237	**.768**	-.130
Sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.215	**.799**	.118
Importance of sun-tanned appearance	.187	**.746**	.122
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	**.161**	2.460E-02	2.523E-02
Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	9.115E-02	**.457**	.323
Attitude to environment	8.075E-02	.263	**.630**
Attitude to animal welfare	2.415E-02	-2.724E-02	**.881**
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	3.505E-02	-6.324E-02	**.886**
Attitude to child/children	-.235	.328	**.380**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appropriate labels for extracted factors 1, 2 and 3 can be given as "Importance", "Status" and "Welfare" respectively.

4. Conclusion of the three-factor solution

From the above three-factor solution, three factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude in each country. Table 7.17 shows the labels of three extracted factors within cities, areas and countries. It can be seen that the factors extracted vary from city/area to city/area within countries, particularly in China PRC.

Table 7.17:

The labels of three extracted factors within cities, areas and countries

Countries	Cities/areas	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	Status	Welfare	Purchase
	Kaohsiung	Status	Welfare	Purchase
	Taiwan ROC	Status	Welfare	Purchase
China P.R.C.	Beijing	Status	Welfare	Purchase
	Shanghai	Importance	Welfare	Health
	China PRC	Importance	Welfare	Price
UK	Northern England	Status	Purchase	Welfare
	Southern England	Status	Purchase	Welfare
	UK	Importance	Status	Welfare

- Factor 1 has the label "Status" for all cities/areas, except Shanghai, China PRC and the UK, which have the label of "Importance".
- Factor 2 has the label "Welfare" for all cities/ areas, except Northern and Southern England where the label is "Purchase". For the UK the label is "Status".
- Factor 3 has the label "Purchase" for Taipei, Kaohsiung, Taiwan ROC and Beijing; for Northern England, Southern England and UK it is labelled "Welfare" ; for Shanghai it has the label "Health" and for China PRC has the label of "Price".
- In conclusion, the result of the three-factor solution shows the variation of the labels for extracted factors within cities/areas and countries. The labels "Health", "Importance" and "Price" which stand out as anomalies highlight the difficulties with this approach.

7.2.4.2 Four-factor solution

By using the same approach as the above three-factor solution, four factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. Table 7.18 shows the labels of four extracted factors within cities, areas and countries. It can be seen that the factors extracted vary from city/area to city/area within countries.

Table 7.18:

The labels of four extracted factors within cities, areas and countries

Countries	Cities/areas	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Importance
	Kaohsiung	Status	Purchase	Welfare	Health
	Taiwan ROC	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Importance
China P.R.C.	Beijing	Importance	Welfare	Status	Child
	Shanghai	Importance	Welfare	Health	Child
	China PRC	Importance	Welfare	Status	Child
UK	Northern England	Status	Importance	Welfare	Health
	Southern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase
	UK	Importance	Status	Welfare	Price

- Factor 1 has the label "Status" for Taipei, Kaohsiung, Taiwan ROC and Northern England; "Importance" for Beijing, Shanghai, China PRC, Southern England and the UK.

- Factor 2 has the label "Welfare" for all cities/ areas, except Kaohsiung where the label is "Purchase", Northern England where it is ""Importance", and Southern England and the UK where the label is "Status".
- Factor 3 has the label "Purchase" for Taipei and Taiwan ROC; for Kaohsiung , Northern England, Southern England and the UK it is labelled "Welfare"; for Shanghai it has the label "Health" and for Beijing and China PRC the label is "Status".
- Factor 4 has the label "Importance" for Taipei and Taiwan ROC; "Health" for Kaohsiung and Northern England; "Purchase" for Southern England; "Price" for the UK; and "Child" for Beijing, Shanghai and China PRC.
- In conclusion, the result of the four-factor solution shows the variation of the labels for extracted factors within cities/areas and countries. The labels "Health", "Price" and "Child" which appear anomalous highlight the difficulties with this approach.

7.2.4.3 Five-factor solution

By using the same approach as above three-factor and four-factor solutions, five factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. Table 7.19 shows the labels of five extracted factors within cities, areas and countries. It can be seen that the factors extracted vary from city/area to city/area within countries.

Table 7.19:

The labels of five extracted factors within cities, areas and countries

Countries	Cities/areas	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Importance	Health
	Kaohsiung	Status	Purchase	Welfare	Importance	Health
	Taiwan ROC	Status	Purchase	Welfare	Health	Importance
China P.R.C.	Beijing	Importance	Welfare	Status	Purchase	Child
	Shanghai	Importance	Welfare	Health	Status	Child
	China PRC	Importance	Welfare	Health	Status	Child
UK	Northern England	Status	Importance	Welfare	Health	Purchase
	Southern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health
	UK	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health

- Factor 1 has the label "Status" for all cities/areas, except Beijing, Shanghai, China PRC, Southern England and the UK where it is labelled "Importance".

- Factor 2 has the label "Welfare" for all cities/ areas, except Kaohsiung and Taiwan ROC where the label is "Purchase", and Northern England where it is "Importance". Southern England and the UK have the label "Status".
- Factor 3 has the label "Purchase" for Taipei; for Kaohsiung, Taiwan ROC, Northern England, Southern England and the UK it is labelled "Welfare"; for Beijing where the label is "Status" and for Shanghai and China PRC it has the label "Health".
- Factor 4 has the label "Importance" for Taipei and Kaohsiung; "Health" for Taiwan ROC and Northern England; "Purchase" for Beijing, Southern England and the UK; "Status" for Shanghai and China PRC.
- Factor 5 has the same label "Health" for all cities/areas, except Taiwan where the label is "Importance", and Beijing, Shanghai and China PRC, where the label is "Child" and Northern England, where it has the label "Purchase".
- In conclusion, the result of the five-factor solution shows the variation of the labels for extracted factors within cities/areas and countries. Again, as in the case of the four-factor solution, the label "Child" stands out from the rest and highlights the difficulties with this approach.

7.2.4.4 Six-factor solution

By using six-factor solution, six factors have been extracted from 16 statements of attitude. Table 7.20 shows the labels of six extracted factors within cities, areas and countries. It can be seen that the factors extracted vary from city/area to city/area within countries.

Table 7.20:

The labels of six extracted factors within cities, areas and countries

Countries	Cities/areas	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Importance	Child
	Kaohsiung	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Importance	Health	Child
	Taiwan ROC	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Importance	Child
China P.R.C.	Beijing	Importance	Welfare	Status	Health	Purchase	Child
	Shanghai	Importance	Welfare	Health	Status	Child	Purchase
	China PRC	Importance	Welfare	Purchase	Status	Health	Child
UK	Northern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Health	Child	Purchase
	Southern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Child
	UK	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Child

- Factor 1 has the label "Importance" for all cities/areas, except Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan ROC, where it is labelled "Status".
- Factor 2 has the label "Welfare" for all cities/ areas, except Northern England, Southern England and the UK where the label is "Status".
- Factor 3 has the label "Purchase" for Taipei, Kaohsiung, Taiwan ROC and China PRC; for Beijing the label is "Status"; for Shanghai it is "Health" and for Northern England, Southern England and the UK it is "Welfare".
- Factor 4 has the label "Health" for Taipei, Taiwan ROC, Beijing, and Northern England; for Kaohsiung the label is "Importance"; for Shanghai and China PRC it is "Status", and for Southern England and the UK it is "Purchase".
- Factor 5 has the label "Importance" for Taipei and Taiwan ROC; Kaohsiung, China PRC, Southern England and UK has the label "Health"; for Beijing the label is "Purchase" and for Shanghai and Northern England it is "Child".
- Factor 6 has the label "Child" for all cities/areas, except Shanghai and Northern England where it has the label "Purchase".
- In conclusion, the result of the six-factor solution shows the variation of the labels for extracted factor within cities/areas and countries. However, the labels of the extracted factors have similarities across the three countries involved and this approach therefore provides the best solution.

7.2.5 The best factor solution for testing the hypotheses

An examination was made of the labels of factors extracted by three-, four-, five- and six-factor solution in different countries, areas and cities. In each case the six-factor solution appeared to be clearer than the other options and to have most similarities across the three countries involved. For this reason the six-factor solution was selected as the best fit for each country.

By examining the details of the extracted components of the six factors with the same label within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, tables 7.21~7.26 below show the differences between extracted components (indicated by *) with the same factor labels within the cities and areas of the three countries. Factors were given common labels across countries but it should be noted that the make-up of similarly labelled factors in different countries was not quite the same.

The overall purpose of the present research is to make a cultural comparison between three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC, and the UK. Therefore, it would seem appropriate not to use the cities/areas themselves for comparison purposes but to group them under the headings of the three countries in which they are located.

Table 7.21: **Extracted components of "Status" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK by six-factor solution**

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness									
Importance of cosmetics									
Choosing cosmetics									
Thought in cosmetics purchase									
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase									
Attitude to price						*	*		
Price and quality connection	*	*	*	*	*		*		
Brand and status connection	*	*	*	*			*	*	*
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance	*	*	*			*		*	*
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation									
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products									*
Attitude to environment									
Attitude to animal welfare									
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients									
Attitude to child/children									

Table 7.22:

Extracted components of "Welfare" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness									
Importance of cosmetics									
Choosing cosmetics									
Thought in cosmetics purchase									
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase									
Attitude to price									
Price and quality connection									
Brand and status connection					*				
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status									
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance									
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation				*					
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products									
Attitude to environment	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Attitude to animal welfare	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Attitude to child/children									

Table 7.23:

Extracted components of "Purchase" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness									
Importance of cosmetics									
Choosing cosmetics									
Thought in cosmetics purchase	*	*	*						
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase	*	*	*	*			*		
Attitude to price	*	*	*	*	*			*	*
Price and quality connection						*			*
Brand and status connection						*			
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status									
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance									
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation									
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products									
Attitude to environment									
Attitude to animal welfare									
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients									
Attitude to child/children									

Table 7.24:

Extracted components of "Importance" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Importance of cosmetics	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Choosing cosmetics				*	*	*	*	*	*
Thought in cosmetics purchase					*	*	*	*	*
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase						*		*	*
Attitude to price									
Price and quality connection									
Brand and status connection									
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status									
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance					*				
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation									
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products									
Attitude to environment									
Attitude to animal welfare									
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients									
Attitude to child/children									

Table 7.25:

Extracted components of "Health" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness									
Importance of cosmetics									
Choosing cosmetics									
Thought in cosmetics purchase				*					
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase									
Attitude to price									
Price and quality connection									
Brand and status connection									
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status									
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance							*		*
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Attitude to environment									
Attitude to animal welfare									
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients									
Attitude to child/children									

Table 7.26:

Extracted components of "Child" within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and UK by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude/perception	Extracted components by six factor solution								
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shan ghai	China P.R.C.	Northern England	Southern England	UK
Fashion-consciousness									
Importance of cosmetics									
Choosing cosmetics									
Thought in cosmetics purchase									
Unsuitable cosmetics purchase					*				
Attitude to price		*	*						
Price and quality connection								*	
Brand and status connection									
Skin colour/sun-tanned appearance and link to status									
Importance of light-coloured skin/sun-tanned appearance									
Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening/UV radiation									
Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare/self-tan products				*					
Attitude to environment									
Attitude to animal welfare									
Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients									
Attitude to child/children	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

In conclusion, by examining the components of the factors with the same label within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, it can be seen that, though there are not exactly the same components in the factors with the same labels, there is a common structure to attitudes concerning cosmetics in these three countries. Therefore, on this evidence the first hypothesis ***"Chinese and British customers have different attitudes to cosmetics"*** is rejected. It is possible to conclude that, ***although there are significant differences in culture between Chinese and British societies, Chinese and British customers in the age group studied have broadly similar attitudes to cosmetics.***

It can be seen that the statistical model of Factor analysis used here also provides clear evidence of cultural and environmental influence on consumer purchasing behaviour, which is explained by the E.K.B. model. The evidence is that even in different cultures there exists a similarity of consumer attitudes to purchasing cosmetics.

In the present research, the underlying patterns for the 16 statements of attitude in Taiwan ROC, China PRC, and the UK have been given the same label of factors extracted. The six-factor solution is an acceptable approach for examining the underlying patterns and creating a new set of variables for the next step of data analysis: regression model.

7.3 A regression model to explain spending on cosmetics

As a further step in understanding the cultural and environmental influences on consumer behaviour in the purchase of cosmetics, a regression model was used to test hypotheses and to explain the impact of culture (what is termed the environmental factor in the E.K.B. model) on spending on cosmetics in the three countries.

In section 7.2, it was seen that six factors: importance, purchase, status, health, welfare and child were extracted from the 16 statements of attitude in three countries by six-factor solution. These factors were saved as a new set of variables for further analysis. In this section, these new factor variables can be fitted into the regression model to explain the spending on cosmetics along with other variables such as income and age differences.

It is the purpose of this study to compare the extent to which cultural differences influence consumer purchasing behaviour in the cosmetics market in three countries.

In this section, the aim is to examine levels of spending on cosmetics including certain factors that influence spending:

- the extent to which increase in income influences spending on cosmetic products;
- the effect of age, marital status, parenthood, education and occupation on spending on cosmetics products;
- the effect of the factor variables: importance, purchase, status, health, welfare and child on spending.

7.3.1 Regression analysis and the selection of dependent and independent variables in the literature

Regression analysis is by far the most widely used and versatile dependence technique for business decision making. The basis of dependence techniques[1] is the use of a set of independent variables to predict and explain one or more dependent variables. The purpose of regression analysis is to predict a single dependent variable from the knowledge of one or more independent variables (Hair et al, 1998).

In order to apply multiple regression analysis two conditions must be met. Firstly, the data must metric or appropriately transformed. Secondly, before the regression equation is derived, it must be decided which variable is to be dependent and which remaining variables are to be independent (Hair et al, 1998).

Researchers often wish to incorporate nonmetric data (e.g. gender, age or occupation) into a regression equation. As Hair et al (1998) explain, researchers can include nonmetric data as independent variables by transforming ordinal or nominal data with dummy variable coding. They can also include nonmetric data as the dependent variable by use of a binary measure in the specialised technique of logistic regression. In the present case, nonmetric data (age, marital status and parenthood) will be included as independent variables by transforming them with dummy variable coding.

[1] There are six dependence techniques widely used for business decision making: multiple regression analysis, multiple discriminant analysis, logistic regression, multivariate analysis of variance, conjoint analysis, and canonical correlation. (Hair et all, 1998, p.139)

7.3.2 The dependent and independent variables applied in the regression model in the present research

7.3.2.1 Dependent variables

The dependent variables applied in the regression model are metric variables: spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries, fragrances, and total spending on cosmetics in twelve months. The following table shows the dependent and independent variables applied in the regression model in the present research.

Table 7.27:

The dependent and independent variables applied in the regression model

Dependent variables:	**Independent variables:**	
Spending on cosmetics: • Spending on make-up • Spending on skincare products • Spending on toiletries • Spending on fragrances • Total spending on cosmetics	Income: • Monthly income (in NT$) for Taiwan ROC • Monthly income (in Rmb) for China PRC • Annual income (in £) for the UK Age group: • Age group 1 (18-20) • Age group 2 (21-23) • Age group 3 (24-26) Marital status: • Married Parenthood: • With one child or more Education: • High school graduate • Junior college graduate • College/university graduate • Secondary education (UK only) • Further/higher education (UK only)	Occupations: • Student • State or local government employee • Self-employed • Private company employee • State-owned enterprises employee • School teacher or school support staff • Company employee (UK only) Factor analysis variables: • Importance • Purchase • Status • Health • Welfare • Child

Table 7.28 below shows the differences between scales of spending on cosmetics in the questionnaires and also the modified money scales used as dependent variables in the regression model.

Table 7.28:

The currencies and money scales used in questionnaires and modified variables

Taiwan ROC		China PRC		UK	
Scale of spending as in questionnaire (in NT$)	Modified variable (in NT$)	Scale of spending as in questionnaire (in Rmb)	Modified variable (in Rmb)	Scale of spending as in questionnaire (£)	Modified variable (£)
Up to 500	250	**Up to 40**	20	**Up to 10**	5
501 ~ 1,000	750	41 ~ 80	60	11 ~ 20	15
1,001 ~1,500	1250	81 ~120	100	21 ~ 30	25
1,501 ~2,000	1750	121 ~ 160	140	31 ~ 40	35
2,001 ~ 2,500	2250	161 ~ 200	180	41 ~ 50	45
2,501 ~ 3,000	2750	201 ~ 240	220	51 ~ 60	55
3,001 ~ 3,500	3250	241 ~ 280	260	61 ~ 70	65
3,501 ~ 4,000	3750	281 ~ 320	300	71~ 80	75
4,001 ~ 4,500	4250	321 ~ 360	340	81 ~ 90	85
4,501 ~ 5,000	4750	361 ~ 400	380	91 ~ 100	95
5,001 ~ 5,500	5250	401 ~ 440	420	101 ~ 110	105
Above 5,500	5750	Above 440	460	Above 110	115

In the questionnaire survey, response bands were used in certain questions (such as age, income and spending). As Hague (1993) states, response bands have the benefit of desensitising questions such as age, income or spending as well as making it easy for respondents to answer. As can be seen in Table 7.28, the money scales were modified in order to provide a more realistic account. The modification was effected by means of the following calculation:

> The middle values of each response band were taken. As there was no exact figure for the bands "up to 500 NT$" and "above 5,500 NT$" in the questionnaire for Taiwan ROC, these were modified to 250 NT$ and 5,750 NT$ for the sake of convenience. In the other questionnaires for China PRC and the UK, the bands "up to 40 Rmb" and "above 440 Rmb" (China) and "up to 10 (£)" and "above 110 (£)" (UK) were modified in a similar way.

7.3.2.2 Independent variables

The independent variables are income, age groups, marital status, parenthood, education, occupations and factor analysis variables. All the independent variables are nonmetric variables except income and factor analysis variables. The nonmetric variables have been appropriately transformed with dummy-variable coding.

1. Income

Incomes in the three countries are shown in the following table. This table shows the differences between scales of income in questionnaires and also the modified money scales which are used in regression model as independent variables. The reason for modifying the money scales for income is the same as that for modifying the money scales for spending on cosmetics.

Table 7.29: **The income differences and modified variables in three countries**

Taiwan ROC		**China PRC**		**UK**	
Scale of onthly income as in questionnaire (in NT$)	Modified variable (in NT$)	Scale of monthly income as in questionnaire (in Rmb)	Modified variable (in Rmb)	Scale of annual income as in questionnaire (£)	Modified variable (£)
Up to 10,000	7,500	**Up to 600**	500	**Up to 10,000**	7,500
10,001 ~ 15,000	12,500	601 ~ 800	700	10,001 ~ 15,000	12,500
15,001 ~ 20,000	17,500	801 ~ 1,000	900	15,001 ~ 20,000	17,500
20,001 ~ 25,000	22,500	1,001 ~ 1,200	1100	20,001 ~ 25,000	22,500
25,001 ~ 30,000	27,500	1,201 ~ 1,400	1300	25,001 ~ 30,000	27,500
30,001 ~ 35,000	32,500	1,401 ~ 1,600	1500	30,001 ~ 35,000	32,500
Above 35,000	37,500	Above 1,600	1700	Above 35,000	37,500

2. Age group

The following table shows the indicator coding for age group dummy variables. As can be seen, no modification of the age response bands was carried out. In this case, modification was unnecessary because age groups are useful for reference and comparison only, and not for making precise calculations.

Table 7.30: **Dummy coding for age group variables**

	Age group 1	Age group 2	Age group 3
Age group 1 (18-20)	1	0	0
Age group 2 (21-23)	0	1	0
Age group 3 (24-26)	0	0	1
Age group 4 (27-29)	0	0	0

3. Marital status

Table 7.31 shows the indicator coding for marital status dummy variables.

Table 7.31: **Dummy coding for marital status variables**

	Married
Single	0
Married*	1

* Married variable includes three marital status of married, divorced/separated and widowed.

4. Parenthood

Table 7.32 shows the indicator coding for parenthood variable.

Table 7.32: **Dummy coding for parenthood variable**

	With one child or more
No child	0
With one child or more	1

5. Education

Table 7-33 shows the indicator coding for educational variables.

Table 7-33: **Dummy coding for education variables**

	High school graduate	Junior college graduate	College/university graduate
High school graduate	1	0	0
Junior college graduate	0	1	0
College/university graduate	0	0	1

6. Occupations

Table 7-34 shows the indicator coding for occupational variables.

Table 7-34: **Dummy coding for occupational variables**

	Student	State or local government employee	Self-employed	Private company employee	State-owned enterprises employee	School teacher or school support staff
Student	1	0	0	0	0	0
State or local government employee	0	1	0	0	0	0
Self-employed	0	0	1	0	0	0
Private company employee	0	0	0	1	0	0
State-owned enterprises employee	0	0	0	0	1	0
School teacher or school support staff	0	0	0	0	0	1

7. Factor analysis variables

The six factors: importance, purchase, status, health, welfare and child which were extracted from the 16 statements of attitude and recorded as regression variables are also selected as independent variables in the regression model.

7.3.3 Interpreting the result of the regression analysis

There was no previous research regarding the effects of income, age groups, marital status, parenthood (with one child or more), education, occupations and factor analysis variables on spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries, fragrances, and total spending on cosmetics for the three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK. In the present study, the stepwise method was selected in the regression model to examine predictors (independent variables) in relation to the outcome (dependent variables). The outputs of the regression model for interpreting the result of data analysis are: descriptive statistics, model summary, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and coefficients of the model.

7.3.3.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics gives the information on the number of observed data fitted in the regression model, and the mean and standard deviation of each variable (dependent and independent) in the data set. The following tables (Tables 7.35 ~7.37) show the matrix tables of descriptive statistics of total spending on cosmetics for the three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

It should be pointed out that the mean figures for the independent variables shown in Tables 7.35, 7.36 and 7.37 (age group, marital status, parenthood, education and occupations) are modified as metric for the purpose of predicting total spending on cosmetics. These figures were arrived at as a result of transforming the nonmetric independent variables with dummy-variable coding. In this way they were rendered as metric percentages.

Table 7.35 below shows that 464 observed data were used in the regression model for Taiwan ROC. The average total spending on cosmetics was NT$ 7,491.93 over twelve months in the year 1999. The average monthly income of young females (age 18-29) in Taiwan ROC was NT$ 21,562.50.

Table 7.35: **Descriptive statistics of total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC**

Taiwan ROC	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total spending on cosmetics	7491.93	4754.73	464
Monthly income (in NT$)	21562.50	12303.94	464
Age group 1 (18-20)	.17	.37	464
Age group 2 (21-23)	.22	.42	464
Age group 3 (24-26)	.28	.45	464
Married (combined with married, divorced/separated, and widowed)	.28	.45	464
With one child or more	.19	.39	464
High school graduate	.36	.48	464
Junior college graduate	.34	.47	464
College/university graduate	.28	.45	464
Student	.25	.43	464
State or local government employee	6.68E-02	.25	464
Self-employed	1.29E-02	.11	464
Private company employee	.41	.49	464
State-owned enterprises employee	2.80E-02	.17	464
School teacher or school support staff	.11	.32	464
Status_Taiwan ROC	2.904054E-03	.9947849	464
Welfare_Taiwan ROC	-3.4866847E-02	1.0003833	464
Purchase_Taiwan ROC	-4.1789010E-02	1.0311452	464
Health_Taiwan ROC	-4.5560130E-02	1.0074758	464
Importance_Taiwan ROC	6.064807E-02	1.0002650	464
Child_Taiwan ROC	-9.0290284E-03	1.0289805	464

Table 7.36 indicates that there were 522 observed data used in the regression model for China PRC. The average total spending on cosmetics was 499.08 Rmb over twelve months in the year 1999. The average monthly income of young females (age 18-29) in China PRC was 669.54 Rmb.

Table 7.36: **Descriptive statistics of total spending on cosmetics for China PRC**

China PRC	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total spending on cosmetics	499.08	294.65	522
Monthly income (in Rmb)	669.54	586.32	522
Age group 1 (18-20)	.16	.36	522
Age group 2 (21-23)	.22	.41	522
Age group 3 (24-26)	.33	.47	522
Married (combined with married, divorced/separated, and widowed)	.44	.50	522
With one child or more	.28	.45	522
High school graduate	.22	.42	522
College/university graduate	.55	.50	522
Student	.48	.50	522
State or local government employee	5.75E-02	.23	522
Self-employed	5.36E-02	.23	522
Private company employee	.24	.43	522
State-owned enterprises employee	7.28E-02	.26	522
School teacher or school support staff	7.85E-02	.27	522
Importance_China PRC	-1.6860839E-02	.9854679	522
Welfare_China PRC	-2.6223996E-02	1.0048897	522
Purchase_China PRC	5.007970E-02	1.0036182	522
Status_China PRC	8.581034E-03	.9992265	522
Health_China PRC	-1.9158092E-02	.9895415	522
Child_China PRC	-3.8259481E-02	1.0001208	522

Table 7.37 shows that 268 observed data were used in the regression model for the UK. The average total spending on cosmetics was £157.39 over twelve months in the year 1999. The average annual income of young females (age 18-29) in the UK was £8,488.81.

Table 7.37: **Descriptive statistics of total spending on cosmetics for the UK**

UK	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total spending on cosmetics	157.39	106.59	268
Annual income (£)	8488.81	5992.49	268
Age group 1 (18-20)	.32	.47	268
Age group 2 (21-23)	.34	.48	268
Age group 3 (24-26)	.18	.38	268
Married (combined with married, divorced/separated, and widowed)	.11	.32	268
With one child or more	5.97E-02	.24	268
Secondary education	.17	.37	268
Further/higher education	.69	.46	268
Student	.62	.49	268
Company employee	.26	.44	268
State or local government employee	4.85E-02	.22	268
Self-employed	1.87E-02	.14	268
Importance_UK	3.853504E-02	1.0102087	268
Status_UK	6.690097E-02	.9386153	268
Welfare_UK	3.084809E-02	1.0076370	268
Purchase_UK	1.454153E-02	.9849298	268
Health_UK	1.185890E-02	1.0081814	268
Child_UK	-1.9349638E-02	1.0048190	268

It would be interesting to compare average total spending on cosmetics by age group 18-29 provided by the present survey for the twelve months of 1999, with data provided by other (secondary) sources, for example Mintel. Unfortunately, such data is not available. However, it is possible arrive at a comparison by using the figures for Mintel retail cosmetics sales in the UK during 1999 in conjunction with the UK population in the same year as a base figure, in order to calculate average spending on cosmetics by UK age group 18-29.

It is regrettable that the Mintel (Market Intelligence) figure for the total spending on cosmetics (such as retail sales of £m 644 in 1999) is not broken down by age group. As a result, the amount spent by the 18-29 age group is not known. It is fairly safe, however, to say that women between the ages of 15 and 50 are likely to account for the greater part of the total spend (the under 15's not likely to spend much and the over 50's even less). Mintel does indicate that heavy spenders generally are teenagers and working women (Market Intelligence, 2001). While it cannot be assumed that the total spend on cosmetics is spread evenly over 15 to 50 age range, we can assume that the 18-29 age group accounts for a sizeable proportion of the total. If the true amount

spent by this group were to be a quarter of the total, then the figure would come reasonably close to the total amount found in the questionnaire survey. However, this is only an assumption and not a basis for making a comparison.
(For descriptive statistics of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, see Appendix 6, section 1.)

7.3.3.2 Model summary

The model summary describes the overall model and indicates whether the model is successful in predicting total spending on cosmetics. It gives information on what the dependent variable (total spending on cosmetics) was and what the predictors were in each of the models. The following tables (Tables 7.38 ~ 7.40) show the model summary for the three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

In the column labelled R are found the values of the multiple correlation coefficient between the predictors and the outcome. In the next column, labelled R square, are the values for R^2. R^2 is a measure of how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by the predictors. In the model for Taiwan ROC (Table 7.38) its value is 0.246, which means that student and other predictors: importance, health, status, monthly income and state or local government employee account for 24.6% of the variation in total spending on cosmetics. Similarly, the R^2 value in China (Table 7.39) and the UK (Table 7.40) are 0.308 and 0.195 which account for 30.8% and 19.5% respectively of the variance in total spending on cosmetics by the predictors.

Table 7.38:

Model summary of total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
6	.496 f	.246	.236	4155.77

f Predictors: (Constant), Student, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC, Status_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$), State or local government employee

Table 7.39:

Model summary of total spending on cosmetics for China PRC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
7	.555 g	.308	.298	246.80

g Predictors: (Constant), Student, Purchase_China PRC, Private company employee, Importance_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Status_China PRC, With one child or more

Table 7.40:

Model summary of total spending on cosmetics for the UK

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
4	.442 d	.195	.183	96.35

d Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Status_UK, Age group 1 (18-20)

(For model summaries of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, see Appendix 6, section 2.)

7.3.3.3 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows whether the model is significantly better at predicting the outcome than using the mean as a "best guess". The F-ratio is a measure of how much the model has improved the prediction of the outcome compared to the level of inaccuracy of the model.

The F-ratio is calculated by dividing the average improvement in prediction by the model (MS_M) and by the average difference between the model and the observed data (MS_R):

$$F = \frac{MS_M}{MS_R}$$

If the model is good, the improvement in prediction due to the model will be large (MS_M will be large) and the difference between the model and the observed data will be small (MS_R will be small). A good model should have a large F-ratio, at least greater than 1. That is, the top half of the equation will be bigger than the bottom.

Tables 7.41 ~ 7.43 below show the matrix tables of ANOVA of total spending on cosmetics for the three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

Table 7.41:

ANOVA [g] of total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
6	Regression	2574675036.626	6	429112506.104	24.847	.000 f
	Residual	7892587262.027	457	17270431.646		
	Total	10467262298.653	463			

f Predictors: (Constant), Student, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC, Status_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$), State or local government employee

g Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

Table 7.42:

ANOVA ^{h} of total spending on cosmetics for China PRC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
7	Regression	13924187.146	7	1989169.592	32.658	.000 g
	Residual	31307371.474	514	60909.283		
	Total	45231558.621	521			

g Predictors: (Constant), Student, Purchase_China PRC, Private company employee, Importance_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Status_China PRC, With one child or more

h Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

Table 7.43:

ANOVA ^{e} of total spending on cosmetics for the UK

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	591824.319	4	147956.080	15.938	.000 d
	Residual	2441497.322	263	9283.260		
	Total	3033321.642	267			

d Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Status_UK, Age group 1 (18-20)

e Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

In the column labelled F are the F-ratios for the regression models. In Taiwan ROC (Table 7.41), the F-ratio is 24.847, which is highly significant, at $p< 0.001$ (because the value in the column labelled Sig. is less than .001). It can be interpreted as meaning that the independent variables (student and the other predictors) significantly improved the ability to predict the outcome variable, the total spending on cosmetics. Similarly the F-ratios in the ANOVA of total spending on cosmetics for China (Table 7.42) and the UK (Table 7.43) are 32.658 and 15.938 respectively and both are highly significant.

(For the ANOVA of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, see Appendix 6, section 3.)

7.3.3.4 Regression analysis

The last output for interpreting the result of regression analysis is the coefficients. This concerns the parameters (beta values) of the model and their significance. Standardised beta values are used here, rather than unstandardised B values. The reason is that the three countries have different currencies and this caused different unstandardised B values between them. Therefore, it is impossible to make a comparison between them by using unstandardised B values.

The beta value represents the change in the outcome associated with a unit change in the predictor. The beta values give information on the relationship between total spending on cosmetics and each predictor. If the beta value is positive, it indicates that there is a positive relationship between the predictor and the outcome. If, however, the beta value is negative, then the relationship between the predictor and the outcome is a negative one. That means there is less spending on cosmetics.

The problem mentioned earlier (Chapter 6, p.121 and Chapter 7, p.158) concerning the habitual tendency among Chinese people to present a positive attitude in response to questions in surveys arises once again here. However, in regression analysis interest is centred on standardised significant influential variables (e.g. income), not on the level of consumption. Therefore, even if level of consumption happens to be exaggerated by respondents wishing to express positive sentiments in their responses, this is not a problem.

Following tables (Tables 7.44 ~ 7.46) show the matrix diagrams of coefficients for the three countries: Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

Table 7.44: **Coefficients[a] of total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC**

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
6	(Constant)	6615.060	562.804		11.754	.000
	Student	-2193.090	568.250	-.200	-3.859	.000
	Importance_Taiwan ROC	-1195.093	194.617	-.251	-6.141	.000
	Health_Taiwan ROC	-695.135	192.291	-.147	-3.615	.000
	Status_Taiwan ROC	-625.136	197.256	-.131	-3.169	.002
	Monthly income (in NT$)	6.299E-02	.020	.163	3.142	.002
	State or local government employee	1640.123	800.473	.086	2.049	.041

a Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

Table 7.45: **Coefficients[a] of total spending on cosmetics for China PRC**

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
7	(Constant)	490.935	26.032		18.859	.000
	Student	-95.126	30.303	-.161	-3.139	.002
	Purchase_China PRC	-73.767	10.798	-.251	-6.832	.000
	Private company employee	149.674	30.294	.218	4.941	.000
	Importance_China PRC	-49.884	11.086	-.167	-4.500	.000
	Welfare_China PRC	39.847	11.316	.136	3.521	.000
	Status_China PRC	-29.715	10.849	-.101	-2.739	.006
	With one child or more	76.141	29.807	.116	2.554	.011

a Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

Table 7.46: **Coefficients[a] of total spending on cosmetics for the UK**

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
4	(Constant)	171.158	7.133		23.996	.000
	Importance_UK	-28.751	5.855	-.272	-4.911	.000
	Purchase_UK	25.253	6.011	.233	4.201	.000
	Status_UK	-19.555	6.316	-.172	-3.096	.002
	Age group 1 (18-20)	-36.957	12.657	-.162	-2.920	.004

a Dependent Variable: Total spending on cosmetics

To take Table 7.44 as an example, the standardized beta of monthly income (in NT$) for Taiwan ROC is 0.163. This value indicates that as monthly income increased by one standard deviation (12,303.94 in NT$, see Table 7.35), total spending on cosmetics increased by 0.163 standard deviations. The standard deviation of total spending on cosmetics was 4,754.73 in NT$ (see Table 7.35) and so this constitutes a change (increase) of NT$ 775.02 (0.163 x 4754.73) in spending. Therefore, for every NT$ 12,303.94 more of income, an extra NT$ 775.02 is spent on cosmetics. The other predictors: student, importance, health, status have negative values of standardised beta. This means that there is a decrease in total spending on cosmetics. For the predictor, state or local government employee, there is a positive value of standardised beta meaning an increase in spending. Likewise, in Tables 7.45 and 7.46 show the coefficients of total spending on cosmetics for the other two countries.

(For the coefficients of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, see Appendix 6, section 4.)

7.3.4 The differences between the three countries as shown by regression analysis

In this chapter an analysis of data was carried out. In Section 7.2, the underlying patterns for sixteen statements of attitude were examined. Six-factor solution was established as the most appropriate approach for the examination of underlying patterns. In Section 7.3, the regression model was used to explain the dependent variable "spending on cosmetics". The following tables (Tables 7.47 ~ 7.49) provide a means of comparing spending on cosmetics in the three countries.

Table 7.47: **Comparison of coefficients of spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC**

	Unstandardised coefficients (B)					Standardised coefficients (Beta)				
	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total
Constant	1650.930	2407.556	1345.459	765.568	6615.060	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Monthly income (in NT$)	2.216E-02	1.981E-02	1.383E-02	1.226E-02	6.299E-02	.167	.135	.129	.116	.163
AG1 (18-20)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG2 (21-23)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG3 (24-26)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Married	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
With one child or more	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
High school graduate	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Junior college graduate	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
College/university graduate	NS	547.083	NS	NS	NS	NS	.136	NS	NS	NS
Student	-648.460	-805.494	-427.211	NS	-2193.090	-.172	-.193	-.141	NS	-.200
State or local government employee	762.191	NS	NS	NS	1640.123	.116	NS	NS	NS	.086
Self-employed	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Private company employee	NS	NS	NS	391.315	NS	NS	NS	NS	.149	NS
State-owned enterprises employee	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
School teacher or school support staff	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Importance Factor	-416.830	-210.804	-216.301	-352.009	-1195.093	-.255	-.116	-.165	-.271	-.251
Purchase Factor	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Status Factor	-176.148	NS	-187.923	-221.377	-625.136	-.107	NS	-.142	-.170	-.131
Health Factor	-170.949	-245.568	NS	-163.160	-695.135	-.105	-.137	NS	-.127	-.147
Welfare Factor	NS	-166.900	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.092	NS	NS	NS
Child Factor	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
$\bar{R}^2$	.227	.159	.108	.175	.246					

NS: Not Significant. Note: For a description of the Factors (Importance, Purchase, Status, Health, Welfare and Child) see Table 7.6 on page 162.

Table 7.48: **Comparison of coefficients of spending on cosmetics for China PRC**

	Unstandardised coefficients (B)					Standardised coefficients (Beta)				
	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total
Constant	117.888	114.919	118.403	59.343	490.935	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Monthly income (in Rmb)	NS	3.993E-02	NS	3.092E-02	NS	NS	.261	NS	.214	NS
AG1 (18-20)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG2 (21-23)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG3 (24-26)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Married	30.224	NS	NS	NS	NS	.163	NS	NS	NS	NS
With one child or more	NS	NS	27.194	NS	76.141	NS	NS	.153	NS	.116
High school graduate	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
College/university graduate	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Student	NS	NS	-23.563	NS	-95.126	NS	NS	-.147	NS	-.161
State or local government employee	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Self-employed	32.666	NS	NS	NS	NS	.080	NS	NS	NS	NS
Private company employee	52.721	NS	26.083	62.262	149.674	.245	NS	.140	.316	.218
State-owned enterprises employee	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
School teacher or school support staff	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Importance Factor	-17.500	-15.353	NS	-8.123	-49.884	-.187	-.169	NS	-.095	-.167
Purchase Factor	-23.515	-16.959	-13.779	-19.519	-73.767	-.256	-.190	-.173	-.232	-.251
Status Factor	-16.464	-10.138	NS	NS	-29.715	-.178	-.113	NS	NS	-.101
Health Factor	NS	NS	NS	-6.801	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.080	NS
Welfare Factor	11.144	16.789	10.613	NS	39.847	.121	.188	.133	NS	.136
Child Factor	11.599	NS	NS	NS	NS	.126	NS	NS	NS	NS
$\bar{R}^2$	.315	.198	.200	.263	.308					

NS: Not Significant. Note: For a description of the Factors (Importance, Purchase, Status, Health, Welfare and Child) see Table 7.6 on page 162.

Table 7.49: **Comparison of coefficients of spending on cosmetics for the UK**

	Unstandardised coefficients (B)					Standardised coefficients (Beta)				
	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances	Total
Constant	32.947	40.036	44.795	51.313	171.158	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Annual income (£)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG1 (18-20)	NS	-12.113	-9.906	NS	-36.957	NS	-.185	-.150	NS	-.162
AG2 (21-23)	9.268	NS	NS	NS	NS	.137	NS	NS	NS	NS
AG3 (24-26)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Married	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
With one child or more	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Secondary education	NS	NS	NS	-13.879	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.154	NS
Further/higher education	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Student	NS	NS	NS	-9.238	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.134	NS
Company employee	8.079	NS	NS	NS	NS	.110	NS	NS	NS	NS
State or local government employee	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Self-employed	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Importance Factor	-12.019	-8.391	NS	-6.893	-28.751	-.378	-.278	NS	-.207	-.272
Purchase Factor	5.886	6.023	5.148	7.850	25.253	.180	.194	.165	.230	.233
Status Factor	-4.664	-4.006	-4.355	-5.470	-19.555	-.136	-.123	-.133	-.153	-.172
Health Factor	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Welfare Factor	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Child Factor	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
$\bar{R}^2$	.238	.173	.073	.166	.195					

NS: Not Significant. Note: For a description of the Factors (Importance, Purchase, Status, Health, Welfare and Child) see Table 7.6 on page 162.

From Tables 7.47 ~ 7.49, the differences between three countries as shown by regression analysis can be interpreted as follows:

1. Monthly/annual income

It can be observed in Taiwan that the more income increases, the greater the spending on cosmetics. In China the more income increases, the greater the spending on skincare products and fragrances. The predictor "annual income" was omitted in the UK, because it was not significant.

2. Age bracket

In the UK spending is lowest in the first age bracket (18-20) than in the other three, while the second age bracket (21-23) indicates there is an increase in spending on makeup. Both in Taiwan and China, the age bracket is not significant.

3. Married and parenthood

The predictor "married" was significant only in China, where it was significant only in makeup (showing an increase). The predictor "with one child and more" was also only significant in China, where an increase was observed in total spending on cosmetics and toiletries.

4. Education

College/university graduated Taiwanese young females showed an increase in spending on skincare products, while in the UK secondary educated young females spent less on fragrances. The predictors in relation to education showed no significance in China.

5. Occupation

Generally students in all three countries spent less on cosmetics than people in the other occupations. In Taiwan, state or local government employees showed an increase in total spending on cosmetics and on makeup. Private company employees showed an increase in spending only on fragrances.

In China both self-employed and private company employees showed an increase in spending on makeup and the latter also showed an increase in total spending on cosmetics, toiletries and fragrances. In the UK, only company employees showed an increase in spending on makeup.

6. Factor analysis variables

In all three countries, for the predictors "importance" and "status" a decrease in spending was seen. As regards "purchase", a difference was recorded between countries: an increase in the case of the UK; a decrease in China; in Taiwan this predictor was omitted because it was not significant. "Health" was significant in Taiwan (decrease) and in China though only in fragrances (decrease); in the UK this predictor was not significant. As regards "welfare" there was a different result for each country: not significant in the UK; increase in China: decrease in Taiwan (only in skincare products). The predictor "child" was significant in China, where it showed an increase in make-up only, but it was not significant in the other two countries.

Table 7.50 below provides a brief summary of these differences between predictors used in regression analysis for the three countries.

Table 7.50:

Differences between Taiwan, China and the UK as shown by regression analysis

Predictors	Taiwan ROC	China PRC	UK
Income	increase	increase	(absent)
Age group 1	(absent)	(absent)	decrease
Age group 2	(absent)	(absent)	increase
Married	(absent)	increase	(absent)
Parenthood (with one child or more)	(absent)	increase	(absent)
Secondary education	-	-	decrease
College/university graduate	increase	(absent)	-
Student	decrease	decrease	decrease
State or local government employee	increase	(absent)	(absent)
Self-employed	(absent)	increase	(absent)
Company employee	-	-	increase
Private company employee	increase	increase	-
Importance	decrease	decrease	decrease
Purchase	(absent)	decrease	increase
Status	decrease	decrease	decrease
Health	decrease	decrease	(absent)
Welfare	decrease	increase	(absent)
Child	(absent)	increase	(absent)

From the above evidence it can be seen that for the purchase of cosmetics, income, occupation and most of the factor analysis variables have similar directions of influence in each culture. Consequently, it can be concluded that the second hypothesis, namely, that ***the purchase of cosmetics will have different influential variables in each of the two cultures*** is not true.

Regarding the third hypothesis, namely, ***the influential variables will have a different effect in each culture***, the evidence shown in Table 7.50 indicates that the factor analysis variables "Purchase" and "Welfare" have different effect in each culture. Therefore, this hypothesis is supported.

7.3.5 Effect of predictors on spending on cosmetics

After the outputs of the regression model: descriptive statistics, model summary, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and coefficients have been examined, the effect of predictors on spending on cosmetics can be ascertained.

The following tables (Tables 7.51 ~ 7.53) show the standard deviation and standardised beta of predictors, the standard deviation of outcome and the increase/decrease in spending in relation to total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

In Table 7.51, the standardised beta of monthly income (in NT$) is 0.163. As explained above, this value indicates that as monthly income increased by one standard deviation (12303.94 in NT$), total spending increased by 0.163 standard deviations. The standard deviation of total spending was 4754.73 in NT$ and so this represents a change (increase) of 775.02 in NT$ (0.163 x 4754.73) in total spending. Similarly, the other predictors in this table show respectively their effects on total spending. It can be seen, in the case of the other predictors (student, importance, health and status) there is a decrease in total spending and for state or local government employee there is an increase in spending.

As can be seen from Table 7.52, monthly income is omitted. This is because monthly income is not significant. Similarly, the predictors in this table show respectively their effects on total spending. In the case of three predictors (private company employee, welfare and parenthood) there is an increase in spending. With the other predictors (student, purchase, importance and status) there is a decrease.

In Table 7.53, annual income is omitted. This is because annual income is not significant. In this table, in the case of one predictor (purchase) there is an increase in total spending on cosmetics. The other three predictors (importance, status, and age group 1) indicate a decrease.

Table 7.51:

Effect of predictors on total spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (total spending on cosmetics)	Increase/decrease in spending (in NT$)
Student	.43	-.200	4754.73	-950.95
Importance_Taiwan ROC	1.0002650	-.251	4754.73	-1193.44
Health_Taiwan ROC	1.0074758	-.147	4754.73	-698.95
Status_Taiwan ROC	.9947849	-.131	4754.73	-622.87
Monthly income (in NT$)	12303.94	.163	4754.73	775.02
State or local government employee	.25	.086	4754.73	408.91

Table 7.52:

Effect of predictors on total spending on cosmetics for China PRC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (total spending on cosmetics)	Increase/decrease in spending (in Rmb)
Student	.50	-.161	294.65	-47.44
Purchase_China PRC	1.0036182	-.251	294.65	-73.96
Private company employee	.43	.218	294.65	64.23
Importance_China PRC	.9854679	-.167	294.65	-49.21
Welfare_China PRC	1.0048897	.136	294.65	40.07
Status_China PRC	.9992265	-.101	294.65	-29.76
With one child or more	.45	.116	294.65	34.18

Table 7.53:

Effect of predictors on total spending on cosmetics for the UK

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (total spending on cosmetics)	Increase/decrease in spending (£)
Importance_UK	1.0102087	-.272	106.59	-28.99
Purchase_UK	.9849298	.233	106.59	24.84
Status_UK	.9386153	-.172	106.59	-18.33
Age group 1 (18-20)	.47	-.162	106.59	-17.27

(For the effect of predictors on spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, see Appendix 6, section 5.)

7.3.6 The interpretation of the factor analysis variables in predicting spending on cosmetics

If we look once again at the scale of measurement of attitude used in the questionnaires, we see that there were five response alternatives: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree. These were coded from 1 to 5 in the above order. From Tables 7.47 ~ 7.49 it is possible to see that the interpretation of standardised beta for the factor variables (independent variables): *importance, purchase, status, health, welfare and child,* is different from that of the other predictors (i.e. monthly/annual income; age bracket; married and parenthood; education; occupation).

High standardised beta values for the factor analysis variables indicated that the responses were "disagree" and "strongly disagree"; low beta values indicated that the responses were "agree" and "strongly agree". When the standardised beta values were negative, this indicated that spending decreased. Conversely, when the standardised beta value was positive, this indicated that spending increased. For example, in Table 7-53 which shows the effect of predictors on total spending for the UK, the standardised beta vale of "importance" is -.272. This, therefore, implies that the more "importance" UK respondents feel, the less they spend. The standardised beta value of "purchase" in Table 7-53 is .233. This figure indicates an increase in spending.

7.4 Conclusions

In this chapter the underlying patterns of relationships for the 16 statements of attitude in Taiwan ROC, China PRC, and the UK have been examined by factor analysis. It was clear that the six-factor solution was the preferred selection over the other options (three-, four- and five-factor solution) in the present research, as it possessed clearer underlying patterns of attitude and had most similarities across the three countries involved.

Six factors: "importance", "purchase", "status", "health", "welfare" and "child" were extracted and the components of the factors with the same label within cities/areas of Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK were also examined. It can be seen that although there are not exactly the same components in the factors with the same labels, there is a common structure of attitudes regarding the purchase of cosmetics in these three countries. Thus, the first hypothesis was rejected. The evidence showed the fact that ***in spite of the significant differences in culture between Chinese and British societies, Chinese and British customers had similar attitudes to cosmetics.***

These six factors were also saved as a new set of variables for the regression model to explain the spending on cosmetics along with other variables: income, age, marital status, parenthood, education and occupation. After comparing the standardised Beta values of spending on cosmetics for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK, it was shown that income, occupation and most of the factor analysis variables, had similar directions of influence in each culture. Consequently, one can conclude that the second hypothesis, was not supported and that ***the purchase of cosmetics in fact has similar influential variables in each of the two cultures*** under study. The evidence above also showed that ***the factor analysis variables "purchase" and "welfare" had***

a different effect in each culture and that the third hypothesis was supported. In addition, in this chapter, the effect of predictors on spending was examined and question of the interpretation of the factor analysis variables for predicting spending was also discussed.

In the next chapter, hypotheses relevant to commercial organisations will be tested by the method of cross-tabulation in order to achieve a cross-cultural comparison of the three countries.

Chapter 8: The Testing of Hypotheses Relevant to Commercial Organisations

8.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 focused on the hypotheses relating to the impact of culture on purchasing behaviour and analysis relating to demographic variables. In this chapter the purpose is to examine and test the other commercially oriented hypotheses which are of interest not only in cultural terms but also in terms of importance to manufacturers of cosmetics. These commercially oriented hypotheses are concerned with fashion-consciousness and the degree of importance that consumers attach to cosmetics; the customs of shopping around and present-giving; concern for the environment and for animal welfare in the production of cosmetics. Manufacturers require relevant information on the market in order to develop new products. This information is needed for product design, appropriate ingredients and packaging, market segmentation, promotion and distribution.

This chapter also aims to compare and contrast the three countries under study from a cultural standpoint. For this purpose, the six factor analysis variables "status", "welfare", "purchase", "health", "importance" and "child" used in the regression model would normally be able to predict spending on cosmetics. Unfortunately, however, all six variables suffer from the problem of having slightly different components in each of three countries under study (see Chapter 7, Table 7-21 ~ 7.26). Consequently, it is more appropriate to employ the cross-tabulation method to enable the researcher to examine and compare the detailed cultural differences between the countries.

The amount of data gathered produced a sizeable database including information of further value for commercial organisations. The data collected from the questionnaires on topics such as age of starting to use and purchase cosmetics; frequency of purchase; type of brand and brand loyalty; concern for skin colour; use of whitener skincare products; the practice of reducing spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate on the needs of the child are analysed in this chapter and are, thus, available for commercial use by any interested parties.

8.2 Testing the hypotheses in the present research

By use of the cross-tabulation technique in the present case of cosmetics purchase, one can discover a relationship between the dependent variable spending on cosmetics and certain independent variables such as fashion-consciousness. However, the link is one of association and not causation. As Zikmund (1997) would explain, no matter how correlated the morning rooster's crow is to the rising sun, the rooster does not cause the sun to rise.

Cross-tabulation is used here to test the remaining four very specific hypotheses set out in Chapter 5 and to identify cultural differences in the three countries under investigation. For this purpose, it is necessary to use the Chi-square measure. Babbie, Halley and Zaino (2000) describe this as a test of significance which is most appropriate for nominal items, though it can be used with ordinal variables or with nominal and ordinal variables in combination. As these authors point out, the Chi-square estimates the probability that the association of variables is the result of chance or sampling error by comparing the observed distribution of response with the distribution of response that one would anticipate if no association between two variables existed. Field (2000) explains that if the significance value is small enough (it must be below 0.05), then the hypothesis that two variables are independent is rejected and the hypothesis accepted that they are related in some way. In other words it can be said that the lower the probability, the more statistically significant is the relationship. Thus, if a relationship is significant at the level of 0.001, one can be more confident regarding the conclusion than if it is significant only at the level of 0.05 (Babbie, Halley and Zaino, 2000).

8.2.1 Testing the fourth hypothesis

The fourth hypothesis to be tested is:

> ***Young British females are more fashion-conscious and attach greater importance to cosmetics than young Chinese females.***

As pointed out earlier (Chapter 5), it is necessary to test this hypothesis in order to discover whether culture has a determining effect on attitudes to cosmetics among young women in China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK, or whether other factors (age, income and education level) have a significant effect.

The first step here is to find out the difference in levels of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics in socio-cultural and national terms.

8.2.1.1 The difference in levels of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics

The following table indicates the difference in levels of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics between young Chinese and British females in socio-cultural (Chinese – British) terms and national terms (Taiwan ROC – China PRC – UK).

Table 8.1:

Difference in level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics in socio-cultural and national terms

			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Fashion-consciousness	Chinese	Count	83	252	469	380	72	1256
		Percentage	6.6%	20.1%	37.3%	30.3%	5.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	62	126	108	22	16	334
		Percentage	18.6%	37.7%	32.3%	6.6%	4.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	32	198	231	131	27	619
		Percentage	5.2%	32.0%	37.3%	21.2%	4.4%	100.0%
	China	Count	51	54	238	249	45	637
		Percentage	8.0%	8.5%	37.4%	39.1%	7.1%	100.0%
Importance of cosmetics	Chinese	Count	97	288	534	251	88	1258
		Percentage	7.7%	22.9%	42.4%	20.0%	7.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	40	97	103	69	25	334
		Percentage	12.0%	29.0%	30.8%	20.7%	7.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	60	216	245	76	26	623
		Percentage	9.6%	34.7%	39.3%	12.2%	4.2%	100.0%
	China	Count	37	72	289	175	62	635
		Percentage	5.8%	11.3%	45.5%	27.6%	9.8%	100.0%

Table 8.1 shows the difference in the levels of fashion consciousness claimed by young Chinese and British women and the difference in the degree of importance they attach to cosmetics. In this table the percentage of Chinese women stating that they regard themselves as fashion-conscious (Strongly agree and Agree) is 26.7% (6.6% + 20.1%), and this contrasts strongly with 56.3% (18.6% + 37.7%) for British women. If we examine the differences between the three countries, the percentage of Strongly agree and Agree for Taiwan comes to 37.2%, while for China this percentage is only 16.5%, a figure far below that of 56.3% for the UK. These figures provide support for the testing of the first hypothesis **that** ***young British females are more fashion-consciousness than their Chinese counterparts.***

As regards the degree of importance attached to cosmetics, the difference between young Chinese and British women is not so great: 30.6% (for Chinese) compared to 41% (for British). The differences between these three countries are: 44.3% (Taiwan), 17.1% (China) and 41% (UK). Although the figure for Taiwan is slightly higher (3.3%) than that for the UK, the UK figure of 41% is considerably higher (23.9%) than the figure for China. Consequently, these figures again support the first hypothesis that ***young British females attach greater importance to cosmetics than young Chinese females.***

Table 8.2 shows the Chi-square test for difference in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics in socio-cultural and national terms.

Table 8.2:

Pearson Chi-Square test for difference in fashion-consciousness and importance of cosmetics in socio-cultural and national terms

Pearson Chi-Square test		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Fashion-consciousness	Socio-cultural difference	136.663	4	.000	1590
	National difference	256.464	8	.000	1590
Importance of cosmetics	Socio-cultural difference	18.751	4	.001	1592
	National difference	148.596	8	.000	1592

As can be seen, the Pearson Chi-square test for difference in fashion-consciousness in socio-cultural and national terms shows the same significance values, namely .000, which are well below 0.05 and are statistically significant. Similarly, the Chi square test for difference in importance of cosmetics in socio-cultural and national terms shows significant values of .001 and .000, again below 0.05, and is thus statistically significant. Therefore, the relationship between Chinese and British young females in the three countries is significant as regards fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics.

8.2.1.2 Influencing factors in relation to fashion-consciousness and importance of cosmetics

It is of interest to raise again the question whether culture has a determining effect on the level of fashion-consciousness and the degree of importance attached to cosmetics among young women in China PRC, Taiwan ROC and the UK, or whether other factors (age, income level and education level) have a significant effect.

1. Creating new variables for realistic comparison

Because of differences between the structure of the education systems in the three countries, and also because of differences in national currencies, there is a need here to create new variables in order to make realistic comparisons between them. Accordingly, Table 8.3 and 8.4 below show the new variables for income levels and education levels. To arrive at the figures for income levels and the standards for education levels, in these two tables, each country was looked at separately.

As there is no standard accepted measurement for comparing salaries between countries, the income levels in Table 8.3 were selected as representing salaries ranging from low to high in each country. The figures are not equivalent in terms of currency values. Thus, income level 1 indicates a low income in each country; level 2 low to middle income; level 3 middle income and level 4 high income. In table 8.4 the education levels 1, 2, and 3 are not intended as precisely equivalent standards, but are based on the researcher's personal knowledge and a generalised experience of each country. As such, they are to be regarded as the nearest equivalent for comparing education levels.

Table 8.3:

New variables for income levels in the three countries

New variables	Annual income £ (UK)	Monthly income NT$ (Taiwan ROC)	Monthly income Rmb (China PRC)
Income level 1	Up to 15,000	Up to 15,000	Up to 800
Income level 2	15,001 ~ 25,000	15,001 ~ 25,000	801 ~ 1,200
Income level 3	25,001 ~ 35,000	25,001 ~ 35,000	1,201 ~ 1,600
Income level 4	Above 35,000	Above 35,000	Above 1,600

Note: The above figures for income levels in the three countries are given for each country as a reference and are not intended to be taken as precisely equivalent amounts.

Table 8.4:

New variables for education levels in the three countries

New variables	UK	Taiwan ROC	China PRC
Education level 1	Secondary school	• High school • Junior college	High school
Education level 2	Further/higher education	College/university	College/university
Education level 3	Postgraduate	Postgraduate	Postgraduate

Note: The above levels of education are given only as a reference and are not intended to be a precise indication of equivalent standards between the three countries.

2. Influencing factor of age group

The following table shows the differences in level of fashion-consciousness and in degree of importance attached to cosmetics between Chinese and British young women responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree" by different age groups.

Table 8.5:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among those responding "Strong agree" and "Agree" (by age group)

	Age groups	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Fashion-consciousness	Age 18-20	21.5%	57.8%	32.8%	8.4%	57.8%
	Age 21-23	28.3%	57.1%	37.2%	20.6%	57.1%
	Age 24-26	25.4%	60.7%	38.2%	14.9%	60.7%
	Age 27-29	29.4%	47.5%	38.6%	19.1%	47.5%
Importance of cosmetics	Age 18-20	23.0%	44.1%	36.7%	7.4%	44.1%
	Age 21-23	25.9%	41.1%	34.4%	18.4%	41.1%
	Age 24-26	30.3%	37.7%	47.4%	16.2%	37.7%
	Age 27-29	38.2%	39.0%	51.9%	22.3%	39.0%

Note: the above table is a condensed version of two other tables. For the original tables, see Appendix 7, Tables 1-1 and 1-2.

As can be seen in Table 8.5 the figures for the influencing factor of age group indicate that British young females possess not only the attitude of strong fashion-consciousness at a relatively early age but also have this characteristic to a stronger degree than Chinese young women in all the age groups considered. Admittedly, there is an overall increase in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics among young Chinese females as they get older. However, the contrast between the early onset of a relatively high level of fashion-consciousness among young British women and the relatively low level among young Chinese women would seem to point to a cultural influence on this attitude.

This table also shows a contrast between Chinese and British in the degree of importance which the younger age groups attach to cosmetics. The British attach importance to cosmetics at an earlier age than the Chinese. However, this difference is less pronounced in the later age group (age 27-29). In other words, the Chinese young women eventually catch up with their British counterparts when they get older. If we look at the figures for each national group, we see a sharp contrast between Taiwan and China. These figures indicate that Taiwanese young women start to attach a relatively high level of importance to cosmetics from the earliest age onwards. Indeed, this compares favourably with the level to be found among young British women (where there is actually a small decrease from 44.1% to 39.0% with age). The sharp contrast between Taiwan and China would seem to indicate a significant difference in cultural influences. This would suggest that Western influence plays an important part in forming attitudes to the importance of cosmetics among young Taiwanese women.

3. Influencing factor of income level

Table 8.6 below shows levels of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among Chinese and British young women who responded "Strongly agree" and "Agree", differentiated according to income level. This table indicates a steady increase in fashion-consciousness among young Chinese women with rise in income. In the case of young British women, there is a sharp increase in fashion-consciousness from income levels 1 and 2 to level 3. However, as there were only two respondents for income level 3, no great importance can be attached to the figure for this level. For Taiwan, we see an overall increase in fashion-consciousness with rise in income. In China, among income level 4 respondents we also see a strong increase.

Table 8.6:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among those responding "Strong agree" and "Agree" (by income level)

	Income levels	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Fashion-consciousness	Income level 1	25.7%	54.8%	29.9%	21.9%	54.8%
	Income level 2	24.7%	57.5%	39.3%	11.6%	57.5%
	Income level 3	33.2%	100.0%	38.8%	19.4%	100.0%
	Income level 4	40.6%	-	40.5%	41.0%	-
Importance of cosmetics	Income level 1	31.5%	40.3%	36.5%	26.7%	40.3%
	Income level 2	26.5%	38.3%	43.2%	11.4%	38.3%
	Income level 3	38.4%	50.0%	44.9%	22.4%	50.0%
	Income level 4	50.2%	-	53.3%	44.3%	-

Note: the above table is a condensed version of two other tables. For the original tables, see Appendix 7, Tables 2-1 and 2-2.

Table 8.6 also shows that quite a high number (50.2%) of Chinese women in income level 4 attach great importance to cosmetics. Among Taiwanese respondents, there is a steady increase in importance attached to cosmetics as income levels rise. In both Taiwan and China, quite a high number (53.3% and 44.3%) of income level 4 respondents attach great importance to cosmetics. Here, it is interesting to discover that the number of young women in income level 4 in China who attach great importance to cosmetics is quite high compared to those in all three lower levels of income. In the case of the UK, there are quite high numbers of young women who attach great importance to cosmetics in all the income levels surveyed. As there was only one respondent from income level 3, no great important can be attached to the figure (50%).

In conclusion here, it can be said that there is an overall increase in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics among Chinese young women as income level rises. In contrast, in the UK there is no similar increase in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics with increase in income level. The fact that these attitudinal characteristics are quite strong among young British women in all the income levels surveyed would appear to be evidence of cultural difference between the UK on the one hand and China and Taiwan on the other.

4. Influencing factor of education level

The following table shows levels of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among Chinese and British young women who responded "Strongly agree" and "Agree", differentiated according to education level.

Table 8.7:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among those responding "Strong agree" and "Agree" (by education level)

	Education levels	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Fashion-consciousness	Education level 1	30.4%	57.4%	36.0%	13.7%	57.4%
	Education level 2	22.1%	54.3%	39.1%	13.4%	54.3%
	Education level 3	26.7%	52.2%	43.8%	24.9%	52.2%
Importance of cosmetics	Education level 1	36.2%	53.7%	44.3%	11.7%	53.7%
	Education level 2	25.5%	38.6%	46.6%	14.7%	38.6%
	Education level 3	26.8%	32.6%	31.3%	26.2%	32.6%

Note: the above table is a condensed version of two other tables. For the original tables, see Appendix 7, Tables 3-1 and 3-2.

Among young Chinese women, as we have seen above (Table 8.6), there is an increase in fashion-consciousness and the importance they attach to cosmetics as income rises. However, as can be seen from Table 8.7, difference in level of education does not appear to be a significant factor in determining level of fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics either among Chinese or among British respondents. British respondents generally exhibited greater fashion-consciousness and regard for cosmetics than the Chinese. This would appear to provide evidence of a cultural difference between the two national groups.

A difference can be seen between Chinese in Taiwan and mainland China. Taiwanese respondents at all education levels showed stronger fashion-consciousness and attached a higher degree of importance to cosmetics than respondents in mainland China. This would also seem to point to a cultural difference, this time between Taiwan and China. A likely explanation would be that Taiwan is more strongly influenced by Western culture than China.

8.2.2 Testing the fifth hypothesis

As was seen in Chapter 3, shopping around is a feature of traditional Chinese culture affecting the purchasing behaviour of consumers. The Chinese consumer, in deciding which goods to buy, customarily in the past has always tried to look for the best quality at the best price. In Chapter 3 and 5 it was pointed out that the practice of shopping around can be seen also as a feature of the behaviour of Western consumers to a certain extent, although Western society has developed differently from Chinese society.

In comparing the two societies from this point of view, it is interesting to clarify to what extent and for what particular reasons young British women shop around when purchasing cosmetics. It is also of interest here to discover whether the young generation of Chinese women in mainland China today still maintain the traditional custom of shopping around. If this were to be the case, then it could be argued that the strictly applied communist ideology following the setting up of the People's Republic of China merely drove this traditional custom underground and that it resurfaced after the introduction of the Open Door Policy. Young Chinese women in Taiwan, however, were never subjected to the same restrictions as their mainland China counterparts. It is necessary here to discover whether the young generation of Taiwanese women still observe the traditional practice of shopping around.

The fifth hypothesis to be tested, therefore, concerns the practice of shopping around:

> ***Young Chinese women (mainland Chinese and Taiwanese) shop around when buying cosmetics, whereas young British women purchase cosmetics at their own favourite shops.***

8.2.2.1 The practice of shopping around

Table 8.8 below shows the extent to which the practice of shopping around is prevalent among young Chinese and British women. As can be seen, 45.9% of Chinese respondents state that they shop around. This contrasts with the figure of 53.4% for British respondents. These figures indicate that searching for goods of superior quality at the best price is a common phenomenon worldwide. For this reason, the third hypothesis is rejected. It would appear that "**the young British female takes the idea of shopping around even more seriously than the Chinese**".

Table 8.8: **Shopping around seen in socio-cultural and national terms**

Shopping around		Socio-cultural difference			National difference			
		Chinese	British	Total	Taiwan	China	UK	Total
Yes	Count	567	179	746	356	211	179	746
	Percentage	45.9%	53.4%	47.5%	59.0%	33.4%	53.4%	47.5%
No	Count	667	156	823	247	420	156	823
	Percentage	54.1%	46.6%	52.5%	41.0%	66.6%	46.6%	52.5%
Total	Count	1234	335	1569	603	631	335	1569
	Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

If we examine the figures in Table 8.8 for the three countries, we can see that there is a big difference between Taiwan (59%) and mainland China (33.4%). From this it is possible to argue that the young generation of Chinese women in Taiwan still maintains the old traditional custom of shopping around. On the other hand it is possible that the reasons for shopping around nowadays have nothing to do with traditional Chinese culture. The figure of 33.4% for young Chinese women in mainland China suggests that shopping around has not disappeared, although it cannot be seen as a dominant factor in that society.

Table 8.9 shows the Chi-square test for the difference in practicing of shopping around between young Chinese and British females in socio-cultural and national terms.

Table 8.9:

Pearson Chi-Square test for difference in practicing of shopping around in socio-cultural and national terms

Pearson Chi-Square test		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	No. of Valid Cases
Shopping around	Socio-cultural difference	5.918	1	.015	1569
	National difference	86.938	2	.000	1569

The Pearson Chi-Square test shows Asymp.sig (2-sided) values in socio-cultural difference and national terms of .015 and .000, both below 0.05, thus statistically significant. Therefore, the relationship between Chinese and British young females and females in the three countries is significant as regards the practice of shopping around when buying consumer goods, including cosmetics.

8.2.2.2 Motives in comparing goods when shopping around for cosmetics

As we have seen above, shopping around is a common practice with Chinese and British young women. Since shopping around consists primarily of comparing goods on offer in different outlets, it is of some importance to discover the main motivating factors in comparing goods. This information is particularly important for manufacturers and marketers in cosmetic industry. Table 8.10 shows the count and percentage figures for the various motivating factors when comparing goods and Table 8.11 shows the same motivating factors in order of priority. As in previous tables the comparison is in socio-cultural terms (Chinese – British) and national terms (Taiwan ROC – China PRC – UK).

Table 8.10:

Motivating factors in shopping around (by nationality)

Motivating factors	Chinese		British (UK)		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Price	426	26.9%	155	35.46%	310	26.41%	116	28.36%
Brand	351	22.17%	64	14.65%	240	20.44%	111	27.14%
Packaging	101	6.38%	12	2.75%	72	6.13%	29	7.09%
Quality	362	22.87%	84	19.22%	276	23.51%	86	21.03%
Content	203	12.82%	34	7.78%	174	14.82%	29	7.09%
Promotional gifts	131	8.28%	78	17.85%	94	8.01%	37	9.05%
Other purpose	9	0.57%	10	2.29%	8	0.68%	1	0.24%
Total	1583	100%	437	100%	1174	100%	409	100%

Note: The usable questionnaires for analysis are 645 for China; 644 for Taiwan; and 343 for the UK. The reason why the total count figures are bigger than the number of the usable questionnaires in each country is that there is more than one choice available for respondents to select in certain questions.

Table 8-11:

Motivating factors in order of priority

	Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
1	Price (26.9%)	Price (35.46%)	Price (26.41%)	Price (28.36%)
2	Quality (22.87%)	Quality (19.22%)	Quality (23.51%)	Brand (27.14%)
3	Brand (22.17%)	Promotional gifts (17.85%)	Brand (20.44%)	Quality (21.03%)
4	Content (12.82%)	Brand (14.65%)	Content (14.82%)	Promotional gifts (9.05%)
5	Promotional gifts (8.28%)	Content (7.78%)	Promotional gifts (8.01%)	Packaging (7.09%)
6	Packaging (6.38%)	Packaging (2.75%)	Packaging (6.13%)	Content (7.09%)
7	Other purpose (0.57%)	Other purpose (2.29%)	Other purpose (0.68%)	Other purpose (0.24%)

As can be seen from Table 8.11, price is the most important criterion for Chinese and British respondents alike. The second most important criterion is quality for British and Taiwanese, and brand for Chinese in mainland China. The third criterion in order of importance is, for British, promotional gifts; for Taiwanese it is brand; and for Chinese in mainland China it is quality.

It is interesting to see that British young females are more attracted by promotional gifts than the Chinese (17.85% as opposed to 8.28%). As regards brand, it is also interesting to see that this criterion is in fourth place among British respondents, whereas it is third for the Taiwanese and second for Chinese in mainland China. An explanation of the higher rating given to brand among Chinese respondents could be that brand carries with it an indication of status and prestige and that these are contributory factors in the concept of face — an important part of Chinese culture. This phenomenon can be supported in Table 8.12 showing the degree of concern about brand and status among Chinese and British young females. The common attitude is the belief that if one uses the best brand of cosmetics, one's image and social status will be enhanced.

Table 8.12: **Chinese and British young females: degree of concern about brand and status connection (by nationality)**

			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Brand and status connection	Chinese	Count	80	212	499	310	140	1241
		Percentage	6.4%	17.1%	40.2%	25.0%	11.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	15	32	70	108	106	331
		Percentage	4.5%	9.7%	21.1%	32.6%	32.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	27	111	174	204	88	604
		Percentage	4.5%	18.4%	28.8%	33.8%	14.6%	100.0%
	China	Count	53	101	325	106	52	637
		Percentage	8.3%	15.9%	51.0%	16.6%	8.2%	100.0%

Table 8.12 shows that among the "Strongly agree" and "Agree" groups of respondents, the Chinese young females are more convinced than the British of the connection between brand and status (23.5% of Chinese; 14.2% of British). Comparing the three countries, the mainland Chinese show the most concern (24.2%); Taiwan slightly less (22.9%) and the UK the least (14.2%).

Table 8.13 below provides details regarding the other criteria for comparing goods while shopping around for cosmetics among Chinese and British young women.

Table 8.13: **Other criteria for comparing goods while shopping around for cosmetics**

Chinese	British
• Friends' recommendations • Preferred colour • Help from sales assistants • Suitability for type of skin • Non-allergic properties	• Freedom from testing on animals • Range and variety of colour • Suitability for type of skin

8.2.2.3 Motivating factors in purchase decisions by Chinese and British respondents

Table 8.14 shows the priority of motivating factors which influence purchasing decisions among Chinese and British respondents.

Table 8.14: **Motivating factors in making purchasing decisions for various cosmetics**

		Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances
Chinese	1	Friends' advice (21.8%)	My knowledge (23.41%)	Personal preference (20.04%)	Personal preference (26.59%)
	2	My knowledge (17.64%)	Friends' advice (18.76%)	My knowledge (18.89%)	My knowledge (18.72%)
	3	Personal preference (16.1%)	Personal preference (15.43%)	Friends' advice (16.23%)	Friends' advice (18.28%)
	4	T.V advertising (13.83%)	T.V advertising (12.56%)	T.V advertising (15.04%)	T.V advertising (11.65%)
	5	Sales advice (9.21%)	Sales advice (9.69%)	Special offers (9.84%)	Special offers (9.01%)
	6	Special offers (8.24%)	Special offers (7.98%)	Sales advice (7.17%)	Sales advice (6.47%)
	7	Magazines (6.36%)	Magazines (4.88%)	Price (5.37%)	Price (4.37%)
	8	Price (4.54%)	Price (4.81%)	Magazines (4.34%)	Magazines (3.99%)
	9	Radio advertising (2.16%)	Radio advertising (2.36%)	Radio advertising (2.95%)	Radio advertising (0.76%)
	10	Other factors (0.12%)	Other factors (0.12%)	Other factors (0.12%)	Other factors (0.16%)
British	1	Personal preference (21.12%)	Personal preference (19.15%)	Personal preference (24.12%)	Personal preference (30.65%)
	2	My knowledge (14.67%)	My knowledge (18.41%)	Special offers (17.76%)	My knowledge (12.41%)
	3	Friends' advice (13.46%)	Friends' advice (11.11%)	My knowledge (16.71%)	Friends' advice (11.76%)
	4	Price (11.87%)	T.V advertising (10.69%)	Price (13.06%)	Magazines (10.83%)
	5	Magazines (11.12%)	Price (10.48%)	T.V advertising (10.23%)	Price (10.44%)
	6	Special offers (9.16%)	Magazines (9.69%)	Magazines (8.12%)	Special offers (9.91%)
	7	Sales advice (8.88%)	Special offers (9.42%)	Friends' advice (6.12%)	T.V advertising (8.85%)
	8	T.V advertising (8.41%)	Sales advice (9.1%)	Sales advice (2.47%)	Sales advice (3.83%)
	9	Other factors (0.75%)	Other factors (1.16%)	Other factors (0.82%)	Other factors (0.79%)
	10	Radio advertising (0.56%)	Radio advertising (0.85%)	Radio advertising (0.59%)	Radio advertising (0.53%)

As can be seen in Table 8.14, in the case of Chinese young women a very important influence was friends' advice. In the case of British young women, friends' advice was ranked lower. This would appear to indicate a difference in culture between Chinese and British.

Table 8.15 compares the motivating factors in the purchase of cosmetics by Taiwanese and mainland Chinese young women. This table shows that the three influencing factors that were given high priority by both Taiwanese and mainland Chinese young women were: friends' advice, previous knowledge of the product and personal preference. That friends' advice occupies a very high ranking in order of priority here indicates the strong influence of friends in daily life. It could be argued that the high priority given to friends' advice is connected to the Chinese concern for face: one follows the advice of friends, especially in choosing a brand, in order to avoid losing face in the group.

Table 8.15: **Motivating factors: a comparison of Taiwanese and mainland Chinese young women**

		Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances
Taiwan	1	My knowledge (19.06%)	My knowledge (26.25%)	My knowledge (19.55%)	Personal preference (34.75%)
	2	Friends' advice (18.29%)	Friends' advice (16.08%)	Personal preference (19.55%)	My knowledge (20.7%)
	3	Personal preference (13.68%)	Personal preference (12.3%)	T.V advertising (14.56%)	Friends' advice (11.06%)
	4	T.V advertising (11.45%)	Sales advice (11.16%)	Special offers (12.12%)	Special offers (8.85%)
	5	Special offers (9.4%)	Special offers (8.78%)	Friends' advice (9.67%)	Price (8.53%)
	6	Price (8.8%)	T.V advertising (8.61%)	Price (9.57%)	Magazines (5.53%)
	7	Sales advice (8.55%)	Price (8.37%)	Magazines (6.31%)	T.V advertising (5.06%)
	8	Magazines (7.69%)	Magazines (5.91%)	Radio advertising (4.48)	Sales advice (4.74%)
	9	Radio advertising (2.82%)	Radio advertising (2.3%)	Sales advice (3.87%)	Other factors (0.47%)
	10	Other factors (0.26%)	Other factors (0.24%)	Other factors (0.31%)	Radio advertising (0.31%)
China	1	Friends' advice (24.68%)	Friends' advice (21.16%)	Friends' advice (20.64%)	Personal preference (22.36%)
	2	Personal preference (18.09%)	My knowledge (20.87%)	Personal preference (20.37%)	Friends' advice (22.03%)
	3	My knowledge (16.48%)	Personal preference (18.22%)	My knowledge (18.45%)	My knowledge (17.69%)
	4	T.V advertising (15.78%)	T.V advertising (16.09%)	T.V advertising (15.36%)	T.V advertising (15.07%)
	5	Sales advice (9.75%)	Sales advice (8.38%)	Sales advice (9.4%)	Special offers (9.09%)
	6	Special offers (7.29%)	Special offers (7.27%)	Special offers (8.3%)	Sales advice (7.37%)
	7	Magazines (5.26%)	Magazines (3.97%)	Magazines (3.02%)	Magazines (3.19%)
	8	Radio advertising (1.61%)	Radio advertising (2.42%)	Price (2.54%)	Price (2.21%)
	9	Price (1.05%)	Price (1.62%)	Radio advertising (1.92%)	Radio advertising (0.98%)
	10	Other factors (0%)	Other factors (0%)	Other factors (0%)	Other factors (0%)

Table 8.16 below provides details regarding the other motivating factors in making purchasing decision for various cosmetics among Chinese and British young women.

Table 8.16:

Other motivating factors in making purchasing decision for various cosmetics

Chinese	British
• Preferred colour • Suitability for type of skin • New products	• Freedom from testing on animals • Range and variety of colour • Suitability for type of skin • Knowledge and expertise of shop assistant • Package • Products suitable for sensitive or problematic skin (cf. Eczema) • Sample available

8.2.2.4 Place of purchase

The retail outlets most favoured by consumers when making their purchase is of considerable importance to distribution planning by suppliers. Table 8.17 below summarizes details of place of purchase for cosmetic products.

As can be seen from Table 8.17, respondents in all three countries expressed strong preferences in their choice of outlet when buying cosmetics. The Chinese in mainland China and Taiwan stated a preference for purchasing their make-up, skincare products and fragrances in departmental stores (around one half of those questioned), but bought their toiletries mainly in supermarkets (around one half of respondents in Taiwan and more than one third in mainland China). In contrast to the Chinese, British respondents showed in some ways a more equally balanced set of preferences. For example, roughly thirty percent of respondents bought their make-up and skincare products mainly in three outlets: departmental stores, pharmacies and cosmetic supplier shops for purchasing make-up; and pharmacies, departmental stores and supermarkets for purchasing skincare products. They purchased their toiletries mainly in supermarkets (around one half) and pharmacies (almost one third); departmental stores were not favoured. However, the latter was their preferred outlet for purchasing fragrances (almost one half of respondents).

Table 8.17:

Place of purchase by Chinese and British respondents showing rankings and percentages

Products		Pharmacy	Supermarket	Department store	Boutique	Cosmetic supplier shop	Beauty /hair salon	Other
Make-up:	Chinese	⑦ (0.58~1.47%)	④ (5.84~11.14%)	① (49.03~59.95%)	③ (9.55~17.23%)	② (17.66~19.89%)	⑤ (1.14~2.65%)	⑥ (1.04~1.59%)
Lipsticks Nail polish Eye shadow	British (UK)	② (24.07~35.51%)	④ (3.64~8.72%)	① (25.86~36.61%)	⑤ (2.03~4.67%)	③ (21.81~28.14%)	⑦ (0~0.84%)	⑥ (2.71~4%)
Blush/rouge Face powder Foundation	Taiwan	⑦ (0.58~1.47%)	③ (1.83~7.44%)	① (50~63.16%)	④ (4.72~7.02%)	② (25.54~30.99%)	⑥ (0.82~1.96%)	⑤ (2.28~2.79%)
	China	⑥ (0.58~1.47%)	③ (11.36~14.59%)	① (41.8~55.52%)	② (15.77~27.09%)	④ (8.58~12.38%)	⑤ (1.48~4.18%)	⑦ (0~0.18%)
Skincare products:	Chinese	⑥ (2.17~3.23%)	③ (13.27~16.65%)	① (49.54~50.32%)	④ (8.18~12.34%)	② (16.35~17.79%)	⑤ (2.95~3.58%)	⑦ (1.33~1.6%)
Cleansing cream/lotion	British (UK)	① (27.2~31.9%)	③ (22.61~25.22%)	② (21.45~25.67%)	⑦ (1.45~1.92%)	④ (15.07~18.77%)	⑥ (1.53~3.03%)	⑤ (2.3~3.19%)
Toner/astringent Moisturising cream/lotion	Taiwan	⑦ (0.58~1.47%)	③ (8.74~12.6%)	① (51.45~55.02%)	④ (4.52~4.68%)	② (23.26~24.56%)	⑤ (3.88~4.36%)	⑥ (2.42~2.59%)
	China	⑤ (3.1~6%)	② (19.27~22.3%)	① (44.11~46.85%)	③ (13.29~20.52%)	④ (7.59~9.21%)	⑥ (1.71~2.93%)	⑦ (0.17~0.22%)
Toiletries :	Chinese	⑥ (1.34~1.79%)	① (45.61~16.65%)	② (23.84~24.31%)	④ (7.97~12.13%)	③ (11.81~13.41%)	⑤ (1.09~3.17%)	⑦ (1.33~1.6%)
Shampoo Hair conditioner	British (UK)	② (26.81~29.98%)	① (50.53~53.89%)	④ (6.61~7.36%)	⑦ (0.53~0.8%)	③ (9.26~9.54%)	⑤ (0.27~4.23%)	⑥ (1.06 1.61%)
Soap/shower gel	Taiwan	⑦ (2.17~2.46%)	① (56.09~59.26%)	③ (12.09~12.88%)	⑤ (2.93~3.38%)	② (18.14~18..52%)	④ (1.61~5.12%)	⑥ (2.09~2.63%)
	China	⑤ (0.35~1.37%)	① (36.57~42.58%)	② (33.38~37.78%)	③ (13.16~20.08%)	④ (4.54~8.38%)	⑥ (0.52~1.03%)	⑦ (0%)
Fragrances :	Chinese	⑦ (0.76~1.14%)	③ (8.93~26.59%)	① (49.32~50.9%)	② (10.68~20.23%)	④ (8.64~16.33%)	⑥ (0.86~1.36%)	⑤ (1.99~2.27%)
Perfume	British (UK)	② (16.72~17.65%)	⑥ (2.74~3.14%)	① (42.25~44.31%)	⑤ (8.23~10.94%)	③ (12.16~14.89%)	⑦ (0.39~0.61%)	④ (11.85~14.12%)
Eau de Toilette/cologne	Taiwan	⑦ (0%)	⑤ (3.24~3.91%)	① (48.44~57.09%)	③ (12.14~14.84%)	② (22.66~22.67%)	⑥ (0.4~2.34%)	④ (3.85~7.81%)
	China	⑤ (0.89~1.6%)	② (13.95~35.9%)	① (45.44~49.68%)	③ (15.77~27.09%)	④ (2.89~10.73%)	⑥ (0.96~1.25%)	⑦ (0%)

In all three countries, there were some respondents who said that they bought their cosmetic products in places other than those indicated in Table 8.17. Table 8.18 below shows these less popular outlets.

Table 8.18: **Other places of purchase**

British	Chinese
• Market stall • Discount store • Duty free shop • Direct selling by agent • Health shop • Mail order	• Market stall • Discount store • Duty free shop • Direct selling by agent • Cosmetic counter in clothes retailer • State commissary stores for government employees and school teachers • Hypermarket*

* A very large supermarket which is often built outside a town or city offering goods at a price lower than supermarkets in general.

Information concerning respondents' choice of retail outlet not only presents marketers with important data for planning future operations but also points to a significant cultural difference between the Chinese and British. The fact that mainland Chinese and Taiwanese customers prefer departmental stores as their favourite place for purchasing cosmetics can be explained by the cultural norm of face. Departmental stores provide branded goods which confer prestige and offer a fashionable and popular place in which to be seen by others.

8.2.3 Testing the sixth hypothesis

It was seen in Chapter 5 that although present-giving performs a wider social function in Chinese society than in the West, it is a worldwide cultural norm. As is well-known generally, for Western societies the most important and popular festive occasion in the year is Christmas. In Chinese society, the equivalent of Christmas is the Lunar New Year, which occurs usually in February. As regards the other occasions, such as weddings and birthdays, it is customary to give presents in both Western and Chinese societies.

The main area of difference between present-giving in these societies lies more in the popularity enjoyed by certain types of gift. Therefore, the main purpose here is to examine the differing popularity ratings of certain gifts, including cosmetics. The sixth hypothesis to be tested is: "***In both Chinese society and British society cosmetics are a customary form of gift on festive occasions***".

8.2.3.1 Present-giving

1. New Year and Christmas present-giving

Table 8.19 shows the popularity of various gifts at the Lunar New Year and Christmas. As can be seen from this table, at the Lunar New Year the top six presents for Chinese respondents in order of priority are: clothing/shoes, gifts of money, fruits, food/drink, ***cosmetics*** and toys/games, and flowers/plants. For British respondents the top six presents at Christmas are: music tapes/CD, books, fashion accessories, ***cosmetics***, toys/games, and clothing/shoes. From this we can see that cosmetics is a popular form of gift on the main festive occasion of the year in both societies.

Table 8.19: **New Year and Christmas present giving (by nationality)**

Kinds of presents	New Year (Chinese)		Christmas (British)		New Year (Taiwan)		New year (China)	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Clothing/shoes	187	① 18.68%	169	⑥ 10.15%	102	② 17.83%	85	① 19.81%
Fashion accessories	54	5.39%	203	③ 12.19%	37	⑤ 6.47%	17	3.96%
Cosmetics	64	⑤ 6.39%	178	④ 10.69%	26	4.55%	38	⑤ 8.86%
Food/drink	110	④ 10.99%	132	7.93%	66	③ 11.54%	44	④ 10.26%
Flowers/plants	62	⑥ 6.19%	79	4.75%	37	⑤ 6.47%	25	5.83%
Fruits	130	③ 12.99%	13	0.78%	59	④ 10.31%	71	② 16.55%
Furniture & soft furnishings	33	3.30%	40	2.40%	15	2.62%	18	4.20%
Electrical goods	39	3.90%	87	5.23%	23	4.02%	16	3.73%
Gifts of money	180	② 17.98%	124	7.45%	133	① 23.25%	47	③ 10.96%
Toys/games	64	⑤ 6.39%	177	⑤ 10.63%	34	⑥ 5.94%	30	⑥ 6.99%
Books	40	4.0%	214	② 12.85%	20	3.50%	20	4.66%
Music tapes/CD	33	3.30%	237	① 14.23%	16	2.80%	17	3.96%
Other items	5	0.50%	12	0.72%	4	0.70%	1	0.23%
Total	1001	100%	1665	100%	572	100%	429	100%

2. Wedding-present giving

In Table 8.20 below, wedding-present giving in Chinese society is compared with that in British society, and comparison is made also between Taiwan and mainland China. The top six presents for weddings in order of priority in Chinese society are: gifts of money, electrical goods, ***cosmetics***, food/drink, furniture & soft furnishings, and fashion accessories. For British respondents the top six wedding-presents are: electrical goods, gifts of money, furniture & soft furnishings, flowers/plants, food/drink, and books. In Taiwan, the top six wedding-presents are: gifts of money, electrical goods, furniture & soft furnishings, fashion accessories, ***cosmetics***, and flowers/plants. In China, again gifts of money are the most popular present followed by ***cosmetics***, electrical goods, fashion accessories, fruits, and furniture & soft furnishings and music tapes/CD.

From this we see that cosmetics are a popular form of gift at weddings in Chinese society, especially in mainland China. In contrast, in British society, cosmetics as wedding-gifts are not popular.

Table 8.20: **Wedding-present giving (by nationality)**

Kinds of presents	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Clothing/shoes	7	0.54%	4	0.88%	25	3.83%	12	1.83%
Fashion accessories	74	⑥ 5.66%	11	2.41%	76	④ 11.64%	44	④ 6.71%
Cosmetics	149	③ 11.39%	9	1.97%	47	⑤ 7.20%	89	② 13.59%
Food/drink	89	④ 6.80%	18	⑤ 3.95%	11	1.69%	27	4.12%
Flowers/plants	72	5.50%	50	④ 10.97%	46	⑥ 7.04%	33	5.04%
Fruits	68	5.20%	6	1.32%	13	1.99%	37	⑤ 5.65%
Furniture & soft furnishings	87	⑤ 6.65%	94	③ 20.61%	91	③ 13.94%	36	⑥ 5.50%
Electrical goods	191	② 14.60%	123	① 26.97%	116	② 17.76%	52	③ 7.94%
Gifts of money	448	① 34.25%	100	② 21.93%	205	① 31.39%	228	① 34.81%
Toys/games	40	3.06%	8	1.75%	4	0.61%	33	5.04%
Books	34	2.60%	14	⑥ 3.07%	7	1.07%	27	4.12%
Music tapes/CD	46	3.52%	11	2.41%	10	1.53%	36	⑥ 5.50%
Other items	3	0.23%	8	1.75%	2	0.31%	1	0.15%
Total	1308	100%	456	100%	653	100%	655	100%

3. Birthday-present giving

Table 8.21 below shows a closer similarity in responses to the questions about birthday-present giving. The top six birthday-presents in Chinese society are first clothing/shoes followed by fashion accessories, ***cosmetics***, books, music tapes/CD and toys/games. In British society the ranking is different but the items are the same: music tapes/CD, fashion accessories, books, ***cosmetics***, toys/games and clothing/shoes. Here, again we can see that ***cosmetics*** is a popular form of gift for birthdays in both Chinese and British societies.

Table 8.21: **Birthday-present giving (by nationality)**

Kinds of presents	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Clothing/shoes	344	① 13.60%	169	⑥ 9.44%	198	③ 13.42%	146	① 13.85%
Fashion accessories	337	② 13.32%	227	② 12.67%	247	① 16.75%	90	⑤ 8.54%
Cosmetics	288	③ 11.39%	185	④ 10.32%	203	② 13.76%	85	⑥ 8.06%
Food/drink	141	5.58%	119	6.64%	62	4.20%	79	7.50%
Flowers/plants	208	8.22%	165	9.21%	143	⑥ 9.70%	65	6.17%
Fruits	118	4.67%	15	0.84%	43	2.92%	75	7.12%
Furniture & soft furnishings	75	2.97%	39	2.18%	27	1.83%	48	4.55%
Electrical goods	97	3.83%	73	4.08%	39	2.64%	58	5.50%
Gifts of money	163	6.44%	145	8.10%	73	4.95%	90	⑤ 8.54%
Toys/games	223	⑥ 8.82%	171	⑤ 9.55%	119	8.07%	104	③ 9.87%
Books	287	④ 11.35%	223	③ 12.45%	168	④ 11.39%	119	② 11.29%
Music tapes/CD	242	⑤ 9.57%	252	① 14.07%	148	⑤ 10.03%	94	④ 8.92%
Other items	6	0.24%	8	0.45%	5	0.34%	1	0.09%
Total	2529	100%	1791	100%	1475	100%	1054	100%

4. Presents for other occasions

Table 8.22 shows the ranking of the six most popular presents for other occasions in the year.

Table 8.22: **Presents for other occasions (by nationality)**

Kinds of presents	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Clothing/shoes	83	⑥ 7.55%	20	5.48%	32	⑥ 5.67%	51	⑤ 9.53%
Fashion accessories	36	3.28%	34	④ 9.31%	29	5.14%	7	1.31%
Cosmetics	84	⑤ 7.64%	19	5.21%	42	③ 7.45%	42	⑥ 7.85%
Food/drink	168	② 15.29%	60	② 16.44%	102	② 18.08%	66	③ 12.34%
Flowers/plants	93	④ 8.46%	64	① 17.53%	53	9.40%	40	7.48%
Fruits	176	① 16.01%	16	4.38%	104	① 18.44%	72	② 13.46%
Furniture & soft furnishings	49	4.46%	6	1.64%	27	4.79%	22	4.11%
Electrical goods	45	4.10%	10	2.74%	26	4.61%	19	3.55%
Gifts of money	76	6.92%	30	⑤ 8.22%	38	⑤ 6.74%	38	7.10%
Toys/games	122	③ 11.1%	22	⑥ 6.03%	27	4.79%	95	① 17.75%
Books	93	④ 8.46%	40	③ 10.96%	40	④ 7.09%	53	④ 9.91%
Music tapes/CD	72	6.55%	40	③ 10.96%	42	③ 7.45%	30	5.61%
Other items	2	0.18%	4	1.10%	2	0.35%	0	0%
Total	1099	100%	365	100%	564	100%	535	100%

Form Table 8.22 it can be seen that the ranking of the six most popular presents in Chinese society for other occasions is fruits, food/drink, toys/games, books and flowers/plants, ***cosmetics*** and clothing/shoes. The six most popular presents for other occasions in British society are flowers/plants, food/drink, books and music tapes/CD, fashion accessories, gifts of money and toys/games. Cosmetics are absent from the above list, although Table 8.22 shows that cosmetics do have a ranking in British society but outside the top six.

Table 8.23 below summarises the comparison between Chinese and British society and between Taiwan and China, as regards present-giving at all times of the year

Table 8.23: **The top six presents chosen by Chinese and British respondents in order of priority (by nationality)**

Occasions	Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
Christmas and Lunar New Year	Lunar New Year 1. Clothing/shoes 2. Gift of money 3. Fruits 4. Food/drink 5. ***Cosmetics*** Toys/games 6. Flowers/plants	Christmas 1. Music tapes/CD 2. Books 3. Fashion accessories ***4. Cosmetics*** 5. Toys/games 6. Clothing/shoes	Lunar New Year 1. Gifts of money 2. Clothing/shoes 3. Food/drink 4. Fruits 5. Fashion accessories Flowers/plants 6. Toys/games	Lunar New Year 1. Clothing/shoes 2. Fruits 3. Gifts of money 4. Food/drink ***5. Cosmetics*** 6. Toys/games
Wedding	1. Gifts of money 2. Electrical goods ***3. Cosmetics*** 4. Food/drink 5. Furniture & soft furnishings 6. Fashion accessories	1. Electrical goods 2. Gifts of money 3. Furniture & soft furnishings 4. Flowers/plants 5. Food/drink 6. Books	1. Gifts of money 2. Electrical goods 3. Furniture & soft furnishings 4. Fashion accessories ***5. Cosmetics*** 6. Flowers/plants	1. Gifts of money ***2. Cosmetics*** 3. Electrical goods 4. Fashion accessories 5. Fruits 6. Furniture & soft furnishings Music tapes/CD
Birthday	1. Clothing/shoes 2. Fashion accessories ***3. Cosmetics*** 4. Books 5. Music tapes/CD 6. Toys/games	1. Music tapes/CD 2. Fashion accessories 3. Books ***4. Cosmetics*** 5. Toys/games 6. Clothing/shoes	1. Fashion accessories ***2. Cosmetics*** 3. Clothing/shoes 4. Books 5. Music tapes/CD 6. Flowers/plants	1. Clothing/shoes 2. Books 3. Toys/games 4. Music tapes/CD 5. Gifts of money Fashion accessories ***6. Cosmetics***
Other occasions	1. Fruits 2. Food/drink 3. Toys/games 4. Books Flowers/plants ***5. Cosmetics*** 6. Clothing/shoes	1. Flowers/plants 2. Food/drink 3. Books Music tapes/CD 4. Fashion accessories 5. Gifts of money 6. Toys/games	1. Fruits 2. Food/drink ***3. Cosmetics*** Music tapes/CD 4. Books 5. Gifts of money 6. Clothing/shoes	1. Toys/games 2. Fruits 3. Food/drink 4. Books 5. Clothing/shoes ***6. Cosmetics***

From the above it can be seen that there is support for the sixth hypothesis:

"In both Chinese society and British society cosmetics are a customary form of gift on festive occasions".

In all three countries, there were some respondents who said that they gave other items as presents on festive occasions. The following table provides details regarding these other items.

Table 8.24: **Other items given as presents on festive occasions**

Festive occasions	British	Chinese
Christmas and Lunar New Year	Christmas: • House accessories, e.g. mirrors • Ornaments • Gift vouchers • Gift tokens • Gardening products • Sentimental items • Novelty • Videos • Computer software and accessories	Lunar New Year: • Cards • Sanitary towels • Depends on the receivers' preference
Wedding	• Gift vouchers • Gift tokens • Glass ware • Gardening products • Cooking staff, e.g. crockery bowls, etc.	• Photo frames • Depends on the receivers' preference
Birthday	• Gift vouchers • Ornaments • Video • Gardening products • Computer software and accessories	• Depends on the receivers' preference • Rucksack
Other occasions	• Novelty • Photo frames • Candle sticks • Carvings	• Depends on the receivers' preference • Gift sets, e.g. toiletries and towels, moon cakes, etc.

8.2.3.2 The popularity of different cosmetics selected as gifts

It is of some importance to commercial enterprises to discover which particular cosmetic products are most frequently chosen as gifts on the various occasions in the year by young Chinese and British females.

1. Types of cosmetics chosen as New Year and Christmas presents

Table 8.25 below shows the popularity ranking of various cosmetic products bought as presents at the Lunar New Year and at Christmas. The top six cosmetic products chosen by Chinese respondents for the Lunar New Year are lipstick, perfume, face powder, moisturising cream/lotion, foundation, and cleansing cream/lotion. For the British respondents the top six products chosen as Christmas presents are perfume, eau de toilette/cologne, nail polish, lipstick, moisturising cream/lotion and eye shadow.

Table 8.25:

Cosmetics as New Year and Christmas presents (by nationality)

Products	New Year (Chinese)		Christmas (British)		New Year (Taiwan)		New year (China)	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Lipstick	142	① 19.29%	98	④ 10.10%	77	① 21.88%	65	① 16.93%
Nail polish	32	4.35%	121	③ 12.47%	20	⑤ 5.68%	12	3.12%
Eye shadow	37	5.03%	73	⑥ 7.53%	16	4.54%	21	5.47%
Blush/rouge	39	5.30%	38	3.92%	18	5.11%	21	5.47%
Face powder	53	③ 7.20%	34	3.50%	17	4.83%	36	③ 9.38%
Foundation	49	⑤ 6.66%	37	3.81%	16	4.54%	33	④ 8.59%
Cleansing cream/lotion	47	⑥ 6.39%	51	5.26%	24	④ 6.82%	23	5.99%
Toner/astringent	42	5.71%	44	4.54%	17	4.83%	25	⑥ 6.51%
Moisturising cream/lotion	51	④ 6.93%	75	⑤ 7.73%	19	⑥ 5.40%	32	⑤ 8.33%
Shampoo	41	5.57%	19	1.96%	19	⑥ 5.40%	22	5.73%
Hair conditioner	36	4.89%	18	1.86%	17	4.83%	19	4.95%
Soap/shower gel	40	5.43%	51	5.26%	26	③ 7.39%	14	3.64%
Perfume	113	② 15.35%	178	① 18.35%	62	② 17.61%	51	② 13.28%
Eau de toilette/cologne	14	1.90%	133	② 13.71%	4	1.14%	10	2.60%
Total	736	100%	970	100%	352	100%	384	100%

2. Types of cosmetics chosen as wedding-presents

Table 8.26 shows the ranking of cosmetic products purchased as wedding-presents in Chinese and British societies.

Table 8.26: **Cosmetics as wedding-presents (by nationality)**

Products	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Lipstick	130	③ 8.58%	6	③ 8.33%	73	② 11.99%	57	6.18%
Nail polish	94	6.20%	4	④ 5.55%	44	⑥ 7.22%	50	5.42%
Eye shadow	142	② 9.37%	2	⑥ 2.78%	46	⑤ 7.55%	96	② 10.41%
Blush/rouge	93	6.13%	1	1.39%	37	6.08%	56	6.07%
Face powder	109	⑤ 7.19%	2	⑥ 2.78%	51	④ 8.37%	58	6.29%
Foundation	108	⑥ 7.12%	1	1.39%	39	6.40%	69	⑤ 7.48%
Cleansing cream/lotion	108	⑥ 7.12%	2	⑥ 2.78%	41	6.73%	72	③ 7.81%
Toner/astringent	96	6.33%	1	1.39%	42	6.90%	54	5.86%
Moisturising cream/lotion	122	④ 8.05%	4	④ 5.55%	52	③ 8.54%	71	④ 7.70%
Shampoo	77	5.08%	1	1.39%	17	2.79%	63	⑥ 6.83%
Hair conditioner	74	4.88%	3	⑤ 4.17%	14	2.30%	60	6.51%
Soap/shower gel	68	4.49%	3	⑤ 4.17%	22	3.61%	48	5.21%
Perfume	232	① 15.30%	27	① 37.5%	106	① 17.41%	128	① 13.88%
Eau de toilette/cologne	63	4.16%	15	② 20.83%	25	4.11%	40	4.34%
Total	1516	100%	72	100%	609	100%	922	100%

For the Chinese respondents, the six most popular cosmetics products bought as wedding-presents are: perfume, eye shadow, lipstick, moisturising cream/lotion, face powder, and foundation and cleansing cream/lotion. For British respondents the top six products are: perfume, eau de toilette/cologne, lipstick, nail polish and moisturising cream/lotion, hair conditioner and soap/shower gel, as well as eye shadow, face powder and cleansing cream/lotion.

3. Types of cosmetics chosen as birthday-presents

Table 8.27 shows the popularity ranking of different cosmetic products purchased as presents for birthdays. The six products most popular among Chinese respondents for giving as birthday-presents are perfume, lipstick, nail polish, face powder, moisturising cream/lotion, and foundation. The six most popular for British respondents are perfume, nail polish, eau de toilette/cologne, lipstick, eye shadow, and moisturising cream/lotion.

Table 8.27:

Cosmetics as birthday-presents (by nationality)

Products	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Lipstick	480	② 13.68%	127	④ 12.44%	291	② 15.94%	189	① 11.22%
Nail polish	251	③ 7.15%	137	② 13.42%	129	③ 7.07%	122	④ 7.24%
Eye shadow	177	5.04%	85	⑤ 8.33%	105	5.75%	72	4.28%
Blush/rouge	201	5.73%	44	4.31%	93	5.10%	108	6.41%
Face powder	235	④ 6.70%	39	3.82%	104	5.70%	131	③ 7.78%
Foundation	224	⑥ 6.38%	38	3.72%	103	5.64%	121	⑤ 7.19%
Cleansing cream/lotion	219	6.24%	45	4.41%	120	⑤ 6.58%	99	5.88%
Toner/astringent	222	6.33%	42	4.11%	109	⑥ 5.97%	113	6.71%
Moisturising cream/lotion	233	⑤ 6.64%	68	⑥ 6.66%	121	④ 6.63%	112	6.65%
Shampoo	178	5.07%	22	2.15%	73	4%	105	6.24%
Hair conditioner	186	5.30%	16	1.57%	71	3.89%	115	⑥ 6.83%
Soap/shower gel	191	5.44%	45	4.41%	81	4.44%	110	6.53%
Perfume	528	① 15.05%	183	① 17.92%	348	① 19.07%	180	② 10.69%
Eau de toilette/cologne	184	5.24%	130	③ 12.73%	77	4.22%	107	6.35%
Total	3509	100%	1021	100%	1825	100%	1684	100%

4. Types of cosmetics bought as presents on other occasions

Table 8.28 shows the popularity ranking of different cosmetic products purchased as presents on other occasions.

Table 8.28:

Cosmetics as presents on other occasions (by nationality)

Products	Chinese		British		Taiwan		China	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Lipstick	111	7.15%	8	④ 8%	50	⑤ 7.75%	61	⑥ 6.72%
Nail polish	59	3.80%	6	⑤ 6%	31	4.81%	28	3.08%
Eye shadow	64	4.12%	6	⑤ 6%	24	3.72%	40	4.40%
Blush/rouge	72	4.64%	2	2%	25	3.88%	47	5.18%
Face powder	133	② 8.56%	2	2%	27	4.19%	106	② 11.67%
Foundation	119	⑤ 7.66%	3	⑥ 3%	34	5.27%	85	③ 9.36%
Cleansing cream/lotion	98	6.31%	6	⑤ 6%	41	⑥ 6.36%	57	6.28%
Toner/astringent	89	5.73%	6	⑤ 6%	36	5.58%	53	5.84%
Moisturising cream/lotion	113	⑥ 7.28%	9	③ 9%	41	⑥ 6.36%	72	④ 7.93%
Shampoo	126	④ 8.11%	3	⑥ 3%	67	④ 10.39%	59	6.50%
Hair conditioner	130	③ 8.37%	2	2%	68	③ 10.54%	62	⑤ 6.83%
Soap/shower gel	130	③ 8.37%	3	⑥ 3%	81	② 12.56%	49	5.40%
Perfume	258	① 16.61%	29	① 29%	98	① 15.19%	160	① 17.62%
Eau de toilette/cologne	51	3.28%	15	② 15%	22	3.41%	29	3.19%
Total	1553	100%	100	100%	645	100%	908	100%

As can be seen in Table 8.28, the top six products bought as presents on other occasions by Chinese respondents are, in order of popularity, perfume, face powder, hair conditioner and soap/shower gel, shampoo, foundation, and moisturising cream/lotion. For British respondents the six most popular cosmetics given on other occasions in order of popularity are: perfume; eau de toilette/cologne; moisturising cream/lotion; lipstick; nail polish, eye shadow, cleansing cream/lotion and toner/astringent; and foundation, shampoo and soap/shower gel.

Table 8.29 below provides a summary of the differences between Chinese and British respondents in their choice of cosmetic products as presents for various occasions in the year.

Table 8.29: **The top six cosmetics presents chosen by Chinese and British respondents in order of priority (by nationality)**

Occasions	Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
Christmas and Lunar New Year	Lunar New Year 1. Lipstick 2. Perfume 3. Face powder 4. Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Foundation 6. Cleansing cream/lotion	Christmas 1. Perfume 2. Eau de toilette/cologne 3. Nail polish 4. Lipstick 5. Moisturising cream/lotion 6. Eye shadow	Lunar New Year 1. Lipstick 2. Perfume 3. Soap/shower gel 4. Cleansing cream/lotion 5. Nail polish 6. Moisturising cream/lotion Shampoo	Lunar New Year 1. Lipstick 2. Perfume 3. Face powder 4. Foundation 5. Moisturising cream/lotion 6. Toner/astringent
Wedding	1. Perfume 2. Eye shadow 3. Lipstick 4. Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Face powder 6. Foundation Cleansing cream/lotion	1. Perfume 2. Eau de toilette/cologne 3. Lipstick 4. Nail polish Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Hair conditioner Soap/shower gel 6. Eye shadow Face powder Cleansing cream/lotion	1. Perfume 2. Lipstick 3. Moisturising cream/lotion 4. Face powder 5. Eye shadow 6. Nail polish	1. Perfume 2. Eye shadow 3. Cleansing cream/lotion 4. Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Foundation 6. Shampoo
Birthday	1. Perfume 2. Lipstick 3. Nail polish 4. Face powder 5. Moisturising cream/lotion 6. Foundation	1. Perfume 2. Nail polish 3. Eau de toilette/cologne 4. Lipstick 5. Eye shadow 6. Moisturising cream/lotion	1. Perfume 2. Lipstick 3. Nail polish 4. Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Cleansing cream/lotion 6. Toner/astringent	1. Lipstick 2. Perfume 3. Face powder 4. Nail polish 5. Foundation 6. Hair conditioner
Other occasions	1. Perfume 2. Face powder 3. Hair conditioner Soap/shower gel 4. Shampoo 5. Foundation 6. Moisturising cream/lotion	1. Perfume 2. Eau de toilette/cologne 3. Moisturising cream/lotion 4. Lipstick 5. Nail polish Eye shadow Cleansing cream/lotion Toner/astringent 6. Foundation Shampoo Soap/shower gel	1. Perfume 2. Soap/shower gel 3. Hair conditioner 4. Shampoo 5. Lipstick 6. Cleansing cream/lotion Moisturising cream/lotion	1. Perfume 2. Face powder 3. Foundation 4. Moisturising cream/lotion 5. Hair conditioner 6. Lipstick

As can be seen in Table 8.29, for Chinese young females, five products are regularly the most popular: perfume, lipstick, face powder, moisturising cream/lotion and foundation. For British young females, six products are regularly purchased, in a slightly differing order of popularity, for all occasions: perfume, eau de toilette/cologne, lipstick, nail polish, moisturising cream/lotion and eye shadow.

It is noticeable that face powder and foundation are popular with Chinese respondents. These products are much less popular among the British. For the latter, on the other hand, one of the most popular products is eau de toilette/cologne. It can be seen that eau de toilette/cologne is not popular with Chinese respondents. One explanation for the relatively low level of popularity of this product among Chinese young females is that it is seen as something low-priced and very ordinary and, as such, appears lacking in attractiveness as a gift for special occasions.

8.2.4 Testing the seventh hypothesis

It was seen in Chapters 3 and 5 that Western consumers appear to show more concern than Chinese consumers for the environment, animal welfare and the use of animal ingredients in the production and marketing of cosmetics. It was also pointed out that the relative lack of concern in these matters among Chinese consumers might nowadays be more typical of the older generation in China and Taiwan than of the younger 18 to 29 generation. That is to say, attitudes may have radically changed as a result of new factors appearing in Chinese society. On the one hand one can point to the continuing expansion of Western influences in Taiwan and, on the other, the radical economic and social change introduced by the Open Door Policy in mainland China.

Consequently, it is of interest to ascertain the extent to which 18 to 29 year-old women in China and Taiwan feel concern for the environment and animal welfare and are against the use of animal ingredients. If it could be shown that these three issues had influence on the younger generation of Chinese women when they purchase cosmetics, this would need to be taken into consideration by marketers in their packaging design and new product development.

The seventh hypothesis to be tested is:

In purchasing their cosmetics, the younger generation of Chinese women, like their British counterparts, feel concern for the environment and for the welfare of animals.

8.2.4.1 Environment

Table 8.30 below shows the differences in levels of concern for the environment among Chinese and British young women who responded "Strongly agree" and "Agree" in the questionnaire surveys. Levels of concern are shown first in general and then by age group and education level.

Table 8.30:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of environmental concern among those responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree" (by age group)

	Influence factors	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Environment	In general	55.7%	47.7%	56%	55.4%	47.7%
	Age 18-20	57.9%	48%	50.9%	66%	48%
	Age 21-23	59.1%	42.3%	55.2%	62.2%	42.3%
	Age 24-26	51.5%	47.5%	55.9%	48.1%	47.5%
	Age 27-29	56.2%	57.6%	59.3%	52.7%	57.6%
	Education level 1	57.5%	51.9%	57.1%	58.4%	51.9%
	Education level 2	57.7%	44%	54.8%	59.1%	44%
	Education level 3	53.9%	50%	68.8%	52.1%	50%

Note: the above table is a condensed version of several tables. For the original tables and the Pearson Chi-Square Test , see Appendix 8, Tables 1, 3 and 7 for the original tables, and tables 2, 6 and 10 for the Pearson Chi-Square Test.

From Table 8.30 it can be seen that, in general, Chinese respondents express more concern about the environment than British respondents: 55.7% for Chinese and 47.7% for British. And by examining the three younger age groups of 18-20, 21-23, and 24-26, one can see that the percentages of young Chinese females expressing concern are higher than the British. Only in the 27-29 age group is the percentage of the British young females slightly higher than the Chinese. On this evidence it would appear that the new generation of young Chinese females are not only catching up but are even overtaking their Western counterparts in matters relating to the environment.

As regards the influencing factor of age group, there is no significant evidence among Taiwanese and British females that concern for the environment increases with age. In the case of young females in mainland China, the figures show a significantly higher level of concern for the environment in the younger age groups (18-20, 21-23) than in the older (24-26, 27-29). Again in the Table 8.30, there is no significant evidence that the level of concern for the environment increases with level of education.

8.2.4.2 Animal testing

The following table shows the difference in level of concern regarding animal testing among those responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree" in the questionnaire surveys. In this table one can see that, in general, British respondents show more concern about animal testing than Chinese respondents (British: 61.6%, and Chinese: 53.8%). This shows a difference of culture. As regards the influencing factor of age group, young Chinese females are catching up with their British counterparts. The figures in Table 8.31 show that young Chinese females are catching up in the 18-20 age group (61.1% for the Chinese and 63.7% for the British); in the 21-23 age group the Chinese have overtaken their British counterparts (57% for the Chinese and 54.5% for the British).

Table 8.31:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of concern about animal testing among those responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree"

	Influence factors	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Animal testing	In general	53.8%	61.6%	56.2%	51.4%	61.6%
	Age 18-20	61.1%	63.7%	48.1%	75.8%	63.7%
	Age 21-23	57%	54.5%	56.1%	57.7%	54.5%
	Age 24-26	45.6%	67.2%	53.4%	39.4%	67.2%
	Age 27-29	55.5%	66.1%	62.9%	47.3%	66.1%
	Education level 1	61.2%	69.8%	58.5%	68.7%	69.8%
	Education level 2	53.3%	58.7%	55.8%	52%	58.7%
	Education level 3	37.4%	58.7%	33.3%	37.9%	58.7%

Note: the above table is a condensed version of three other tables. For the original tables and Pearson Chi-Square Test, see Appendix 8, Tables 1, 4, and 8 for the original tables, and tables 2, 6 and 10 for the Pearson Chi-Square Test.

It is interesting to see that young Chinese females in the first age group (18-20) and in Education level 1 show the greatest concern of all for animal testing in their purchasing of cosmetics. This phenomenon is seen to an even greater degree in mainland China in the 18-20 age group (75.8%) and Education level 1 (68.7%). A likely explanation for this greater degree of concern shown in the youngest age-group in mainland China is that this generation (unlike their parents) has been influenced by Western ideas, particularly a fashionable concern for animal welfare.

8.2.4.3 Animal ingredients

The following table shows the differences in level of concern about the use of animal ingredients in cosmetics among those responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree".

Table 8.32:

Chinese and British young females: differences in level of concern regarding animal ingredients among those responding "Strongly agree" and "Agree"

	Influence factors	Socio-cultural difference		National difference		
		Chinese	British	Taiwan	China	UK
Animal ingredients	In general	42.9%	73.1%	42.8%	43.1%	73.1%
	Age 18-20	46.8%	74.7%	40.8%	53.7%	74.7%
	Age 21-23	44.7%	70.6%	42.6%	46.3%	70.6%
	Age 24-26	38.2%	73.7%	34.7%	41%	73.7%
	Age 27-29	44.1%	74.1%	50.5%	36.9%	74.1%
	Education level 1	48.3%	75.5%	47.1%	51.9%	75.5%
	Education level 2	42%	71.5%	35%	45.3%	71.5%
	Education level 3	30.8%	67.4%	6.7%	6.7%	67.4%

Note: the above table is a condensed version of three other tables. For the original tables and Pearson Chi-Square Test, see Appendix 8, Tables 1, 5, and 9 for the original tables, and tables 2, 6 and 10 for the Pearson Chi-Square Test.

It can be seen clearly in Table 8.32 that, in general, there would appear to be a marked difference in culture between Chinese and British in level of concern on this issue (Chinese: 42.9%; British: 73.1%). There is not much difference as regards attitude to animal ingredients between the Chinese respondents in Taiwan (42.8%) and those in mainland China (43.1%).

Among young Chinese and British females alike there is no evidence that concern over animal ingredients increases with age. However, it can be seen that Chinese and British young females in the lowest educational level (Level 1) show a higher degree of concern than the others. It is interesting to discover that the youngest age group of mainland Chinese and those in the lower education level show the greatest concern over animal ingredients. The survey shows that the new generation of young females in mainland China appears to be influenced by the topical concern for animal welfare which is typical of Western culture today. This concern for animal welfare would seem to be a consequence of the Open Door Policy and the spread of Western ideas. In Taiwan the data also show an increase of concern over animal ingredients in the lower education levels.

In conclusion, the answer to the seventh hypothesis testing "***In purchasing their cosmetics, the younger generation of Chinese women, like their British counterparts, feel concern for the environment and for the welfare of animals***" is affirmative. Regarding the issue of animal welfare, British respondents have high percentages on both animal testing and animal ingredients, but it can be seen that the Chinese in the younger age groups and lower education levels are catching up. As regards environmental concern, the young Chinese woman even overtakes her British counterpart. A suggestion could be made here for marketers who are either operating in or moving into the market of mainland China: it would appear that they need to take concern for the environment and animal welfare into greater consideration in the future.

8.3 Other topics of commercial interest

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire survey yielded information on certain topics which might be of interest to commercial organisations, but for which no hypotheses were formulated.

8.3.1 The starting age for use and purchase of cosmetics

Tables 8.33-40 below provide a comparison of ages at which British and Chines respondents started to use and purchase make-up, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances.

Tables 8.33 and 8.34 show the starting age for use and purchase of make-up. As can be seen in Table 8.33, a high percentage of British respondents had begun to use make-up before the age of 14 (15.6%-52.4%), much earlier than the Taiwanese (0.7%-3.9%) and the mainland Chinese (1.5%-3.5%). Many Taiwanese started from the age of 15-17 (7.4%-16.7%) and most mainland Chinese from the age of 18-20 (24.8%-61.6%).

Table 8.33: Starting age for use of make-up

Make-up		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	3.3%	14.4%	51.8%	17.3%	5.2%	1.8%	6.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	32.0%	50.4%	9.2%	1.5%			6.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	3.0%	16.7%	42.1%	23.8%	7.0%	2.1%	5.3%	100.0%
	China	3.5%	12.0%	61.6%	10.9%	3.4%	1.4%	7.2%	100.0%
Nail polish	Chinese	3.1%	11.7%	43.4%	19.0%	6.0%	2.6%	14.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	52.4%	27.6%	8.2%	1.2%		.3%	10.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	3.9%	15.6%	30.5%	22.3%	7.0%	3.9%	16.8%	100.0%
	China	2.3%	7.8%	56.4%	15.8%	5.0%	1.2%	11.5%	100.0%
Eye shadow	Chinese	1.5%	8.1%	36.9%	22.1%	7.9%	3.7%	19.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	24.0%	49.8%	12.9%	1.8%	.3%	.3%	10.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.9%	8.7%	26.1%	26.0%	9.1%	5.2%	24.0%	100.0%
	China	2.2%	7.3%	49.5%	17.5%	6.5%	1.8%	15.1%	100.0%
Blush/ Rouge	Chinese	1.4%	8.1%	24.9%	23.8%	8.6%	4.4%	28.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	16.1%	34.5%	12.3%	3.8%	.9%	.6%	31.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.7%	7.4%	24.9%	23.5%	9.4%	5.4%	28.7%	100.0%
	China	2.5%	9.4%	24.8%	24.5%	7.2%	2.5%	29.2%	100.0%
Face powder	Chinese	1.1%	8.1%	44.7%	21.0%	8.5%	3.1%	13.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	18.8%	41.1%	15.7%	3.4%	.3%	.3%	20.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.7%	9.4%	29.3%	28.6%	10.8%	5.1%	16.2%	100.0%
	China	1.5%	6.9%	59.3%	13.9%	6.3%	1.2%	10.9%	100.0%
Foundation	Chinese	1.6%	7.9%	45.0%	21.5%	8.1%	3.4%	12.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	15.6%	45.3%	15.9%	4.6%	.9%	.9%	16.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.9%	9.4%	28.4%	29.7%	10.5%	5.6%	15.6%	100.0%
	China	2.1%	6.6%	60.1%	14.0%	5.9%	1.3%	9.9%	100.0%

Table 8.34: Starting age for purchase of make-up

Make-up		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	2.2%	11.3%	51.9%	22.1%	4.7%	1.3%	6.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	20.4%	59.6%	11.4%	2.1%			6.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	2.0%	16.3%	38.4%	29.3%	6.7%	1.5%	5.9%	100.0%
	China	2.4%	6.3%	65.3%	15.0%	2.7%	1.1%	7.1%	100.0%
Nail polish	Chinese	2.3%	11.4%	41.2%	22.3%	5.7%	1.8%	15.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	31.2%	45.2%	10.0%	2.7%		.3%	10.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	2.7%	14.2%	27.8%	26.0%	7.4%	2.7%	19.2%	100.0%
	China	2.0%	8.6%	54.5%	18.6%	4.1%	.9%	11.4%	100.0%
Eye shadow	Chinese	.9%	9.0%	36.1%	22.7%	8.8%	2.6%	19.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	15.2%	54.3%	15.5%	2.7%	.3%	.3%	11.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.7%	10.9%	22.5%	27.8%	9.6%	4.0%	24.4%	100.0%
	China	1.1%	6.8%	52.0%	16.8%	7.9%	1.1%	14.4%	100.0%
Blush/ Rouge	Chinese	.6%	10.3%	23.0%	27.1%	8.7%	2.8%	27.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	9.4%	40.3%	13.5%	4.8%	1.3%	.3%	30.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.2%	8.6%	23.2%	26.2%	10.4%	3.7%	27.7%	100.0%
	China	1.3%	13.3%	22.5%	28.6%	5.7%	1.3%	27.3%	100.0%
Face powder	Chinese	.9%	7.9%	44.8%	22.9%	7.9%	2.5%	13.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	12.8%	42.9%	17.0%	5.4%	1.0%	.3%	20.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.5%	10.8%	27.1%	31.0%	10.8%	4.1%	15.8%	100.0%
	China	1.3%	5.2%	61.4%	15.2%	5.2%	1.0%	10.7%	100.0%
Foundation	Chinese	1.0%	8.7%	45.2%	22.7%	7.9%	2.4%	12.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	9.1%	49.8%	16.3%	5.0%	.9%	.9%	17.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	.9%	11.1%	29.0%	30.7%	10.0%	3.5%	14.8%	100.0%
	China	1.0%	6.5%	59.9%	15.5%	6.0%	1.5%	9.7%	100.0%

Table 8.34 shows that relatively a high percentage of British respondents started to purchase make-up before the age of 14 (9.1%-31.2%). Again, this is much earlier than the Taiwanese (0.2%-2.7%) and the mainland Chinese (1.0%-2.4%). A high percentage of Taiwanese started to purchase make-up (except blush/rouge) from the age of 15-17 (8.6%-16.3%). As for the mainland Chinese, they mostly started later, from age 18-20 (22.5%-65.3%).

Table 8.35 shows the starting age for use of skincare products. This table shows that a very high percentage of British respondents started to use skincare products before the age of 14 (22.8%-42.8%), much higher than for both the Taiwanese (6.2%-9.8%) and the mainland Chinese (2.1%-5.4%). A quarter of the Taiwanese started from the age of 15-17 (25.0%-25.5%), while a high percentage of mainland Chinese started from age 18-20 (40.8%-59.2%).

Table 8.35:

Starting age for use of skincare products

Skincare products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Cleansing cream/lotion	Chinese	8.2%	22.8%	35.4%	22.8%	4.7%	2.4%	3.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	34.3%	41.3%	12.3%	2.4%	1.5%	.3%	7.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	9.8%	25.5%	32.2%	21.9%	4.6%	2.9%	2.9%	100.0%
	China	5.4%	18.0%	40.8%	24.2%	4.8%	1.4%	5.4%	100.0%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	4.5%	19.6%	37.9%	23.5%	5.2%	1.8%	7.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	22.8%	35.8%	11.7%	3.2%	1.3%	.3%	25.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	6.2%	25.0%	33.8%	24.0%	4.5%	2.8%	3.7%	100.0%
	China	2.1%	11.7%	43.9%	22.8%	6.1%	.5%	12.9%	100.0%
Moisturising cream/lotion	Chinese	6.1%	20.1%	45.8%	19.0%	3.5%	2.4%	3.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	42.8%	37.7%	12.0%	2.7%	1.2%	.3%	3.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	7.3%	25.1%	34.5%	22.6%	3.6%	3.7%	3.1%	100.0%
	China	4.7%	14.2%	59.2%	14.8%	3.3%	.8%	3.1%	100.0%

Table 8.36 below compares starting ages for the purchase of skincare products. As can be seen, a very high percentage of British respondents started to purchase skincare products before the age of 14 (13.5%-25.4%), a much higher proportion than the Taiwanese (5.1%-7.7%) and the mainland Chinese (1.9%-3.2%). Approximately a quarter of the Taiwanese respondents started from the age of 15-17 (22.1%-24.9%), while around a half to two thirds of the mainland Chinese started from the age of 18-20 (44.7%-62.3%).

Table 8.36: **Starting age for purchase of skincare products**

Skincare products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Cleansing cream/lotion	Chinese	6.1%	21.3%	37.2%	24.5%	5.3%	1.7%	3.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	19.8%	48.6%	16.4%	2.8%	1.5%	1.2%	9.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	7.7%	24.9%	32.8%	23.9%	5.9%	1.5%	3.4%	100.0%
	China	3.2%	15.3%	44.7%	25.6%	4.3%	2.0%	4.9%	100.0%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	3.8%	18.3%	41.5%	22.7%	5.8%	1.2%	6.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	13.5%	42.6%	14.1%	3.8%	1.6%	.6%	23.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	5.1%	22.1%	36.8%	25.0%	6.0%	1.8%	3.2%	100.0%
	China	1.9%	12.9%	48.2%	19.3%	5.6%	.2%	11.8%	100.0%
Moisturising cream/lotion	Chinese	4.3%	18.2%	48.6%	20.3%	4.2%	1.5%	2.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	25.4%	47.7%	18.7%	2.7%	1.5%	.9%	3.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	5.5%	23.1%	36.8%	25.1%	5.2%	1.8%	2.5%	100.0%
	China	2.9%	12.6%	62.3%	14.8%	3.1%	1.2%	3.1%	100.0%

Table 8.37 below shows the starting age for use of toiletries. It can be seen from this table that almost all the British respondents started to use toiletries before the age 14 (88.5%-96.2%). The Taiwanese show a similarly high figure (76.4%-79.2%). In contrast, a low percentage of mainland Chinese (12.2%-22.6%) started to use toiletries before this age.

Table 8.37: **Starting age for use of toiletries products**

Toiletries		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	46.4%	11.0%	33.4%	6.8%	.9%	1.3%	.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	96.2%	3.2%	.6%					100.0%
	Taiwan	79.1%	7.5%	7.8%	3.1%	.6%	1.6%	.3%	100.0%
	China	13.2%	14.6%	59.4%	10.6%	1.1%	1.0%	.2%	100.0%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	48.1%	12.0%	27.6%	6.5%	1.3%	1.0%	3.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	88.5%	8.3%	1.2%	.6%	.3%		1.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	76.4%	9.2%	8.4%	3.0%	.5%	1.4%	1.1%	100.0%
	China	12.2%	15.6%	51.9%	11.0%	2.4%	.4%	6.4%	100.0%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	55.1%	10.3%	24.3%	7.0%	1.2%	1.6%	.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	95.3%	3.6%	.6%				.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	79.2%	6.8%	8.2%	2.7%	.8%	2.0%	.3%	100.0%
	China	22.6%	15.1%	46.0%	12.8%	1.7%	1.1%	.9%	100.0%

Table 8.38 below compares starting ages for the purchase of toiletries. This table indicates that very high percentages of both British and Taiwanese respondents started to purchase toiletries before the age of 14 (British: 40.7%-42.1%; Taiwanese: 49.0%-50.1%). This compares with very low figures for the mainland Chinese (4.7%-13.0%). The great majority of the latter start to purchase from the age of 18-20 (54.8%-66.2%).

Table 8.38: **Starting age for purchase of toiletries**

Toiletries		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	28.6%	13.8%	42.8%	12.1%	1.6%	.7%	.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	42.1%	33.9%	20.6%	1.5%	.6%	.6%	.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	49.1%	16.7%	19.0%	11.8%	1.8%	.8%	.7%	100.0%
	China	8.3%	10.9%	66.2%	12.3%	1.3%	.6%	.3%	100.0%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	29.2%	16.4%	35.9%	12.2%	2.0%	.7%	3.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	40.7%	34.7%	19.8%	2.1%	.6%	.6%	1.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	49.0%	16.9%	19.0%	11.8%	1.8%	.5%	1.0%	100.0%
	China	4.7%	15.8%	56.9%	12.7%	2.3%	1.0%	6.6%	100.0%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	33.7%	15.0%	34.4%	13.6%	2.1%	.5%	.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	40.8%	34.5%	20.4%	1.5%	.6%	.6%	1.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	50.1%	15.7%	18.4%	12.7%	1.8%	.5%	.8%	100.0%
	China	13.0%	14.2%	54.8%	14.9%	2.3%	.4%	.4%	100.0%

Table 8.39 shows the starting age for use of fragrances. This table shows that a very high percentage of British respondents started to use fragrances before the age of 14 (37.4%-42.9%). This contrasts with the low figures for the Taiwanese (2.7%-4.7%). The data also reveal that few mainland Chinese started to use perfume (3.2%) before the age of 14, although a substantial percentage did start to use eau de toilette/cologne (26%) before this age.

Table 8.39: **Starting age for use of fragrances**

Fragrances		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Perfume	Chinese	3.9%	10.9%	40.2%	20.1%	6.7%	4.3%	13.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	42.9%	38.7%	11.6%	1.8%	.3%		4.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	4.7%	12.8%	26.1%	24.9%	8.5%	6.6%	16.4%	100.0%
	China	3.2%	8.9%	54.6%	15.3%	4.9%	1.9%	11.2%	100.0%
Eau de toilette/cologne	Chinese	14.4%	11.5%	20.0%	11.6%	2.9%	2.2%	37.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	37.4%	33.5%	7.1%	1.0%		.3%	20.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	2.7%	6.2%	12.1%	5.9%	2.7%	3.3%	67.2%	100.0%
	China	26.0%	16.7%	27.8%	17.3%	3.2%	1.2%	7.9%	100.0%

Table 8.40 below shows the starting age for the purchase of fragrances. This table shows that a high percentage of British respondents started to purchase fragrances before the age of 14 (17.5%-19.5%). The figure for the Chinese respondents is much lower (4.7%-9.3%). The percentage of mainland Chinese who started to purchase perfume before the age of 14 (3.7%) is close to that for the Taiwanese (5.7%). On the other hand, the percentage of mainland Chinese who started to purchase eau de toilette/cologne before age 14 (14.7%) is lot higher than that for the Taiwanese (3.3%).

Table 8.40: **Starting age for purchase of fragrances**

Fragrances		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I don't use it	Total
Perfume	Chinese	4.7%	9.3%	41.3%	21.1%	6.1%	3.6%	13.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	19.5%	43.2%	26.1%	4.9%	.6%	.3%	5.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	5.7%	11.6%	24.0%	28.3%	7.9%	5.7%	16.7%	100.0%
	China	3.7%	6.9%	58.4%	14.0%	4.4%	1.4%	11.2%	100.0%
Eau de toilette/cologne	Chinese	9.3%	13.1%	24.3%	13.7%	2.5%	1.6%	35.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	17.5%	38.6%	20.5%	4.3%	.3%	.7%	18.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	3.3%	5.3%	12.3%	8.3%	2.7%	1.7%	66.3%	100.0%
	China	14.7%	20.1%	35.1%	18.6%	2.4%	1.5%	7.5%	100.0%

From Table 8.40, it can be seen that more Taiwanese (11.6%) started to purchase perfume from the age of 15-17 than mainland Chinese (6.9%). However, the opposite is true as regards eau de toilette/cologne: 20.1% of mainland Chinese started to purchase eau de toilette/cologne from the age of 15-17, compared to only 5.3% of Taiwanese. Furthermore, the majority of mainland Chinese started to purchase perfume from the age of 18-20 (58.4%), compared with only 24.0% of Taiwanese. As regards eau de toilette/cologne, the largest group of mainland Chinese (35.1%) started to purchase from the age of 18-20. It is noteworthy that eau de toilette/cologne was not purchased by a very large number of Taiwanese respondents (66.3%).

8.3.2 Frequency of purchase of cosmetics

Table 8.41 below shows the frequency of purchase for make-up over the previous 12 months by British and Chinese respondents. This table indicates that a higher percentage of British respondents than Taiwanese and mainland Chinese purchased their make-up very frequently (once a month or once every 2 months; British: 11.7%-28.5%; Taiwanese: 6.2%-11.2%; and mainland Chinese: 9.3%-19.2%). Around a quarter to one third of British respondents purchased their make-up frequently (once every 3 to 4 months): 22.2%-31.1%, compared to 14.5%-22.7% of Taiwanese and 19.8%-47.9% of mainland Chinese.

It is interesting to see in Table 8.41 that a majority of mainland Chinese respondents purchased blush/rouge more frequently (once every 3 to 4 months) than British and Taiwanese respondents (mainland Chinese: 47.9%; British: 22.2% and Taiwanese:

15.1%). This table also shows that a large group of Taiwanese respondents (37.8% to 62.1%) purchased make-up very infrequently (once a year). This contrasts with 17.1%-42.1% of British and 17.5%-42.8% of mainland Chinese.

Table 8.41: **Frequency of purchase of make-up**

Make-up		Very frequently		Frequently		Infrequently		Very infrequently	
		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	2.1%	8.2%	19.7%	5.2%	3.6%	28.9%	32.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	11.2%	15.9%	17.8%	12.5%	3.7%	21.8%	17.1%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.9%	9.3%	18.0%	4.7%	6.0%	22.3%	37.8%	100.0%
	China	2.3%	7.0%	21.4%	5.7%	1.2%	35.3%	27.1%	100.0%
Nail polish	Chinese	2.7%	12.2%	9.7%	7.8%	3.6%	16.5%	47.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	9.8%	18.7%	19.0%	10.4%	2.8%	19.0%	20.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	2.2%	8.1%	9.9%	5.1%	5.5%	16.8%	52.3%	100.0%
	China	3.2%	16.0%	9.4%	10.4%	1.9%	16.2%	42.8%	100.0%
Eye shadow	Chinese	2.5%	7.0%	16.1%	7.9%	3.4%	14.2%	49.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	7.5%	14.4%	17.0%	14.1%	3.9%	16.7%	26.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.3%	6.9%	9.1%	5.4%	3.9%	14.7%	58.7%	100.0%
	China	3.8%	7.0%	23.7%	10.6%	2.8%	13.6%	38.5%	100.0%
Blush/ rouge	Chinese	2.4%	7.4%	14.2%	13.1%	4.8%	10.5%	47.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	3.6%	8.1%	10.9%	11.3%	5.7%	18.2%	42.1%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.3%	4.9%	9.8%	5.3%	3.3%	13.1%	62.1%	100.0%
	China	4.2%	11.8%	21.7%	26.2%	7.2%	6.1%	22.8%	100.0%
Face powder	Chinese	2.5%	7.6%	12.7%	7.1%	4.8%	33.8%	31.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	5.9%	9.7%	16.0%	8.2%	5.9%	21.9%	32.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.6%	6.2%	12.7%	6.2%	4.0%	21.9%	47.4%	100.0%
	China	3.4%	8.8%	12.7%	7.8%	5.5%	44.2%	17.5%	100.0%
Foundation	Chinese	2.0%	9.2%	11.0%	8.7%	3.9%	34.1%	31.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	6.3%	14.0%	15.7%	12.6%	5.2%	20.6%	25.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.2%	7.3%	11.9%	6.7%	4.6%	22.2%	46.2%	100.0%
	China	2.7%	11.0%	10.3%	10.5%	3.2%	44.7%	17.7%	100.0%

Table 8.42 below shows the frequency of purchase for skincare products over the previous 12 months by British and Chinese respondents. This table indicates that a very high percentage of British respondents (36%-42.8%) purchased their skincare products very frequently (once a month or once every 2 months) compared to 7.8%-19.5% of Taiwanese and 15.2%-17.8% of mainland Chinese. Taiwanese respondents present the highest percentage of purchasers who bought skincare products very infrequently (21.7%-22.5% of Taiwanese, 9.3%-12.4% of mainland Chinese and 6.0%-21.5% of British). This table also indicates that over one third of respondents in the three countries

purchased skincare products frequently (once every 3 to 4 months): 32.5%-37.6% of British, 32.5%-33% of Taiwanese and 31%-46.6% of mainland Chinese.

Table 8.42:

Frequency of purchase of skincare products

Skincare products		Very frequently		Frequently		Infrequently		Very infrequently	
		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago	Total
Cleansing cream/ Lotion	Chinese	4.6%	14.2%	25.9%	11.8%	8.4%	17.5%	17.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	18.0%	24.8%	26.1%	11.4%	3.9%	7.8%	7.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	4.7%	14.8%	23.8%	8.7%	7.8%	18.6%	21.7%	100.0%
	China	4.4%	13.4%	29.4%	17.2%	9.3%	15.7%	10.8%	100.0%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	4.0%	13.1%	21.2%	12.8%	7.0%	23.5%	18.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	12.6%	23.4%	19.5%	13.0%	2.7%	7.3%	21.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	4.5%	13.9%	22.0%	10.6%	7.9%	18.7%	22.5%	100.0%
	China	3.3%	11.9%	20.1%	16.0%	5.6%	30.7%	12.4%	100.0%
Moisturising cream/ Lotion	Chinese	3.4%	13.3%	20.4%	11.6%	7.8%	27.2%	16.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	21.0%	21.6%	26.3%	11.3%	3.8%	10.0%	6.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	4.3%	13.5%	22.1%	10.9%	8.0%	18.8%	22.4%	100.0%
	China	2.3%	13.0%	18.5%	12.5%	7.6%	36.8%	9.3%	100.0%

The following table shows the frequency of purchase for toiletries over the previous 12 months by British and Chinese respondents.

Table 8.43: **Frequency of purchase of toiletries**

Toiletries		Very frequently		Frequently		Infrequently		Very infrequently	
		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	10.2%	20.3%	20.4%	8.7%	6.5%	27.7%	6.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	62.9%	24.0%	7.8%	2.7%	1.5%	1.2%		100.0%
	Taiwan	18.3%	27.0%	21.3%	8.7%	7.2%	11.9%	5.5%	100.0%
	China	2.4%	13.8%	19.6%	8.8%	5.8%	42.9%	6.6%	100.0%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	10.6%	19.7%	23.8%	9.1%	7.0%	22.3%	7.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	60.1%	21.5%	9.1%	4.8%	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	16.0%	26.1%	22.9%	8.5%	7.8%	12.9%	5.8%	100.0%
	China	4.0%	11.6%	24.9%	9.9%	5.9%	34.0%	9.5%	100.0%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	13.5%	23.8%	21.5%	11.9%	5.9%	18.6%	4.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	66.3%	20.6%	7.2%	3.6%	1.5%	.3%	.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	20.6%	26.5%	20.9%	7.9%	7.4%	11.7%	4.9%	100.0%
	China	4.7%	20.3%	22.2%	16.9%	4.0%	27.3%	4.4%	100.0%

From Table 8.43 it can be seen that almost all British respondents (81.6%-86.9%) purchased their toiletries very frequently (once a month or once every 2 months) compared to 42.1%-47.1% of Taiwanese and 15.6%-25% of mainland Chinese. Around one third of Taiwanese (28.8%-31.4%) and mainland Chinese (28.4%-39.1%) purchased toiletries frequently (once every 3 to 4 months). A very low percentage of respondents in the three countries said that they purchased toiletries very infrequently (once a year): 0%-1.5% of British, 4.9%-5.8% of Taiwanese and 4.4%-6.6% of mainland Chinese.

Table 8.44 below shows the frequency of purchase for fragrances over the previous 12 months by British and Chinese respondents. This table indicates that the highest percentage of Taiwanese respondents bought fragrances very infrequently (once a year): 63.8%-74% of Taiwanese, compared to 35.5%-39.5% of British and 16.3%-25.2% of mainland Chinese. Around a quarter of British respondents (24.5%-24.9%) and a quarter to forty percent of mainland Chinese (24.1%-39.9%) purchased fragrances frequently, compared to 12.5%-13.2% of Taiwanese. Only low percentages of each national group purchased fragrances very frequently (once a month or once every 2 months): mainland Chinese: 12.5%-19.6%; British: 11.0%-12.6% and Taiwanese: 7.0%-7.3%.

Table 8.44:

Frequency of purchase of fragrances

Fragrances		Very frequently		Frequently		Infrequently		Very infrequently	
		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago	Total
Perfume	Chinese	2.0%	7.9%	11.8%	7.0%	4.8%	26.9%	39.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	6.3%	6.3%	13.8%	10.7%	5.7%	21.7%	35.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.8%	5.5%	7.3%	5.9%	4.9%	10.8%	63.8%	100.0%
	China	2.3%	10.2%	16.1%	8.0%	4.7%	42.3%	16.3%	100.0%
Eau de toilette/cologne	Chinese	4.0%	10.8%	19.4%	10.1%	4.2%	7.8%	43.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	5.9%	5.1%	14.2%	10.7%	6.3%	18.2%	39.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	1.0%	6.0%	8.0%	4.5%	1.5%	5.0%	74.0%	100.0%
	China	5.8%	13.8%	26.4%	13.5%	5.8%	9.5%	25.2%	100.0%

8.3.3 Type of brand purchased

Table 8.45 below shows the type of brand of make-up purchased by British and Chinese respondents. In this table, it is seen that a high percentage of British respondents (42.75%-55.86%) purchased domestic brands of the six products listed in the table, compared to the Taiwanese 28.11%-41.36%. As regards the mainland Chinese respondents, a very high percentage (59.52%) purchased domestic brands of blush/rouge, while only 33.11%-43.41% favoured domestic brands of the other products. Asian-Pacific brands (e.g. Japanese, Australian, etc) were favoured by only 5.1%-8.48% of British respondents, but by 33.79%-43.74% of Taiwanese and 17.53%-26.17% of mainland Chinese. European brands (e.g. French, German, Italian, etc) were popular with 23.92%-28.41% of British respondents, 13.98%-16.36% of Taiwanese and 17.01%-24.88% of mainland Chinese. North American brands (e.g. USA) were popular with 13.51%-23.68% of British respondents, 10.43%-12.44% of Taiwanese and 2.04%-19.03% of mainland Chinese.

Table 8.45:

Type of brand of make-up purchased

Make-up		Domestic brands	Asia-Pacific brands	European brands	North America brands	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	36.67%	30.23%	17.60%	15.5%	100%
	British (UK)	46.24%	5.29%	28.41%	20.06%	100%
	Taiwan	30.83%	41.24%	15.49%	12.44%	100%
	China	43.41%	17.53%	20.03%	19.03%	100%
Nail polish	Chinese	41.33%	27.75%	17.24%	13.68%	100%
	British (UK)	55.86%	5.10%	25.53%	13.51%	100%
	Taiwan	41.36%	33.79%	13.98%	10.87%	100%
	China	36.90%	25.62%	20.65%	16.83%	100%
Eye shadow	Chinese	37.45%	32.43%	18.51%	11.61%	100%
	British (UK)	49.84%	6.94%	27.45%	15.77%	100%
	Taiwan	32.52%	41.46%	15.04%	10.98%	100%
	China	42.67%	22.85%	22.20%	12.28%	100%
Blush/rouge	Chinese	42.15%	33.97%	16.60%	7.28%	100%
	British (UK)	51.87%	6.22%	26.97%	14.94%	100%
	Taiwan	31.70%	41.51%	16.36%	10.43%	100%
	China	59.52%	21.43%	17.01%	2.04%	100%
Face powder	Chinese	30.71%	35.07%	20.36%	13.86%	100%
	British (UK)	49.80%	7.84%	23.92%	18.43%	100%
	Taiwan	28.11%	45.02%	15.48%	11.39%	100%
	China	33.11%	25.87%	24.88%	16.14%	100%
Foundation	Chinese	31.89%	34.58%	19.46%	14.07%	100%
	British (UK)	42.75%	8.48%	25.09%	23.68%	100%
	Taiwan	29.95%	43.74%	15.06%	11.25%	100%
	China	33.67%	26.17%	23.5%	16.67%	100%

Table 8.46 below shows the type of brand of skincare products purchased by British and Chinese respondents. This table indicates that roughly half of British respondents purchased their own domestic brands of skincare products (50.63%-56.04%), compared with 33.58%-35.59% of Taiwanese and 43.59%-57.83% of mainland Chinese. Between

6.36% and 8.05% of British respondents purchased Asia-Pacific brands, compared to 38.59%-39.54% of Taiwanese and 24.64%-31.24% of mainland Chinese. A quarter of British respondents purchased European brands (22.48%-25.32%), compared to between 15.01% and 16.27% of Taiwanese and between 9.60% and 18.57% of mainland Chinese. Between 13.42% and 16.88% of British respondents favoured North American brands, compared to 10.81%-11.19% of Taiwanese and 2.52%-13.04% of mainland Chinese.

Table 8.46: **Type of brand of skincare products purchased**

Skincare products		Domestic brands	Asia-Pacific brands	European brands	North America brands	Total
Cleansing cream/lotion	Chinese	43.88%	35.41%	12.99%	7.72%	100%
	British (UK)	56.04%	8.05%	22.48%	13.42%	100%
	Taiwan	35.59%	38.59%	15.01%	10.81%	100%
	China	57.83%	30.05%	9.60%	2.52%	100%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	37.65%	36.27%	15.61%	10.47%	100%
	British (UK)	50.63%	7.17%	25.32%	16.88%	100%
	Taiwan	33.79%	39.54%	15.76%	10.91%	100%
	China	43.59%	31.24%	15.38%	9.79%	100%
Moisturising cream/lotion	Chinese	38.21%	32.44%	17.32%	12.03%	100%
	British (UK)	53.03%	6.36%	25.15%	15.46%	100%
	Taiwan	33.58%	38.96%	16.27%	11.19%	100%
	China	43.75%	24.64%	18.57%	13.04%	100%

The following table gives the details of the type of brand of toiletries purchased by British and Chinese respondents.

Table 8.47: **Type of brand of toiletries purchased**

Toiletries		Domestic brands	Asia-Pacific brands	European brands	North America brands	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	54.13%	19.94%	13.57%	12.36%	100%
	British (UK)	64.33%	2.34%	18.71%	14.62%	100%
	Taiwan	66.97%	20.30%	6.36%	6.36%	100%
	China	41.27%	19.58%	20.79%	18.36%	100%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	59.21%	18.87%	11.88%	10.04%	100%
	British (UK)	65.58%	2.37%	17.80%	14.24%	100%
	Taiwan	68.31%	19.17%	6.49%	6.03%	100%
	China	47.39%	18.47%	18.88%	15.26%	100%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	59.61%	19.98%	11.10%	9.31%	100%
	British (UK)	73.0%	2.67%	15.73%	8.60%	100%
	Taiwan	66.36%	19.85%	7.12%	6.67%	100%
	China	50.88%	20.16%	16.24%	12.72%	100%

From Table 8.47, it can be seen that the highest percentages of British and Chinese respondents purchased domestic brands: 64.33%-73.0% of British; 66.36%-68.31% of

Taiwanese; and 41.27%-50.88% of mainland Chinese. Relatively low percentages of all three national groups purchased other types of brand.

Table 8.48 below shows the type of brand of fragrances purchased by British and Chinese respondents. This table indicates that British and Taiwanese respondents preferred European brands to other types of brand for perfume and eau de toilette/cologne. This contrasts with the mainland Chinese. In perfume, they favoured domestic brands (34.48%), Asia-Pacific (21.72%) and European (27.59%), while in eau de toilette/cologne, the majority (79.52%) preferred domestic brands.

Table 8.48: **Type of brand of fragrances purchased**

Fragrances		Domestic brands	Asia-Pacific brands	European brands	North America brands	Total
Perfume	Chinese	27.81%	22.1%	31.73%	18.36%	100%
	British (UK)	18.62%	3.15%	54.73%	23.50%	100%
	Taiwan	20.66%	22.51%	36.16%	20.66%	100%
	China	34.48%	21.72%	27.59%	16.21%	100%
Eau de toilette/cologne	Chinese	61.64%	16.41%	15.30%	6.65%	100%
	British (UK)	21.71%	3.20%	54.09%	21.0%	100%
	Taiwan	28.48%	21.52%	36.71%	13.29%	100%
	China	79.52%	13.65%	3.75%	3.07%	100%

8.3.4 Brand loyalty

Tables 8.49-8.52 below indicate brand loyalty in respect of make-up, skincare products, toiletries, and fragrances. From Table 8.49 it can be seen that British and Taiwanese respondents showed the greatest brand loyalty (33.9%-69.5% and 27.1%-60.1% respectively) purchasing one brand of make-up. This compares with 18.4%-36.4% of mainland Chinese who purchased one brand.

Table 8.50 shows that British respondents had the most brand loyalty in the purchase of skincare products: 51.6%-64.7% of them bought one brand. The Taiwanese showed less loyalty: 37.0%-42.3% purchasing one brand. The mainland Chinese showed the least loyalty: 18.9%-28.5% purchasing one brand.

From Table 8.51 it is seen that there was generally less brand loyalty in the purchase of toiletries. British and Taiwanese respondents were inclined to purchase as many as three or four brands. The mainland Chinese were also less loyal, purchasing two or three.

Table 8.52 shows brand loyalty in the purchase of fragrances. From this table it can be seen that British and Taiwanese respondents showed substantial brand loyalty, 38.1%-

33.8% of British and 41.4%-52% of Taiwanese purchasing one brand of fragrances. There was some disparity in the degree of brand loyalty expressed by the mainland Chinese: only 18.2% purchased one brand of perfume, while 40.9% purchased one brand of eau de toilette/cologne.

Table 8.49:

Make-up: number of brands purchased

Make-up		one brand	two bands	three brands	four brands	five brands	six or over	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	26.2%	51.2%	14.7%	3.2%	1.3%	3.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	40.1%	30.9%	20.1%	6.3%	1.3%	1.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	27.1%	34.8%	25.8%	5.4%	1.6%	5.2%	100.0%
	China	25.4%	66.8%	4.1%	1.0%	1.0%	1.5%	100.0%
Nail polish	Chinese	40.9%	34.1%	15.8%	3.9%	1.8%	3.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	33.9%	28.3%	19.9%	11.2%	3.1%	3.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	37.4%	28.2%	20.1%	6.0%	2.1%	6.2%	100.0%
	China	43.9%	39.2%	12.1%	2.0%	1.6%	1.2%	100.0%
Eye shadow	Chinese	44.4%	33.0%	14.8%	3.2%	1.5%	3.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	46.5%	38.7%	7.7%	3.0%	2.2%	1.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	52.1%	25.2%	14.8%	2.9%	1.9%	3.1%	100.0%
	China	36.4%	41.1%	14.9%	3.5%	1.0%	3.2%	100.0%
Blush/rouge	Chinese	47.4%	29.2%	17.9%	2.7%	.8%	2.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	68.7%	23.9%	3.5%	3.0%	.5%	.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	60.1%	24.7%	10.1%	2.5%	.5%	2.0%	100.0%
	China	26.0%	36.6%	31.1%	3.0%	1.3%	2.1%	100.0%
Face powder	Chinese	36.2%	48.9%	10.2%	2.5%	.9%	1.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	67.2%	25.5%	5.1%	2.1%			100.0%
	Taiwan	56.4%	28.5%	10.1%	2.3%	.6%	1.9%	100.0%
	China	18.4%	66.7%	10.2%	2.6%	1.1%	.9%	100.0%
Foundation	Chinese	37.4%	45.2%	13.1%	2.2%	.5%	1.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	69.5%	24.3%	4.2%	1.5%	.4%		100.0%
	Taiwan	54.7%	28.0%	13.1%	2.0%	.4%	1.8%	100.0%
	China	23.1%	59.5%	13.1%	2.4%	.6%	1.3%	100.0%

Table 8.50:

Skincare products: number of brands purchased

Skincare products		one brand	two bands	three brands	four brands	five brands	six or over	Total
Cleansing cream/lotion	Chinese	32.0%	38.4%	19.7%	5.2%	2.0%	2.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	55.2%	29.9%	10.8%	3.5%	.3%	.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	37.0%	36.1%	18.0%	3.7%	2.1%	3.0%	100.0%
	China	23.8%	42.2%	22.6%	7.6%	1.8%	2.1%	100.0%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	36.5%	39.7%	16.3%	4.4%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	64.7%	24.3%	8.5%	2.1%		.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	41.9%	35.6%	15.4%	3.6%	1.8%	1.8%	100.0%
	China	28.5%	45.7%	17.6%	5.6%	1.3%	1.3%	100.0%
Moisturising cream/lotion	Chinese	31.3%	45.1%	16.7%	3.9%	1.4%	1.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	51.6%	29.4%	14.4%	2.5%	1.3%	.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	42.3%	34.5%	16.3%	3.4%	1.6%	1.9%	100.0%
	China	18.9%	56.8%	17.2%	4.5%	1.2%	1.4%	100.0%

Table 8.51: **Toiletries: number of brands purchased**

Toiletries		one brand	two bands	three brands	four brands	five brands	six or over	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	17.5%	41.5%	22.8%	9.7%	2.6%	5.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	21.9%	24.6%	28.8%	15.0%	3.0%	6.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	21.5%	23.7%	26.9%	13.6%	4.5%	9.6%	100.0%
	China	13.6%	58.9%	18.9%	5.9%	.7%	2.1%	100.0%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	21.9%	39.3%	20.9%	9.4%	2.4%	6.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	24.8%	25.8%	27.3%	13.5%	1.8%	6.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	23.7%	26.3%	25.6%	11.9%	3.5%	9.2%	100.0%
	China	19.7%	55.9%	15.1%	6.1%	1.1%	2.2%	100.0%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	19.6%	36.8%	23.9%	10.2%	2.4%	7.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	20.8%	25.7%	20.8%	16.8%	6.7%	9.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	23.5%	25.0%	26.1%	11.7%	3.7%	10.1%	100.0%
	China	14.8%	51.3%	21.2%	8.4%	.9%	3.4%	100.0%

Table 8.52: **Fragrances: number of brands purchased**

Fragrances		one brand	two bands	three brands	four brands	five brands	six or over	Total
Perfume	Chinese	29.0%	45.2%	14.5%	5.4%	1.4%	4.5%	100.0%
	British	38.1%	36.8%	14.8%	6.9%	1.4%	2.1%	100.0%
	Taiwan	41.4%	26.9%	14.0%	7.6%	2.4%	7.6%	100.0%
	China	18.2%	61.1%	14.9%	3.5%	.6%	1.7%	100.0%
Eau de toilette/cologne	Chinese	44.0%	29.8%	13.5%	6.0%	2.1%	4.6%	100.0%
	British	38.8%	36.2%	13.8%	6.7%	2.2%	2.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	52.0%	21.1%	7.3%	5.7%	4.1%	9.8%	100.0%
	China	40.9%	33.2%	16.0%	6.1%	1.3%	2.6%	100.0%

8.3.5 Concern for skin colour

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, skin colour was seen to be an indication of social status in British and Chinese society. However, the form which this concern took differed: the British considering it important to have a suntanned appearance, and the Chinese considering it important to have a lighter coloured skin. The data in Tables 8.53 and 8.54 below show that a certain number of British and Chinese respondents (in mainland China and Taiwan) were concerned about skin colour.

Table 8.53: **Link between skin colour and social status**

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Sun-tanned appearance and link to status	British (UK)	5.4%	7.2%	15.0%	29.4%	42.9%	100.0%
	Northern England	10.6%	8.7%	15.4%	35.6%	29.8%	100.0%
	Southern England	3.1%	6.6%	14.8%	26.6%	48.9%	100.0%
Skin colour appearance and link to status	Chinese	2.7%	13.9%	37.1%	29.5%	16.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	2.7%	19.4%	25.1%	33.0%	19.8%	100.0%
	China	2.7%	8.7%	48.4%	26.2%	14.0%	100.0%

Table 8.54: **Importance of skin colour**

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Importance of sun-tanned appearance	British (UK)	9.1%	10.0%	17.5%	25.4%	38.1%	100.0%
	Northern England	14.3%	11.4%	18.1%	30.5%	25.7%	100.0%
	Southern England	6.6%	9.3%	17.3%	23.0%	43.8%	100.0%
Importance of light-coloured skin appearance	Chinese	5.4%	36.9%	25.6%	22.5%	9.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	8.0%	32.3%	29.0%	22.3%	8.5%	100.0%
	China	3.0%	41.3%	22.4%	22.7%	10.5%	100.0%

Table 8.53 shows to what extent respondents believed that skin colour was linked to status. From this table it can be seen that an overwhelming majority of British respondents thought that skin-colour was not linked to social status (72.3 % of those who disagreed and strongly disagreed). This compares with the figure of 46.3% of Chinese. Thus, the belief that skin-colour is a sign of social status was expressed by only a minority of British and Chinese respondents (i.e. those who strongly agreed and agreed with the statement: 12.6% and 16.6% respectively).

Table 8.54 indicates to what extent British respondents valued a sun-tanned appearance and to what extent the Chinese valued a light-coloured skin. This table shows that only 19.1% (the total of those who strongly agreed and agreed) of British respondents considered a sun-tanned appearance to be important. However, almost a half of Chinese respondents (42.3%) agreed or strongly agreed that a light-coloured skin was important.

8.3.6 Purchase of whitener and self-tan skincare products

Table 8.55 shows the percentage of respondents who purchased whitener or self-tan products. It can be seen that less than a third (27.2%) of British respondents purchased self-tan products. On the other hand, over two thirds (73.4%) of the Chinese purchased whitener skincare products.

Table 8.55: **Percentage of respondents purchasing whitener or self-tan products**

Purchase of whitener and self-tan products		Yes	No	Total
Purchase self-tan lotion/creams	British (UK)	27.2%	72.8%	100.0%
	Northern England	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
	Southern England	21.3%	78.7%	100.0%
Purchase whitener skincare lotion/creams	Chinese	73.4%	26.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	67.0%	33.0%	100.0%
	China	79.7%	20.3%	100.0%

Frequency of purchase for both the above products is given below in Table 8.56. This table shows that roughly three quarters (74.5%) of the British respondents purchasing self-tan products did so once or twice per year. Similarly, 75.7% of the Chinese respondents purchasing whitener skincare products did so once or twice per year.

Table 8.56: **Frequency of purchase whitener or self-tan products**

Frequency of purchasing		Once	Twice	Three times	Four times	Five times	Six or over	Total
Self-tan skincare products	British (UK)	48.9%	25.6%	10.0%	4.4%	3.3%	7.8%	100.0%
	Northern England	42.9%	21.4%	11.9%	2.4%	7.1%	14.3%	100.0%
	Southern England	54.2%	29.2%	8.3%	6.3%		2.1%	100.0%
Whitener skincare products	Chinese	32.5%	43.2%	16.9%	4.6%	1.2%	1.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	36.6%	36.4%	17.2%	5.7%	1.5%	2.7%	100.0%
	China	29.1%	48.7%	16.6%	3.8%	1.0%	.8%	100.0%

8.3.7 The practice of reducing spending on cosmetics to concentrate on the needs of the child

The desire to provide the best for one's children is probably a universal phenomenon. As was pointed out in an earlier chapter (Chapter 3), this is a very strongly drawn feature of Chinese society. The strength of feeling here is connected with the need to preserve face. The progress of a child is of paramount importance and parents are willing to make great sacrifices to ensure success. In this study, one line of enquiry centred on the attitudes of respondents concerning the idea of reducing their spending on cosmetics so as to have sufficient means for meeting the needs of a child. It also focused on the various ways in which economies were made to satisfy such an aim (Questionnaire survey, Question 21).

8.3.7.1 Attitudes of respondents to the idea of reducing spending on cosmetics

Table 8.57 below shows the attitudes of British and Chinese respondents in general to this question. This table indicates that a majority of Taiwanese and mainland Chinese indicated that they had considered reducing spending on cosmetics (60.2% and 56.5% respectively). This contrasts with only 27.6% of British respondents.

Table 8.57:

Number of respondents who had considered reducing spending on cosmetics in favour of a child's need

Considered reducing spending on cosmetics			Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
In general	Yes	Count	693	35	341	352
		percentage	58.3%	27.6%	60.2%	56.5%
	No	Count	496	92	225	271
		percentage	41.7%	72.4%	39.8%	43.5%
	Total	Count	1189	127	566	623
		Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 8.58 shows in greater detail the responses of single and married respondents to this question. This table shows that a high percentage of single and married Taiwanese and mainland Chinese respondents had considered reducing their spending in favour of a child's need. However, on this question a difference can be seen between the single and married British respondents: 23.2% of single respondents had considered reducing their spending on cosmetics, while the number of married respondents stating that they had considered reducing their spending reached 40.6%.

Table 8.58: **Number of single and married respondents who had considered reducing spending on cosmetics**

Considered reducing spending on cosmetics			Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
Single	Yes	Count	428	22	230	198
		Percentage	59.5%	23.2%	59.7%	59.3%
	No	Count	291	73	155	136
		Percentage	40.5%	76.8%	40.3%	40.7%
	Total	Count	719	95	385	334
		Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Married	Yes	Count	254	13	107	147
		Percentage	58.3%	40.6%	63.3%	55.1%
	No	Count	182	19	62	120
		Percentage	41.7%	59.4%	36.7%	44.9%
	Total	Count	436	32	169	267
		Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 8.59 below compares the attitudes of married respondents who had no children with those of who had one child or more. This table shows a high level of consistency among Chinese respondents: high percentages of Taiwanese and mainland Chinese respondents of both categories had considered reducing spending in favour of a child. As

regards the British, the figure for those who had considered reducing spending went up from 28.6% (respondents without children) to 52.9% (respondents with one child or more).

Table 8.59: **Comparison of childless married women and married women with one child or more**

Considered reducing spending on cosmetics			Chinese	British (UK)	Taiwan	China
Married without child	Yes	Count	81	2	32	49
		Percentage	60.9%	28.6%	61.5%	60.5%
	No	Count	52	5	20	32
		Percentage	39.1%	71.4%	38.5%	39.5%
	Total	Count	133	7	52	81
		Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Married with one child or more	Yes	Count	137	9	67	70
		Percentage	61.7%	52.9%	63.2%	60.3%
	No	Count	85	8	39	46
		Percentage	38.3%	47.1%	36.8%	39.7%
	Total	Count	222	17	106	116
		Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

8.3.7.2 Ways of reducing spending on cosmetics

Table 8.60 below compares the ways in which Chinese and British respondents would reduce spending on make-up. This table indicates that most British and Chinese respondents chose to purchase less frequently (48.49%-62.5% of British respondents in general and 33.33%-50% of British with one child or more; 50.12%-60.63% of Chinese respondents in general and 46.15%-58.04% of Chinese with one child or more). The second most favoured way of reducing spending on make-up among British and Chinese respondents was to change to cheaper brands (14.71%-25.64% of British in general and 25%-40% of British with one child or more; 13.63%-19.17% of Chinese in general and 15.18%-21.5% of Chinese with one child or more). This table also shows that only a small minority of respondents stated that they would continue purchasing make-up as usual (12.12%-25.64% of British in general and 0%-18.18% of British with one child or more; 6.37%-17.19% of Chinese in general and 4.92%-19.81% of Chinese with one child or more). A small minority stated that they would stop purchasing altogether (0%-14.71% of British in general and 0%-22.22% of British with one child or more; 8.36%-19.21% of Chinese in general and 6.6%-26.23% of Chinese with one child or more).

Table 8.60: **Ways of reducing spending on make-up**

Make-up			Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual	Total
Lipstick	Chinese	In general	9.84%	60.63%	13.98%	15.55%	100%
		Married with child	6.60%	55.66%	17.92%	19.81%	100%
	British (UK)	In general		48.72%	25.64%	25.64%	100%
		Married with child		45.45%	36.36%	18.18%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	7.58%	63.56%	11.08%	17.78%	100%
		Married with child	6.25%	65.63%	4.69%	23.44%	100%
	China	In general	14.55%	54.55%	20.00%	10.91%	100%
		Married with child	7.14%	40.47%	38.10%	14.29%	100%
Nail polish	Chinese	In general	19.21%	60.43%	13.63%	6.73%	100%
		Married with child	26.23%	50.82%	18.03%	4.92%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	9.09%	60.61%	18.18%	12.12%	100%
		Married with child	9.09%	45.45%	36.36%	9.09%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	27.10%	52.65%	11.84%	8.41%	100%
		Married with child	43.75%	46.88%	4.69%	4.69%	100%
	China	In general	10.42%	69.10%	15.63%	4.86%	100%
		Married with child	6.90%	55.17%	32.76%	5.17%	100%
Eye shadow	Chinese	In general	16.23%	60.63%	13.99%	9.14%	100%
		Married with child	18.75%	58.04%	15.18%	8.04%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	3.13%	62.5%	15.63%	18.75%	100%
		Married with child	12.5%	50%	25%	12.5%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	20.58%	58.20%	12.22%	9.00%	100%
		Married with child	31.67%	55%	6.67%	6.67%	100%
	China	In general	10.22%	64%	16.44%	9.33%	100%
		Married with child	3.85%	61.54%	25%	9.62%	100%
Blush/rouge	Chinese	In general	18.71%	50.12%	19.17%	12.01%	100%
		Married with child	24.18%	46.15%	20.88%	8.79%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	10.34%	51.72%	20.69%	17.24%	100%
		Married with child	22.22%	33.33%	33.33%	11.11%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	20.78	55.84%	13.31%	10.07%	100%
		Married with child	31.15%	55.74%	8.20%	4.92%	100%
	China	In general	13.6%	36%	33.6%	16.8%	100%
		Married with child	10%	26.67%	46.67%	16.67%	100%
Face powder	Chinese	In general	11.16%	53.80%	17.86%	17.19%	100%
		Married with child	12%	55%	19%	14%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	12.12%	48.49%	15.15%	24.24%	100%
		Married with child	22.22%	33.33%	33.33%	11.11%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	10.29%	60.45%	12.22%	17.04%	100%
		Married with child	16.13%	64.52%	8.06%	11.29%	100%
	China	In general	13.14%	38.69%	30.66%	17.52%	100%
		Married with child	5.26%	39.47%	36.84%	18.42%	100%
Foundation	Chinese	In general	8.36%	59.34%	17.90%	14.40%	100%
		Married with child	8.41%	57.94%	21.50%	12.15%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	14.71%	52.94%	14.71%	17.64%	100%
		Married with child	10%	50%	40%	0%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	9.44%	58.31%	13.68%	18.57%	100%
		Married with child	10.94%	62.5%	15.62%	10.94%	100%
	China	In general	6.76%	60.87%	24.16%	8.21%	100%
		Married with child	4.65%	51.16%	30.23%	13.95%	100%

Table 8.61 below compares the ways in which Chinese and British respondents would reduce spending on skincare products.

Table 8.61: **Ways of reducing spending on skincare products**

Skincare products			Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual	Total
Cleansing cream/lotion	Chinese	In general	3.34%	38.62%	20.25%	37.79%	100%
		Married with child		42.39%	26.09%	31.52%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	3.03%	30.30%	33.33%	33.33%	100%
		Married with child		12.5%	62.5%	25%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	1.49%	41.19%	15.22%	42.09%	100%
		Married with child		45.76%	16.95%	37.29%	100%
	China	In general	7.64%	32.64%	31.94%	27.78%	100%
		Married with child		36.36%	42.42%	21.21%	100%
Toner/astringent	Chinese	In general	4.46%	40.13%	21.23%	34.18%	100%
		Married with child	3.09%	42.27%	26.80%	27.84%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	3.57%	35.71%	25%	35.71%	100%
		Married with child		25%	50%	25%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	2.67%	40.95%	16.62%	39.76%	100%
		Married with child	1.61%	46.77%	19.36%	32.26%	100%
	China	In general	8.96%	38.06%	32.83%	20.15%	100%
		Married with child	5.71%	34.29%	40%	20%	100%
Moisturising cream/lotion	Chinese	In general	3.11%	38.51%	22.77%	35.61%	100%
		Married with child	1.04%	39.58%	28.13%	31.25%	100%
	British (UK)	In general		34.29%	28.57%	37.14%	100%
		Married with child		25%	50%	25%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	2.08%	41.84%	16.02%	40.06%	100%
		Married with child		47.62%	17.46%	34.92%	100%
	China	In general	5.48%	30.82%	38.36%	25.34%	100%
		Married with child	3.03%	24.24%	48.49%	24.24%	100%

In can be seen from Table 8.61 that the largest percentage of Chinese respondents stated that they would reduce their spending on skincare products by purchasing less frequently (38.51%-40.13% of Chinese generally and 39.58%-42.39% of those with one child or more). The second highest percentage of Chinese respondents stated that they would continue purchasing skincare products as usual (34.18%-37.79% of Chinese in general and 27.84%-31.52% of those with one child or more). The third highest percentage of Chinese said they would change to cheaper brands (20.25%-22.77% of Chinese in general and 26.09%-28.13% of those with one child or more). The lowest percentage of Chinese respondents stated that they would stop purchasing altogether (3.11%-3.34% of Chinese in general and 1.04%-3.09% of those with one child or more).

In contrast, the largest percentage of British respondents stated that they would continue purchasing skincare products as usual (33.33%-37.14% of British in general and 25% of those with one child or more). The second highest percentage of British respondents stated that they would purchase less frequently (30.3%-35.71% of British in general and 12.5%-25% of those with one child or more). The third highest percentage of British respondents would change to cheaper brands (25%-33.33% of British in general and 50%-62.5% of those with one child or more). The lowest percentage stated that they would stop purchasing altogether (0%-3.57% of British in general and none of those with one child or more).

Table 8.62 compares the ways in which Chinese and British respondents would reduce spending on toiletries.

Table 8.62: **Ways of reducing spending on toiletries**

Toiletries			Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual	Total
Shampoo	Chinese	In general	1.62%	27.13%	29.55%	41.70%	100%
		Married with child		28.43%	34.31%	37.26%	100%
	British (UK)	In general		22.86%	20%	57.14%	100%
		Married with child			33.33%	66.67%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	1.45%	26.30%	29.48%	42.77%	100%
		Married with child		30.16%	30.16%	39.68%	100%
	China	In general	2.03%	29.05%	29.73%	39.19%	100%
		Married with child		25.64%	41.03%	33.33%	100%
Hair conditioner	Chinese	In general	3.61%	30.06%	29.26%	37.07%	100%
		Married with child	1.01%	33.33%	30.30%	35.35%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	2.85%	22.86%	20%	54.29%	100%
		Married with child	11.11%		33.33%	55.56%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	2.35%	27.57%	29.32%	40.76%	100%
		Married with child		31.15%	29.51%	39.34%	100%
	China	In general	6.33%	35.44%	29.11%	29.11%	100%
		Married with child	2.63%	36.84%	31.58%	28.95%	100%
Soap/shower gel	Chinese	In general	3.70%	26.54%	29.63%	40.12%	100%
		Married with child	3.13%	23.96%	35.42%	37.5%	100%
	British (UK)	In general		25%	27.78%	47.22%	100%
		Married with child		11.11%	33.33%	55.56%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	1.77%	26.76%	28.82%	42.65%	100%
		Married with child		27.87%	29.51%	42.62%	100%
	China	In general	8.22%	26.03%	31.51%	34.25%	100%
		Married with child	8.57%	17.14%	45.71%	28.57%	100%

Table 8.62 indicates that a majority of British respondents would continue purchasing toiletries as usual (47.22%-57.14% of British in general and 55.56%-66.67% of those with one child or more). In contrast, only one third of Chinese respondents would continue purchasing their toiletries as usual (37.07%-41.7% of Chinese in general and 35.35%-37.5% of those with one child or more). Around a quarter of British respondents preferred to purchase less frequently (22.86%-25% of British in general), though there was a dramatic decrease in percentage opting for this choice among respondents who had one child or more (0%-11.11%). Around the same percentage of British respondents

chose to change to cheaper brands (20%-27.78% of British in general and 33.33% of those with one child or more). In contrast, around one third of Chinese respondents preferred to purchase less frequently (26.54%-30.06% of Chinese in general; 23.96%-33.33% of those with one child or more). Approximately another third would change to cheaper brands (29.26%-29.63% of Chinese in general; 30.3%-35.42% of those with one child or more). Only a few British and Chinese respondents chose to stop purchasing altogether in order to economise for the needs of a child (0%-2.85% of British in general and 0%-11.11% of those with one child or more; 1.62%-3.7% of Chinese in general and 1.01%-3.13% of those with one child or more).

Table 8.63 compares the ways in which Chinese and British respondents would reduce spending on fragrances.

Table 8.63: **Ways of reducing spending on fragrances**

Fragrances			Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual	Total
Perfume	Chinese	In general	16.16%	48.47%	17.25%	18.12%	100%
		Married with child	21.21%	41.41%	18.18%	19.19%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	13.51%	48.65%	8.11%	29.73%	100%
		Married with child	22.22%	44.44%	11.11%	22.22%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	20.69%	51.72%	9.72%	17.87%	100%
		Married with child	31.67%	45%	6.67%	16.67%	100%
	China	In general	5.76%	41.01%	34.53%	18.71%	100%
		Married with child	30%	45%	8.33%	16.67%	100%
Eau de toilette	Chinese	In general	20.33%	40%	19.33%	20.33%	100%
		Married with child	24.29%	40%	20%	15.71%	100%
	British (UK)	In general	10%	56.67%	10%	23.33%	100%
		Married with child	22.22%	44.44%	11.11%	22.22%	100%
	Taiwan	In general	34.16%	43.48%	9.32%	13.04%	100%
		Married with child	47.22%	41.67%	5.56%	5.56%	100%
	China	In general	4.38%	35.77%	30.66%	29.20%	100%
		Married with child		38.24%	35.29%	26.47%	100%

From Table 8.63 it can be seen that the most popular way of economising by British and Chinese respondents was to purchase less frequently (48.65%-56.67% of British in general and 44.44% of those with one child or more; 40%-48.47% of Chinese in general and 40%-41.41% of those with one child or more). To continue purchasing as usual was the second choice among British respondents (23.33%-29.73% of British in general and 22.22% of those with one child or more). In contrast, to stop purchasing altogether was the second most popular way of reducing spending among the Taiwanese (20.69%-

34.16% of Taiwanese in general and 31.67%-47.22% of those with one child or more). For the mainland Chinese, change to cheaper brands was the second most popular way (30.66%-34.53% of mainland Chinese in general and 8.33%-35.29% of those with one child or more). The third most popular way for British respondents was to stop purchasing altogether (10%-13.51% of British in general and 22.22% of those with one child or more). The third choice for Taiwanese respondents (13.04%-17.87% of Taiwanese in general and 5.56%-16.67% of those with one child or more) and for mainland Chinese (18.71%-29.2% of mainland Chinese in general and 16.67%-26.47% of those with one child or more) was to continue purchasing as usual.

In Table 8.63 it also can be seen that to stop purchasing altogether was the least popular choice for mainland Chinese respondents (4.38%-5.76% of mainland Chinese in general and 0%-30% of those with one child or more). It is interesting to observe that the percentage opting for this choice in the case of perfume dramatically increased among mainland Chinese young mothers (from 5.76% of mainland Chinese in general to 30% of those with one child or more, an increase of 420.83%). Both British and Taiwanese respondents alike dismissed the choice of changing to cheaper brands when it was a question of economising on the purchase of fragrances (8.11%-10% of British in general and 11.11% of those with one child or more; 9,32%-9.72% of Taiwanese in general and 5.56%-6.67% of those with one child or more).

8.4 Conclusions

In this chapter, four hypotheses of interest both culturally and commercially were examined and tested. It was found that the level of fashion-consciousness was noticeably higher in the UK and Taiwan than in mainland China. However, the difference in degree of importance that Chinese young women and their British counterparts attached to cosmetics was not so great.

Chinese and British young women appear to share a similar interest in shopping around prior to purchasing cosmetics. Similarly, they also share a common interest in purchasing cosmetics to give as presents to friends and family. As regards concern for the environment and the testing of animal in cosmetics manufacturing, there is also not much difference between young British and Chinese women. However, there was a noticeable difference in attitudes to the use of animal ingredients in cosmetics: young British women were much more opposed to the use of these ingredients than the Chinese.

This chapter also provided information on various topics of interest to commercial organisations yielded by the questionnaire survey, but for which no hypotheses were formulated: age of starting to use and purchase cosmetics; frequency of purchase; type of brand and brand loyalty; concern for skin colour; use of whitener skincare products; and the practice of reducing spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate on the needs of the child.

The next chapter will summarize the findings relating to the influences of cultural differences on the purchase of cosmetics between the two main groups of consumers (Chinese and British) in the three countries and will discuss the implication for commercial organisations.

Chapter 9: Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

China with its 1.2 billion population and its fast growing economy is attracting the attention of marketers and receiving large amounts of foreign investment. This growth and increased openness provide an opportunity to explore the impact of culture on consumer behaviour. The main purpose of this study has been to offer insights into the influence of culture on cosmetics purchasing behaviour in three countries. These were chosen as China, with its traditional eastern background; the UK as a Western example; and Taiwan as an intermediate culture.

Chapters 2, 3, 4 consisted of secondary resources research and were devoted to various aspects of a literature review. Chapter 2 points out that there were certain essentials of a cultural order for anyone contemplating entry into the China market. First, it is necessary to take notice of public policy, which can manifest itself in a host of bureaucratic rules and regulations, presenting a serious obstacle to the unwary. Then, there is need to realise the complexity of the country: the sharp variation in conditions between individual cities, as well as between regions, a variation which is exemplified by different tax regimes and different local regulations. All of this leads to the need to anticipate local conditions and to deal with local officials and business people on a personal basis as quickly as possible, so as to avoid frustrating delays. In this, a healthy respect for, and a cultivation of, the relationship network of *guanxi* and its associated cultural norm of face, are very useful. It may require a newcomer to use someone else's *guanxi* as a means of introduction.

Chapter 3 reviewed the cognitive and behaviourist models of consumer purchasing behaviour. Despite their obvious differences, both models included the influence of culture as an important factor in purchasing decisions. As for manufacturers operating globally, the impact of culture is taken into serious consideration in the elaboration of marketing strategies. Chapter 3 also defined the concept of face and the bond of family relationships, which have an important role in consumer purchasing behaviour. Chapter 4 established that the younger generation of Chinese women (in the 18 to 29 age bracket) was a promising market for cosmetics today. This group was likely to be the most fashion-conscious and to have the means to satisfy its tastes. For that reason young women in the 18 to 29 age bracket have been the target of the present investigation. The hypotheses employed were constructed with a view to discovering their attitudes as purchasers of cosmetics.

9.2 Contribution to knowledge

This study has produced a cross-cultural comparison of three countries in an attempt extend the knowledge and understanding of cultural influence on consumer purchasing behaviour with respect to cosmetics. Based as it is on a broad academic framework, as well as a direct field research, it can be seen as offering a wider and deeper analysis of the subject than a commercial market research project would provide. Nevertheless it also contains information which would be of interest to marketers and commercial organisations.

9.2.1 Cultural impact on buyer behaviour

Chapter 7 examined the underlying patterns of relationships for the 16 statements of attitude in China, Taiwan and the UK by means of Factor analysis. By examining the labels of factors extracted by three-, four-, five- and six-factor solution in different countries, areas and cities, it was found that the six-factor solution had most similarities across the three countries involved. Six factors with the same label of "importance", "purchase", "status", "health", "welfare" and "child" were extracted and these showed that despite the significant differences in culture between Chinese and British societies, in all three countries respondents' attitudes to cosmetics were similar. The components of the factors were also examined (Chapter 7, Tables 7.21 to 7.26). The fact that there were not exactly the same components in these factors provides evidence that cultural differences between Chinese and British customers had some degree of influence on consumer attitudes.

In the regression data analysis it was observed that there were similar influential variables in all the three countries. These included income, occupation and most of the factor analysis variables. It was found both in Taiwan and China that the more income increased, the greater was the spending. Private company employees in Taiwan and China as well as company employees in the UK spent more on cosmetics than those in other occupations, while students in all three countries spent least on cosmetics. Also, in the regression data analysis it was found that differential effect of the influential variables existed in each culture. Factor analysis variables "purchase" and "welfare" showed a different effect in each of the three countries.

It can be observed that the "purchase" variable had different extracted components and also had a different effect on spending in each country. This variable had an increase of effect on spending on cosmetics in the UK while it had a decrease of effect in China (in Taiwan "purchase" had no statistically significant effect on spending). Although respondents in the UK agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "price is my most important consideration", they also agreed with the statement "the higher the price, the higher the quality". This shows that while British respondents are generally price-sensitive, they do recognize the need to pay a higher price in return for quality (see extracted components of "purchase" in Table 7.23 and Beta value of "purchase" in Table 7.49). The "purchase" variable also indicated that respondents in China agreed or strongly agreed with the statements "the higher the price, the higher the quality" and " if I use the best brand of cosmetics, that will enhance my image and social status." Nevertheless, their price-sensitiveness made them spend less on cosmetics (see Table 7.23 and Table 7.48). The explanation of these differences would be that respondents in both China and the UK were price-sensitive, but had different attitudes to spending on cosmetics as price increased.

As regards the "welfare" variable, the extracted components were the same for all three countries. However, in the UK this variable had no statistically significant effect on spending. When respondents in China agreed or strongly agreed with the statements on the environment and animal welfare ("it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging", "it is important to select products that have not been tested on animals" and "it is important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients"), they spent more on cosmetics (see the extracted components of "welfare" in Table 7.22 and the Beta value of "welfare" in Table 7.48). This would appear to indicate that in China concern for the environment and animal welfare is not powerful enough grounds to discourage spending on cosmetics. When respondents in Taiwan agreed or strongly agreed with these statements, they spent less (see Table 7.22 and Table 7.47). This would seem to suggest that in Taiwan concern for the environment and animal welfare might be a factor affecting spending on cosmetics.

The Chapter 8 data analysis showed that, in general, young British females are more fashion-conscious and attach greater importance to cosmetics than young Chinese females. However, as the latter get older, there is an accompanying increase in fashion-consciousness and a greater importance attached to cosmetics. As income increases, there is also a steady increase in fashion-consciousness among these young Chinese women. A high percentage of those in income level 4 attached greater importance to cosmetics than those in the three lower income levels. The influential factor of education level had no significant influence on fashion-consciousness and degree of importance attached to cosmetics among both Chinese and British respondents. On the other hand, Taiwanese young women at every educational level showed more fashion-consciousness and attached more importance to cosmetics than their counterparts in mainland China.

For all Chinese and British respondents alike, price was seen as the most important criterion in buyer decision making. In China and Taiwan the advice of one's friends also strongly influenced purchasing decisions. This was true to a lesser extent in Britain. In both China and Taiwan respondents showed preference for departmental stores when purchasing make-up, skincare products and fragrances, but preferred to go to supermarkets when buying toiletries. In contrast, British respondents bought their make-up mainly in three outlets: departmental stores, pharmacies and cosmetics supplier shops; and their skincare products in pharmacies, departmental stores and supermarkets. They purchased their toiletries mainly in supermarkets and pharmacies but not in departmental stores, though the latter was their preferred place for purchasing fragrances.

It was observed that cosmetics were a popular form of present on the main festive occasions of the year in both Chinese and British societies. They were popular gifts for birthdays everywhere. In Chinese society cosmetics were a regular wedding-gift, in contrast to Britain where they were not a popular form of gift for weddings. Cosmetics were among the six most popular presents on other occasions in Chinese society, in contrast to Britain where they did not feature at all in similar ranking lists.

The survey found that young Chinese women were just as concerned, and sometimes more concerned, about the environment as young British women. Within the 18-29 age groups in Taiwan and the UK, it was noticed that there was no change in level of concern for the environment as members got older. However, in this age group in mainland China, it was noticed that the younger members (age 18-23) voiced a higher level of concern than the older ones (age 24-29). In all three countries, the evidence showed that there was no significant increase in concern for the environment with increase in the level of education. As regards the use of animals in testing cosmetics, it was found that in mainland China the younger (age 18-20) members of the targeted age group showed more concern than the older members of the group. There was a marked difference between Chinese and British respondents concerning the use of animal ingredients, with the British showing considerable opposition to the practice. However, among both Chinese and British members of the targeted age group, those who were at education level 1 expressed greater concern over animal ingredients than those at levels 2 and 3.

9.2.2 Findings of interest to commercial organisations

As regards the information of interest to commercial organisations collected in the questionnaire survey, a number of conclusions can be drawn. British respondents, unlike the Chinese (Taiwanese and mainland Chinese), tended to use and purchase cosmetics before the age of 14. The Taiwanese tended to do so from the age of 15-17 and the mainland Chinese from the age of 18-20. A large percentage of British respondents purchased make-up, skincare products and toiletries more frequently than the Chinese (mainland and Taiwanese). As regards fragrances, the British and mainland Chinese purchased more frequently than the Taiwanese.

British respondents generally preferred domestic and European brands of cosmetics to all other brands, while the mainland Chinese preferred domestic brands to all others. As for the Taiwanese, they favoured Asia-Pacific brands of make-up, skincare products and fragrances but preferred domestic brands of toiletries. Of all three national groups, the British showed the highest level of brand loyalty in the purchase of make-up, skincare products and fragrances. The Taiwanese showed moderate levels of loyalty in these products. The lowest level of brand loyalty in all three national groups was for toiletries. Overall, the mainland Chinese showed the lowest levels of brand loyalty, except in the case of eau de toilette/cologne.

Attitudes to skin colour showed wide variation: most British respondents did not consider skin colour to be linked to social status but one fifth of the total valued a sun-tanned appearance. However, less than a third of the total actually purchased self-tan products. Almost half of the Chinese respondents did not consider skin colour to be linked with social status, but nevertheless valued a light-coloured skin. Over two thirds of the total number of these respondents purchased whitener skincare products.

As regards attitudes to the idea of reducing spending on cosmetics in favour of a child's needs, a high percentage of married Chinese respondents, both those with children and without children, considered reducing expenditure. There is some contrast here with the attitudes expressed by married British respondents. Only a low percentage (just over a quarter) of those without children said they considered reducing spending. However, the figure is much higher (over a half) among those who actually had one child or more.

There are various ways in which Chinese and British respondents would reduce spending on cosmetics in favour of a child. As regards make-up, most British and Chinese said that they would cut spending by purchasing less frequently. As for skincare products, most Chinese respondents said they would purchase less frequently, while most British stated that they would not cut spending at all but continue as usual. As regards toiletries, most British respondents said they would continue purchasing as usual, but among the Chinese, one third said they would continue to purchase as usual, one third would purchase less frequently and one third change to cheaper brands. As for fragrances, most British and Chinese said they would purchase less frequently. However, almost a third of all three groups opted differently: the British would continue to spend as usual, the Taiwanese would stop purchasing altogether, and the mainland Chinese would change to cheaper brands.

9.3 The specific impact of culture on cosmetics purchasing behaviour

The data analysis in Chapter 8 revealed the impact of culture on consumer behaviour in the purchase of cosmetics. This can be seen in attitudes to fashion-consciousness, importance of cosmetics, shopping around, present-giving, concern for the environment and animals.

9.3.1 Fashion-consciousness and the importance of cosmetics

The fourth hypothesis, which stated that young British females are more fashion-conscious and attach greater importance to cosmetics than young Chinese females, was proved to be true. The figures for the influencing factor of age group (see Table 8.5) indicate that British young females possess a stronger feeling of fashion-consciousness and attach more importance to cosmetics than Chinese young females in all the age-groups examined. The British exhibit these strong characteristics from an early age (18-23) although a decrease can be seen in the top 27-29 age group. The reverse is the case with the Chinese generally. The latter show a comparatively low level of these characteristics at first, in the early 18-23 age group, but an overall increase as they get older. This contrast between the early high levels of fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics among British young females and the low levels among the Chinese would appear to show the impact of differing cultural influences. In Chinese society young females are generally forbidden by parents to wear cosmetics at an age when in Britain it is customary to do so. It would thus appear that Chinese young females grow up more slowly than their British counterparts.

A sharp contrast in the attitudes of fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics can also be seen between Chinese respondents in China and Taiwan in the all age groups (see Table 8.5). Taiwanese young females exhibit much higher levels of these characteristics than their mainland counterparts. The explanation here would appear also to be the impact of differing cultural influences. The Taiwanese young women would seem to be more influenced by Western culture than the Chinese in mainland China. This can be explained by the fact that the two countries have had a vastly difference development: mainland China being under a strict anti-West regime and Taiwan being independent and leaning very much towards America and the West.

As regards the influencing factor "income level", an overall increase in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics was observed among young Chinese females as income level rose (see Table 8.6). In contrast, no evidence of a similar trend was observed among young British females. This would suggest that there was a difference in cultural influence between the Chinese and UK respondents. For the Chinese, it would appear that having an appropriate income level is a necessary precondition to being fashion-conscious in any realistic sense, namely being able actually to purchase cosmetics and satisfy one's desires. In the case of British young females, it would appear that the lack of an appropriate income level is no bar to being realistically fashion-conscious since credit is readily available, providing purchasing power. Thus, young British females can, and are willing to, indulge their tastes at all income levels, in contrast to the Chinese in both mainland China and Taiwan, who may less able or less willing to incur debt than their UK counterparts.

As for the influencing factor "education level", no significant increase in fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics was seen among Chinese or British respondents as education level rose. However, a higher degree of fashion-consciousness and importance attached to cosmetics was observed among British respondents at all educational levels (see Table 8.7). A difference in impact of culture on attitudes would once more seem to be the case. A further difference was seen between the Chinese of mainland China and Taiwan: the Taiwanese of all educational levels showed more fashion-consciousness and attached more importance to cosmetics than the mainland Chinese. Again, this would seem to indicate that the Taiwanese are more strongly influenced by Western culture than are the mainland Chinese. The implication here is that Taiwanese young females have long received Western influence in their schooling from an early age and have for a long time been able to obtain visas for foreign travel and pursue their higher education abroad, whereas, their mainland counterparts have, until comparatively recently, been enclosed in a more restrictive political and social environment.

9.3.2 Shopping around

The fifth hypothesis, which stated that young Chinese women shop around when buying cosmetics, whereas young British women purchase cosmetics at their own favourite shops, was proved to be false. It was shown that the British were even more inclined than the Chinese to shop around for their cosmetics (see Table 8.8). However, a difference in attitude can be seen in the motives that are involved in comparing goods. British young females are much more influenced by the offer of promotional gifts than are the Chinese. Attitudes in relation to branded goods are also different. The Chinese attach greater importance to brand than do the British (see Table 8.11). The reason for this difference would appear to be cultural. In the eyes of the Chinese, brand carries with it a guarantee of status and prestige, these forming the basis for the preservation of "face".

An examination of the motives that arise when making purchasing decisions reveal farther cultural differences between Chinese and British respondents. One difference is that Chinese young women are much more inclined than the British to follow the advice of friends when making purchasing decisions for cosmetics (see Table 8.14). In Chinese society the advice offered by one's friends is regarded as very important, reflecting the strong influence generally that friends have on each other. It is reasonable to suppose that "face" is involved here, too. To preserve "face" in the social group it is necessary to pay heed to what one's friends say.

Differences in culture between Chinese and British young women can be seen also in the choice of retail outlet when purchasing cosmetics. For the Chinese in both mainland China and Taiwan, the departmental store appears to be the preferred place of purchase (see Table 8.17). Once again, this preference can be linked to the compelling need to preserve "face" within the social group, since there is a certain prestige attaching to the departmental store.

9.3.3 Present-giving

The sixth hypothesis assumed, correctly, that in both Chinese and British society cosmetics are a customary form of gift on festive occasions. They feature among the top six most popular gifts at the Lunar New Year, weddings, birthdays and other occasions in Chinese society (see Table 8.23). For the Chinese, cosmetics are popular gifts on all these occasions, while for the British they are popular at Christmas and birthdays.

The data showed some differences in the popularity of individual cosmetic products as gifts (see Table 8.29). For the mainland Chinese respondents lipstick, perfume, face powder and foundation were the most popular choices. For Taiwanese respondents it was perfume and lipstick. For the British, perfume, eau de toilette/cologne and lipstick were popular. It is noticeable that eau de toilette/cologne does not feature as a popular choice of gift for the Chinese in either the mainland or Taiwan. The reason would appear to be cultural. For the Chinese, eau de toilette/cologne is a relatively cheap and everyday type of product. For that reason it is not considered suitable as a gift. To offer it to any one could cause loss of face. Thus again one observes the impact of culture on consumer choice.

9.3.4 Concern for the environment and animals

The seventh hypothesis postulated that, in purchasing their cosmetics, the younger generation of Chinese women, like their British counterparts, feel concern for the environment and the welfare of animals. This hypothesis was proved to be true and points to the impact of culture on attitude in relation to cosmetics purchasing behaviour.

Regarding concern for the environment, it was seen that the Chinese young women showed more concern than the British (see Table 8.30). As for animal testing Chinese young females in the 18-20 age group are close to their British counterparts in their level of concern, while in the 21-23 age group the Chinese show even greater concern than the British (see Table 8.31). On the subject of animal ingredients, it was seen that the Chinese in mainland China in age group 18-20 and education level 1 expressed more concern than any other group of Chinese (see Table 8.32). This would seem to suggest that the youngest group of Chinese young women are the ones most open to Western influence (provided one agrees with the concept that concern for the environment and for animal welfare is essentially a derivative of Western culture).

9.4 The implication for marketers

9.4.1 Cultivating *guanxi*

9.4.1.1 Importance of *guanxi*

As mentioned above (Chapter 3, section 3.4.5), *guanxi* is an important ingredient in establishing the right approach to doing business in China. It provides the firm basis for overcoming bureaucratic entanglement and delay. International entreprises entering the China market should seriously consider creating and nurturing a strong *guanxi* with those with whom they have to deal. These can range from officials at every level, both local and national, and business contacts.

9.4.1.2 *Guanxi* alone is not enough

The importance of *guanxi* in business affairs has been well recognised. However, it does not in itself provide a guarantee of success. A recent survey involving the heads of China operations of 19 companies indicated that, although it is recognized as a key success factor, *guanxi* by itself does not guarantee long-term success (Yeung and Tung, 1996). It is the first necessary step towards success, rather like the boarding pass that enables its bearer to get on the plane and start the journey. Other factors then become important. Of these, technical competence is the most important. An international company has to supply high-quality products, employ appropriate business strategies and possess an in-depth knowledge of the market.

9.4.2 The marketing mix (4Ps): product, price, place and promotion

As mentioned earlier, in Chapter 2, one of the most successful operators in the China cosmetics business is Yue-Sai-Kan. Her success stems from her business approach and marketing strategy, including the choice of right market, good quality and design of products coupled with an appropriate pricing policy, good promotion and especially the right choice of a cultural theme for her products.

9.4.2.1 Product development

Data analysis in Chapter 8 showed that the new generation of Chinese females, especially in mainland China, are showing increasing concern regarding the environment. This feeling is more pronounced among 18-23 year olds than those aged 24-29. On the subject of animal testing in cosmetics manufacturing it was seen that most concern was felt among the 18-20 year olds (75.8%) and those at education level 1 (68.7%). It was also found that these same young women felt the greatest concern over the use of animal ingredients. On this evidence, it would seem appropriate for marketers to pay greater attention than previously to these concerns when developing new products for the China market.

International companies also need to be prepared for sudden changes in government policy on the environment and animal welfare. In an article entitled "China bans 'mad cow' European cosmetics", Carl Mortished reported China's banning of foreign lipsticks and face-creams because of the risk that there might contain substance linked with "mad cow" disease. On this occasion, imported cosmetics sold under the Nivea, Chanel, L'Oréal and Shiseido brands were confiscated by the Beijing authorities. Admittedly, this followed an EU ban on certain Chinese meat and seafood products which were said to contain a banned antibiotic (Mortished, 2002).

9.4.2.2 Price policy

In Chapter 8 it was found that the most important criterion for young women in mainland China when deciding to purchase cosmetics was price. After that came brand and quality. This price-sensitiveness is a factor to be taken into consideration by marketers. At the same time, it should be remembered that in Chinese society generally, when it is a question of purchasing a present, people are prepared to pay a higher price than usual. As Schütte and Ciarlante (1998) point out, in present-giving a high priced gift creates positive perceptions, the value of the gift symbolising the value of the relationship between giver and receiver.

Chinese customers prefer foreign branded goods, even they are more expensive than the domestic products. The reason is that by using foreign brands they can proud to show their affluence at same time display their face to other members in the family or in working places. The above evidences can provide a useful reference for the marketers to adapt their price policy to the China market.

9.4.2.3 Distribution

As regards place of purchase for cosmetic products, a significant distinction between Chinese and British consumers can be observed. The Chinese generally prefer to purchase their cosmetics in large departmental stores. In Taiwan, particularly, the latter are familiar institutions which enable customers to combine a number of pleasurable activities, ranging from satisfying the practical everyday needs of the household to the more purely recreational and lighthearted. The departmental stores themselves remain open for twelve hours per day (from 10.00 am to 10.00 p.m.). Parents and their children are thus offered the opportunity to shop, eat and play under one roof for lengthy periods. Departmental stores are successful in attracting an enthusiastic crowd of shoppers intent on benefiting from such things as seasonal discounts, gifts and the free prize draws for those who shop with dedication. One other reason for the popularity of these retail outlets is the opportunity they present to consumers to demonstrate affluence and thereby gain face. Outward signs of affluence are the branded goods proudly displayed by shoppers.

In contrast, British consumers appear to spread their shopping between several places. Though they frequent departmental stores, other outlets such as pharmacies and cosmetics supplier shops receive equal favour. The pharmacy is popular in Britain for purchasing not only medical products but also toiletries and cosmetics. In mainland China and Taiwan the pharmacy is more limited in its range of goods, usually medical products. A new type of retail outlet has appeared and is making its way steadily into the market place in Taiwan and mainland China. An example of the new phenomenon is the Hong Kong based Watsons Ltd — an outlet offering medical products, toiletries and cosmetics, imported confectionery, fashion accessories, and even clothing.

An interesting type of retailing which has been popular in mainland China and Taiwan but much less so in Britain is direct selling by agent. Goods sold this way include cosmetics. The agent employs a network of friends and relatives to foster sales. Naturally, in China and Taiwan the agent's endeavours are helped by the pervasive presence of *guanxi* in Chinese society. In Taiwan this method continues to be very successful. However, in mainland China, as was pointed out in Chapter 2, the government imposed a ban on direct selling in 1998 and this ban remains in force there.

A growing trend in Taiwan today is the purchase of cosmetics in airport duty-free shops. At present this trend is not to be seen in mainland China. However, with the present economic growth and the greater opportunities for international travel for Chinese citizens, this phenomenon may well take root there as well. If this were to happen, there would be opportunities for marketers to distribute their products at airports.

9.4.2.4 Promotion

It was seen in Chapter 3 (p.61), in the discussion about the acquisition of branded goods, that in Chinese culture there is considerable concern for maintaining face by the display of affluence. In contrast to this, in the UK the purchase of branded goods is seen as a means of enhancing social status and prestige. Despite these differences, Chinese and British customers share a common and widespread behavioural norm: namely conspicuous consumption. In Chapter 8, Table 8.12 (p.212) shows that in China and Taiwan a higher percentage of respondents than in the UK believed using the best brand of cosmetics would enhance their personal image and social status (China: 24.2%; Taiwan: 22.9%; and UK: 14.2%). It can be seen that there is a great opportunity for international marketers to develop their brand strategy in mainland China and Taiwan. Tables 8.49-8.52 (p.243-244) comparing Chinese with UK respondents reveal a lower brand loyalty among mainland Chinese and Taiwanese respondents in purchasing cosmetics. This again provides a good opportunity for marketers to support and develop their brands in mainland China and Taiwan through advertising.

In Chapter 8, Table 8.15 (p.214) shows the three influential factors given high priority by both Taiwanese and mainland Chinese young women: friends' advice, previous knowledge of the product and personal preference. The fact that friends' advice occupies a high ranking in the order of priority here indicates the strong influence of friends in daily life. The priority given to friends' advice is connected to the Chinese concern for face: one follows the advice of friends, especially in choosing a brand, in order to avoid losing face in the group. For marketing purposes, advertising focusing on opinion leaders could be one of the most efficient ways to promote products in the China market.

Table 8.15 also shows that TV advertising scored highly in Taiwan and China as a motivating factor for making purchasing decision for various cosmetics. Thus, advertising by TV is to be regarded also as an efficient method of promotion. It is essential to encapsulate Chinese cultural norms when designing TV advertising programs. Advertising in magazines, newspapers and TV programs during the time of festivals is also an efficient means of product promotion in the China market. Chinese customarily give presents such as food, fruit, clothes to relatives and friends on these occasions. The most important festivals in the calendar are the Chinese New Year (Lunar New Year) and the Mid-Autumn Festival (also known as the Moon Festival, a celebration of the full moon and unity of mankind). Other promotional devices useful in the China market are: gifts, free samples, prize draws and seasonal discounts.

9. 4. 3 Market segmentation

In Chapter 8, it was found that young Chinese women in both mainland China and Taiwan, as they got older and acquired more income, became more fashion-conscious and attached more importance to cosmetics. Chapter 7 also provided evidence that young female private company employees in mainland China spent more on cosmetics than the other occupational groups. These young female employees showed greater spending particularly on make-up, toiletries and fragrances. Consequently, they should be targeted by marketers.

9.5 Limitations of the present study and future research

9.5.1 Limitations and difficulties in the present study

The data on the China market was gathered as a result of a survey conducted in two cities, Beijing and Shanghai. The research centred also on the younger female generation in the 18-29 age bracket. There are obvious limitations here. Circumstances did not allow the investigation to cover more than two cities. It was not possible to include rural areas and thus compare consumer purchasing behaviour there with that in urban areas. Nor was it possible to extend the research to all three generations of female consumers. Any further research on this subject could do well to take in a wider scope including a larger physical area of mainland China and also first and second generation females.

The present research also encountered some limitations and difficulties in the areas of sampling, questionnaire design and data collection, as well as data analysis. For the reasons mentioned in Chapter 5 regarding the difficulty in sampling, no proper sample frame could be gained from statistical resources and it was not possible to acquire advance knowledge of the population. Moreover, there was limited time available, as well as certain constraints of budget for conducting the survey in three countries. This research used a mixture of nonprobability sampling techniques: convenience and snowball sampling to solve this sampling problem. A particular difficulty was described in Chapter 6: the questionnaire design for mainland Chinese respondents and data collection in mainland China was sensitive from the political point of view; China being a Communist-controlled society. This problem was resolved in the questionnaire design by not eliciting information which could pin down the respondent to a particular city or area. Also, the assistance given by the senior member of staff at the Nanjing Industrial Technology University and his *guanxi* network which he used to distribute the questionnaires helped to avoid problems of a political nature.

As regards the data analysis, for the purpose of comparing and contrasting the three countries under study from a cultural standpoint, the statistical model of comparing means was considered. Unfortunately, the attitudinal data had to be standardised for each country separately, so preventing the use of country means. Furthermore, all six-factor variables suffer from the problem of having slightly different components in each of three countries under study (see Chapter 7, Table 7.21 ~ 7.26). Consequently, the simple cross-tabulation method was employed to enable the researcher to examine and compare the detailed cultural differences between the countries, rather than the superior multivariate analysis of variance.

9.5.2 Further work

In this research, only certain representative products were surveyed. No reference was made to individual brands. However, consumer purchasing behaviour in relation to the brands on the market is of great importance. The actual range of cosmetic brands could be precisely detailed and products could be broadened. More could also be done on defining consumer tastes regarding fragrances and colours.

The purchasing behaviour of older women, particularly concerning the use of skincare products such as anti-aging preparations would seem to be a useful line of enquiry, and also that of women in certain service industry occupations such as airline stewardesses, female bank employees and women working in the media and fashion worlds. Another large centre of interest for future research would be men's cosmetics.

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Appendix 1: Types of Cosmetics

This appendix provides a description of cosmetic products under the 6 categories mentioned in Chapter 5. For this information the researcher is heavily indebted to Mistsui (1997, 319-490).

1. Skin care cosmetics

Skin care cosmetics maintain the skin in good condition and keep it looking beautiful and healthy. The purpose of these products is to provide protection against the harmful effects of drying, ultraviolet radiation and oxidation.

Types of skin care cosmetics can be divided into face cleansing cosmetics, lotions, milky lotions, creams, gels, essences or beauty lotions, packs and masks, and shaving cosmetics.

1.1 Face cleansing cosmetics

Face cleansing products remove dirt and dust deposited from the atmosphere, microorganisms and in the case of women, old makeup. The purpose is to remove the products of skin metabolism: sebum, horny layer flakes, sebum oxidation products and sweat residues. In this way, substances which are not good for the skin are removed. At the same time, the skin cleansers will have no adverse effect on skin tissue or on substances that are useful to the skin. Indeed, the skin cleansers will probably serve the purpose of supplying substances that are useful to the skin.

Types of face cleansing cosmetic are listed in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1:

Types of face cleansing cosmetic

Product type	Form (formula type)	Features
Surfactant-based type	Solid (soap, transparent soap, neutral soap)	Main type of cleanser; easy to use and feels good; but skin feels tight afterwards.
	Cream/paste (cleansing foam)	Special face cleanser with excellent feeling and lather. It is easy to use. Bases may be selected in the range weakly acidic to alkaline depending on the purpose.
	Liquid of viscous liquid type (cleansing gel)	Weakly acidic to alkaline. The weakly acidic base produces a weak cleanser but the alkaline base produces a strong one. The main type of cleanser for the hair and body.
	Granule/powder form (cleansing powder, face cleansing powder)	Easy to use. As they contain no water, papain* or other enzyme may be incorporated.
	Aerosol type (saving foam type, after foaming type)	There are two types: one which comes out like a shaving foam and the other as a gel which becomes a foam on use (after-foaming type). A double container is used for the after foaming type.
Solvent-based type	Cream/past (cleansing cream)	The emulsion type uses mainly the O/W (oil/water) emulsion. The type in which oils are made into a gel has high cleansing power. For heavy makeup.
	Milky lotion (cleansing milk)	O/W emulsion milky lotion. Lighter feeling after use than with cleansing cream. Easy to use.
	Liquid form (cleansing lotion)	Cleansing lotion. Contains large amounts of non-ionic surfactants, alcohol and humectants. There is also a physical cleansing effect as it is wiped off with cotton wool. For light makeup.
	Gel (cleansing gel)	The emulsion and liquid crystal types containing a lot of oils have high cleansing power and are rinsed off. They give a light feeling after rinsing off. The water soluble polymer gel type has low cleansing power.
	Oil (cleansing oil)	Ingredients like surfactants and alcohol are added to the oil in small amounts. Rinsed off. When rinsed off forms O/W emulsion. Soft and moist feeling after use.
Others	Pack (cleansing mask)	Peel-off mask enploying water soluble polymers. Skin has strong feeling of being stretched. Removes dirt from skin surface and pores when peeled off.

(N. Naito et al: Fragrance Journal. No. 92, 1998, in Mitsui, 1997, p.322)

* Papain: an enzyme from the fruit of *Carica papaya*, the tropic melon tree. It has been prescribed for enzymatic debridement of wounds and promotion of healing (Anderson, K. N., Anderson, L. E., Glanze, W. D., 1994).

1.2 Lotion

Lotion is used for the purpose of cleaning the skin and also maintaining the moisture balance. This product is usually a transparent, semi-transparent or opaque liquid which is applied to the skin.

The various kinds of lotion are listed in the following table according to their purpose.

Table 1.2:

Different lotions and their purposes

Type	Purpose
Softening lotion	Supplies moisture and humectants to the horny layer to make the skin soft and keep it feeling smooth and moist.
Astringent lotion	Has astringent action as well as supplying moisture and humectants to the horny layer. Inhibits sebum secretion. Gives light feeling on use and prevents makeup from spoiling.
Cleansing lotion	Used to remove light makeup or as a face skin-cleanser. A lot of surfactant, humectant and alcohol are included in formulae to enhance the cleansing action on the skin.
Multi-layer lotion	Lotion consisting of 2 or more layers. Most have 2 layers which are either oil and water or water and powder. Unlike other lotions, they are shaken before use when they become either a milky lotion or a powder dispersion. A major one of this type is calamine lotion.

(Mitsui, 1997, p.328)

1.3 Milky lotions

These lotions contain little oil and have high fluidity. They occupy an intermediate position between lotions and creams. The purpose of milky lotions is the maintenance of the moisture balance of the skin by supplying water, humectants and oils to the skin. In this way the skin is kept moist and supple.

Table 1.3 below lists the functions of milky lotions and the corresponding categories of product available.

1.4 Creams

The main purpose of creams is to maintain the skin's moisture balance and keep the skin moist and supple through the supply of water, humectants and oils. Other additional functions of some creams are to stimulate the circulation, cleanse the skin and remove makeup. Creams are semi-solid emulsions and are therefore more stable over a wider range of conditions than milky lotions and oils, in which humectants and water can be used in a greater range of proportions. The functions and product types of various creams are listed in Table 1.4 below.

Table 1.3: **Purposes and functions of milky lotions**

Purpose/function	Product category
Moisturizing/softening the skin	Emollient lotion (Have such names as Moisture lotion, Milky lotion, Nourishing lotion, Nourishing milk, Skin moisture and Moisture emulsion. The emulsion type, oil and humectant amounts and other factors are adjusted to suit the season, different skin types and user preferences)
Stimulate skin circulation/increase softness	Massage lotion
Cleansing/makeup removal	Cleansing lotion
UV protection * (daily use sun protection products)	Sun protect (Called such names as Protect emulsion, Sun protector, UV Care milk)
Others (refer to the relevant sections)	
Ultraviolet protection	Sunscreen
Under makeup cream	Makeup lotion
Soften horny layer	Horny layer smoother Elbow lotion
Protect hair	Hair milk
For the body and hands	Hand lotion Body lotion

(Mitsui, 1997, p.336)

* When engaging in sports and leisure activities, sunscreen products with high SPF (Sun Protection Factor) ratings are used to protect the skin from strong UV radiation. Among skin care cosmetic products, there are also daily use sun protection products to protect the skin from the UV exposure we get when engaging in everyday activities, like doing the laundry, shopping and walking around. As well as preserving the skin's moisture balance, such products also function as under makeup creams.

Table 1.4: **Purposes and functions of different creams**

Purpose/function	Product type
Moisturizing and softening action	Emollient creams (Nutrient cream, Nourishing cream, Moisture cream, Vanishing cream, Night cream, etc. in which the emulsion type, amount of oil and humectant are varied to cater to the season, skin type, preference, etc.)
Stimulate circulation, soften skin	Massage cream
Cleansing, makeup removal, etc.	Cleansing cream
Under makeup cream, makeup base	Makeup cream, Base cream, Pre-makeup cream
Other specific purpose	
e.g.: UV protection	Sunscreen cream, Suntan cream
Depilatory action	Hair remover
Hairstyling	Hair cream
Deodorant	Deodorant cream
Shaving	Shaving cream
Horny layer softening	Horny layer softening cream

(Mitsui, 1997, p.341)

1.5 Gels

The development of various new production technologies have given aqueous and oily gels other functions in addition to those of water supplying and moisturizing. These are: stimulating the circulation, skin cleansing and makeup removal. Gels, a term which covers gels and jellies, offer a type of base which provides a uniform external appearance. Gels range from transparent to semi-transparent and produce a moist feeling to the skin. Aqueous gels have come to be used beneath makeup creams for use in summer, where their special feature of providing a moist and light feeling is seen to be a particular advantage.

Gels are listed in the table below according to their purpose and main features.

Table 1.5:

Purposes and functions of different gels

Purpose/ function	**Gel type**		**Features**
Water supplying Moisturizing	Aqueous gel (polymer thickened type)	No oil	Giving a moist, cool and light feeling, they are suitable for summer products and oily skin. Produce little occlusion.
		Small amount of oil	
Moisture retention Supply oil	Oily gel (emulsion or liquid crystal type)		Being oily they have the feeling of an oily cream. Good for moisture retention and augmenting skin oil in winter and dry skin.
Stimulating circulation (massage in)	Aqueous gel		Its moistness and low friction provided by polymers make it smooth to apply and easy to massage into the skin. The type with a lot of humectant and little water gives a warm feeling.
Cleanser Makeup removal	Aqueous gel (polymer thickened type)	No oil	Can be rinsed off with water or wiped off; non-oily but cleansing effect drops off for heavy makeup. Low cleansing power.
		Small amount of oil	
	Oily gel (emulsion or liquid crystal type)		High affinity for makeup; becomes lighter during use due to O/W phase inversion. Can be rinsed off with water more easily after this. Very suitable for removing heavy makeup and has high cleansing power.
	Oil gel		Has high affinity for makeup. As it cannot be rinsed off, it is wiped off. Leaves an oil film which must be cleaned off using a cleansing foam. High cleansing power.

(Mitsui, 1997, p.352)

1.6 Essences (beauty lotions)

Essences deliver one or more of the following effects: humectant, ultraviolet screening, whitening, anti-oxidation, anti-inflammatory and rejuvenation. They are positioned as value-added products that supply what conventional skin care cosmetic products might not provide, in terms of effects, feeling when used, beauty systems, etc.

Reasons for the popularity of essences are:

- people need to simplify their daily cosmetic routine in order to save time;
- the belief that "concentrated" means that the product has an enhanced effect;
- greater ease of use due to improved container design;
- the development of highly functional moisture retaining agents (emollients and humectants) and pharmaceutical agents (whitening agents, cell rejuvenation agents, ultraviolet screening agents) based on skin physiology;
- advances in production techniques that are used in their development are seen as proof of their efficacity.

The different types of essence are listed in the table below.

Table 1.6: **Different types of essence and their features**

Type	Technologies	Features
Transparent/ Semitransparent lotion type	Solubilization, micro-emulsion, liposome, disc-like capsule	In general contain more humectant than lotions. The texture may be adjusted through the selection of the humectant and water-soluble polymer and varying their combinations. This is the most general form of essence preparation.
Emulsion type	O/W type W/O type W/O/W type	As this type can contain a large amount of emollient (oil component) it is suitable for preparations containing large amounts of ultraviolet absorber and other oily ingredients. The W/O type is suitable for preparations requiring a water repellence.
Oil type	—	This type has been used as a cosmetic oil since long ago. The texture is adjusted by combining solid or semi-solid oils and animal fats or plant oils such as olive oil, jojoba oil, mink oil or squalane in different proportions. As the texture of this type is not as good as that of other preparations, it is disappearing from the market.
Two-agent mix-together type	In addition to the above, spray-dry, freeze-dry and microcapsule technologies are also used.	In order to prevent instability in the pharmaceutical agent and preparation or to effect a visual change, two agents are mixed together on use. There are liquid-liquid and liquid-powder combinations. Powders are prepared so that they dissolve easily.
Others	Lotion with powder type Much alcohol type	Essences for the T zone which secretes a lot of sebum. Including sebum absorbing powder increases lasting power of makeup. Essences having a germicidal effect for acne preparations.

(Mitsui, 1997, p.355)

1.7 Packs and masks

Packs are long-established cosmetic products. They can be applied not only to the face, but also to the neck, shoulders, arms and legs. They offer a number of benefits to the user:

- their occlusive effect, which is due to their mixture of humectant and emollients, maintains the horny layer of the skin in a moist condition, thus making the skin more supple.
- when there are peeled off after drying, their adsorbent action enables dirt to be removed from the skin, making them an excellent skin cleanser.
- as the pack dries, it causes tension on the skin, increasing skin temperature and stimulating the circulation.

Different types of pack and their features are listed in the following table.

Table 1.7: **Different types of pack and their features**

Type	Product form	Features
Peel-off type	Jelly	Transparent or semitransparent jelly forming a transparent film on the skin after drying. After the film is peeled off, the skin feels moist, soft and very clean.
	Paste	Opaque paste. As relatively large amount of powder, oil and humectant can be incorporated in the paste, the skin feels soft and moist when the film formed by the paste on drying is peeled off.
	Powder	The powder is added to water to make a uniform mixture which is applied to the skin. As the latent heat of vaporization of the water comes from the skin, it is cooled giving a light and slightly stretched feeling, which makes this type suitable for summer.
Wipe-off and rinse-off types	Cream	An ordinary O/W emulsion-type cream which has been given a low hardness to make it easier to apply. It contains a lot of humectant to give a good moist feeling after use.
	Mud pack	A powder including clay minerals is mixed with the water phase formed from water , ethanol and humectant. As this is difficult to wipe off when dry, this type is mainly rinsed off.
	Jelly	Transparent or semitransparent jelly. Even when the jelly is achieved through the use of water soluble polymers, not much film-forming agent is used, so it is still wiped or rinsed off.
	Aerosol (foam type)	In vaporization, the gas used takes heat away from the skin too rapidly making it smart and giving it a prickly feeling – the drawback of this type.
Peel off when hard type	Powder	The main ingredient is plaster of Paris. Heat of hydration produced when water is added causes it to harden. $CaSO_4 . 1/2\ H_2O + 3/2 H_2O \rightarrow CaSO_4 . 2H_2O + 8.2$ kcal
Adhesive fabric type	Non-woven adhesive fabric with gel type	Texture depends on nature of gel used. Being a new type of pack it is attracting attention. It is easy to use and has a very good effect when used together with other skin care cosmetics.
	Non-woven fabric impregnated type	Now-woven fabric impregnated with lotions or essences. Gives a cool, comfortable feeling. Easy to use.

(Mitsui, 1997, p.358)

1.8 Shaving cosmetics

Used mainly by men, these comprise shaving soap, shaving cream, pre-shaving lotion and after-shaving lotion:

- Shaving soap and shaving cream make the beard swell and soften it prior to shaving, making shaving more comfortable and preventing skin roughness.
- Pre-shaving lotion is used to help the electric shaver to move smoothly over the skin. The lotion contains astringents and alcohol which stretch the skin and make the hairs stand up more rigidly.
- After-shaving lotion has a sterilising effect on the skin and provides a moist, comfortable feeling to the skin.

1.9 Other skin care cosmetics

Two other types of skin care cosmetics are powder products and cleansing oil:

- powder products appear generally in the form of granule and capsule. They contain vitamin C or vitamin C derivatives and are categorised under whitening products.
- cleansing oil is used as a face cleanser to remove heavy makeup. Although there is a type of cleansing oil which is wiped off the face, the most common type is rinsed off. Here, the main ingredients are an oil which goes well with the makeup, and a surfactant to facilitate rinsing.

2. Makeup cosmetics

The purpose of makeup cosmetics is to enhance beauty, protect the skin, alter the appearance and generally to boost positive feelings in the user.

The beautifying and protective functions of different types of makeup are listed in the following table.

Table 2.1: **Functions of different makeup cosmetics**

Makeup item		Functions
Base makeup	Face powder (pressed powder)	1) Adjusts skin colour and makes it brighter 2) Makes the skin feel vibrant and gives a feeling of transparency 3) Suppresses sweat and sebum so makeup lasts longer 4) Protects skin from ultraviolet radiation
	Foundation	1) Changes the skin colour as desired 2) Gives the skin lustre, a feeling of vibrancy and transparency 3) Covers up liver spots and freckles 4) Protects the skin from drying and ultraviolet radiation
Point makeup	lipstick	1) Applying colour to the lips gives life to the face 2) Protects the lips from drying and ultraviolet radiation
	Rouge	1) Applying rouge to the cheeks makes the person look cheerful and healthy 2) Improves facial form and gives relief to the face
	Eyeliner	1) Making a line along the edge of the eyelashes emphasizes the contours of the eyes 2) Changing the appearance enhances the expression of the eyes
	Mascara	Lengthening and curling the eyelashes emphasizes the eyes and the shading achieved gives them expression
	Eye shadow	Shading gives the eyes relief and expression to the face
	Eyebrow cosmetics	Adjusting the form of the eyebrows brings out the eyes
	Nail enamel	1) Gives lustre to the nail and expression to the hands and fingers 2) Strengthens the nails
	Enamel remover	Removes enamel from the nails
	Nail treatment	Restores nails which have become brittle and lost their lustre through drying out and lipid loss to their condition

(Mitsui, 1997, p.371)

2.1 Face powder and pressed powder

The purpose is to change the colour of the skin in order to make it more attractive and cover up blemishes such as freckles and liver spots. The different forms of face powder are listed in the following table (Table 2.2).

2.2 Foundations

These have several functions: improving skin colour, adjusting skin quality, covering up blemishes, as well as providing protection against external environmental influences, such as UV radiation, and treatment for adverse skin conditions. Today, foundations are more popular than face powders which were the chief base makeup in the past. They are categorised separately from face powders and can be grouped into three main types: powder compact, oil-based and emulsion (O/W or W/O emulsion).

A classification of foundations by type is given in the Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.2: **Different type of face powder**

Product Type		Features	Purpose/function
Loose powder		Powder is main component	Generally for use in the home. Applied on the top of emulsion and oil-based foundations to achieve a mat, clear skin colour. Reduces oily lustre and stickiness and keeps the makeup looking good for longer by absorbing sweat and sebum.
Compact powder		Solid form with small amount of oil as binding agent	Used when away from home to touch up the makeup.
Paper powder		Powder applied to paper	Paper sheet-type face powder is made by applying loose powder to paper to make it handy for carrying around. It absorbs the sweat and sebum which appear on the skin and makes it easy to touch up the makeup.
Liquid face powder		Powders dispersed through aqueous solution	Liquid face powder is a light cosmetic giving a cool and refreshing feeling through its thinness as a makeup.
Kneaded powder		Glycerin or some other solution kneaded into powder	Used much in the past but now largely used for stage make-up
Other powder cosmetics	Baby powder	Two forms: Loose powder (powder is main component) Compact powder (contains small oil as binding agent)	Has very smooth texture and is used for infants to absorb moisture and protect the skin. Also contains a germicidal agent to prevent diaper rash and the like.
	Talcum powder	Contains more talc than ordinary loose powders and added germicidal agents	Used on the whole body to produce a very smooth feel. As it absorbs sweat and moisture, it is very good when used after a bath in summer or after shaving.

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.376-378)

Table 2.3: **Classification of foundations by type**

Type		Constituents (%) Powder	Oil	Water	Others	characteristics
Compact type	Powdery type	80-93	7-20	—	Pharmaceutical agent	Enhances skin colour, handy to carry around
	Dual-use type	80-93	7-20	—	Pharmaceutical agent	As above, can be used with or without water
	Cake type	80-85	2-20	—	Emulsifier	For use with water. Gives a cool, refreshing feeling
	Oily-type	35-60	40-65	—	Pharmaceutical agent	Good adhesion, water resistant
	W/O emulsion type	15-55	30-70	5-30	Emulsifier, humectant	Makeup doesn't spoil, handy to carry around
Creamy type	O/W emulsion type	10-25	15-30	40-70	Emulsifier, humectant	Spreads easily, good for treating skin conditions
	W/O emulsion type	10-35	15-50	20-60	Emulsifier, humectant	Makeup doesn't spoil
Liquid type	O/W emulsion type	5-20	10-25	50-80	Emulsifier, humectant	Spreads easily, good for treating skin conditions, moist feeling
	W/O dispersed type	10-30	15-50	30-50	Emulsifier, humectant	Makeup doesn't spoil, refreshing feeling

(Mitsui, 1997, p.379)

2.3 Lipsticks

In the distant past, colour used for application to the lips and cheeks was obtained from natural sources such as plants. After World War I, lipstick was produced in stick form made from oils, fats and waxes. When synthetic colour appeared, it became possible to produce long-lasting lipsticks with colours to match those of women's hair and clothes. Today, innovations include the use of powders with a pearly luster, which gives rise to a wide range of tones and qualities, and the manufacture of emulsion types of lipstick using water and humectants.

The purpose of lipsticks is to lubricate the lips and provide a protection against the weather and UV radiation. Lipsticks are required:

(1) not to cause irritation or harm to the lips
(2) not to have any unpleasant taste or smell
(3) to go on smoothly, not to smear and to stay looking good over time
(4) to retain their form with no deformation or softening during storage or use
(5) not to sweat or bloom
(6) to retain their attractive appearance, without any alteration of colour.

2.4 Rouges (rouge, cheek color and blush-on products)

Rouges are used to give the face a tint of red and provide a healthy looking complexion. Although the main pigments used in the past have been red ones, in recent years browns and blues have been brought out. Rouges are produced in compact, liquid, cream and stick form. The compact form is the most used. Rouges are required:

(1) to fit in well with foundations
(2) to facilitate the elimination of brush marks
(3) to retain their colour
(4) to offer suitable coverage, luster and adhesion
(5) to be easily wiped off, leaving no stain on the skin

2.5 Eye makeup

This kind of makeup has been used since the time of the ancient Egyptians. Today, changes in lifestyle and an increased interest in fashion have contributed to making eye makeup into a cosmetic product used by all age groups. The function of eye makeup is to render the eyes more pronounced in their appearance, adding to their expressive quality. Eye makeup products comprise:

(1) eye makeup: eyeliner, mascara, eye shadow, eyebrow cosmetics.

(2) other special products: eye makeup remover, eye wrinkle treatment products, false eyelashes and adhesives.

Different types of eye makeup are listed in the following table.

Table 2.4: **Different types of eye makeup**

Types of eyemakeup				Purpose/function
Eyeliner	Liquid form	Water-based	Film type	For applying along the upper and lower hairlines of the eyelashes with a fine brush to emphasize the impression given by the eyes and make them more attractive.
			Non-film type	
		Oil-based		
	Solid form	Powder compact type		
		Pencil type		
Mascara	Liquid form	Water-based	Film type	Used to make the eyelashes look attractive.
			Non-film type	
		Oil-based		
	Solid form			
Eye shadow	Liquid -paste form	Oil-base		Applied to eyelids and corners of the eyes to create shadow and produce an impression of relief in order to emphasize the beauty of the eyes. Has a greater variety of colours than any other eye makeup; the colours range from the normal blues, violets, browns and grays to the more vivid ones like greens, oranges and pinks.
		Emulsion type (W/O type, O/W type)		
	Solid form	Oil-based stick form		
		Pencil type		
Eyebrow cosmetics	Solid form	Easy-to-use pencil type		Used after adjusting the shape of the eyebrows with razor or scissors or by plucking out hairs, to impart the desired form and make them darker or lighter.
		Mechanical pencil type		
		Powder compact type		
	Liquid form			
Other products	Eye makeup remover		Water-based	Used to remove the different types of eye makeup. The main types are for removing either water or oil-based makeup.
			Oil-based	
	Eye wrinkle care products		Oil-based	Have a humectant effect and are used to prevent eye wrinkle especially in winter.
			Emulsion type	
	False eyelashes			Made by attaching human hair or nylon fibers to a piece of yarn and are stuck on the lash strip using the adhesive supplied. The adhesives used are generally rubber latex compositions with very strong adhesion.

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.391-398)

2.6 Manicure preparations

These are cosmetics products designed to protect the nails and give the fingers an attractive appearance. Nails vary in their physical properties and also in their physical appearance: they can be thick, thin, large, small, long, short, flat or curved. Their rate of growth averages at about 3 mm per month. The water content and the composition of the keratin in the nail plate determine nail hardness. Usually, children have soft nails with high elasticity, in contrast to adults who tend to have harder nails which are more brittle.

Different types of nail care products and their functions are shown in the following table.

Table 2.5: **Types of nail care product and their functions**

Type of products			Function
Nail enamel			• Colours the nails • Forms a durable film • Protects nails and makes them look more beautiful
Enamel remover		Type which contains moisturizers and water	• Removes the enamel • Replenishes the moisture and fat removed by the solvents
		Cream-type	
Nail treatment		Milky lotion type	• Supplies oil to compensate for water and oil removal by solvents • Has humectant effect
		Cream type	
		Tube type	
Other products	**Cuticle remover**	Contains weakly alkaline type	• Tidies up the cuticle by removing the old cuticle and dirt on the nail plate
		Contains scrub power type	
	Nail guard		• Reinforces the nail • Prevents splitting and breaking • Makes the enamel last longer
	Nail drier		• Speeds up the drying of nail enamel • Gives nail enamel an extra lustre
	Nail polish	Powder form	• Makes the nail surface smooth and gives it a lustre
		Paste form	
		Compact form	
	Nail bleach		• Whitens the nail
	Nicotine remover		• Removes nicotine staining

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.399-404)

3. Hair care cosmetics

Hair care cosmetics consist of hair cleansing products, hair growth promoters, hair grooming cosmetics, permanent waving lotion, hair colour and hair bleach.

3.1 Hair cleansing cosmetics

These comprise shampoo and rinse (rinse-off conditioner). Their purpose is to remove dirt from the hair and scalp and maintain them in a clean condition.

Different types of hair cleansing cosmetics are listed in the following table.

Table 3.1: **Different type of hair cleansing cosmetics**

Type of products			Purpose/function
Shampoo	Transparent liquid type		To remove dirt from the scalp and the hair, treat dandruff and itchiness and maintain the hair in a clean and beautiful condition.
	High grade opaque liquid type		
	Additional function type	Oil shampoo	
		Cream shampoo	
		Conditioning shampoo	
		Anti-dandruff shampoo	
		Mild shampoo	
		Two-in-one type	
		Shampoo having a combination of the above characteristics	
Rinses	Milky lotion type		Used after washing the hair for giving a smooth feel and adjusting surface condition of hair.
	Cream type		
One-step shampoo			Shampoo having both shampoo and rinse functions

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.407-413)

3.2 Hair growth promoters

Their purpose is to normalize the function of the scalp, by increasing circulation and improving follicle function. They are used to promote hair growth and prevent hair loss, dandruff and scalp irritation. They are made by adding pharmaceutical agents to an alcohol-water solution.

Hair growth promoters are categorised as cosmetics, quasi drugs, OTC (over the counter) products and ethical pharmaceutical products, according to the type and volume of active ingredient in them and their efficacy.

3.3 Hair grooming cosmetics

This type of product is used particularly after washing the hair and provides the finishing touch to grooming the hair every day. Different types of hair grooming cosmetics are listed in the following table.

Table 3.2:

Different type of hair grooming cosmetics

Type of products			Purpose/function
Hair styling preparation	Hair foam: the type with setting ability		For setting and adjusting the hairstyle
	Hair mousse: the type focusing on hair treatment producing a wet gloss		
	Hair spray: products in aerosol cans		
	Hair mist: products in dispensers		
	Jelly-form transparent preparations	Hair gel	
		Water grease	
	Setting lotion: applied by brush to style the hair		
	Curler lotion: applied by curlers to style the hair		
	Hair liquid: aqueous solution type		
	Pomade: slightly hard semi-solid oil preparation		
	Hair stick: stick-form solid hairstyling preparation		
Hair treatment preparation	Hair cream: emulsion type		For enhancing the hair's gloss and feel to the touch, giving hair a nice quality and making the hair treatment easier to manage
	Hair blow: spray out type		
	Hair coating lotion: for split ends		
	Hair oil: the type for supplying the hair's oil		

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.418-426)

3.4 Permanent waving lotion

Permanent waving lotion is designed to beautify the hair by imparting waves, or can be used to straighten out natural curls. Different types of permanent waving lotion are listed in the following table on the basis of their usage and ingredients.

Table 3.3: **Types of permanent waving lotion**

Classification	Type of Products
By usage	Products used at normal temperatures
	Products requiring the temperature to be raised
	Products requiring mixing to produce heat
	Products not requiring mixing to produce heat
By ingredients	Products consisting of only one waving agent
	Products consisting of No.1 and 2 waving agents
By purpose	Products for setting waves
	Products for straightening out natural curls

(Mitsui, 1997, p.428)

3.5 Hair colour and hair bleach

Hair colour and hair bleach are used to gain a more youthful appearance by hiding gray hair, or to become more stylish by varying the colour of the hair. Different types of hair colour and hair bleach are listed in the following table.

Table 3.4:

Different types of hair color and hair bleach

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">Type of products</th><th>Mechanism</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Temporary hair colours</td><td colspan="2">Stick type</td><td rowspan="5">The colour is fixed on the surface of the epicuticle
• Easy to wash out
• Simple to use
• Highly safe</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Spray type</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Gel type</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Liquid type</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Color mousses</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Semi-permanent hair colours</td><td colspan="2">Liquid type</td><td rowspan="3">The colour is fixed on and into parts of cuticle and cortex
• Colour lasts for about 1 month</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Stick type</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Cream type</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="9">Permanent hair colours</td><td rowspan="3">Oxidation hair colours</td><td>Powder type</td><td rowspan="9">The colour is formed inside the cortex and is permanently fixed in the hair.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Liquid type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cream type</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Plant-based hair colours</td><td>Powder type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Liquid type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cream type</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Metallic hair colours</td><td>Powder type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Liquid type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cream type</td></tr>
<tr><td>Hair bleach</td><td colspan="2">Liquid type</td><td>Bleaches the hair by oxidizing the melanin in it</td></tr>
</table>

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.430-436)

4. Fragrance products

These products, whose purpose is to provide fragrance, include perfume, eau de parfum, eau de cologne, eau de toilette, fragrance powder, solid perfume and perfumed soap. To this list can be added body lotion, bath oil, potpourri and candles that have been impregnated with fragrance. Types of fragrance product according to perfume dosage are listed in the following table.

Table 4.1:

Types of fragrance product according to perfume dosage

Product	Perfume dosage
Perfume, Parfum	15 ~ 30%
Eau de Parfum	7 ~ 15
Eau de Toilette	5 ~ 10
Eau de Cologne	2 ~ 5
Solid Perfume	5 ~ 10
Fragrant Powder	1 ~ 2
Perfumed Soap	1.5 ~ 4

(Mitsui, 1997, p.439)

4.1 Perfume

Like some of the other cosmetics mentioned above, perfume has a long history going back to ancient times. The first perfume consisted of incense used in religious rites, intended to please the gods by means of sweet fragrances (Kennett, 1975). Anther function was to mask unpleasant body odors. Today, perfume serves the purpose of creating a certain romantic mood and glamour, as well as nostalgia, and sheer pleasure (Groom, 1999).

The main classification of perfumes is made according to their scent characteristics. A further classification is according to fragrance type and genealogy. When marketed, perfumes are classified into prestige line products and mass marketed products. In addition, there is a category of designer and celebrity fragrances.

Major families and subfamilies of perfume and scent characteristics are listed in the following tables (Tables 4.2 and 4.3).

4.2 Men's cologne

Men's cologne, which derives from eau de cologne, has a very characteristic fragrance and is stronger than women's cologne. The main classifications and descriptions of the men's cologne are listed in the Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.2: **Major families of perfume and scent characteristics**

Major family	Scent characteristics	Typical products
Citrus	Scent of lemon, bergamot, orange, grapefruit, lime and other citrus fruits Gives a fresh, refreshing feeling	4711 Shower Cologne Fresh Lime
Green	Combination of floral scent and one with a feeling of something green like the scent when green leaves or grass are rubbed with the fingers or the green note of hyacinth. Refreshing and natural scent which reminds one of fields and woods Gives a more characteristic and deluxe feeling than citrus	Fidji
Single floral	Scent of one particular flower like a rose, jasmin, lily of the valley, muguet, lilac or gardenia Gives a simple and refreshing feeling Casual scent with a western feeling	Diorissimo
Floral bouquet	Scent of a bouquet with many flowers in it A modern scent with a deluxe feeling Gives a feminine softness, elegance and a mellow feeling	L'Air du Temps
Floral aldehyde	Scent of flowers with aldehyde accent Scent with feminine softness and elegance as well as a romantic feeling	Chanel No.5
Chypre	A scent featuring a combination of oakmoss, bergamot, jasmin, rose, woody, musk, etc. Characteristic scent giving the feeling of a mature woman	Miss Dior
Floriental	Scent combining the softness of the floral type with the character and strength of the oriental type	Poison
Oriental	A scent having strong woody, powdery, animal and spicy features – one for the mature woman giving a strong feeling of character, charm and sensuality	Opium

(Mitsui, 1997, p.441)

There is also a perfume incorporating Leather and Tabac; type product: Cabochard

Table 4.3: **Perfume subfamilies and scent characteristics**

Subfamily	Scent characteristics
Fruity	Odor of fruits other than citrus fruits Typical ones are strawberry, peach, grape, apple and cassis
Aldehydic	Strong pervasive note of fatty aldehydes. Using it in small amounts in perfume brings out its depth and power.
Powdery	Powder-like note. Gives a mature and feminine image. Vanillin, heliotropin and musk are typical examples.
Woody	Odor of woods and trees. Gives a feeling of depth. Sandalwood, cedarwood, patchouli and vetivert are typical examples.
Mossy	Odor of the moss on oak trees. Suggestive of the damp atmosphere in a forest.
Spicy	Piquant, spicy note. Clove, pepper, cinnamon, nutmeg, rosemary, thyme and carnation are typical examples.
Leather tabac	A masculine note of leather and tobacco. Gives a refreshing feeling of masculinity.
Balsamic	A resinous note. A scent with a heavy, sweet depth
Animal	An animal note – the scent of musk, amber, civet or castoreum. Imparts a sensual and alluring image.

(Mitsui, 1997, p.442)

Table 4.4: **Major families of men's cologne and scent characteristics**

Major family	Scent characteristics	Typical products
Citrus	Citrus scents such as bergamot, mandarin orange, lime, petit grain and grapefruit. Gives a refreshing and clean feeling.	Eau Sauvage
Green	Combination of a floral scent and one of greenness like the one when you rub leaves or grass – a scent conjuring up the refreshing feeling of nature; has a more characteristic and deluxe feeling than citrus.	Fahrenheit
Fouge`re	A scent originating from Fouge`re Royal; combination of lavender and coumarin	Azzaro Pour Homme
Floral	Scent of a bouquet with many flowers in it; a modern scent with a feeling of luxury, mellowness and elegance	
Woody	A scent of trees which gives a feeling of depth. Sandalwood, cedarwood, patchouli and vetivert are typical examples.	Jazz
Herbal Spicy	Piquant odor of herbs and spices.	Paco Rabanne Pour Homme
Chypre	A scent featuring a combination of oakmoss, bergamot, jasmin, rose, musk with a characteristic feeling of individuality	Polo
Leather Tabac	Masculine notes of leather and tobacco. Gives a refreshing feeling with a sense of masculinity.	Aramis

(Mitsui, 1997, p.445)

5. Body cosmetics

These comprise a wide range of products, each of which imparts a particular physiological benefit to the parts of the body where it is applied. In this way, clearly defined functions are ascribed to each product.

Different types of body cosmetics according to the parts of the body they are used on are listed in the following table.

Table 5.1: **Usage and purpose of different types of body cosmetics**

Where used	Purpose	Typical products
Whole body	Cleansing the body	Soap, body shampoo, exfoliating cleanser, bath oil, bath salts
	Treatment	Lotion, milky lotion, cream
	Fragrance	Powder, cologne
	Suncare	Sunscreen, sunoil, after-sun lotion
	Insect repellent	Insect repeller, mosquito screen
Hands (fingers)	Treatment	Lotion, cream
Whole leg	Discolour, depilatory	Discolour, depilatory cream, depilatory mousse
Elbows, knees	Softening	Horny layer softening lotion, gommage cream
Leg (knee to ankle)	Prevent swelling	Leg freshener cream
Armpits	Deodorant, antiperspirant	Deodorant lotion, spray, powder, stick

(Mitsui, 1997, p.446)

5.1 Soap

Soap can be described generally as a skin hygiene product used to wash the skin and, by removing dirt, maintaining it in a clean condition. Being a type of surfactant, soap reduces surface tension and interfacial tension. It possesses lathering, dispersing, emulsifying and cleansing properties. The action of soap consists of penetrating the interface between the skin and the dirt, loosening its adhesion thus making it easy to remove. Physical force removes the dirt, which is then dispersed through the soap and water solution as a result of the emulsification of the soap molecules.

There are a wide variety of soaps on the market for both household and industrial purposes. The main types are: toilet soap, transparent soap and syndet bar.

Type of soap and their features and function are listed in the following table.

Table 5.2:

Type of soap

Type of soap	Features and functions
Toilet soap	• produces a good lather in both cold and warm water • does not swell when put in water • no change shape when it becomes dry • does not produce any irritation
Transparent soap	• not only looks attractive but also protects the skin • mild because of the glycerin and sugar which act as humectants
Syndet bar	• designed to improve lathering in hard water • prevents the formation of scum and improves alkalinity • a neutral soap for people sensitive to alkali

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.450-453)

5.2 Body shampoo

Like solid soap, body shampoo is a skin hygiene product whose purpose is to remove dirt by washing and to keep the skin in a clean condition. Solid soap has the longest history as a general skin cleanser and remains a widely used product. However, changing lifestyles have increased the role played by body shampoos. The latter provide not simply the function of cleansing, but also impart a very attractive perfume. Compared with solid soap, they produce a richer lather and are seen to be more fun to use.

Types of body shampoo are listed in the following table.

Table 5.3:

Types of body shampoo

Types of body shampoo	Formulation	Product features
Soap- type	The alkaline type having liquid soap as their main ingredient	Transparent type Non-transparent type Pearl-look products
Syndet – type	The weakly acidic type having synthetic surfactants as the main ingredient	Transparent type Non-transparent type Pearl-look products
Combination - type	The neutral type combining liquid soap and synthetic surfactants	Transparent type Non-transparent type Pearl-look products

(Mitsui, 1997, p.455)

5.3 Suncare products

Ultraviolet (UV) light is light at wavelengths shorter than visible light; it is divided into three regions: UV-C (200-280 nm), UV-B (280-320 nm) and UV-A (320-400 nm). As UV-C is filtered by the ozone layer before reaching the earth's surface, it is can be ignored. UV-B rays are the most harmful rays to skin which cause sunburn and skin cancer. UV-A rays, which are the rays causing suntan, are the ageing rays, since they penetrate deep into skin destroying its support structure of collagen and elastin.

Protecting skin from the harmful effects of UV rays is one of the major tasks for skin care and body care products. The main purpose of suncare products is to protect the skin from ultraviolet rays and minimize its harmful effects on the skin.

The sun protection factor (SPF) is used to indicate the degree of protection afforded by suntan and sunscreen cosmetic products against UV rays. SPF assesses the skin's reaction to UV-B (erythema) and indicates of the protective effect of the product. The actual degree of protection afforded by a product has, until recently, usually been indicated on a scale up to 15. Nowadays, however, in view of the perceived need for greater protection against the sun, the scale goes even higher, to 20, 25 or 30 and even as high as 50 in some products. The principle is that the higher the point on the scale, the greater the amount of protection. It is interesting to note here that there are considerable differences between skin-types in terms of propensity to sunburn. For example, the Asian skin type is seen to be more resistant to the harmful rays of the sun than the European skin type. A sun protection factor (SPF) of 6 in Japan would normally provide

120 minutes of protection before burning takes place. In contrast, in Europe, a factor of 6 would provide only 30 minutes protection (Toda, 1982, 118-121).

Types of suncare products and their purposes and functions are listed in the following table.

Table 5.4: **Types of suncare products**

Types of suncare product	Purpose and functions	Forms of product
Sunscreen cosmetics	• Cut out UV-A and UV-B • Prevent the skin from tanning and burning	• Cream-type • Milky lotion-type
Suntan cosmetics	• Cut out UV-B • Prevent the skin from burning and give the skin a uniform, attractive suntanned colour	• Oil-type • Cream-type • Gel-type • Lotion-type • Milky lotion-type
After suncare cosmetics	• Treat the skin after exposure to sun	• Carmine lotion • Aqueous gel • Lotion • Milky lotion

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.457-464)

5.4 Hand care products

These are made up of soap, hand cream and nail care products. They are used to clean and treat the hands. One purpose is that of preventing roughness of the skin. The latter occurs as the result of drying or working with the hands frequently in water. Other purposes of these products are to whiten the skin or to block UV radiation. Two types of hand care product are listed in the following table.

Table 5.5: **Types of hand care product**

Types of product	Function
Cream type	Provides a strong moisturizing effect to prevent the skin drying out
Roughness preventing, water repellent type	Is applied to hands before doing work involving water to prevent them from coming into direct contact with it

(Mitsui, 1997, p.464)

5.5 Deodorant cosmetics

Deodorant cosmetics may occur as liquids, aerosols, ointments, gels, powders, powder cakes and sticks. The most common ones are in the form of powder-containing aerosols and liquids. Deodorant cosmetics are used on the skin in order to prevent unpleasant body odor. Types of deodorant product are listed in the following table.

Table 5.6: **Types of deodorant cosmetics**

Types of deodorant cosmetics	Form and product type	Features
Deodorant lotion	Liquid-form: • Spray type • Roll-on type	• Contains large amounts of ethyl alcohol • Gives a very good cooling sensation • Better at controlling sweat than other forms
Deodorant powder	Powder form: • Simply a mixture of powders of spray type • Powder cake	• Powder cake is made by molding powders in the same way as compact foundations
Deodorant spray	Aerosol form: • Wet type (toilet water type) • Dry type (powder type)	• Uses liquefied gas as the propellant • Wet type has the same feeling as a deodorant lotion • Powder type has a very refreshing feeling
Deodorant stick	Stick form: • Non-transparent wax-based type • Transparent soap-alcohol-based type	• Has a sustained deodorant effect on account of its excellent adhesion • Non-transparent wax-based type feels soft on the skin • Transparent soap-alcohol-based type has a very refreshing feeling

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.467-469)

5.6 Depilatories and Bleaches

The purpose of depilatories is to remove hair from the armpits, legs or arms. Bleaches are used to make dark or black hair on the arms or legs less noticeable by altering the colour (discolouring) from black to brown or blonde. Types of depilatories are listed in the following table.

Table 5.7: **Types of depilatories**

Types of depilatories	Function
Hair removing products	Physically remove hair: • Wax type • Gel type • Adhesive sheet type
Dehairing products	Remove hair by chemical means: • Paste form • Cream form • Aerosol form

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.470-472)

5.7 Bath preparations

Hot springs have a long history as places for improving human health and treating certain diseases. The beneficial effects of hot springs are afforded in the home today in the form of bath preparations. These can be dispersions, granules, tablets, soft capsules and liquids. Types and functions of bath preparations are listed in the following table.

Table 5.8: **Types and functions of bath preparations**

Types of bath preparations	Features and Functions	Forms of product
Bath preparations containing inorganic salts	Contain the inorganic salts found in hot spring water to which colour and perfume are added. • Very soluble in hot water • Warm the body and stimulate the circulation • Cleanse the skin	• powders • granules • tablets • effervescent bath salts
Bath preparations containing medicinal plants	Include those in which dried medicinal plants are cut or ground up and packed into a cloth or non-woven fabric bag, and liquid products containing plant extracts extracted using solvents and inorganic salts. • Warm the body and stimulate the circulation • Anti-inflammatory • Sedative • Pain relieving • Antibacterial • Cleanse the skin	• Powders • Liquids
Bath oil (bath cologne or bath perfume)	Consist mainly of liquid animal and plant oils, hydrocarbons, higher alcohols and ester oils. • Supply oil to the skin • Prevent the evaporation of moisture from skin • Soft and smooth the skin • Give pleasure through their scent	• Floating type (oil droplets float on the surface) • Spreading type (oil film spreads over the surface) • Dispersion type (oil forms dispersion of very fine particles in the bath water) • Milky type (oil forms a white cloudy dispersion in the bathe water): these days the milky type comes in soft capsule form, gives just the right amount for one use in a capsule
Bubble bath	A product arising from bathing habits in Europe and United States where the water tends to be very hard making it difficult to obtain a lather with soap. It is put into the bath tub and worked up into a mass of bubbles filling the whole bath by running in hot water vigorously from the faucets. • Soften hard water • Clean the body • Enjoy the copious amount of bubbles and perfume	• Powder form • Granule form • Solid form • Gel form • Liquid form

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.473-476)

5.8 Insect repellents

Insect repellents serve to protect the user against bites from insects such as mosquitoes and sandflies. Once the repellent is applied to the skin, it evaporates. The resultant vapour surrounds the body and acts as a repellent by paralyzing the insect's carbon dioxide sense organs and disrupting its water vapour sense organs. Typical insect repellent products are in the form of sprays and lotions.

6. Oral care cosmetics

These can be divided into: dentifrices which are used with a toothbrush; mouthwashes which are not; and mouth fresheners. Dentifrices and mouthwashes are used to clean the teeth and the surrounding area. They also cleanse and freshen the mouth, prevent dental caries and periodontal disease. The purpose of mouth fresheners is to prevent nausea or halitosis, to freshen the inside of the mouth.

The categories and functions of oral care cosmetics are given in the following table.

Table 6.1: **Functions and categories of oral care cosmetics**

Usage	Category	Form of product	Functions
With toothbrush	Dentifrices	Tooth powder Moist tooth powder Toothpaste Fluid-form toothpaste Liquid-form dentifrice	• Prevent dental caries and periodontal diseases • Whiten teeth • Remove plaque • Clean inside of mouth • Prevent halitosis • Remove stains from teeth • Prevent deposition of calculus
Without toothbrush	Mouthwashes (also referred to as mouth rinses)	These are directly used, in concentrated and powder type.	• Clean the inside of the mouth • Prevent halitosis • Freshen the mouth • Prevent dental caries and periodontal diseases
	Mouth fresheners	Types of product are pills, bars, troches and liquids. (There are also food products for freshening the mouth such as candies, chewing gum and mouth freshening sweets but they are clearly separated from mouth fresheners in legislation.)	• Prevent nausea and other feelings of discomfort

(Mitsui, 1997, pp.479-490)

Appendix 2: Questionnaire on the Buyer Behaviour of Consumers of Cosmetics in the United Kingdom (UK)

Thank you for your help. This will take 10-15 minutes of your time: all you need to do is to place a tick in the appropriate box □ alongside each question. If you could add other information in the spaces indicated " other, please specify " this would be very helpful to the researcher. Again thanking you for all your help.

1. Your age group: □18-20 □21-23 □24-26 □27-29

2. Your marital status:

Marital status	Single	Married	Divorced/Separated	Widowed
	□	□	□	□
With one child or more	□	□	□	□

3. Education: □ Secondary school □ Further/Higher education □ Postgraduate

4. Your accommodation:
   □ living with your parents
   □ living with your relatives
   □ in company /school accommodation
   □ renting house/flat
   □ living in own house/flat
   □ other, please specify ______________

5. Your occupation:
   □ Student
   □ Company employee
   □ Self-employed
   □ State or local administration employee
   □ Other work or profession, please specify ______________________

6. Your annual income (in £): □up to 10,000 □10,001~15,000 □15,001~20,000 □20,001~25,000 □25,001~30,000 □30,001~35,500 □above 35,000

7. At what age (approximately) did you start to use cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

8. At what age (approximately) did you start to purchase cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

9. How often have you bought the following products in the last twelve months?

Products		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

10. How much did you spend (approximately) on the following products in the last twelve months?

(£)	Make-up (lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder, foundation)	Skincare products (cleansing cream/lotion, toner/astringent, moisturising cream/ lotion)	Toiletries (shampoo, hair conditioner, soap/shower gel)	Fragrances (perfume, Eau de toilette/ cologne)
Up to 10	□	□	□	□
11 ~ 20	□	□	□	□
21 ~ 30	□	□	□	□
31 ~ 40	□	□	□	□
41 ~ 50	□	□	□	□
51 ~ 60	□	□	□	□
61 ~ 70	□	□	□	□
71 ~ 80	□	□	□	□
81 ~ 90	□	□	□	□
91 ~ 100	□	□	□	□
101 ~ 110	□	□	□	□
Above 110	□	□	□	□

11. Where do you usually purchase your cosmetics?

Products		Pharmacy	Supermarket	Department store	Boutique	Cosmetic supplier shop (e.g. manufacturer's outlet)	Beauty/ hair salon	Other places: please specify
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Soap/ shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eau de toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	

12. Have you tried the following alternative ways to buy cosmetic products?

Products		Mail order	Internet	Direct selling (by agent)
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□

13. In making my purchase decision for cosmetics, I feel that I am influenced strongly by:

Influencing factors	Make-up	Skincare products	Toiletries	Fragrances
My friends' advice/opinions	□	□	□	□
T.V. advertising	□	□	□	□
Radio advertising	□	□	□	□
Advertising in magazines or newspapers	□	□	□	□
Sales assistant advice	□	□	□	□
My knowledge of the suitability of the product	□	□	□	□
Personal preference	□	□	□	□
Special offers/discounts	□	□	□	□
Price of the product	□	□	□	□
Other factors, please specify				

14. What type of brand of cosmetics do you purchase?

Products		Domestic brands	Foreign brands: Asia-Pacific e.g. Japan, Australian etc.	Foreign brands: Europe e.g. France, Germany, Italy etc.	Foreign brands: North Amcrica e.g. USA
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

15. How many different brands of cosmetics have you bought in the last twelve months?

		One brand	Two brands	Three brands	Four brands	Five brands	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing Cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□

16. Have you bought in the last twelve months cosmetic products containing sun-screen formulations (UV filters)? □Yes □No
If yes, how often have you bought them?

products		Once	Twice	Three times	Four times	Five times	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
Sun care products	Lip protector stick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Sun protection lotion/milk	□	□	□	□	□	□

17. Have you bought any self-tan lotion/creams in the last twelve months? □Yes □No
If yes, how often have you bought them?
□ once □ twice □ three times □ four times □ five times □ six or more

18. When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer? □Yes □No
If yes, is your purpose to compare (please tick as many as needed):
□ price □ brand □ packaging □ quality □ content (ingredients)
□ promotional gifts
for other reason(s), please specify_______________

19. Do you usually give presents to your relatives or friends on special occasions in the year? □Yes □No
If yes, please specify which items you buy as presents:

Items	Christmas	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions (school graduate, job promotion, etc.)
Clothing/shoes	□	□	□	□
Fashion accessories	□	□	□	□
Cosmetics	□	□	□	□
Foods/drinks	□	□	□	□
Flowers & plants	□	□	□	□
Fruits	□	□	□	□
Furniture & soft furnishings	□	□	□	□
Electrical goods	□	□	□	□
Gift of money (£)	□	□	□	□
Toys/games	□	□	□	□
Books	□	□	□	□
Music tape/CD	□	□	□	□
Other items, please specify				

20. If you buy cosmetics as presents for your relatives or friends, please specify which of the following items you choose on the various special occasions.

Items		Christmas	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions (school graduate, job promotion, etc.)
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

21. If you have children, have you considered reducing your spending on cosmetics, in order to concentrate more on the children's needs? □Yes □No
If yes, how do you economise on cosmetics?

Products		Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Toiletries	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

22. Please judge each of these statements on a scale of **A** to **E**, with **A** being strongly agree, **B** agree, **C** neither agree nor disagree, **D** disagree, and **E** strongly disagree:

		A	B	C	D	E
1	I consider myself to be very fashion-conscious..................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
2	I attach great importance to cosmetics..........................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
3	Choosing between kinds of cosmetics is a very important decision..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
4	Buying cosmetics requires a lot of thought.....................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
5	It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cosmetics..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
6	When buying cosmetics, price is my most important consideration..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
7	I believe the higher the price of cosmetics, the higher the quality..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
8	I believe that if I use the best brand of cosmetics that will enhance my image & social status..............................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
9	I believe that a sun-tanned appearance shows one's social status..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
10	I consider that it is important to have a sun-tanned appearance..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
11	I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid the harmful effects of the sun......	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
12	I believe that using self-tan creams/lotions I can achieve a satisfactory tan without sun bathing	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
13	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
14	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
15	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products whose ingredients have not been tested on animals..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
16	I think it is important for a mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate more on the needs of the child/ children..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□

Appendix 3: Questionnaire on the Buyer Behaviour of Consumers of Cosmetics in mainland China (People's Republic of China, PRC)

Thank you for your help. This will take 10-15 minutes of your time: all you need to do is to place a tick in the appropriate box □ alongside each question. If you could add other information in the spaces indicated " other, please specify " this would be very helpful to the researcher. Again thanking you for all your help.

1. Your age group: □18-20 □21-23 □24-26 □27-29

2. Your marital status:

Marital status	Single	Married	Divorced/Separated	Widowed
	□	□	□	□
With one child or more	□	□	□	□

3. Education: □High school graduate □College/university graduate □Postgraduate

4. Your accommodation:
   □ living with your parents
   □ living with your relatives
   □ in company /school accommodation
   □ renting house/flat
   □ living in own house/flat
   □ other, please specify ______________

5. Your occupation:
   □ Student
   □ State-owned enterprises employee
   □ Private company employee
   □ State or local administration employee
   □ School teacher or school support staff
   □ Self-employed
   □ Other work or profession, please specify ____________________

6. Your monthly income (in Rmb): □up to 600 □601~800 □801~1,000 □1,001~1,200 □1,201~1,400 □1,401~1,600 □above 1,600

7. At what age (approximately) did you start to use cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

8. At what age (approximately) did you start to purchase cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

9. How often have you bought the following products in the last twelve months?

Products		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

10. How much did you spend (approximately) on the following products in the last twelve months?

(in Rmb)	Make-up (lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder, foundation)	Skincare products (cleansing cream/lotion, toner/astringent, moisturising cream/ lotion)	Personal washing products (shampoo, hair conditioner, soap/shower gel)	Fragrances (perfume, Eau de toilette/ cologne)
Up to 40	□	□	□	□
41 ~ 80	□	□	□	□
81 ~ 120	□	□	□	□
121 ~ 160	□	□	□	□
161 ~ 200	□	□	□	□
201 ~ 240	□	□	□	□
241 ~ 280	□	□	□	□
281 ~ 320	□	□	□	□
321 ~ 360	□	□	□	□
361 ~ 400	□	□	□	□
401 ~ 440	□	□	□	□
Above 440	□	□	□	□

11. Where do you usually purchase your cosmetics?

Products		Pharmacy	Supermarket	Department store	Boutique	Cosmetic supplier shop (e.g. manufacturer's outlet)	Beauty/ hair salon	Other places: please specify
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Soap/ shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eau de toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	

12. Have you tried the following alternative ways to buy cosmetic products?

Products		Mail order	Internet	Direct selling (by agent)
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□

13. In making my purchase decision for cosmetics, I feel that I am influenced strongly by:

Influencing factors	Make-up	Skincare products	Personal washing products	Fragrances
My friends' advice/opinions	□	□	□	□
T.V. advertising	□	□	□	□
Radio advertising	□	□	□	□
Advertising in magazines or newspapers	□	□	□	□
Sales assistant advice	□	□	□	□
My knowledge of the suitability of the product	□	□	□	□
Personal preference	□	□	□	□
Special offers/discounts	□	□	□	□
Price of the product	□	□	□	□
Other factors, please specify				

14. What type of brand of cosmetics do you purchase?

Products		Domestic brands	Foreign brands: Asia-Pacific e.g. Japan, Australian etc.	Foreign brands: Europe e.g. France, Germany, Italy etc.	Foreign brands: North America e.g. USA
Make-up	Lipstick	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Nail polish	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Eye shadow	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Blush/rouge	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Loose/compact face powder	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Foundation	◻	◻	◻	◻
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Toner/astringent	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Moisture cream/lotion	◻	◻	◻	◻
Personal washing products	Shampoo	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Hair conditioner	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Soap/shower gel	◻	◻	◻	◻
Fragrances	Perfume	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	◻	◻	◻	◻

15. How many different brands of cosmetics have you bought in the last twelve months?

		One brand	Two brands	Three brands	Four brands	Five brands	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Nail polish	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Eye shadow	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Blush/rouge	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Loose/compact face powder	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Foundation	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
Skincare products	Cleansing Cream/lotion	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Toner/astringent	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
Personal washing products	Shampoo	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Hair conditioner	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Soap/shower gel	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
Fragrances	Perfume	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻

16. Have you bought in the last twelve months cosmetic products containing sun-screen formulations (UV filters)? ◻Yes ◻No
If yes, how often have you bought them?

products		Once	Twice	Three times	Four times	Five times	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Foundation	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
Skincare products	Moisturising cream/ lotion	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
Sun care products	Lip protector stick	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻
	Sun protection lotion/milk	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻	◻

17. Have you bought any whitener skincare lotion/creams in the last twelve months?
□Yes □No
If yes, how often have you bought them?
□once □twice □three times □four times □five times □six or more

18. When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer? □Yes □No
If yes, is your purpose to compare (please tick as many as needed):
□ price □ brand □ packaging □ quality □ content (ingredients)
□ promotional gifts
for other reason(s), please specify_______________

19. Do you usually give presents to your relatives or friends on special occasions in the year? □Yes □No
If yes, please specify which items you buy as presents:

Items	New year	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions
Clothing/shoes	□	□	□	□
Fashion accessories	□	□	□	□
Cosmetics	□	□	□	□
Foods/drinks	□	□	□	□
Flowers & plants	□	□	□	□
Fruits	□	□	□	□
Furniture & soft furnishings	□	□	□	□
Electrical goods	□	□	□	□
Gift of money (in Rmb)	□	□	□	□
Toys/games	□	□	□	□
Books	□	□	□	□
Music tape/CD	□	□	□	□
Other items, please specify				

20. If you buy cosmetics as presents for your relatives or friends, please specify which of the following items you choose on the various special occasions.

Items		New year	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

21. If you have children, have you considered reducing your spending on cosmetics, in order to concentrate more on the children's needs? □Yes □No
If yes, how do you economise on cosmetics?

Products		Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

22. Please judge each of these statements on a scale of **A** to **E**, with **A** being strongly agree, **B** agree, **C** neither agree nor disagree, **D** disagree, and **E** strongly disagree:

		A	B	C	D	E
1	I consider myself to be very fashion-conscious.................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
2	I attach great importance to cosmetics..........................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
3	Choosing between kinds of cosmetics is a very important decision..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
4	Buying cosmetics requires a lot of thought.....................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
5	It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cosmetics..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
6	When buying cosmetics, price is my most important consideration..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
7	I believe the higher the price of cosmetics, the higher the quality..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
8	I believe that if I use the best brand of cosmetics that will enhance my image & social status..............................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
9	I believe that skin colour reveals one's social status...........	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
10	I consider that it is important to have a light-coloured skin...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
11	I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid skin-darkening..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
12	I believe that using whitener skincare creams/lotions can help to achieve a satisfactory lightening of the skin...........	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
13	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
14	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
15	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products whose ingredients have not been tested on animals..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
16	I think it is important for a mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate more on the needs of the child/ children..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□

化妆品消费者购买行为问卷调查表

首先感谢您的合作，填写此份调查表大约需占用您１０～１５分钟宝贵的时间，您要做的就是在 ☐ 内打✓即可。如果您能够在"其它"之空格内，填上相关资料的话，将对调查者有更大的帮助，再次感谢您的协助。

1. 您的年龄：☐１８～２０ ☐２１～２３ ☐２４～２６ ☐ ２７～２９
2. 您的婚姻状况：

婚姻状况	单身	已婚	离婚 / 分居	寡居
	☐	☐	☐	☐
有小孩	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. 您的受教育程度：☐中学毕业 ☐大学毕业 ☐硕士以上
4. 您的居住情况：
   ☐与父母同住 ☐与亲戚同住 ☐住公司(单位) / 学校宿舍
   ☐租房子 ☐住自购的房子 ☐其它________
5. 您的职业：
   ☐学生 ☐国营企业职工 ☐合资企业职工 ☐国家工作人员 / 干部
   ☐教师 ☐个体户 ☐其它________
6. 您的月收入（人民币）：
   ☐600 之内 ☐601～800 ☐801～1,000 ☐1,001～1,200
   ☐1,201～1,400 ☐1,401～1,600 ☐1,600 以上
7. 您开始使用化妆品的年龄：

	产品	14 岁以前	15-17 岁	18-20 岁	21-23 岁	24-26 岁	27-29 岁	不使用
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. 您开始购买化妆品的年龄：

	产品	14 岁以前	15-17 岁	18-20 岁	21-23 岁	24-26 岁	27-29 岁	不使用
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. 在过去的一年中，您购买化妆品的情况：

	产品	1 次 / 1 月	1 次 / 2 月	1 次 / 3 月	1 次 / 4 月	1 次 / 5 月	1 次 / 6 月	1 年以上
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. 在过去的一年中，您在购买化妆品的开支情况：

人民币（元）	化妆品（口红、指甲油、眼影、胭脂 / 腮红、香粉 / 粉饼、粉底霜）	护肤品（清洁霜 / 乳液、化妆水、营养霜 / 乳液。）	洗沐品（洗发香波、护发素、香皂 / 浴液）	香料（香水、花露水）
40 以内	☐	☐	☐	☐
41～80	☐	☐	☐	☐
81～120	☐	☐	☐	☐
121～160	☐	☐	☐	☐
161～200	☐	☐	☐	☐
201～240	☐	☐	☐	☐
241～280	☐	☐	☐	☐
281～320	☐	☐	☐	☐
321～360	☐	☐	☐	☐
361～400	☐	☐	☐	☐
401～440	☐	☐	☐	☐
440 以上	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. 您通常是在甚么地方购买化妆品的：请在适当的格内打✔，若在其它地方购买，请您在“其它”格内填上地方名称。

产品		药房	超级市场	百货公司	高级流行服饰精品店	美容美发品专卖店(包括厂商直营及平价进口)	美容 / 美发院	其它
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

12. 您曾尝试过用下列方法购买化妆品吗？ 请在下列相关格内打✔

产品		邮购	网上购物	向直销销售人员购买
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐

13. 在下决定购买化妆品时，我感觉对我影响最大的是：

影响因素	化妆品	护肤品	洗浴品	香料
朋友的意见 / 建议	☐	☐	☐	☐
电视广告	☐	☐	☐	☐
收音机广告	☐	☐	☐	☐
报纸杂志广告	☐	☐	☐	☐
售货员推荐	☐	☐	☐	☐
依自己对产品适用性的认知	☐	☐	☐	☐
依个人喜好	☐	☐	☐	☐
特别优惠 / 折扣	☐	☐	☐	☐
产品的售价	☐	☐	☐	☐
其它原因，请叙述				

14. 您所购买的化妆品品牌是：

产品		国产品牌	进口品牌：亚太地区 (如:日本、澳洲等等)	进口品牌：欧洲 (如:法、德、意大利等等)	进口品牌：北美地区 (如:美国)
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. 在过去的一年中，您曾经买过几种不同品牌的化妆品了？

产品		1种	2种	3种	4种	5种	6种以上
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂 / 腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉 / 粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂 / 浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. 在过去的一年中，您曾经买用过含有防晒（紫外线过滤）成份的化妆品吗？

☐有　☐没有

如果您回答"有"，您的购买次数是：

产品		1次	2次	3次	4次	5次	6次以上
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	营养霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
防晒护肤品	护唇膏 / 口红	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	防晒霜 / 乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. 在过去的一年中，您购买过美白护肤乳液或护肤霜吗？ ☐有 ☐没有

如果您回答"有"，您的购买次数是：

☐1次 ☐2次 ☐3次 ☐4次 ☐5次 ☐6次以上

18. 您在购买化妆品时，会去不同的商店，比较他们提供的产品与售价吗？

☐会　☐不会

您若回答"会"，请问您所做的比较是：（可打两个以上的✓）

☐价格 ☐品牌 ☐包装 ☐质量 ☐内容（成份） ☐附赠品

☐其它__________

19. 在特殊的日子里，您通常会送礼物给亲朋好友吗？ ☐有 ☐没有

如果您回答"有"，请在下列相关格内打✓，如果是其它东西，请在"其它"格内填上物品名称。

物品	新年	结婚	生日	其它特殊日子 (如：中秋节等)
衣服 / 鞋子类	☐	☐	☐	☐
流行饰品 (例如:耳环,项链等)	☐	☐	☐	☐
化妆品	☐	☐	☐	☐
食品 / 饮料	☐	☐	☐	☐
花卉 / 植物	☐	☐	☐	☐
水果	☐	☐	☐	☐
家俱	☐	☐	☐	☐
电气用品	☐	☐	☐	☐
礼金（人民币）	☐	☐	☐	☐
玩具（包括电子玩具）	☐	☐	☐	☐
书	☐	☐	☐	☐
音乐带 / 光盘片	☐	☐	☐	☐
其它				

20. 如果您在特殊的日子里，送化妆品给亲朋好友当作礼物时，您会选购下列何种产品？

产品		新年	结婚	生日	其它特殊日子（如：中秋节等）
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂／腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉／粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. 如果您有小孩，您是否会考虑减少化妆品支出，而把它用在小孩的需要上吗？ ☐会 ☐不会

如果您回答“会”，请问您如何节省您的化妆品支出？

产品		不再购买	减少购买	购买较便宜的品牌	维持现状
化妆品	口红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	胭脂／腮红	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香粉／粉饼	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
护肤品	清洁霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
	化妆水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	营养霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗发香波	☐	☐	☐	☐
	护发素	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／浴液	☐	☐	☐	☐
香料	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	花露水	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. 请依 A. B. C. D. E. 等级作下列评估（A 表示“非常同意”，B“基本同意”，C“不能确定”，D“不大同意”，E“非常不同意”）。

		A	B	C	D	E
1	我认为我自己相当时髦.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
2	化妆品对我来说是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
3	对化妆品不同品牌的选择是很重要的决定. . . .	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
4	当我购买化妆品时，必须精挑细选考虑很久. . .	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
5	当我购买到不合适的化妆品时，会感到很苦恼.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
6	购买化妆品时，产品价格是我最主要的考虑因素.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
7	价格越高的化妆品，产品质量就越好.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
8	使用名牌化妆品，可以展示个人的形象及社会地位.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
9	肤色的深浅可以显示出一个人的阶级地位. . . .	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
10	我认为拥有浅色的皮肤是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
11	我相信使用防晒面霜及乳液，可以避免皮肤晒黑.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
12	我相信使用美白护肤面霜及乳液，可以帮助达到美白效果.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
13	购买化妆品时，我认为选择在包装上对环境友善(可回收利用）的产品是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
14	购买化妆品时，我认为选择不含动物性成份的产品是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
15	购买化妆品时，我认为选择其成份未曾在动物身上测试的产品是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
16	我认为对一个母亲而言，减少化妆品的支出，而把它用在小孩的需要上是很重要的.	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐

Appendix 4: Questionnaire on the Buyer Behaviour of Consumers of Cosmetics in Taiwan, Republic of China (R.O.C)

Thank you for your help. This will take 10-15 minutes of your time: all you need to do is to place a tick in the appropriate box □ alongside each question. If you could add other information in the spaces indicated " other, please specify " this would be very helpful to the researcher. Again thanking you for all your help.

1. Your age group: □18-20 □21-23 □24-26 □27-29

2. Your marital status:

Marital status	Single	Married	Divorced/Separated	Widowed
	□	□	□	□
With one child or more	□	□	□	□

3. Education: □ High school graduate □ Junior college graduate □ College/university graduate □ Postgraduate

4. Your accommodation:
   □ living with your parents
   □ living with your relatives
   □ in company /school accommodation
   □ renting house/flat
   □ living in own house/flat
   □ other, please specify ______________

5. Your occupation:
   □ Student □ State-owned enterprises employee
   □ Private company employee □ State or local administration employee
   □ School teacher or school support staff
   □ Self-employed
   □ Other work or profession, please specify ______________________

6. Your monthly income (in NT$): □up to 10,000 □10,001~15,000 □15,001~20,000 □20,001~25,000 □25,001~30,000 □30,001~35,500 □above 35,000

7. At what age (approximately) did you start to use cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

8. At what age (approximately) did you start to purchase cosmetics?

Products		Before age 14	Age 15-17	Age 18-20	Age 21-23	Age 24-26	Age 27-29	I do not use it
Make-up	Lipstick	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Nail polish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eye shadow	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Blush/rouge	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Loose/compact face powder	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Foundation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Toner/astringent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Moisturising cream/lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Personal washing products	Shampoo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Hair conditioner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Soap/Shower gel	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fragrances	Perfume	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eau de toilette/cologne	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. How often have you bought the following products in the last twelve months?

Products		Once a month	Once every 2 months	Once every 3 months	Once every 4 months	Once every 5 months	Once every 6 months	Over a year ago
Make-up	Lipstick	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Nail polish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eye shadow	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Blush/rouge	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Loose/compact face powder	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Foundation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Toner/astringent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Personal washing products	Shampoo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Hair conditioner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Soap/shower gel	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fragrances	Perfume	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eau de Toilette/cologne	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. How much did you spend (approximately) on the following products in the last twelve months?

(in NT$)	Make-up (lipstick, nail polish, eye shadow, blush/rouge, loose/compact face powder, foundation)	Skincare products (cleansing cream/lotion, toner/astringent, moisturising cream/ lotion)	Personal washing products (shampoo, hair conditioner, soap/shower gel)	Fragrances (perfume, Eau de toilette/ cologne)
Up to 500	☐	☐	☐	☐
501 ~ 1,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
1,001 ~ 1,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
1,501 ~ 2,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
2,001 ~ 2,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
2,501 ~ 3,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
3,001 ~ 3,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
3,501 ~ 4,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
4,001 ~ 4,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
4,501 ~ 5,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
5,001 ~ 5,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
Above 5,500	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Where do you usually purchase your cosmetics?

Products		Pharmacy	Supermarket	Department store	Boutique	Cosmetic supplier shop (e.g. manufacturer's outlet)	Beauty/ hair salon	Other places: please specify
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Soap/ shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□	
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□	
	Eau de toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□	

12. Have you tried the following alternative ways to buy cosmetic products?

Products		Mail order	Internet	Direct selling (by agent)
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/lotion	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/lotion	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□
	Soap/Shower gel	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□
	Eau de toilette/cologne	□	□	□

13. In making my purchase decision for cosmetics, I feel that I am influenced strongly by:

Influencing factors	Make-up	Skincare products	Personal washing products	Fragrances
My friends' advice/opinions	□	□	□	□
T.V. advertising	□	□	□	□
Radio advertising	□	□	□	□
Advertising in magazines or newspapers	□	□	□	□
Sales assistant advice	□	□	□	□
My knowledge of the suitability of the product	□	□	□	□
Personal preference	□	□	□	□
Special offers/discounts	□	□	□	□
Price of the product	□	□	□	□
Other factors, please specify				

14. What type of brand of cosmetics do you purchase?

Products		Domestic brands	Foreign brands: Asia-Pacific e.g. Japan, Australian etc.	Foreign brands: Europe e.g. France, Germany, Italy etc.	Foreign brands: North America e.g. USA
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

15. How many different brands of cosmetics have you bought in the last twelve months?

		One brand	Two brands	Three brands	Four brands	Five brands	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing Cream/lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□	□	□

16. Have you bought in the last twelve months cosmetic products containing sun-screen formulations (UV filters)? □Yes □No
If yes, how often have you bought them?

products		Once	Twice	Three times	Four times	Five times	Six or over
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Moisturising cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□	□	□
Sun care products	Lip protector stick	□	□	□	□	□	□
	Sun protection lotion/milk	□	□	□	□	□	□

17. Have you bought any whitener skincare lotion/creams in the last twelve months?
☐Yes ☐No
If yes, how often have you bought them?
☐ once ☐ twice ☐ three times ☐ four times ☐ five times ☐ six or more

18. When you purchase cosmetics, do you go to different shops and compare what they offer? ☐Yes ☐No
If yes, is your purpose to compare (please tick as many as needed):
☐ price ☐ brand ☐ packaging ☐ quality ☐ content (ingredients)
☐ promotional gifts
for other reason(s), please specify________________________

19. Do you usually give presents to your relatives or friends on special occasions in the year? ☐Yes ☐No
If yes, please specify which items you buy as presents:

Items	New year	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions
Clothing/shoes	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fashion accessories	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cosmetics	☐	☐	☐	☐
Foods/drinks	☐	☐	☐	☐
Flowers & plants	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fruits	☐	☐	☐	☐
Furniture & soft furnishings	☐	☐	☐	☐
Electrical goods	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gift of money (in NT$)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Toys/games	☐	☐	☐	☐
Books	☐	☐	☐	☐
Music tape/CD	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other items, please specify				

20. If you buy cosmetics as presents for your relatives or friends, please specify which of the following items you choose on the various special occasions.

Items		New year	Weddings	Birthdays	Other occasions
Make-up	Lipstick	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Nail polish	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eye shadow	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Blush/rouge	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Loose/compact face powder	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Foundation	☐	☐	☐	☐
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Toner/astringent	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Moisture cream/lotion	☐	☐	☐	☐
Personal washing products	Shampoo	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Hair conditioner	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Soap/shower gel	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fragrances	Perfume	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. If you have children, have you considered reducing your spending on cosmetics, in order to concentrate more on the children's needs? □Yes □No
If yes, how do you economise on cosmetics?

Products		Stop purchasing altogether	Purchase less frequently	Change to cheaper brands	Continue purchasing as usual
Make-up	Lipstick	□	□	□	□
	Nail polish	□	□	□	□
	Eye shadow	□	□	□	□
	Blush/rouge	□	□	□	□
	Loose/compact face powder	□	□	□	□
	Foundation	□	□	□	□
Skincare products	Cleansing cream/ lotion	□	□	□	□
	Toner/astringent	□	□	□	□
	Moisture cream/lotion	□	□	□	□
Personal washing products	Shampoo	□	□	□	□
	Hair conditioner	□	□	□	□
	Soap/shower gel	□	□	□	□
Fragrances	Perfume	□	□	□	□
	Eau de Toilette /cologne	□	□	□	□

22. Please judge each of these statements on a scale of **A** to **E**, with **A** being strongly agree, **B** agree, **C** neither agree nor disagree, **D** disagree, and **E** strongly disagree:

		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
1	I consider myself to be very fashion-conscious..................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
2	I attach great importance to cosmetics...........................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
3	Choosing between kinds of cosmetics is a very important decision..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
4	Buying cosmetics requires a lot of thought......................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
5	It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cosmetics...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
6	When buying cosmetics, price is my most important consideration..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
7	I believe the higher the price of cosmetics, the higher the quality...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
8	I believe that if I use the best brand of cosmetics that will enhance my image & social status..............................	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
9	I believe that skin colour reveals one's social status...........	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
10	I consider that it is important to have a light-coloured skin...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
11	I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid skin-darkening..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
12	I believe that using whitener skincare creams/lotions can help to achieve a satisfactory lightening of the skin...........	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
13	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
14	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
15	When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products whose ingredients have not been tested on animals...	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□
16	I think it is important for a mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate more on the needs of the child/ children..	A□	B□	C□	D□	E□

化妝品消費者購買行為問卷調查表

感謝您的合作，此問卷將花費您 10～15 分鐘的寶貴時間：您只需在每個問題的 ☐ 處打✔。若您能在"其他"項目，敘述相關資訊的話，將對研究者非常有幫助，再一次謝謝您。

1. 年齡：☐18～20 ☐21～23 ☐24～26 ☐ 27～29
2. 婚姻狀況：

婚姻狀況	未婚	已婚	離婚 / 分居	寡居
	☐	☐	☐	☐
有子女	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. 教育程度：☐高中畢業 ☐專科畢業 ☐學院/大學畢業 ☐研究所畢業
4. 住屋狀況：
   ☐與父母親同住 ☐與親戚同住 ☐住公司／學校宿舍
   ☐租屋／公寓 ☐自有房屋／公寓 ☐其他，請敘述__________
5. 您的職業：☐學生 ☐國營事業員工 ☐私人公司員工 ☐政府行政機關員工
   ☐教師或學校員工 ☐公司老闆 ☐其他工作／職業，請敘述__________
6. 您的月收入（新台幣）：☐10,000 以下 ☐10,001～15,000 ☐15,001～20,000
   ☐20,001～25,000 ☐25,001～30,000 ☐30,001～35,000 ☐35,000 以上
7. 您大約在幾歲開始使用化妝品？

	產品	14 歲前	15-17 歲	18-20 歲	21-23 歲	24-26 歲	27-29 歲	從未使用過
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
沐浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. 您大約在幾歲開始購買化妝品？

	產品	14 歲前	15-17 歲	18-20 歲	21-23 歲	24-26 歲	27-29 歲	從未使用過
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
沐浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. 您在過去的一年中，多久一次購買下列產品？

	產品	1 個月	2 個月	3 個月	4 個月	5 個月	6 個月	超過 1 年
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
沐浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. 您在過去一年中，花費 (大約) 多少金額購買下列產品？

(新台幣)	化妝品 (口紅・指甲油・眼影・腮紅・蜜粉／粉餅・粉底霜)	護膚品 (清潔乳／霜・柔軟／收斂水・保濕霜／乳液)	沐浴品 (洗髮精・潤髮乳・香皂／沐浴乳)	香水 (香水・古龍水)
500 以下	☐	☐	☐	☐
501～1,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
1,001～1,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
1,501～2,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
2,001～2,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
2,501～3,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
3,001～3,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
3,501～4,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
4,001～4,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
4,501～5,000	☐	☐	☐	☐
5,001～5,500	☐	☐	☐	☐
5,500 以上	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. 您通常在那裏購買您的化妝品？

產品		藥房	超級市場	百貨公司	高級流行服飾精品店	美容美髮品專賣店 (包括廠商直營及平價進口)	美容／美髮院	其他地方請敘述
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
洗浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

12. 您曾嘗試以下列方式購買您的化妝品嗎？

產品		郵購	網路購物	向直銷銷售人員購買
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐

13. 在下決定購買化妝品時，我感覺對我影響最大的是：

影響要素	化妝品	護膚品	沐浴品	香水
朋友的意見／建議	☐	☐	☐	☐
電視廣告	☐	☐	☐	☐
電台廣告	☐	☐	☐	☐
雜誌／報紙廣告	☐	☐	☐	☐
售貨員建議	☐	☐	☐	☐
依自己對產品適用性的認知	☐	☐	☐	☐
個人的嗜好	☐	☐	☐	☐
特別優惠／折扣	☐	☐	☐	☐
商品的售價	☐	☐	☐	☐
其他因素，請敘述				

14. 您會購買何種品牌的化妝品呢？

產品		國內品牌	國外品牌 亞太地區 (如:日本・澳洲等等)	國外品牌 歐洲 (如:法・德・意大利等等)	國外品牌 北美地區 (如:美國)
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. 在最近一年內，您購買過多少種不同品牌的化妝品呢？

產品		一種	二種	三種	四種	五種	六種以上(含)
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
洗浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16.您曾經在最近一年內，購買過含有防紫外線成份的化妝品嗎？

☐有　☐沒有

如果有，請問您購買的頻率爲何?

產品		一次	二次	三次	四次	五次	六次以上(含)
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
防曬品	護唇膏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	防曬乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. 您曾經在最近一年內，購買過美白護膚乳液或護膚霜嗎？ ☐有 ☐沒有

如果有，請問您購買的頻率爲何？

☐一次 ☐二次 ☐三次 ☐四次 ☐五次 ☐六次以上

18. 當您購買化妝品時，會去不同的商店，比較他們提供的產品與售價嗎？

☐會　☐不會

假如會，您所做的比較是：（可複選）

☐價格 ☐品牌 ☐包裝 ☐品質 ☐內容 (成份) ☐促銷贈品

☐其他原因，請敘述__________

19. 在特殊的日子裏，您通常會送禮物給親朋好友嗎？ ☐是 ☐否

假如是，請選擇下列您會購買的禮品：

項目	新年	結婚	生日	其他特殊日子 (如: 中秋節等)
衣服 / 鞋子	☐	☐	☐	☐
流行飾品 (例如:耳環,項鍊等) :	☐	☐	☐	☐
化妝品	☐	☐	☐	☐
食物 / 飲料	☐	☐	☐	☐
花 / 植物	☐	☐	☐	☐
水果	☐	☐	☐	☐
傢俱	☐	☐	☐	☐
電器用品	☐	☐	☐	☐
禮金 (新台幣)	☐	☐	☐	☐
玩具 / 遊戲機	☐	☐	☐	☐
書籍	☐	☐	☐	☐
音樂帶 / CD	☐	☐	☐	☐
其他, 請說明				

20. 如果您在特殊的日子裏，送化妝品給親朋好友當作禮物時，您會選購下列何種產品？

項目		新年	結婚	生日	其他特殊日子 (如: 中秋節等)
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
沐浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. 如果您有小孩，您是否會考慮減少化妝品支出，而把它用在小孩的需要上嗎？ ☐是 ☐不是

假如是, 您如何節約化妝品上的開銷呢?

產品		停止購買	減少購買頻率	改買較便宜的品牌	維持現狀
化妝品	口紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	指甲油	☐	☐	☐	☐
	眼影	☐	☐	☐	☐
	腮紅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	蜜粉／粉餅	☐	☐	☐	☐
	粉底霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
護膚品	清潔乳／霜	☐	☐	☐	☐
	柔軟／收斂水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	保濕霜／乳液	☐	☐	☐	☐
沐浴品	洗髮精	☐	☐	☐	☐
	潤髮乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
	香皂／沐浴乳	☐	☐	☐	☐
香水	香水	☐	☐	☐	☐
	古龍水	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. 請依 A. B. C. D. E. 等級作下列評估 (A是相當同意，B同意，C無所謂，D不同意，E相當不同意)。

		A	B	C	D	E
1	我認爲我自己相當時髦・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
2	化妝品對我而言很重要・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
3	選擇品牌是相當重要的決定・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
4	購買化妝品時，須考慮很久・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
5	買到不適用的化妝品時會很煩惱・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
6	購買化妝品時，價格是我主要的考慮因素・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
7	我相信價格越高的化妝品，其品質就越好・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
8	我相信使用名牌的化妝品，會增加我的形象及社會地位・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
9	我相信膚色的深淺，可以顯示出一個人的社會地位・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
10	我認爲擁有淺色的皮膚是很重要的・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
11	我相信使用防曬面霜及乳液，可以避免皮膚曬黑・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
12	我相信使用美白護膚面霜及乳液，可以幫助達到美白效果・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
13	購買化妝品時，我認爲選擇在包裝上對環境友善 (可回收利用) 的產品是很重要的・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
14	購買化妝品時，我認爲選擇不含動物性成份的產品是很重要的・・・・・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
15	購買化妝品時，我認爲選擇其成份未曾在動物身上測試的產品是很重要的・・・・・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
16	我認爲對一個母親而言，減少化妝品的支出，而把它用在小孩的需要上是很重要的・・・・・・・	A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐

Appendix 5: Six-factor solution

Factor analysis provides a means of condensing the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of new composite dimensions or variables (factors) with a minimum loss of information. In this, it seeks and defines the fundamental constructs or dimensions which are assumed as underlying the original variables (Hair et al, 1998).

1. Variable labels for factor analysis

The following table shows the 16 variable labels used for the purpose of factor analysis, which correspond to the 16 original statements of attitude contained in the questionnaires on cosmetics purchasing behaviour.

Table 1: **Variable labels of 16 statements of attitude used for factor analysis**

16 statements of attitude	Variable labels
1. I consider myself to be very fashion-conscious	Fashion-consciousness
2. I attach great importance to cosmetics	Importance of cosmetics
3. Choosing between kinds of cosmetics is a very important decision	Choosing cosmetics
4. Buying cosmetics requires a lot of thought	Thought in cosmetics purchase
5. It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cosmetics	Unsuitable cosmetics purchase
6. When buying cosmetics, price is my most important consideration	Attitude to price
7. I believe the higher the price of cosmetics, the higher the quality	Price and quality connection
8. I believe that if I use the best brand of cosmetics that will enhance my image and social status	Brand and status connection
9a. I believe that a sun-tanned appearance shows one's social status*	Sun-tanned appearance and link to status
9b. I believe that skin colour reveals one's social status**	Skin colour appearance and link to status
10a. I consider that it is important to have a sun-tanned appearance*	Importance of sun-tanned appearance
10b. I consider that it is important to have a light-coloured skin**	Importance of light-coloured skin appearance
11a. I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid the harmful effects of the sun*	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation
11b. I believe that by using sun-screen creams/lotions I can avoid skin-darkening**	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening
12a. I believe that by using self-tan creams/lotions I can achieve a satisfactory tan without sun bathing*	Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products
12b. I believe that using whitener skincare creams/lotions can help to achieve a satisfactory lightening of the skin**	Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products
13. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products presented in environmentally friendly packaging	Attitude to environment
14. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products that do not contain animal ingredients	Attitude to animal welfare
15. When purchasing cosmetics, I think it is very important to select products whose ingredients have not been tested on animals	Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients
16. I think it is important for a mother to reduce her spending on cosmetics in order to concentrate more on the needs of the child/children	Attitude to child/children

* 9a, 10a, 11a, 12a are contained in the questionnaire used in the UK (see Appendix 2)
** 9b, 10b, 11b, 12b are contained in the questionnaires used in Taiwan and China (see Appendices 3 and 4)

2. Naming for the factor loadings

There is no exact rule to name the factors. Different researchers in many instances will no doubt assign different names to the same results because of differences in their backgrounds and training. But if a logical name can be assigned that represents the underlying nature of the factors, it usually facilitates the presentation and understanding of the factor solution and therefore is a justifiable procedure. (Hair et al, 1998, 127).

The following table shows the above 16 variable labels further condensed into a new set of 6 factors. These factors have been given names which summarise the subject-matter contained in the variable labels with which they are associated.

Table 2:

Names of factors for 16 variables elicited by factor analysis

Names of factors	Variable labels of 16 statements of attitude	
Importance	1	Fashion-consciousness
	2	Importance of cosmetics
	3	Choosing cosmetics
Purchase	4	Thought in cosmetics purchase
	5	Unsuitable cosmetics purchase
	6	Attitude to price
	7	Price and quality connection
Status	8	Brand and status connection
	9a	Sun-tanned appearance and link to status*
	9b	Skin colour appearance and link to status**
	10a	Importance of sun-tanned appearance*
	10b	Importance of light-coloured skin appearance**
Health	11a	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation*
	11b	Belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening**
	12a	Belief in effectiveness of self-tan products*
	12b	Belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products**
Welfare	13	Attitude to environment
	14	Attitude to animal welfare
	15	Attitude to non-animal origin ingredients
Child	16	Attitude to child/children

* 9a, 10a, 11a, 12a are contained in the questionnaire used in the UK (see Appendix 2)

** 9b, 10b, 11b, 12b are contained in the questionnaires used in Taiwan and China (see Appendices 3 and 4)

3. Sample size and significant factor loadings

A rule of thumb suggested by Hair et al (1998, 111) for making a preliminary examination of the factor matrix is as follows: factor loadings bigger than ± .30 are regarded as meeting the minimal level; loadings of ± .40 are regarded as more important; if the loadings are ± .50 or greater, then they are considered practically significant. As these authors point out, the larger the absolute size of the factor loading, the more important the loading becomes in the interpretation of the factor matrix.

The following table shows the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size.

Table 3:

Guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size

Factor loading	Sample size needed for significance*
.30	350
.35	250
.40	200
.45	150
.50	120
.55	100
.60	85
.65	70
.70	60
.75	50

*Significance is based on a .05 significance level (α), a power level of 80 percent, and standard errors assumed to be twice those of conventional correlation coefficients.
Source: Computations made with SOLO Power Analysis, BMDP Statistical Software, Inc., 1993.
(Hair, 1998, p. 112)

The following table, comparison of the return rates and usable percentages of questionnaires distributed in China, Taiwan and the UK, gives a view of sample size in the various cities/regions concerned.

Table 4:

Comparison of the return rates and usable percentages of questionnaires for China, Taiwan and the UK

Country	Cities /Regions	Questionnaires sent out	Questionnaires returned	*Return rate	Usable questionnaires	*Usable percentage
China P.R.C.	**Beijing**	400	324	81%	307	76.8%
	Shanghai	400	339	84.8%	338	84.5%
Subtotal		800	663	82.9%	645	80.6%
Taiwan R.O.C.	**Taipei**	565	287	50.8%	286	50.6%
	Kaohsiung	439	360	82%	358	81.5%
Subtotal		1004	647	64.4%	644	64.1%
UK	**Northern England**	371	106	28.6%	106	28.6%
	Southern England	598	242	40.5%	237	39.6%
Subtotal		969	348	35.9%	343	35.4%
Total		2773	1658	59.8%	1632	58.9%

*Return rate (%) = questionnaires returned + questionnaires sent out
*Usable percentage (%) = usable questionnaires + questionnaires sent out

4. Six-factor solution for Taiwan, China and the UK

1. Taiwan R.O.C.

By using six-factor solution, six factors have been extracted from the 16 statements of attitude. Those variables which correlate highly with a group of other variables with significant correlation coefficients are shown in bold type in the following tables. Data reduction is carried out by searching for the variables which correlate closely with a group of other variables, but correlate very poorly with variables outside that group.

The following Tables 5, 6 and 7 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Taipei and Kaohsiung, and also a matrix "Taiwan R.O.C." which combines the matrices for Taipei and Kaohsiung.

In tables 5, 6, and 7, the first column shows the 16 statements of attitude while the other columns show the components of each of the six factors.

Table 5:

Rotated component matrix of Taipei by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	.191	8.210E-02	4.609E-02	3.908E-02	**.854**	-9.815E-02
importance of cosmetics	.127	7.097E-02	9.110E-02	.306	**.758**	.151
choosing cosmetics	3.227E-02	3.685E-02	.378	**.736**	.100	.220
thought in cosmetics purchase	5.803E-02	6.331E-02	**.767**	.209	-6.150E-02	.138
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	-6.862E-03	.276	**.634**	.166	.221	3.551E-02
attitude to price	.150	5.947E-02	**.796**	-.119	3.024E-02	4.887E-02
price and quality connection	**.755**	2.970E-02	7.250E-02	5.048E-02	.186	.199
brand and status connection	**.781**	5.201E-02	.152	-2.439E-02	.267	-3.902E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	**.857**	4.844E-02	-3.114E-02	.135	4.364E-02	-7.373E-04
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.719**	.202	.109	.394	-8.839E-02	-7.866E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.230	.382	2.213E-02	**.636**	.147	-.107
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.250	.271	-9.229E-02	**.594**	.320	-.115
attitude to environment	.126	**.779**	.127	.201	2.149E-02	-6.973E-02
attitude to animal welfare	-1.019E-02	**.845**	.145	.182	.105	4.584E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.112	**.777**	8.421E-02	1.399E-02	5.769E-02	.331
attitude to child/children	6.050E-02	.154	.180	7.383E-03	4.917E-03	**.905**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Taipei City has a sample size of 286 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires), which, according to the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size, represents a factor loading of ± .35.

As pointed above (section 3), factor loadings greater than ± .35 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

From the above table, it can be seen that for factor 1 there are four components which have high factor loading (shown in bold type); for factor 2 three components; for factor 3 three components; for factor 4 three components; for factor 5 two components and for factor 6 one component. All factor loadings bigger than ± .50 are considered practically significant.

An appropriate label for factor 1 can be "Status", for factor 2 "Welfare", for factor 3 "Purchase", for factor 4 "Health", for factor 5 "Importance" and for factor 6 "Child".

Table 6:

Rotated component matrix for Kaohsiung by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	.229	8.483E-02	8.696E-02	**.806**	7.693E-02	4.784E-02
importance of cosmetics	.151	.160	.118	**.829**	8.846E-02	3.155E-03
choosing cosmetics	4.238E-02	.237	**.570**	.317	.121	-3.998E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.139	4.456E-02	**.822**	6.273E-02	-1.135E-02	.105
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.109	.111	**.748**	-2.679E-03	.125	.119
attitude to price	3.239E-02	-6.691E-02	.387	.156	5.395E-02	**.688**
price and quality connection	**.663**	-.119	.194	.265	-4.549E-02	.160
brand and status connection	**.810**	4.304E-02	.204	.141	2.464E-02	-.146
skin colour appearance and link to status	**.851**	8.773E-02	-1.112E-02	9.712E-02	5.877E-02	-3.620E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.682**	.137	1.378E-02	3.286E-02	.240	.127
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.144	.107	.163	6.843E-02	**.840**	-1.556E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	6.010E-02	.135	2.448E-02	9.534E-02	**.865**	3.860E-02
attitude to environment	-9.125E-02	**.694**	.206	5.722E-02	.127	6.384E-02
attitude to animal welfare	7.367E-02	**.824**	8.108E-02	6.448E-02	5.184E-02	4.499E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.160	**.708**	1.501E-02	.139	9.220E-02	9.940E-02
attitude to child/children	2.040E-02	.274	-3.615E-02	-6.958E-02	-1.405E-02	**.813**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Kaohsiung City has a sample size of 358 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .30. As we have seen, factor loadings greater than ± .30 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

It can be seen from Table 6, for factor 1 there are four high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 there are three; for factor 3 there are three; for factor 4 there are two; for factor 5 there are two; and for factor 6 there are two. All factor loadings greater than ± .50 are considered practically significant.

Labels for these factors can be "Status" (factor 1), "Welfare" (factor 2), "Purchase" (factor 3), "Importance" (factor 4), "Health" (factor 5) and "Child" (factor 6).

Table 7:

Rotated component matrix for Taiwan R.O.C. by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	.211	6.786E-02	8.578E-02	8.120E-02	**.827**	-6.885E-03
importance of cosmetics	.142	.141	.150	.144	**.806**	2.930E-02
choosing cosmetics	6.526E-02	.196	**.613**	.193	.239	-4.939E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.123	4.794E-02	**.811**	-1.152E-02	6.024E-03	.131
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	7.970E-02	.175	**.722**	6.254E-02	7.519E-02	7.437E-02
attitude to price	6.969E-02	-6.082E-02	.481	4.449E-02	5.294E-02	**.608**
price and quality connection	**.702**	-6.692E-02	.111	4.618E-03	.252	.195
brand and status connection	**.800**	2.390E-02	.133	3.037E-02	.201	-4.857E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	**.859**	8.293E-02	-1.399E-02	7.955E-02	7.452E-02	-3.223E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.697**	.181	.122	.276	-4.875E-02	7.661E-03
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.156	.173	.170	**.824**	5.913E-02	-1.594E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.109	.132	1.481E-02	**.843**	.171	3.711E-02
attitude to environment	2.827E-03	**.717**	.187	.178	3.250E-02	2.231E-02
attitude to animal welfare	3.428E-02	**.833**	.141	.108	6.613E-02	2.453E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.139	**.743**	2.992E-02	5.014E-02	.129	.180
attitude to child/children	8.781E-03	.243	6.917E-03	-7.340E-03	-1.510E-02	**.848**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Taiwan ROC, which combines the samples of Taipei and Kaohsiung Cities, has a sample size of 644 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .30. Factor loadings which are greater than ± .30 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

From Table 7, as in the two preceding tables, it can be seen that for factor 1 there are four high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 three; for factor 3 three; for factor 4 two; for factor 5 two and for factor 6 two. All factor loading greater than ± .55 are considered practically significant.

The labels "Status", "Welfare", "Purchase" "Health", "Importance" and "Child" can be applied respectively to the six factors.

The following Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 show the extracted components (shown in bold type) of six factors in relation to Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan R.O.C.

Table 8:

Factor 1: "Status" for Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan R.O.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan ROC
	status	status	Status
fashion-consciousness	.191	.229	.211
importance of cosmetics	.127	.151	.142
choosing cosmetics	3.227E-02	4.238E-02	6.526E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	5.803E-02	.139	.123
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	-6.862E-03	.109	7.970E-02
attitude to price	.150	3.239E-02	6.969E-02
price and quality connection	.755	.663	.702
brand and status connection	.781	.810	.800
skin colour appearance and link to status	.857	.851	.859
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.719	.682	.697
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.230	.144	.156
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.250	6.010E-02	.109
attitude to environment	.126	-9.125E-02	2.827E-03
attitude to animal welfare	-1.019E-02	7.367E-02	3.428E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.112	.160	.139
attitude to child/children	6.050E-02	2.040E-02	8.781E-03

Table 9:

Factor 2: "Welfare" for Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan R.O.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan ROC
	welfare	welfare	Welfare
fashion-consciousness	8.210E-02	8.483E-02	6.786E-02
importance of cosmetics	7.097E-02	.160	.141
choosing cosmetics	3.685E-02	.237	.196
thought in cosmetics purchase	6.331E-02	4.456E-02	4.794E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.276	.111	.175
attitude to price	5.947E-02	-6.691E-02	-6.082E-02
price and quality connection	2.970E-02	-.119	-6.692E-02
brand and status connection	5.201E-02	4.304E-02	2.390E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	4.844E-02	8.773E-02	8.293E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.202	.137	.181
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.382	.107	.173
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.271	.135	.132
attitude to environment	.779	.694	.717
attitude to animal welfare	.845	.824	.833
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.777	.708	.743
attitude to child/children	.154	.274	.243

Table 10:

Factor 3: "Purchase" for Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan R.O.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei purchase	Kaohsiung purchase	Taiwan ROC Purchase
fashion-consciousness	4.609E-02	8.696E-02	8.578E-02
importance of cosmetics	9.110E-02	.118	.150
choosing cosmetics	.378	.570	.613
thought in cosmetics purchase	.767	.822	.811
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.634	.748	.722
attitude to price	.796	.387	.481
price and quality connection	7.250E-02	.194	.111
brand and status connection	.152	.204	.133
skin colour appearance and link to status	-3.114E-02	-1.112E-02	-1.399E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.109	1.378E-02	.122
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	2.213E-02	.163	.170
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	-9.229E-02	2.448E-02	1.481E-02
attitude to environment	.127	.206	.187
attitude to animal welfare	.145	8.108E-02	.141
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	8.421E-02	1.501E-02	2.992E-02
attitude to child/children	.180	-3.615E-02	6.917E-03

Table 11:

Factor 4: "Health" for Taipei and Taiwan R.O.C., "Importance" for Kaohsiung

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei health	Kaohsiung importance	Taiwan ROC Health
fashion-consciousness	3.908E-02	.806	8.120E-02
importance of cosmetics	.306	.829	.144
choosing cosmetics	.736	.317	.193
thought in cosmetics purchase	.209	6.273E-02	-1.152E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.166	-2.679E-03	6.254E-02
attitude to price	-.119	.156	4.449E-02
price and quality connection	5.048E-02	.265	4.618E-03
brand and status connection	-2.439E-02	.141	3.037E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	.135	9.712E-02	7.955E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.394	3.286E-02	.276
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.636	6.843E-02	.824
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.594	9.534E-02	.843
attitude to environment	.201	5.722E-02	.178
attitude to animal welfare	.182	6.448E-02	.108
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	1.399E-02	.139	5.014E-02
attitude to child/children	7.383E-03	-6.958E-02	-7.340E-03

Table 12:

Factor 5: "Importance" for Taipei and Taiwan R.O.C., "Health" for Kaohsiung

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan ROC
	importance	health	importance
fashion-consciousness	.854	7.693E-02	.827
importance of cosmetics	.758	8.846E-02	.806
choosing cosmetics	.100	.121	.239
thought in cosmetics purchase	-6.150E-02	-1.135E-02	6.024E-03
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.221	.125	7.519E-02
attitude to price	3.024E-02	5.395E-02	5.294E-02
price and quality connection	.186	-4.549E-02	.252
brand and status connection	.267	2.464E-02	.201
skin colour appearance and link to status	4.364E-02	5.877E-02	7.452E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	-8.839E-02	.240	-4.875E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.147	.840	5.913E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.320	.865	.171
attitude to environment	2.149E-02	.127	3.250E-02
attitude to animal welfare	.105	5.184E-02	6.613E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	5.769E-02	9.220E-02	.129
attitude to child/children	4.917E-03	-1.405E-02	-1.510E-02

Table 13:

Factor 6: "Child" for Taipei, Kaohsiung and Taiwan R.O.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: Taiwan R.O.C.		
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan ROC
	child	child	child
fashion-consciousness	-9.815E-02	4.784E-02	-6.885E-03
importance of cosmetics	.151	3.155E-03	2.930E-02
choosing cosmetics	.220	-3.998E-02	-4.939E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.138	.105	.131
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	3.551E-02	.119	7.437E-02
attitude to price	4.887E-02	.688	.608
price and quality connection	.199	.160	.195
brand and status connection	-3.902E-02	-.146	-4.857E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	-7.373E-04	-3.620E-02	-3.223E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	-7.866E-02	.127	7.661E-03
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	-.107	-1.556E-02	-1.594E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	-.115	3.860E-02	3.711E-02
attitude to environment	-6.973E-02	6.384E-02	2.231E-02
attitude to animal welfare	4.584E-02	4.499E-02	2.453E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.331	9.940E-02	.180
attitude to child/children	.905	.813	.848

2. China P.R.C.

By using six-factor solution, six factors have been extracted from the 16 statements of attitude. The following Tables 14, 15 and 16 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Beijing and Shanghai, and also a matrix "China P.R.C." which combines the matrices for Beijing and Shanghai.

Table 14:

Rotated component matrix for Beijing by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	**.784**	5.830E-02	.269	.139	-1.231E-02	-8.504E-02
importance of cosmetics	**.851**	.143	.267	3.818E-02	.115	2.557E-03
choosing cosmetics	**.709**	.132	9.077E-02	.301	.119	.257
thought in cosmetics purchase	.463	.361	2.394E-02	.484	.302	-.221
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.454	.200	.160	.167	**.633**	6.134E-02
attitude to price	1.766E-02	-5.587E-02	2.003E-03	-.155	**.834**	.175
price and quality connection	.138	.118	**.822**	9.736E-02	.103	.126
brand and status connection	.289	7.447E-02	**.826**	.127	9.866E-02	4.962E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	.191	-.141	**.641**	.469	-.170	-1.609E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.214	.145	.365	**.760**	-.178	2.841E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.123	.412	.179	**.745**	-3.614E-04	-2.237E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.251	7.245E-03	4.631E-02	.457	.215	**.626**
attitude to environment	-6.631E-02	**.816**	9.714E-02	3.589E-02	.327	-4.463E-02
attitude to animal welfare	.231	**.818**	2.826E-02	.195	-.112	.157
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.328	**.641**	1.300E-03	.272	-.181	.232
attitude to child/children	-7.496E-02	.165	.117	-.165	9.967E-02	**.821**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Beijing has a sample size of 307 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires),which, according to the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size, represents a factor loading of ± .35. As pointed above (section 3), factor loadings greater than ± .35 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

It can be seen from Table 14, for factor 1 there are three high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 there are three; for factor 3 there are three; for factor 4 there are three; for factor 5 there are two and for factor 6 there are two. All factor loadings greater than ± .48 are considered practically significant.

Labels for extracted factors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be given as "Importance", "Welfare", "Status", "Health", "Purchase" and "Child" respectively.

Shanghai has a sample size of 338 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .35. As we have seen, factor loadings greater than ± .35 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

Table 15:

Rotated component matrix for Shanghai by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	**.742**	.216	.170	.224	-5.249E-02	-4.523E-02
importance of cosmetics	**.807**	2.354E-02	2.027E-02	.255	-.127	.107
choosing cosmetics	**.809**	.154	-2.846E-02	-.225	-2.065E-02	-.139
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.604**	.293	.313	-7.918E-03	.287	-.168
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.384	.169	.107	-1.068E-02	**.503**	-4.002E-02
attitude to price	-8.172E-02	1.521E-02	-.207	-.114	7.982E-02	**.881**
price and quality connection	.150	.204	.276	**.687**	-.177	.153
brand and status connection	.153	**.674**	-.332	.134	-7.056E-02	-.110
skin colour appearance and link to status	6.915E-02	-1.874E-02	-6.419E-03	**.782**	.131	-.356
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	**.535**	-5.399E-02	.340	.317	.376	-1.847E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.140	.231	**.823**	.207	5.170E-02	-.223
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.126	.103	**.865**	6.210E-02	-4.436E-02	-7.537E-02
attitude to environment	.224	**.691**	.349	-7.188E-02	-.186	8.159E-02
attitude to animal welfare	.153	**.787**	.227	-5.259E-02	-.109	-3.465E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	1.412E-02	**.700**	.197	.233	.278	9.191E-02
attitude to child/children	-.185	-.199	-.111	-2.772E-02	**.753**	.102

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

It can be seen from Table 15, for factor 1 there are five high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 there are four; for factor 3 there are two; for factor 4 there are two; for factor 5 there are two and for factor 6 there is one. All factor loadings greater than ± .50 are considered practically significant.

Labels for extracted factors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be given as "Importance", "Welfare", "Health", "Status", "Child" and "Purchase" respectively.

China PRC, which combines the samples of Beijing and Shanghai, has a sample size of 645 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .30. Factor loadings which are greater than ± .30 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

Table 16:

Rotated component matrix for China P.R.C. by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	.763	7.301E-02	.241	.145	8.271E-02	-.113
importance of cosmetics	**.815**	5.362E-02	.251	2.284E-02	-3.556E-03	-2.863E-02
choosing cosmetics	**.784**	.165	5.134E-02	2.523E-02	4.625E-02	2.224E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.666**	.342	-3.821E-02	.195	.201	-2.848E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.627**	.105	8.787E-02	-.190	.202	.251
attitude to price	.153	-5.230E-02	7.452E-02	**-.688**	-3.585E-02	.349
price and quality connection	.123	9.091E-02	**.731**	8.127E-02	.297	7.086E-03
brand and status connection	.217	.223	**.772**	-6.761E-02	-6.299E-02	-4.318E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	.189	-.119	.569	**.584**	4.138E-02	.114
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.445	.116	.112	**.635**	.249	.180
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.155	.346	.102	.388	**.704**	-7.813E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.157	.101	.114	-1.006E-02	**.883**	6.622E-02
attitude to environment	.128	**.753**	.104	-.203	.223	-.121
attitude to animal welfare	.200	**.827**	9.452E-02	4.590E-02	.109	-6.412E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.155	**.748**	.102	.272	2.151E-02	.244
attitude to child/children	-1.435E-02	-3.105E-03	-1.791E-02	-7.403E-02	1.901E-02	**.909**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

From Table 16, as in the two preceding tables, it can be seen that for factor 1 there are five high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 three; for factor 3 two; for factor 4 three; for factor 5 two and for factor 6 one. All factor loading greater than ± .50 are considered practically significant.

Extracted factors 1, 2 can be labelled "Importance" and "Welfare" respectively; factors 4, 5 and 6 can be labelled "Status", "Health" and "Child" respectively. In the case of factor 3 the component "brand and status connection" has a highest score (.772) than "price and quality connection"(.731). Since factor 4 has the label "Status", the label "Purchase" would be more appropriate than "Status" for factor 3.

The following Tables 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 show the extracted components (shown in bold type) of six factors in relation to Beijing, Shanghai and China P.R.C.

Table 17:

Factor 1: "Importance" for Beijing, Shanghai and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	importance	Importance	importance
fashion-consciousness	.784	.742	.763
importance of cosmetics	.851	.807	.815
choosing cosmetics	.709	.809	.784
thought in cosmetics purchase	.463	.604	.666
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.454	.384	.627
attitude to price	1.766E-02	-8.172E-02	.153
price and quality connection	.138	.150	.123
brand and status connection	.289	.153	.217
skin colour appearance and link to status	.191	6.915E-02	.189
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.214	.535	.445
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.123	.140	.155
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.251	.126	.157
attitude to environment	-6.631E-02	.224	.128
attitude to animal welfare	.231	.153	.200
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.328	1.412E-02	.155
attitude to child/children	-7.496E-02	-.185	-1.435E-02

Table 18:

Factor 2: "Welfare" for Beijing, Shanghai and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	welfare	welfare	welfare
fashion-consciousness	5.830E-02	.216	7.301E-02
importance of cosmetics	.143	2.354E-02	5.362E-02
choosing cosmetics	.132	.154	.165
thought in cosmetics purchase	.361	.293	.342
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.200	.169	.105
attitude to price	-5.587E-02	1.521E-02	-5.230E-02
price and quality connection	.118	.204	9.091E-02
brand and status connection	7.447E-02	.674	.223
skin colour appearance and link to status	-.141	-1.874E-02	-.119
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.145	-5.399E-02	.116
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.412	.231	.346
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	7.245E-03	.103	.101
attitude to environment	.816	.691	.753
attitude to animal welfare	.818	.787	.827
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.641	.700	.748
attitude to child/children	.165	-.199	-3.105E-03

Table 19:

Factor 3: "Status" for Beijing, "Health" for Shanghai and "Purchase" for China P.R.C.,

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	status	health	purchase
fashion-consciousness	.269	.170	.241
importance of cosmetics	.267	2.027E-02	.251
choosing cosmetics	9.077E-02	-2.846E-02	5.134E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	2.394E-02	.313	-3.821E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.160	.107	8.787E-02
attitude to price	2.003E-03	-.207	7.452E-02
price and quality connection	.822	.276	.731
brand and status connection	.826	-.332	.772
skin colour appearance and link to status	.641	-6.419E-03	.569
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.365	.340	.112
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.179	.823	.102
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	4.631E-02	.865	.114
attitude to environment	9.714E-02	.349	.104
attitude to animal welfare	2.826E-02	.227	9.452E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	1.300E-03	.197	.102
attitude to child/children	.117	-.111	-1.791E-02

Table 20:

Factor 4: "Health" for Beijing, "Status" for Shanghai and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	health	status	status
fashion-consciousness	.139	.224	.145
importance of cosmetics	3.818E-02	.255	2.284E-02
choosing cosmetics	.301	-.225	2.523E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.484	-7.918E-03	.195
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.167	-1.068E-02	-.190
attitude to price	-.155	-.114	-.688
price and quality connection	9.736E-02	.687	8.127E-02
brand and status connection	.127	.134	-6.761E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	.469	.782	.584
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	.760	.317	.635
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	.745	.207	.388
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.457	6.210E-02	-1.006E-02
attitude to environment	3.589E-02	-7.188E-02	-.203
attitude to animal welfare	.195	-5.259E-02	4.590E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.272	.233	.272
attitude to child/children	-.165	-2.772E-02	-7.403E-02

Table 21:

Factor 5: "Purchase" for Beijing, "Child" for Shanghai and "Health" for China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	purchase	child	health
fashion-consciousness	-1.231E-02	-5.249E-02	8.271E-02
importance of cosmetics	.115	-.127	-3.556E-03
choosing cosmetics	.119	-2.065E-02	4.625E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.302	.287	.201
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.633	.503	.202
attitude to price	.834	7.982E-02	-3.585E-02
price and quality connection	.103	-.177	.297
brand and status connection	9.866E-02	-7.056E-02	-6.299E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	-.170	.131	4.138E-02
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	-.178	.376	.249
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	-3.614E-04	5.170E-02	.704
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.215	-4.436E-02	.883
attitude to environment	.327	-.186	.223
attitude to animal welfare	-.112	-.109	.109
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	-.181	.278	2.151E-02
attitude to child/children	9.967E-02	.753	1.901E-02

Table 22:

Factor 6: "Child" for Beijing and China P.R.C., "Purchase" for Shanghai

16 statements of attitude	Country: China P.R.C.		
	Beijing	Shanghai	China PRC
	child	purchase	child
fashion-consciousness	-8.504E-02	-4.523E-02	-.113
importance of cosmetics	2.557E-03	.107	-2.863E-02
choosing cosmetics	.257	-.139	2.224E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	-.221	-.168	-2.848E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	6.134E-02	-4.002E-02	.251
attitude to price	.175	.881	.349
price and quality connection	.126	.153	7.086E-03
brand and status connection	4.962E-02	-.110	-4.318E-02
skin colour appearance and link to status	-1.609E-02	-.356	.114
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	2.841E-02	-1.847E-02	.180
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	-2.237E-02	-.223	-7.813E-02
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	.626	-7.537E-02	6.622E-02
attitude to environment	-4.463E-02	8.159E-02	-.121
attitude to animal welfare	.157	-3.465E-02	-6.412E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.232	9.191E-02	.244
attitude to child/children	.821	.102	.909

(3) UK

By using six-factor solution, six factors have been extracted from the 16 statements of attitude. The following Tables 23, 24 and 25 show the results of the rotated component matrices for Northern and Southern England and also a matrix "UK" which combines the matrices for Northern and Southern England.

Table 23:

Rotated component matrix for Northern England by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	**.810**	8.399E-03	5.326E-02	8.999E-02	-.254	-.140
importance of cosmetics	**.727**	.182	-2.826E-02	.203	.137	.355
choosing cosmetics	**.852**	4.753E-02	6.715E-02	7.373E-02	9.133E-02	8.355E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.816**	7.340E-02	.150	1.478E-02	6.347E-02	.170
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.233	.126	6.066E-02	3.260E-02	-2.719E-02	**.873**
attitude to price	-.128	**.771**	1.116E-03	-.122	-9.790E-02	.286
price and quality connection	5.828E-02	**.817**	3.565E-02	.173	8.285E-02	-1.265E-02
brand and status connection	.252	**.798**	4.879E-03	.207	.188	8.697E-03
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.344	**.561**	3.678E-02	.485	.318	-3.321E-02
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.379	.342	1.029E-02	**.554**	.380	6.130E-03
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	9.198E-03	-1.273E-03	.184	**.726**	-.347	-.334
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	9.624E-02	.164	5.866E-02	**.818**	.137	.265
attitude to environment	.241	.355	**.589**	.287	.251	-3.355E-02
attitude to animal welfare	6.073E-02	5.700E-02	**.896**	-1.030E-02	3.304E-02	4.463E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	4.836E-02	-.140	**.904**	8.401E-02	.151	2.119E-02
attitude to child/children	-4.205E-02	.137	.314	3.285E-02	**.810**	-1.926E-02

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

Northern England has a sample size of 106 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which, according to the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size, represents a factor loading of ± .55. As pointed above (section 3), factor loadings greater than ± .55 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

It can be seen from Table 23, for factor 1 there are four high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 there are four; for factor 3 there are three; for factor 4 there are three; for factor 5 there is one and for factor 6 there is one. Almost all factor loadings greater than ± .55 are considered practically significant.

Labels for extracted factors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be given as "Importance", "Status", "Welfare", "Health", "Child" and "Purchase" respectively.

Table 24:

Rotated component matrix for Southern England by six-factor solution

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	**.626**	.273	-7.367E-05	-6.412E-02	.103	-.313
importance of cosmetics	**.781**	.299	-9.098E-03	-.148	8.520E-02	-.142
choosing cosmetics	**.837**	.156	4.660E-02	-5.833E-02	5.456E-03	2.324E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.793**	5.520E-02	-1.124E-02	.151	-2.077E-02	5.035E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.590**	-.326	-.121	.421	8.860E-02	.221
attitude to price	-6.113E-02	.169	.201	**.859**	-3.175E-02	-6.648E-02
price and quality connection	.177	.390	-.165	.378	.142	**.464**
brand and status connection	.261	**.729**	-.163	.131	1.251E-02	.111
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.173	**.812**	8.714E-02	3.771E-02	-5.164E-02	.121
importance of sun-tanned appearance	8.715E-02	**.805**	6.980E-02	3.454E-02	4.161E-02	2.943E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	.143	-.114	-7.562E-02	-2.150E-02	**.866**	6.279E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	-8.199E-02	.426	.291	4.542E-02	**.581**	-.127
attitude to environment	3.173E-02	.169	**.660**	.181	-.136	-6.368E-02
attitude to animal welfare	-2.851E-02	-3.804E-02	**.868**	-8.773E-02	.108	.121
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	4.808E-04	-9.384E-02	**.859**	7.311E-02	6.830E-02	.118
attitude to child/children	-.174	.177	.261	-9.860E-02	-2.972E-02	**.774**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Southern England has a sample size of 237 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .40. As we have seen, factor loadings greater than ± .40 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

It can be seen from Table 24, for factor 1 there are five high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 there are three; for factor 3 there are three; for factor 4 there is one; for factor 5 there are two and for factor 6 there are two. All factor loadings greater than ± .45 are considered practically significant.

Labels for extracted factors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be given as "Importance", "Status", "Welfare", "Purchase", "Health" and "Child" respectively.

UK, which combines the samples of Northern and Southern England, has a sample size of 343 (see Table 4, for the return rate and usable percentage of questionnaires) which represents a factor loading of ± .35. Factor loadings which are greater than ± .35 are considered to be a minimal level of significant correlation.

Table 25: **Rotated component matrix for the UK by six-factor solution**

16 statements of attitude	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
fashion-consciousness	**.628**	.273	5.325E-02	-.109	3.049E-02	-.367
importance of cosmetics	**.768**	.342	2.167E-02	-4.281E-02	-1.463E-03	-.175
choosing cosmetics	**.836**	.165	4.863E-02	-3.665E-02	2.385E-02	1.412E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.814**	6.007E-02	1.658E-02	.123	3.710E-02	9.958E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	**.556**	-.249	-5.823E-02	.529	.102	.165
attitude to price	-9.866E-02	.226	.184	**.820**	-.122	-.143
price and quality connection	.115	.449	-.133	**.454**	.165	.378
brand and status connection	.234	**.725**	-.140	.218	2.030E-03	.147
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.195	**.823**	.110	4.967E-02	-1.830E-02	.110
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.146	**.808**	.121	-1.564E-02	1.314E-02	1.640E-03
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	7.474E-02	-1.003E-02	-2.402E-02	-5.023E-02	**.929**	1.461E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	-2.198E-02	**.497**	.320	5.929E-02	.450	-.185
attitude to environment	7.174E-02	.236	**.628**	.130	-2.560E-02	.105
attitude to animal welfare	4.915E-03	-9.030E-03	**.880**	-3.978E-02	2.926E-02	4.729E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	2.090E-02	-6.858E-02	**.885**	2.094E-02	2.824E-02	6.143E-02
attitude to child/children	-.116	.205	.301	-7.286E-02	-5.069E-02	**.769**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 13 iterations.

From Table 25, as in the two preceding tables, it can be seen that for factor 1 there are five high factor loading components (shown in bold type); for factor 2 four; for factor 3 three; for factor 4 two; for factor 5 one and for factor 6 one. All factor loading greater than ± .45 are considered practically significant. Labels for extracted factors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be given as "Importance", "Status", "Welfare", "Purchase", "Health" and "Child" respectively.

The following Tables 26, 27, 28, 29, 30 and 31 show the extracted components (shown in bold type) of six factors in relation to Northern England, Southern England and the UK.

Table 26: **Factor 1: "Importance" for Northern and Southern England, and the UK**

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	importance	importance	Importance
fashion-consciousness	**.810**	**.626**	**.628**
importance of cosmetics	**.727**	**.781**	**.768**
choosing cosmetics	**.852**	**.837**	**.836**
thought in cosmetics purchase	**.816**	**.793**	**.814**
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.233	**.590**	**.556**
attitude to price	-.128	-6.113E-02	-9.866E-02
price and quality connection	5.828E-02	.177	.115
brand and status connection	.252	.261	.234
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.344	.173	.195
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.379	8.715E-02	.146
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	9.198E-03	.143	7.474E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	9.624E-02	-8.199E-02	-2.198E-02
attitude to environment	.241	3.173E-02	7.174E-02
attitude to animal welfare	6.073E-02	-2.851E-02	4.915E-03
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	4.836E-02	4.808E-04	2.090E-02
attitude to child/children	-4.205E-02	-.174	-.116

Table 27:

Factor 2: "Status" for Northern and Southern England, and the UK

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	status	status	Status
fashion-consciousness	8.399E-03	.273	.273
importance of cosmetics	.182	.299	.342
choosing cosmetics	4.753E-02	.156	.165
thought in cosmetics purchase	7.340E-02	5.520E-02	6.007E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.126	-.326	-.249
attitude to price	.771	.169	.226
price and quality connection	.817	.390	.449
brand and status connection	.798	.729	.725
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.561	.812	.823
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.342	.805	.808
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	-1.273E-03	-.114	-1.003E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	.164	.426	.497
attitude to environment	.355	.169	.236
attitude to animal welfare	5.700E-02	-3.804E-02	-9.030E-03
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	-.140	-9.384E-02	-6.858E-02
attitude to child/children	.137	.177	.205

Table 28:

Factor 3: "Welfare" for Northern England, Southern England and the UK

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	welfare	welfare	Welfare
fashion-consciousness	5.326E-02	-7.367E-05	5.325E-02
importance of cosmetics	-2.826E-02	-9.098E-03	2.167E-02
choosing cosmetics	6.715E-02	4.660E-02	4.863E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.150	-1.124E-02	1.658E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	6.066E-02	-.121	-5.823E-02
attitude to price	1.116E-03	.201	.184
price and quality connection	3.565E-02	-.165	-.133
brand and status connection	4.879E-03	-.163	-.140
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	3.678E-02	8.714E-02	.110
importance of sun-tanned appearance	1.029E-02	6.980E-02	.121
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	.184	-7.562E-02	-2.402E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	5.866E-02	.291	.320
attitude to environment	.589	.660	.628
attitude to animal welfare	.896	.868	.880
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.904	.859	.885
attitude to child/children	.314	.261	.301

Table 29:

Factor 4: "Health" for Northern England, "Purchase" for Southern England and the UK

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	health	purchase	Purchase
fashion-consciousness	8.999E-02	-6.412E-02	-.109
importance of cosmetics	.203	-.148	-4.281E-02
choosing cosmetics	7.373E-02	-5.833E-02	-3.665E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	1.478E-02	.151	.123
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	3.260E-02	.421	.529
attitude to price	-.122	.859	.820
price and quality connection	.173	.378	.454
brand and status connection	.207	.131	.218
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.485	3.771E-02	4.967E-02
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.554	3.454E-02	-1.564E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	.726	-2.150E-02	-5.023E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	.818	4.542E-02	5.929E-02
attitude to environment	.287	.181	.130
attitude to animal welfare	-1.030E-02	-8.773E-02	-3.978E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	8.401E-02	7.311E-02	2.094E-02
attitude to child/children	3.285E-02	-9.860E-02	-7.286E-02

Table 30:

Factor 5: "Child" for Northern England, "Health" for Southern England and the UK

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	child	health	health
fashion-consciousness	-.254	.103	3.049E-02
importance of cosmetics	.137	8.520E-02	-1.463E-03
choosing cosmetics	9.133E-02	5.456E-03	2.385E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	6.347E-02	-2.077E-02	3.710E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	-2.719E-02	8.860E-02	.102
attitude to price	-9.790E-02	-3.175E-02	-.122
price and quality connection	8.285E-02	.142	.165
brand and status connection	.188	1.251E-02	2.030E-03
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	.318	-5.164E-02	-1.830E-02
importance of sun-tanned appearance	.380	4.161E-02	1.314E-02
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	-.347	.866	.929
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	.137	.581	.450
attitude to environment	.251	-.136	-2.560E-02
attitude to animal welfare	3.304E-02	.108	2.926E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	.151	6.830E-02	2.824E-02
attitude to child/children	.810	-2.972E-02	-5.069E-02

Table 31:

Factor 6: "Purchase" for Northern England, "Child" for Southern England and the UK

16 statements of attitude	Country: UK		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
	purchase	child	child
fashion-consciousness	-.140	-.313	-.367
importance of cosmetics	.355	-.142	-.175
choosing cosmetics	8.355E-02	2.324E-02	1.412E-02
thought in cosmetics purchase	.170	5.035E-02	9.958E-02
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	.873	.221	.165
attitude to price	.286	-6.648E-02	-.143
price and quality connection	-1.265E-02	.464	.378
brand and status connection	8.697E-03	.111	.147
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	-3.321E-02	.121	.110
importance of sun-tanned appearance	6.130E-03	2.943E-02	1.640E-03
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	-.334	6.279E-02	1.461E-02
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	.265	-.127	-.185
attitude to environment	-3.355E-02	-6.368E-02	.105
attitude to animal welfare	4.463E-02	.121	4.729E-02
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	2.119E-02	.118	6.143E-02
attitude to child/children	-1.926E-02	.774	.769

(4) Conclusion of six-factor solution

Based on Tables 5 to 31 above, Table 32 shows the labels of six extracted factors within cities, areas and countries. It can be seen that the factors extracted vary from city/area to city/area within countries.

Table 32:

The labels of extracted six factors within cities, areas and countries

Countries	Cities and areas	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Taiwan R.O.C.	Taipei	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Importance	Child
	Kaohsiung	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Importance	Health	Child
	Taiwan ROC	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Importance	Child
China P.R.C.	Beijing	Importance	Welfare	Status	Health	Purchase	Child
	Shanghai	Importance	Welfare	Health	Status	Child	Purchase
	China PRC	Importance	Welfare	Purchase	Status	Health	Child
UK	Northern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Health	Child	Purchase
	Southern England	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Child
	UK	Importance	Status	Welfare	Purchase	Health	Child

For purposes of comparison, a further step is needed. It is necessary to examine the details of the extracted components with the same factor label within cities and areas of Taiwan R.O.C., China P.R.C. and the UK. Tables 33 to 44 below show the differences between extracted components (indicated by *) with the same factor label within cities and areas of the three countries.

Table 33:

Extracted components of "Status" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness						
importance of cosmetics						
choosing cosmetics						
thought in cosmetics purchase						
unsuitable cosmetics purchase						
attitude to price						*
price and quality connection	*	*	*	*	*	
brand and status connection	*	*	*	*		
skin colour appearance and link to status	*	*	*	*	*	*
importance of light-coloured skin appearance	*	*	*			*
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening						
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products						
attitude to environment						
attitude to animal welfare						
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients						
attitude to child/children						

Table 34:

Extracted components of "Status" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness			
importance of cosmetics			
choosing cosmetics			
thought in cosmetics purchase			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase			
attitude to price	*		
price and quality connection	*		
brand and status connection	*	*	*
sun-tanned appearance and link to status	*	*	*
importance of sun-tanned appearance		*	*
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation			
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products			*
attitude to environment			
attitude to animal welfare			
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients			
attitude to child/children			

Table 35:

Extracted components of "Welfare" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness						
importance of cosmetics						
choosing cosmetics						
thought in cosmetics purchase						
unsuitable cosmetics purchase						
attitude to price						
price and quality connection						
brand and status connection					*	
skin colour appearance and link to status						
importance of light-coloured skin appearance						
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening				*		
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products						
attitude to environment	*	*	*	*	*	*
attitude to animal welfare	*	*	*	*	*	*
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	*	*	*	*	*	*
attitude to child/children						

Table 36:

Extracted components of "Welfare" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness			
importance of cosmetics			
choosing cosmetics			
thought in cosmetics purchase			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase			
attitude to price			
price and quality connection			
brand and status connection			
sun-tanned appearance and link to status			
importance of sun-tanned appearance			
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation			
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products			
attitude to environment	*	*	*
attitude to animal welfare	*	*	*
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients	*	*	*
attitude to child/children			

Table 37:

Extracted components of "Purchase" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness						
importance of cosmetics						
choosing cosmetics						
thought in cosmetics purchase	*	*	*			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	*	*	*	*		
attitude to price	*	*	*	*	*	
price and quality connection						*
brand and status connection						*
skin colour appearance and link to status						
importance of light-coloured skin appearance						
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening						
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products						
attitude to environment						
attitude to animal welfare						
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients						
attitude to child/children						

Table 38:

Extracted components of "Purchase" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness			
importance of cosmetics			
choosing cosmetics			
thought in cosmetics purchase			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase	*		
attitude to price		*	*
price and quality connection			*
brand and status connection			
sun-tanned appearance and link to status			
importance of sun-tanned appearance			
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation			
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products			
attitude to environment			
attitude to animal welfare			
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients			
attitude to child/children			

Table 39:

Extracted components of "Importance" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness	*	*	*	*	*	*
importance of cosmetics	*	*	*	*	*	*
choosing cosmetics				*	*	*
thought in cosmetics purchase					*	*
unsuitable cosmetics purchase						*
attitude to price						
price and quality connection						
brand and status connection						
skin colour appearance and link to status						
importance of light-coloured skin appearance					*	
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening						
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products						
attitude to environment						
attitude to animal welfare						
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients						
attitude to child/children						

Table 40:

Extracted components of "Importance" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness	*	*	*
importance of cosmetics	*	*	*
choosing cosmetics	*	*	*
thought in cosmetics purchase	*	*	*
unsuitable cosmetics purchase		*	*
attitude to price			
price and quality connection			
brand and status connection			
sun-tanned appearance and link to status			
importance of sun-tanned appearance			
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation			
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products			
attitude to environment			
attitude to animal welfare			
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients			
attitude to child/children			

Table 41:

Extracted components of "Health" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness						
importance of cosmetics						
choosing cosmetics						
thought in cosmetics purchase				*		
unsuitable cosmetics purchase						
attitude to price						
price and quality connection						
brand and status connection						
skin colour appearance and link to status						
importance of light-coloured skin appearance						
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening	*	*	*	*	*	*
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products	*	*	*	*	*	*
attitude to environment						
attitude to animal welfare						
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients						
attitude to child/children						

Table 42:

Extracted components of "Health" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness			
importance of cosmetics			
choosing cosmetics			
thought in cosmetics purchase			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase			
attitude to price			
price and quality connection			
brand and status connection			
sun-tanned appearance and link to status			
importance of sun-tanned appearance			*
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation	*	*	*
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products	*	*	*
attitude to environment			
attitude to animal welfare			
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients			
attitude to child/children			

Table 43:

Extracted components of "Child" within cities of Taiwan R.O.C. and China P.R.C.

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution					
	Taipei	Kaohsiung	Taiwan R.O.C.	Beijing	Shanghai	China P.R.C.
fashion-consciousness						
importance of cosmetics						
choosing cosmetics						
thought in cosmetics purchase						
unsuitable cosmetics purchase					*	
attitude to price		*	*			
price and quality connection						
brand and status connection						
skin colour appearance and link to status						
importance of light-coloured skin appearance						
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against skin-darkening						
belief in effectiveness of whitener skincare products				*		
attitude to environment						
attitude to animal welfare						
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients						
attitude to child/children	*	*	*	*	*	*

Table 44:

Extracted components of "Child" within areas of the UK

16 statements of attitude	Extracted components by six-factor solution		
	Northern England	Southern England	UK
fashion-consciousness			
importance of cosmetics			
choosing cosmetics			
thought in cosmetics purchase			
unsuitable cosmetics purchase			
attitude to price			
price and quality connection		*	
brand and status connection			
sun-tanned appearance and link to status			
importance of sun-tanned appearance			
belief in effectiveness of sun-screen against UV radiation			
belief in effectiveness of self-tan products			
attitude to environment			
attitude to animal welfare			
attitude to non-animal origin ingredients			
attitude to child/children	*	*	*

In conclusion, the result of the six-factor solution shows the similarity of the labels for the extracted factors across the three countries involved. Although the make-up of the extracted components in the same labels is not exactly the same, the six-factor solution still provides the best fit for the cultural comparison between Taiwan R.O.C., China P.R.C. and the UK, which is the object of the present research.

Appendix 6:
Interpreting the Results of the Regression Analysis

1. Descriptive statistics of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

The descriptive statistics of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK are summarised in the following tables (Table 1-1 ~ 1-3).

1. Taiwan ROC

Table 1-1:
Summarised data of descriptive statistics for spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC

Taiwan ROC	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Spending on makeup	1999.46	1635.57	464
Spending on skincare products	2792.03	1810.43	464
Spending on toiletries	1523.18	1315.14	464
Spending on fragrances	1177.26	1297.10	464

Note: the other data in the descriptive statistics is the same as total spending on cosmetics.

2. China PRC

Table 1-2:
Summarised data of descriptive statistics for spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for China PRC

China PRC	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Spending on makeup	143.91	92.29	522
Spending on skincare products	140.54	89.72	522
Spending on toiletries	120.15	80.11	522
Spending on fragrances	94.48	84.55	522

Note: the other data in the descriptive statistics is the same as total spending on cosmetics.

3. UK

Table 1-3:
Summarised data of descriptive statistics for spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for the UK

UK	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Spending on makeup	37.52	32.12	268
Spending on skincare products	35.69	30.53	268
Spending on toiletries	41.44	30.71	268
Spending on fragrances	42.74	33.64	268

Note: the other data in the descriptive statistics is the same as total spending on cosmetics.

2. Model summaries of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

Model summaries of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK are shown in the following tables (Table 2-1 ~ 2-12).

1. Taiwan ROC

Table 2-1:

Model summary of spending on makeup for Taiwan ROC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
6	.476 f	.227	.217	1447.55

f Predictors: (Constant), Monthly income (in NT$), Importance_Taiwan ROC, State or local government employee, Student, Status_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC

Table 2-2:

Model summary of spending on skincare products for Taiwan ROC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
6	.399 f	.159	.148	1671.08

f Predictors: (Constant), Student, Health_Taiwan ROC, College/university graduate, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$), Welfare_Taiwan ROC

Table 2-3:

Model summary of spending on toiletries for Taiwan ROC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
4	.328 d	.108	.100	1247.78

d Predictors: (Constant), Student, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Status_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$)

Table 2-4:

Model summary of spending on fragrances for Taiwan ROC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.419 e	.175	.166	1184.31

e Predictors: (Constant), Importance_Taiwan ROC, Private company employee, Status_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$)

2. China PRC

Table 2-5:

Model summary of spending on makeup for China PRC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
8	.562 h	.315	.305	76.95

h Predictors: (Constant), Private company employee, Purchase_China PRC, Status_China PRC, Married (combined with married, divorced/sepatated, and widowed) , Importance_China PRC, Child_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Self-employed

Table 2-6:

Model summary of spending on skincare products for China PRC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.445 e	.198	.190	80.76

e Predictors: (Constant), Monthly income (in Rmb), Purchase_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Importance_China PRC, Status_China PRC

Table 2-7:

Model summary of spending on toiletries for China PRC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.447 e	.200	.192	72.02

e Predictors: (Constant), Student, Purchase_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, With one child or more, Private company employee

Table 2-8:

Model summary of spending on fragrances for China PRC

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.513 e	.263	.256	72.93

e Predictors: (Constant), Private company employee, Purchase_China PRC, Monthly income (in Rmb), Importance_China PRC, Health_China PRC

3. UK

Table 2-9:

Model summary of spending on makeup for the UK

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.488 e	.238	.223	28.31

e Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Status_UK, Age group 2 (21-23), Company employee (including: private company and state-owned enterprises employee; school teacher and school support staff)

Table 2-10:

Model summary of spending on skincare products for the UK

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
4	.416 d	.173	.160	27.98

d Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Age group 1 (18-20), Status_UK

Table 2-11:

Model summary of spending on toiletries for the UK

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
3	.270 c	.073	.063	29.74

c Predictors: (Constant), Purchase_UK, Age group 1 (18-20), Status_UK

Table 2-12:

Model summary of spending on fragrances for the UK

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
5	.407 e	.166	.150	31.02

e Predictors: (Constant), Purchase_UK, Importance_UK, Status_UK, secondary (including high school and junior college graduate), Student

3. ANOVA of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

ANOVA of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK are shown in the following tables (Table 3-1 ~ 3-12).

1. Taiwan ROC

Table 3-1:

ANOVA [g] of spending on makeup for Taiwan ROC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
6	Regression	280958386.375	6	46826397.729	22.347	.000 f
	Residual	957603978.926	457	2095413.521		
	Total	1238562365.302	463			

f Predictors: (Constant), Monthly income (in NT$), Importance_Taiwan ROC, State or local government employee, Student, Status_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC
g Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 3-2:

ANOVA [g] of spending on skincare products for Taiwan ROC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
6	Regression	241381482.631	6	40230247.105	14.407	.000 f
	Residual	1276174013.059	457	2792503.311		
	Total	1517555495.690	463			

f Predictors: (Constant), Student, Health_Taiwan ROC, College/university graduate, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$), Welfare_Taiwan ROC
g Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 3-3:

ANOVA [e] of spending on toiletries for Taiwan ROC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	86152102.314	4	21538025.579	13.833	.000 d
	Residual	714646133.839	459	1556963.255		
	Total	800798236.153	463			

d Predictors: (Constant), Student, Importance_Taiwan ROC, Status_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$)
e Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 3-4:

ANOVA [f] of spending on fragrances for Taiwan ROC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	136592861.922	5	27318572.384	19.477	.000 e
	Residual	642389762.000	458	1402597.734		
	Total	778982623.922	463			

e Predictors: (Constant), Importance_Taiwan ROC, Private company employee, Status_Taiwan ROC, Health_Taiwan ROC, Monthly income (in NT$)
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

2. China PRC

Table 3-5:

ANOVA [i] of spending on makeup for China PRC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
8	Regression	1400024.513	8	175003.064	29.555	.000 h
	Residual	3037603.073	513	5921.254		
	Total	4437627.586	521			

h Predictors: (Constant), Private company employee, Purchase_China PRC, Status_China PRC, Married (combined with married, divorced/sepatated, and widowed), Importance_China PRC, Child_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Self-employed
i Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 3-6:

ANOVA [f] of spending on skincare products for China PRC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	828997.811	5	165799.562	25.422	.000 e
	Residual	3365251.997	516	6521.806		
	Total	4194249.808	521			

e Predictors: (Constant), Monthly income (in Rmb), Purchase_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, Importance_China PRC, Status_China PRC
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 3-7:

ANOVA [f] of spending on toiletries for China PRC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	667284.294	5	133456.859	25.727	.000 e
	Residual	2676703.445	516	5187.410		
	Total	3343987.739	521			

e Predictors: (Constant), Student, Purchase_China PRC, Welfare_China PRC, With one child or more, Private company employee
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 3-8:

ANOVA [f] of spending on fragrances for China PRC

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	979330.006	5	195866.001	36.821	.000 e
	Residual	2744780.339	516	5319.342		
	Total	3724110.345	521			

e Predictors: (Constant), Private company employee, Purchase_China PRC, Monthly income (in Rmb), Importance_China PRC, Health_China PRC
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

3. UK

Table 3-9:

ANOVA [f] of spending on makeup for the UK

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	65496.250	5	13099.250	16.345	.000 e
	Residual	209978.657	262	801.445		
	Total	275474.907	267			

e Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Status_UK, Age group 2 (21-23), Company employee (including: privete company and state-owned enterprises employee; school teacher and school support staff)
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 3-10:

ANOVA [e] of spending on skincare products for the UK

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	43028.835	4	10757.209	13.742	.000 d
	Residual	205868.460	263	782.770		
	Total	248897.295	267			

d Predictors: (Constant), Importance_UK, Purchase_UK, Age group 1 (18-20), Status_UK
e Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 3-11:

ANOVA [d] of spending on toiletries for the UK

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	18399.395	3	6133.132	6.937	.000 c
	Residual	233422.526	264	884.176		
	Total	251821.922	267			

c Predictors: (Constant), Purchase_UK, Age group 1 (18-20), Status_UK
d Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 3-12:

ANOVA [f] of spending on fragrances for the UK

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
5	Regression	50098.809	5	10019.762	10.413	.000 e
	Residual	252110.426	262	962.254		
	Total	302209.235	267			

e Predictors: (Constant), Purchase_UK, Importance_UK, Status_UK, secondary (including high school and junior college graduate), Student
f Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

4. Coefficients of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK

The coefficients of spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK are shown in the following tables (Table 4-1 ~ 4-12).

1. Taiwan ROC

Table 4-1:

Coefficients [a] of spending on makeup for Taiwan ROC

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
6	(Constant)	1650.930	196.038		8.421	.000
	Monthly income (in NT$)	2.216E-02	.007	.167	3.173	.002
	Importance_Taiwan ROC	-416.830	67.790	-.255	-6.149	.000
	State or local government employee	762.191	278.824	.116	2.734	.007
	Student	-648.460	197.935	-.172	-3.276	.001
	Status_Taiwan ROC	-176.148	68.709	-.107	-2.564	.011
	Health_Taiwan ROC	-170.949	66.980	-.105	-2.552	.011

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 4-2:

Coefficients[a] of spending on skincare products for Taiwan ROC

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
6	(Constant)	2407.556	228.614		10.531	.000
	Student	-805.494	228.761	-.193	-3.521	.000
	Health_Taiwan ROC	-245.568	77.474	-.137	-3.170	.002
	College/university graduate	547.083	173.809	.136	3.148	.002
	Importance_Taiwan ROC	-210.804	77.897	-.116	-2.706	.007
	Monthly income (in NT$)	1.981E-02	.008	.135	2.466	.014
	Welfare_Taiwan ROC	-166.900	78.217	-.092	-2.134	.033

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 4-3:

Coefficients[a] of spending on toiletries for Taiwan ROC

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
4	(Constant)	1345.459	168.837		7.969	.000
	Student	-427.211	170.240	-.141	-2.509	.012
	Importance_Taiwan ROC	-216.301	58.124	-.165	-3.721	.000
	Status_Taiwan ROC	-187.923	58.510	-.142	-3.212	.001
	Monthly income (in NT$)	1.383E-02	.006	.129	2.314	.021

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 4-4:

Coefficients[a] of spending on fragrances for Taiwan ROC

		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	765.568	113.555		6.742	.000
	Importance_Taiwan ROC	-352.009	55.359	-.271	-6.359	.000
	Private company employee	391.315	116.528	.149	3.358	.001
	Status_Taiwan ROC	-221.377	55.472	-.170	-3.991	.000
	Health_Taiwan ROC	-163.160	54.788	-.127	-2.978	.003
	Monthly income (in NT$)	1.226E-02	.005	.116	2.632	.009

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

2. China PRC

Table 4-5:

Coefficients[a] of spending on makeup for China PRC

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
8	(Constant)	117.888	4.652		25.339	.000
	Private company employee	52.721	9.210	.245	5.724	.000
	Purchase_China PRC	-23.515	3.369	-.256	-6.980	.000
	Status_China PRC	-16.464	3.379	-.178	-4.873	.000
	Married (combined with married, divorced/sepatated, and widowed)	30.224	8.106	.163	3.729	.000
	Importance_China PRC	-17.500	3.440	-.187	-5.087	.000
	Child_China PRC	11.599	3.383	.126	3.429	.001
	Welfare_China PRC	11.144	3.500	.121	3.184	.002
	Self-employed	32.666	16.075	.080	2.032	.043

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 4-6:

Coefficients[a] of spending on skincare products for China PRC

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	114.919	5.522		20.812	.000
	Monthly income (in Rmb)	3.993E-02	.006	.261	6.320	.000
	Purchase_China PRC	-16.959	3.529	-.190	-4.806	.000
	Welfare_China PRC	16.789	3.629	.188	4.627	.000
	Importance_China PRC	-15.353	3.604	-.169	-4.260	.000
	Status_China PRC	-10.138	3.605	-.113	-2.812	.005

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 4-7:

Coefficients[a] of spending on toiletries for China PRC

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	118.403	7.558		15.667	.000
	Student	-23.563	8.805	-.147	-2.676	.008
	Purchase_China PRC	-13.779	3.150	-.173	-4.374	.000
	Welfare_China PRC	10.613	3.298	.133	3.218	.001
	With one child or more	27.194	8.618	.153	3.155	.002
	Private company employee	26.083	8.839	.140	2.951	.003

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 4-8:

Coefficients[a] of spending on fragrances for China PRC

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients B	Unstandardised Coefficients Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	59.343	4.975		11.929	.000
	Private company employee	62.262	8.480	.316	7.342	.000
	Purchase_China PRC	-19.519	3.187	-.232	-6.125	.000
	Monthly income (in Rmb)	3.092E-02	.006	.214	4.838	.000
	Importance_China PRC	-8.123	3.252	-.095	-2.498	.013
	Health_China PRC	-6.801	3.356	-.080	-2.026	.043

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

3. UK

Table 4-9:

Coefficients[a] of spending on makeup for the UK

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients B	Unstandardised Coefficients Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	32.947	2.437		13.519	.000
	Importance_UK	-12.019	1.737	-.378	-6.921	.000
	Purchase_UK	5.886	1.778	.180	3.310	.001
	Status_UK	-4.664	1.856	-.136	-2.512	.013
	Age group 2 (21-23)	9.268	3.689	.137	2.513	.013
	Company employee	8.079	4.012	.110	2.014	.045

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Makeup

Table 4-10:

Coefficients[a] of spending on skincare products for the UK

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients B	Unstandardised Coefficients Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
4	(Constant)	40.036	2.071		19.329	.000
	Importance_UK	-8.391	1.700	-.278	-4.935	.000
	Purchase_UK	6.023	1.746	.194	3.450	.001
	Age group 1 (18-20)	-12.113	3.675	-.185	-3.296	.001
	Status_UK	-4.006	1.834	-.123	-2.184	.030

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Skincare products

Table 4-11:

Coefficients[a] of spending on toiletries for the UK

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients B	Unstandardised Coefficients Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
3	(Constant)	44.795	2.201		20.356	.000
	Purchase_UK	5.148	1.853	.165	2.778	.006
	Age group 1 (18-20)	-9.906	3.905	-.150	-2.536	.012
	Status_UK	-4.355	1.945	-.133	-2.239	.026

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Toiletries

Table 4-12:

Coefficients[a] of spending on fragrances for the UK

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients B	Unstandardised Coefficients Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
5	(Constant)	51.313	3.296		15.566	.000
	Purchase_UK	7.850	1.948	.230	4.031	.000
	Importance_UK	-6.893	1.908	-.207	-3.613	.000
	Status_UK	-5.470	2.059	-.153	-2.656	.008
	Secondary education	-13.879	5.152	-.154	-2.694	.008
	Student	-9.238	3.994	-.134	-2.313	.022

a Dependent Variable: Spending on Fragrances

5. Effect of predictors on spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK.

Effect of predictors on spending on makeup, skincare products, toiletries and fragrances for Taiwan ROC, China PRC and the UK are shown in the following tables (Table 5-1 ~ 5-12).

1. Taiwan ROC

Table 5-1:

Effect of predictors on spending on makeup for Taiwan ROC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on makeup)	Increase/decrease in spending (in NT$)
Monthly income (in NT$)	12303.94	.167	1635.57	272.81
Importance_Taiwan ROC	1.0002650	-.255	1635.57	-417.07
State or local government employee	.25	.116	1635.57	189.73
Student	.43	-.172	1635.57	-281.32
Status_Taiwan ROC	.9947849	-.107	1635.57	-175.01
Health_Taiwan ROC	1.0074758	-.105	1635.57	-171.73

Table 5-2:

Effect of predictors on spending on skincare products for Taiwan ROC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on skincare products)	Increase/decrease in spending (in NT$)
Student	.43	-.193	1810.43	-349.41
Health_Taiwan ROC	1.0074758	-.137	1810.43	-248.03
College/university graduate	.45	.136	1810.43	246.22
Importance_Taiwan ROC	1.0002650	-.116	1810.43	-210.01
Monthly income (in NT$)	12303.94	.135	1810.43	244.41
Welfare_Taiwan ROC	1.0003833	-.092	1810.43	-166.56

Table 5-3:

Effect of predictors on spending on toiletries for Taiwan ROC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on toiletries)	Increase/decrease in spending (in NT$)
Student	.43	-.141	1315.14	-185.43
Importance_Taiwan ROC	1.0002650	-.165	1315.14	-217.00
Status_Taiwan ROC	.9947849	-.142	1315.14	-186.75
Monthly income (in NT$)	12303.94	.129	1315.14	169.65

Table 5-4:

Effect of predictors on spending on fragrances for Taiwan ROC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on fragrances)	Increase/decrease in spending (in NT$)
Importance_Taiwan ROC	1.0002650	-.271	1297.10	-351.51
Private company employee	.49	.149	1297.10	193.27
Status_Taiwan ROC	.9947849	-.170	1297.10	-220.51
Health_Taiwan ROC	1.0074758	-.127	1297.10	-164.73
Monthly income (in NT$)	12303.94	.116	1297.10	150.46

2. China PRC

Table 5-5:

Effect of predictors on spending on makeup for China PRC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on makeup)	Increase/decrease in spending (in Rmb)
Private company employee	.43	.245	92.29	22.61
Purchase_China PRC	1.0036182	-.256	92.29	-23.63
Status_China PRC	.9992265	-.178	92.29	-16.43
Married (combined with married, divorced/sepatated, and widowed)	.50	.163	92.29	15.04
Importance_China PRC	.9854679	-.187	92.29	-17.26
Child_China PRC	1.0001208	.126	92.29	11.63
Welfare_China PRC	1.0048897	.121	92.29	11.17
Self-employed	.23	.080	92.29	7.38

Table 5-6:

Effect of predictors on spending on skincare products for China PRC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on skincare products)	Increase/decrease in spending (in Rmb)
Monthly income (in Rmb)	586.32	.261	89.72	23.42
Purchase_China PRC	1.0036182	-.190	89.72	-17.05
Welfare_China PRC	1.0048897	.188	89.72	16.87
Importance_China PRC	.9854679	-.169	89.72	-15.16
Status_China PRC	.9992265	-.113	89.72	-10.14

Table 5-7:

Effect of predictors on spending on toiletries for China PRC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on toiletries)	Increase/decrease in spending (in Rmb)
Student	.50	-.147	80.11	-11.78
Purchase_China PRC	1.0036182	-.173	80.11	-2.40
Welfare_China PRC	1.0048897	.133	80.11	10.65
With one child or more	.45	.153	80.11	12.26
Private company employee	.43	.140	80.11	11.22

Table 5-8:

Effect of predictors on spending on fragrances China PRC

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on fragrances)	Increase/decrease in spending (in Rmb)
Private company employee	.43	.316	84.55	26.72
Purchase_China PRC	1.0036182	-.232	84.55	-19.62
Monthly income (in Rmb)	586.32	.214	84.55	18.09
Importance_China PRC	.9854679	-.095	84.55	-8.03
Health_China PRC	.9895415	-.080	84.55	-6.76

3. UK

Table 5-9:

Effect of predictors on spending on makeup for the UK

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on makeup)	Increase/decrease in spending (£)
Importance_UK	1.0102087	-.378	32.12	-12.14
Purchase_UK	.9849298	.180	32.12	5.78
Status_UK	.9386153	-.136	32.12	-4.37
Age group 2 (21-23)	.48	.137	32.12	4.40
Company employee	.44	.110	32.12	3.53

Table 5-10:

Effect of predictors on spending on skincare products for the UK

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on skincare products)	Increase/decrease in spending (£)
Importance_UK	1.0102087	-.278	30.53	-8.49
Purchase_UK	.9849298	.194	30.53	5.92
Age group 1 (18-20)	.47	-.185	30.53	-5.65
Status_UK	.9386153	-.123	30.53	-3.76

Table 5-11:

Effect of predictors on spending on toiletries for the UK

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (spending on toiletries)	Increase/decrease in spending (£)
Purchase_UK	.9849298	.165	30.71	5.07
Age group 1 (18-20)	.47	-.150	30.71	-4.61
Status_UK	.9386153	-.133	30.71	-4.08

Table 5-12:

Effect of predictors on spending on fragrances for the UK

	Standard deviation of predictors	Standardised Beta	Standard deviation of outcome (total spending on cosmetics)	Increase/decrease in spending (£)
Purchase_UK	.9849298	.230	33.64	7.74
Importance_UK	1.0102087	-.207	33.64	-6.96
Status_UK	.9386153	-.153	33.64	-5.15
Secondary education	.37	-.154	33.64	-5.18
Student	.49	-.134	33.64	-4.51

Appendix 7:

Original Data for Testing of the Fourth Hypothesis

1. Influencing factor of age group

Table 1.1:

Chinese and British young females: level of fashion-consciousness (by age-group and by nationality)

Age group and nationality			Fashion-consciousness					
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Age 18-20	Chinese	Count	9	35	107	47	7	205
		Percentage	4.4%	17.1%	52.2%	22.9%	3.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	25	34	31	9	3	102
		Percentage	24.5%	33.3%	30.4%	8.8%	2.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	7	29	48	24	2	110
		Percentage	6.4%	26.4%	43.6%	21.8%	1.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	2	6	59	23	5	95
		Percentage	2.1%	6.3%	62.1%	24.2%	5.3%	100.0%
Age 21-23	Chinese	Count	28	51	117	64	19	279
		Percentage	10.0%	18.3%	41.9%	22.9%	6.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	24	40	36	9	3	112
		Percentage	21.4%	35.7%	32.1%	8.0%	2.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	11	37	57	18	6	129
		Percentage	8.5%	28.7%	44.2%	14.0%	4.7%	100.0%
	China	Count	17	14	60	46	13	150
		Percentage	11.3%	9.3%	40.0%	30.7%	8.7%	100.0%
Age 24-26	Chinese	Count	25	71	121	140	21	378
		Percentage	6.6%	18.8%	32.0%	37.0%	5.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	9	28	18	2	4	61
		Percentage	14.8%	45.9%	29.5%	3.3%	6.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	6	59	59	40	6	170
		Percentage	3.5%	34.7%	34.7%	23.5%	3.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	19	12	62	100	15	208
		Percentage	9.1%	5.8%	29.8%	48.1%	7.2%	100.0%
Age 27-29	Chinese	Count	21	95	124	129	25	394
		Percentage	5.3%	24.1%	31.5%	32.7%	6.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	4	24	23	2	6	59
		Percentage	6.8%	40.7%	39.0%	3.4%	10.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	8	73	67	49	13	210
		Percentage	3.8%	34.8%	31.9%	23.3%	6.2%	100.0%
	China	Count	13	22	57	80	12	184
		Percentage	7.1%	12.0%	31.0%	43.5%	6.5%	100.0%

Table 1.2: Chinese and British young females: degree of importance attached to cosmetics (by age-group and by nationality)

Age group and nationality			Importance of cosmetics: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Age 18-20	Chinese	Count	11	36	111	38	8	204
		Percentage	5.4%	17.6%	54.4%	18.6%	3.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	10	35	26	23	8	102
		Percentage	9.8%	34.3%	25.5%	22.5%	7.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	11	29	50	16	3	109
		Percentage	10.1%	26.6%	45.9%	14.7%	2.8%	100.0%
	China	Count		7	61	22	5	95
		Percentage		7.4%	64.2%	23.2%	5.3%	100.0%
Age 21-23	Chinese	Count	26	46	126	64	16	278
		Percentage	9.4%	16.5%	45.3%	23.0%	5.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	16	30	37	18	11	112
		Percentage	14.3%	26.8%	33.0%	16.1%	9.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	15	30	65	14	7	131
		Percentage	11.5%	22.9%	49.6%	10.7%	5.3%	100.0%
	China	Count	11	16	61	50	9	147
		Percentage	7.5%	10.9%	41.5%	34.0%	6.1%	100.0%
Age 24-26	Chinese	Count	28	87	162	77	26	380
		Percentage	7.4%	22.9%	42.6%	20.3%	6.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	6	17	22	14	2	61
		Percentage	9.8%	27.9%	36.1%	23.0%	3.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	15	66	65	20	5	171
		Percentage	8.8%	38.6%	38.0%	11.7%	2.9%	100.0%
	China	Count	13	21	97	57	21	209
		Percentage	6.2%	10.0%	46.4%	27.3%	10.0%	100.0%
Age 27-29	Chinese	Count	32	119	135	72	38	396
		Percentage	8.1%	30.1%	34.1%	18.2%	9.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	8	15	18	14	4	59
		Percentage	13.6%	25.4%	30.5%	23.7%	6.8%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	19	91	65	26	11	212
		Percentage	9.0%	42.9%	30.7%	12.3%	5.2%	100.0%
	China	Count	13	28	70	46	27	184
		Percentage	7.1%	15.2%	38.0%	25.0%	14.7%	100.0%

Table 1.3: Pearson Chi-Square Test for influencing factor of age group on fashion-consciousness and importance of cosmetics

		Fashion-consciousness				Importance of cosmetics			
		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Age 18-20	Socio-cultural difference	47.584	4	.000	307	25.298	4	.000	306
	National difference	63.420	8	.000	307	47.183	8	.000	306
Age 21-23	Socio-cultural difference	32.128	4	.000	391	12.724	4	.013	390
	National difference	56.369	8	.000	391	37.950	8	.000	390
Age 24-26	Socio-cultural difference	40.324	4	.000	439	2.745	4	.601	441
	National difference	99.215	8	.000	439	56.210	8	.000	441
Age 27-29	Socio-cultural difference	22.833	4	.000	453	3.599	4	.463	455
	National difference	57.937	8	.000	453	49.331	8	.000	455

2. Influencing factor of income level

Table 2.1:

Chinese and British young females: level of fashion-consciousness (by income level and by nationality)

Income level and nationality			Fashion-consciousness: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Income level 1	Chinese	Count	23	45	89	76	31	264
		Percentage	8.7%	17.0%	33.7%	28.8%	11.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	41	80	70	18	12	221
		Percentage	18.6%	36.2%	31.7%	8.1%	5.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	5	33	56	30	3	127
		Percentage	3.9%	26.0%	44.1%	23.6%	2.4%	100.0%
	China	Count	18	12	33	46	28	137
		Percentage	13.1%	8.8%	24.1%	33.6%	20.4%	100.0%
Income level 2	Chinese	Count	17	59	102	120	10	308
		Percentage	5.5%	19.2%	33.1%	39.0%	3.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	7	20	16	2	2	47
		Percentage	14.9%	42.6%	34.0%	4.3%	4.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	7	50	49	35	4	145
		Percentage	4.8%	34.5%	33.8%	24.1%	2.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	10	9	53	85	6	163
		Percentage	6.1%	5.5%	32.5%	52.1%	3.7%	100.0%
Income level 3	Chinese	Count	13	64	68	75	12	232
		Percentage	5.6%	27.6%	29.3%	32.3%	5.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	1	1				2
		Percentage	50.0%	50.0%				100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	10	54	60	33	8	165
		Percentage	6.1%	32.7%	36.4%	20.0%	4.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	3	10	8	42	4	67
		Percentage	4.5%	14.9%	11.9%	62.7%	6.0%	100.0%
Income level 4	Chinese	Count	23	51	50	46	12	182
		Percentage	12.6%	28.0%	27.5%	25.3%	6.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count			2			2
		Percentage			100.0%			100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	7	42	40	24	8	121
		Percentage	5.8%	34.7%	33.1%	19.8%	6.6%	100.0%
	China	Count	16	9	10	22	4	61
		Percentage	26.2%	14.8%	16.4%	36.1%	6.6%	100.0%

Table 2.2: Chinese and British young females: degree of importance attached to cosmetics (by income level and by nationality)

Income level and nationality			Importance of cosmetics					
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Income level 1	Chinese	Count	20	62	98	53	28	261
		Percentage	7.7%	23.8%	37.5%	20.3%	10.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	25	64	66	50	16	221
		Percentage	11.3%	29.0%	29.9%	22.6%	7.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	11	35	55	19	6	126
		Percentage	8.7%	27.8%	43.7%	15.1%	4.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	9	27	43	34	22	135
		Percentage	6.7%	20.0%	31.9%	25.2%	16.3%	100.0%
Income level 2	Chinese	Count	18	64	136	58	33	309
		Percentage	5.8%	20.7%	44.0%	18.8%	10.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	5	13	14	10	5	47
		Percentage	10.6%	27.7%	29.8%	21.3%	10.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	14	49	65	10	8	146
		Percentage	9.6%	33.6%	44.5%	6.8%	5.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	4	15	71	48	25	163
		Percentage	2.5%	9.2%	43.6%	29.4%	15.3%	100.0%
Income level 3	Chinese	Count	20	70	94	35	15	234
		Percentage	8.5%	29.9%	40.2%	15.0%	6.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	1		1			2
		Percentage	50.0%		50.0%			100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	16	59	67	19	6	167
		Percentage	9.6%	35.3%	40.1%	11.4%	3.6%	100.0%
	China	Count	4	11	27	16	9	67
		Percentage	6.0%	16.4%	40.3%	23.9%	13.4%	100.0%
Income level 4	Chinese	Count	33	59	43	39	9	183
		Percentage	18.0%	32.2%	23.5%	21.3%	4.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count			1	1		2
		Percentage			50.0%	50.0%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	15	50	30	22	5	122
		Percentage	12.3%	41.0%	24.6%	18.0%	4.1%	100.0%
	China	Count	18	9	13	17	4	61
		Percentage	29.5%	14.8%	21.3%	27.9%	6.6%	100.0%

Table 2.3:
Pearson Chi-Square Test for influencing factor of income level on fashion-consciousness and importance of cosmetics

		Fashion-consciousness				Importance of cosmetics			
		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Income level 1	Socio-cultural difference	57.959	4	.000	485	6.919	4	.140	482
	National difference	105.479	8	.000	485	24.004	8	.002	482
Income level 2	Socio-cultural difference	29.757	4	.000	355	4.467	4	.347	356
	National difference	76.622	8	.000	355	59.284	8	.000	356
Income level 3	Socio-cultural difference	8.227	4	.084	234	4.903	4	.297	236
	National difference	50.851	8	.000	234	23.694	8	.003	236
Income level 4	Socio-cultural difference	5.133	4	.274	184	2.441	4	.655	185
	National difference	32.780	8	.000	184	20.478	8	.009	185

3. Influencing factor of education level

Table 3.1:

Chinese and British young females: level of fashion-consciousness (by education level and by nationality)

Education level and nationality			Fashion-consciousness: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Education level 1	Chinese	Count	33	126	221	117	26	523
		Percentage	6.3%	24.1%	42.3%	22.4%	5.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	9	22	18	2	3	54
		Percentage	16.7%	40.7%	33.3%	3.7%	5.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	23	118	148	82	21	392
		Percentage	5.9%	30.1%	37.8%	20.9%	5.4%	100.0%
	China	Count	10	8	73	35	5	131
		Percentage	7.6%	6.1%	55.7%	26.7%	3.8%	100.0%
Education level 2	Chinese	Count	23	83	182	173	20	481
		Percentage	4.8%	17.3%	37.8%	36.0%	4.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	34	80	73	14	9	210
		Percentage	16.2%	38.1%	34.8%	6.7%	4.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	5	58	55	39	4	161
		Percentage	3.1%	36.0%	34.2%	24.2%	2.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	18	25	127	134	16	320
		Percentage	5.6%	7.8%	39.7%	41.9%	5.0%	100.0%
Education level 3	Chinese	Count	19	23	30	61	24	157
		Percentage	12.1%	14.6%	19.1%	38.9%	15.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	7	17	15	3	4	46
		Percentage	15.2%	37.0%	32.6%	6.5%	8.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	1	6	6	2	1	16
		Percentage	6.3%	37.5%	37.5%	12.5%	6.3%	100.0%
	China	Count	18	17	24	59	23	141
		Percentage	12.8%	12.1%	17.0%	41.8%	16.3%	100.0%

Table 3.2:

Chinese and British young females: degree of importance attached to cosmetics (by education level and by nationality)

Education level and nationality			Importance of cosmetics: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Education level 1	Chinese	Count	44	145	237	75	20	521
		Percentage	8.4%	27.8%	45.5%	14.4%	3.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	8	21	11	10	4	54
		Percentage	14.8%	38.9%	20.4%	18.5%	7.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	39	135	159	46	13	392
		Percentage	9.9%	34.4%	40.6%	11.7%	3.3%	100.0%
	China	Count	5	10	78	29	7	129
		Percentage	3.9%	7.8%	60.5%	22.5%	5.4%	100.0%
Education level 2	Chinese	Count	28	95	205	119	36	483
		Percentage	5.8%	19.7%	42.4%	24.6%	7.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	22	59	68	46	15	210
		Percentage	10.5%	28.1%	32.4%	21.9%	7.1%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	14	62	54	23	10	163
		Percentage	8.6%	38.0%	33.1%	14.1%	6.1%	100.0%
	China	Count	14	33	151	96	26	320
		Percentage	4.4%	10.3%	47.2%	30.0%	8.1%	100.0%
Education level 3	Chinese	Count	16	26	46	44	25	157
		Percentage	10.2%	16.6%	29.3%	28.0%	15.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	4	11	16	10	5	46
		Percentage	8.7%	23.9%	34.8%	21.7%	10.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	2	3	6	4	1	16
		Percentage	12.5%	18.8%	37.5%	25.0%	6.3%	100.0%
	China	Count	14	23	40	40	24	141
		Percentage	9.9%	16.3%	28.4%	28.4%	17.0%	100.0%

Table 3.3:

Pearson Chi-Square Test for influencing factor of education level on fashion-consciousness and importance of cosmetics

		Fashion-consciousness: Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases	Importance of cosmetics: Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Education level 1	Socio-cultural difference	21.746	4	.000	577	13.481	4	.009	575
	National difference	53.927	8	.000	577	58.915	8	.000	575
Education level 2	Socio-cultural difference	96.731	4	.000	691	13.358	4	.010	693
	National difference	148.529	8	.000	691	70.820	8	.000	693
Education level 3	Socio-cultural difference	25.095	4	.000	203	2.630	4	.622	203
	National difference	37.990	8	.000	203	4.355	8	.824	203

Appendix 8: Original Data for Testing the Seventh Hypothesis

Table 1:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for environment, animal testing and animal ingredient (by nationality)

			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Environment	Chinese	Count	124	564	378	130	39	1235
		Percentage	10.0%	45.7%	30.6%	10.5%	3.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	49	109	138	30	5	331
		Percentage	14.8%	32.9%	41.7%	9.1%	1.5%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	70	266	225	35	4	600
		Percentage	11.7%	44.3%	37.5%	5.8%	.7%	100.0%
	China	Count	54	298	153	95	35	635
		Percentage	8.5%	46.9%	24.1%	15.0%	5.5%	100.0%
Animal testing	Chinese	Count	137	526	422	107	41	1233
		Percentage	11.1%	42.7%	34.2%	8.7%	3.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	106	98	107	17	3	331
		Percentage	32.0%	29.6%	32.3%	5.1%	.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	93	244	232	27	3	599
		Percentage	15.5%	40.7%	38.7%	4.5%	.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	44	282	190	80	38	634
		Percentage	6.9%	44.5%	30.0%	12.6%	6.0%	100.0%
Animal ingredients	Chinese	Count	92	437	501	151	52	1233
		Percentage	7.5%	35.4%	40.6%	12.2%	4.2%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	132	107	71	13	4	327
		Percentage	40.4%	32.7%	21.7%	4.0%	1.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	56	199	266	66	9	596
		Percentage	9.4%	33.4%	44.6%	11.1%	1.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	36	238	235	85	43	637
		Percentage	5.7%	37.4%	36.9%	13.3%	6.8%	100.0%

Table 2:

Pearson Chi-Square Test for degree of concern for environment, animal testing and animal ingredients

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Environment	Socio-cultural difference	28.017	4	.000	1566
	National difference	99.050	8	.000	1566
Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	94.433	4	.000	1564
	National difference	175.709	8	.000	1564
Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	243.948	4	.000	1560
	National difference	278.443	8	.000	1560

Table 3:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for environment (by age group and by nationality)

Age group and nationality			Environment: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Age 18-20	Chinese	Count	18	99	66	18	1	202
		Percentage	8.9%	49.0%	32.7%	8.9%	.5%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	15	33	41	9	2	100
		Percentage	15.0%	33.0%	41.0%	9.0%	2.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	12	43	45	7	1	108
		Percentage	11.1%	39.8%	41.7%	6.5%	.9%	100.0%
	China	Count	6	56	21	11		94
		Percentage	6.4%	59.6%	22.3%	11.7%		100.0%
Age 21-23	Chinese	Count	29	134	78	23	12	276
		Percentage	10.5%	48.6%	28.3%	8.3%	4.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	12	35	55	9		111
		Percentage	10.8%	31.5%	49.5%	8.1%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	14	55	46	8	2	125
		Percentage	11.2%	44.0%	36.8%	6.4%	1.6%	100.0%
	China	Count	15	79	32	15	10	151
		Percentage	9.9%	52.3%	21.2%	9.9%	6.6%	100.0%
Age 24-26	Chinese	Count	34	156	122	45	12	369
		Percentage	9.2%	42.3%	33.1%	12.2%	3.3%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	11	18	27	4	1	61
		Percentage	18.0%	29.5%	44.3%	6.6%	1.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	20	71	64	8		163
		Percentage	12.3%	43.6%	39.3%	4.9%		100.0%
	China	Count	14	85	58	37	12	206
		Percentage	6.8%	41.3%	28.2%	18.0%	5.8%	100.0%
Age 27-29	Chinese	Count	43	175	112	44	14	388
		Percentage	11.1%	45.1%	28.9%	11.3%	3.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	11	23	15	8	2	59
		Percentage	18.6%	39.0%	25.4%	13.6%	3.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	24	97	70	12	1	204
		Percentage	11.8%	47.5%	34.3%	5.9%	.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	19	78	42	32	13	184
		Percentage	10.3%	42.4%	22.8%	17.4%	7.1%	100.0%

Table 4:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for animal testing (by age group and by nationality)

Age group and nationality			Animal testing: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Age 18-20	Chinese	Count	17	107	70	5	4	203
		Percentage	8.4%	52.7%	34.5%	2.5%	2.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	38	25	33	3		99
		Percentage	38.4%	25.3%	33.3%	3.0%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	13	39	50	3	3	108
		Percentage	12.0%	36.1%	46.3%	2.8%	2.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	4	68	20	2	1	95
		Percentage	4.2%	71.6%	21.1%	2.1%	1.1%	100.0%
Age 21-23	Chinese	Count	30	125	94	15	8	272
		Percentage	11.0%	46.0%	34.6%	5.5%	2.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	29	32	40	10	1	112
		Percentage	25.9%	28.6%	35.7%	8.9%	.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	20	49	49	5		123
		Percentage	16.3%	39.8%	39.8%	4.1%		100.0%
	China	Count	10	76	45	10	8	149
		Percentage	6.7%	51.0%	30.2%	6.7%	5.4%	100.0%
Age 24-26	Chinese	Count	39	129	149	34	18	369
		Percentage	10.6%	35.0%	40.4%	9.2%	4.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	17	24	16	3	1	61
		Percentage	27.9%	39.3%	26.2%	4.9%	1.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	22	65	72	4		163
		Percentage	13.5%	39.9%	44.2%	2.5%		100.0%
	China	Count	17	64	77	30	18	206
		Percentage	8.3%	31.1%	37.4%	14.6%	8.7%	100.0%
Age 27-29	Chinese	Count	51	165	109	53	11	389
		Percentage	13.1%	42.4%	28.0%	13.6%	2.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	22	17	18	1	1	59
		Percentage	37.3%	28.8%	30.5%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	38	91	61	15		205
		Percentage	18.5%	44.4%	29.8%	7.3%		100.0%
	China	Count	13	74	48	38	11	184
		Percentage	7.1%	40.2%	26.1%	20.7%	6.0%	100.0%

Table 5:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for animal ingredients (by age group and by nationality)

Age group and nationality			Animal ingredients					
			Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Age 18-20	Chinese	Count	9	86	88	16	4	203
		Percentage	4.4%	42.4%	43.3%	7.9%	2.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	42	32	22	2	1	99
		Percentage	42.4%	32.3%	22.2%	2.0%	1.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	6	38	51	11	2	108
		Percentage	5.6%	35.2%	47.2%	10.2%	1.9%	100.0%
	China	Count	3	48	37	5	2	95
		Percentage	3.2%	50.5%	38.9%	5.3%	2.1%	100.0%
Age 21-23	Chinese	Count	18	104	111	32	8	273
		Percentage	6.6%	38.1%	40.7%	11.7%	2.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	40	37	24	7	1	109
		Percentage	36.7%	33.9%	22.0%	6.4%	.9%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	14	38	58	11	1	122
		Percentage	11.5%	31.1%	47.5%	9.0%	.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	4	66	53	21	7	151
		Percentage	2.6%	43.7%	35.1%	13.9%	4.6%	100.0%
Age 24-26	Chinese	Count	28	114	157	51	21	371
		Percentage	7.5%	30.7%	42.3%	13.7%	5.7%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	24	21	12	3	1	61
		Percentage	39.3%	34.4%	19.7%	4.9%	1.6%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	13	44	85	20	2	164
		Percentage	7.9%	26.8%	51.8%	12.2%	1.2%	100.0%
	China	Count	15	70	72	31	19	207
		Percentage	7.2%	33.8%	34.8%	15.0%	9.2%	100.0%
Age 27-29	Chinese	Count	37	133	145	52	19	386
		Percentage	9.6%	34.5%	37.6%	13.5%	4.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	26	17	13	1	1	58
		Percentage	44.8%	29.3%	22.4%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	23	79	72	24	4	202
		Percentage	11.4%	39.1%	35.6%	11.9%	2.0%	100.0%
	China	Count	14	54	73	28	15	184
		Percentage	7.6%	29.3%	39.7%	15.2%	8.2%	100.0%

Table 6:

Pearson Chi-Square Test for influencing factor of age group on degree of concern for environment, animal testing and animal ingredients

			Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Age 18-20	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	9.027	4	.060	302
		National difference	21.808	8	.005	302
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	46.442	4	.000	302
		National difference	73.353	8	.000	302
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	70.954	4	.000	302
		National difference	77.194	8	.000	302
Age 21-23	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	20.528	4	.000	387
		National difference	33.159	8	.000	387
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	20.142	4	.000	384
		National difference	37.001	8	.000	384
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	58.000	4	.000	382
		National difference	73.055	8	.000	382
Age 24-26	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	9.804	4	.044	430
		National difference	39.589	8	.000	430
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	17.409	4	.002	430
		National difference	53.640	8	.000	430
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	56.029	4	.000	432
		National difference	76.239	8	.000	432
Age 27-29	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	3.294	4	.510	447
		National difference	31.234	8	.000	447
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	27.118	4	.000	448
		National difference	63.068	8	.000	448
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	54.759	4	.000	444
		National difference	67.923	8	.000	444

Table 7:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for environment (by education level and by nationality)

Education level and nationality			Environment: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Education level 1	Chinese	Count	52	242	171	40	7	512
		Percentage	10.2%	47.3%	33.4%	7.8%	1.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	7	21	19	7		54
		Percentage	13.0%	38.9%	35.2%	13.0%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	43	175	138	23	3	382
		Percentage	11.3%	45.8%	36.1%	6.0%	.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	9	67	33	17	4	130
		Percentage	6.9%	51.5%	25.4%	13.1%	3.1%	100.0%
Education level 2	Chinese	Count	46	228	129	55	17	475
		Percentage	9.7%	48.0%	27.2%	11.6%	3.6%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	32	59	94	19	3	207
		Percentage	15.5%	28.5%	45.4%	9.2%	1.4%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	18	67	62	8		155
		Percentage	11.6%	43.2%	40.0%	5.2%		100.0%
	China	Count	28	161	67	47	17	320
		Percentage	8.8%	50.3%	20.9%	14.7%	5.3%	100.0%
Education level 3	Chinese	Count	21	63	39	23	10	156
		Percentage	13.5%	40.4%	25.0%	14.7%	6.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	6	17	19	3	1	46
		Percentage	13.0%	37.0%	41.3%	6.5%	2.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	4	7	5			16
		Percentage	25.0%	43.8%	31.3%			100.0%
	China	Count	17	56	34	23	10	140
		Percentage	12.1%	40.0%	24.3%	16.4%	7.1%	100.0%

Table 8:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for animal testing (by education level and by nationality)

Education level and nationality			Animal testing: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Education level 1	Chinese	Count	71	242	169	23	7	512
		Percentage	13.9%	47.3%	33.0%	4.5%	1.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	19	18	15	1		53
		Percentage	35.8%	34.0%	28.3%	1.9%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	64	159	143	13	2	381
		Percentage	16.8%	41.7%	37.5%	3.4%	.5%	100.0%
	China	Count	7	83	26	10	5	131
		Percentage	5.3%	63.4%	19.8%	7.6%	3.8%	100.0%
Education level 2	Chinese	Count	41	211	154	49	18	473
		Percentage	8.7%	44.6%	32.6%	10.4%	3.8%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	63	59	74	10	2	208
		Percentage	30.3%	28.4%	35.6%	4.8%	1.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	17	69	61	7		154
		Percentage	11.0%	44.8%	39.6%	4.5%		100.0%
	China	Count	24	142	93	42	18	319
		Percentage	7.5%	44.5%	29.2%	13.2%	5.6%	100.0%
Education level 3	Chinese	Count	15	43	64	20	13	155
		Percentage	9.7%	27.7%	41.3%	12.9%	8.4%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	16	11	13	5	1	46
		Percentage	34.8%	23.9%	28.3%	10.9%	2.2%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	3	2	10			15
		Percentage	20.0%	13.3%	66.7%			100.0%
	China	Count	12	41	54	20	13	140
		Percentage	8.6%	29.3%	38.6%	14.3%	9.3%	100.0%

Table 9:

Chinese and British young females: degree of concern for animal ingredients (by education level and by nationality)

Education level and nationality			Animal ingredients: Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strong disagree	Total
Education level 1	Chinese	Count	47	199	199	54	10	509
		Percentage	9.2%	39.1%	39.1%	10.6%	2.0%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	23	17	11	2		53
		Percentage	43.4%	32.1%	20.8%	3.8%		100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	40	138	155	42	3	378
		Percentage	10.6%	36.5%	41.0%	11.1%	.8%	100.0%
	China	Count	7	61	44	12	7	131
		Percentage	5.3%	46.6%	33.6%	9.2%	5.3%	100.0%
Education level 2	Chinese	Count	28	171	192	60	23	474
		Percentage	5.9%	36.1%	40.5%	12.7%	4.9%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	78	68	47	9	2	204
		Percentage	38.2%	33.3%	23.0%	4.4%	1.0%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count	11	43	80	16	4	154
		Percentage	7.1%	27.9%	51.9%	10.4%	2.6%	100.0%
	China	Count	17	128	112	44	19	320
		Percentage	5.3%	40.0%	35.0%	13.8%	5.9%	100.0%
Education level 3	Chinese	Count	12	36	74	23	11	156
		Percentage	7.7%	23.1%	47.4%	14.7%	7.1%	100.0%
	British (UK)	Count	20	11	11	2	2	46
		Percentage	43.5%	23.9%	23.9%	4.3%	4.3%	100.0%
	Taiwan	Count		1	13	1		15
		Percentage		6.7%	86.7%	6.7%		100.0%
	China	Count		1	13	1		15
		Percentage		6.7%	86.7%	6.7%		100.0%

Table 10:

Pearson Chi-Square Test for influencing factor of education level on degree of concern for environment, animal testing and animal ingredients

			Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	N of Valid Cases
Education level 1	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	3.452	4	.485	566
		National difference	19.151	8	.014	566
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	18.235	4	.001	565
		National difference	58.150	8	.000	565
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	53.207	4	.000	562
		National difference	71.032	8	.000	562
Education level 2	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	34.913	4	.000	682
		National difference	67.294	8	.000	682
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	63.346	4	.000	681
		National difference	87.749	8	.000	681
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	123.314	4	.000	678
		National difference	140.610	8	.000	678
Education level 3	Environment	Socio-cultural difference	6.436	4	.169	202
		National difference	12.861	8	.117	202
	Animal testing	Socio-cultural difference	18.346	4	.001	201
		National difference	27.468	8	.001	201
	Animal ingredients	Socio-cultural difference	36.906	4	.000	202
		National difference	47.673	8	.000	202

- Concern for the environment, animal welfare and desire for non-animal ingredients
- Willingness to reduce personal spending in order to concentrate on the needs of the child

The first specific hypothesis to be tested will be:

Chinese and British customers have different attitudes to cosmetics.

Once the attitudinal dimensions have been clarified they will be included in the second and third hypothesis concerning behaviours. It is interesting first to discover whether the purchase of cosmetics has similar influential variables in these different cultures. The influential variables taken into account in framing the second hypothesis are the environmental and situational features included in discussion of the various models in Chapter 3:

- Income
- Age
- Marital status
- Parenthood
- Education
- Occupation
- Attitudes to cosmetics (same as for the first hypothesis)

The second hypothesis to be tested is:

The purchase of cosmetics will have different influential variables in each of the two cultures.

The hypothesis will be tested by means of regression equation of the general form:

$$\text{Spending on cosmetics} = \beta_0 + \beta_1\,\text{Income} + \beta_2\,\text{Age} + \beta_3\,\text{Marital status} + \beta_4\,\text{Parenthood} + \beta_5\,\text{Education} + \beta_6\,\text{Occupation} + \beta_7\,\text{Attitudes to cosmetics} + \varepsilon.$$

In the case of this hypothesis it is expected that the different cultures will have a varying pattern of significant β coefficients.