CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will outline the findings obtained from analysing the results of the questionnaires that were received from the respondents. The discussion begins with a description of the number of questionnaires distributed, returned and usable, and general characteristics of the respondents. Further analysis deals with the more complicated statistical output. The results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on the overall constructs are then presented in this chapter. The discussion of the results from both factor analyses will include American popular culture as the independent variable, five dependent variables consisting of conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure and another five moderating variables, i.e., religiosity and four demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream). Finally, the results of simple regression and hierarchical multiple regression are presented.

4.1 Number of Questionnaires Distributed, Returned and Usable

In order to capture the targeted sample size of 800 respondents, 1,200 survey questionnaires were distributed to selected secondary schools and higher education institutes in Peninsular Malaysia. As shown in Table 4.1 a total of 990 questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 82.5 percent, which is considered as very good in the Malaysian research context. Out of the 990 returned, 820 were found to be

usable (82.83%) and 170 questionnaires were rejected due to incomplete responses (17.17%). From this feedback it was concluded that respondents were willing to give their cooperation in answering the survey questions at their convenience. This provides evidence that if a survey is monitored and administered properly, much information can be gathered from the multi-cultural respondents.

Table 4.1
Number of Questionnaires Distributed, Returned and Usable

State (Peninsular Malaysia only)	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned	Complete Questionnaires	Incomplete Questionnaires
Kedah	150	140	120	20
Penang	200	150	115	35
Selangor	250	210	180	30
Federal Territory	250	210	165	45
Johor	200	150	135	15
Terengganu	150	130	105	25
TOTAL	**1200**	**990 (82.50%)**	**820 (82.83%)**	**170 (17.17%)**

4.2 Characteristics of the Respondents

The descriptive analysis refers to the transformation of raw data into a form that will make them easy to understand and interpret (Zikmund, 2000). The frequency and percentage distributions were used to describe responses on categorical demographic variables. The demographic profile of the respondents, i.e., gender, ethnicity, age, religion, household income, household size, primary education, secondary education and education level of the respondents were included in this study. Based on the data collected, the demographic profile of the respondents was constructed (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2
Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Demographic Variables	Frequency (N=820)	%	Demographic Variables	Frequency (N=820)	%
Gender			***Ethnicity***		
Male	375	45.7	Malay	465	56.7
Female	445	54.3	Chinese	272	33.2
			Indian	68	8.3
			Others	15	1.8
Age			***Religion***		
16 years old	174	21.2	Islam	490	59.8
17 years old	198	24.1	Buddhism/Taoism	215	26.2
18 years old	242	29.5	Hinduism	48	5.9
19 years old	206	25.1	Christianity	56	6.8
			Others	11	1.3
Household Income			***Primary Education***		
Below RM1000	340	41.5	Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary/ Elementary School)	545	66.5
RM1000-RM2999	229	27.9			
RM3000-RM4999	135	16.5			
RM5000-RM6999	53	6.5			
RM7000-RM8999	27	3.3	Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School)	199	24.3
RM9000-RM10999	21	2.6			
RM11000 above	15	1.8			
			Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Indian based Elementary School)	25	3.0
			Private Primary Schools	51	6.2
Household Size			***Secondary Education***		
1 to 2 persons	52	6.3	Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (National Secondary School)	740	90.2
3 to 4 persons	187	22.8			
5 to 6 persons	354	43.2			
7 persons and above	227	27.7	Sekolah Menengah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Secondary School)	63	7.7
			Private Schools	17	2.1
			Education Level		
			PMR (Lower Certificate of Education)	264	32.2
			SPM/SPMV (Malaysian Certificate of Education or O-Level)	432	52.7
			STPM (Higher Certificate of Education)	90	11.0
			Certificate	8	1.0

In terms of gender, 54.3 percent of the respondents were female, while 45.7 percent were male. In terms of ethnic group, 56.7 percent of the samples were Malay, followed by Chinese at 33.2 percent, Indian at 8.3 percent and others 1.8 percent. The quota requirement for ethnicity was not fulfilled because the researcher could not completely control the enumerators while they were in the field. In line with the ethnicity analysis, Islam dominates with 59.8%, followed by other religions.

The respondents varied in age ranging from 16 years old to 19 years old. The smallest proportion of the respondents fell into the "16 years old" age group. They accounted for 21.2 percent of the total respondents. This was followed by the "17 years old" age group (24.1 percent), the "18 years old" age group (29.5 percent) and the "19 years old" age group (25.1 percent). In terms of family household income, the researcher found that the majority came from the "below RM1,000" income group with 41.5%. While another 27.9% represented the income group of "RM1,000-RM2,999". The remaining 30.7% of the respondents in the study represent the income earners of above RM3,000.

The primary education level of the respondents consisted of four categories. About 66.5 percent of the respondents had received primary education or elementary school from Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Elementary School) and 24.3 percent from Sekolah Kebangsaan Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School). The remaining 3 percent and 6.2 percent of the sample received their primary education from Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Indian based Elementary School) and private primary schools, respectively. In terms of secondary school background, respondents with Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (National Secondary School) made up the majority of 90.2 percent. While secondary school background from Sekolah

Menengah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Secondary School) and private primary school represented 7.7 percent and 2.1 percent each.

The education level of the respondents was generally high. About 32.2 percent of the sample had received PMR ("Penilaian Menengah Rendah" – Lower Certificate of Education). Those with SPM ("Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia" – Malaysian Certificate of Education or O-Level) were 52.7 percent and STPM ("Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia" – Higher Certificate of Education) 11.0 percent of the population. Other respondents with a certificate or diploma were 1 percent and 3.2 percent each.

4.3 Cleaning Of Data

In this subsection, we will discuss the detection of missing data and outliers. It is essential to check the data set for possible errors. Some analysis can be very sensitive to what is known as outliers, the values that are well below or above the other scores (Pallant, 2005). According to Hair et al., (2006), outliers are observations with unique combinations of characteristics that are identifiable as distinctly different from other observations. It can be either an unusually high or low value on a variable. In this case, it could arise from procedural error, such as data entry error or a mistake in coding. These outliers should be identified during the data cleaning stage and they should be eliminated or recorded as missing value (Hair et al., 2006).

4.3.1 Detection of Missing Data

Missing data were reduced as much as possible by checking all the questionnaires at the time of collection. When any questions were found unanswered, it was immediately

brought to the attention of the related respondents. Since all the data were keyed into SPSS manually, before any tests were conducted using the data set, frequency distribution for each variable in the study as well as missing value analysis were run to ensure that the data were "clean". The results indicate that no missing data exists in the data set of this study.

4.3.2 Detection of Outliers

Hair et al. (2006) define outliers as "the observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations" (p. 73). It is important to make a distinction between outliers that ought to be deleted and those that ought not to be. Outliers that require deletion are those attributable to incorrect data entry, recorded missing values that have been read as real values and data from respondents who are not members of the intended population (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For this study, seven maximum and minimum extreme values for all the study variables were produced using the SPSS procedure ("Descriptive Statistic – Explore" command).

Pallant (2005) mentioned that the outliers can be identified from the standardized residual plot. The value of standardised residual from case wise diagnostics is used to measure the outliers in the sample. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest outliers are those with standardized residual values above about 3.3 (or less than -3.3).

A visual inspection of the data and the extreme values, as presented in Appendix C, revealed that the data were bona fide tables and not outliers that required deletion according to the aforesaid three criteria. The data is explainable and arises from the

inference of variables. Furthermore, outliers must be viewed within the context of analysis and evaluation by the information that it could convey. As such, no outliers were presented from the study.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics and Distribution of the Study Variables

In this subsection, we will discuss the descriptive statistics and distribution of the study variables.

4.4.1 Means and Standard Deviation of Study Variables

Table 4.3 presents the mean and standard deviation for the variables in this study. All variables were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The mean scores for all the variables range between 19.96 and 68.64. This indicates that American Popular Culture in explaining the conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, music television exposure and religiosity are at a moderate level. The standard deviation scores range from 6.03 to 22.36.

Table 4.3
Means and Standard Deviation for Study Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
American Popular Culture	68.64	22.36
Conspicuous Consumption	32.95	6.62
Price Sensitivity	38.39	7.45
Brand Sensitivity	24.13	6.03
Fashion Consciousness	24.06	6.33
Music Television Exposure	19.96	5.55
Religiosity	52.19	10.49

4.4.2 Skewness and Kurtosis of Study Variables

To assess the normality of the distribution of the data, the skewness and kurtosis of each variable were examined. The critical value for both measures of normality is drawn from a 'z' distribution. The SPSS software package was used to generate the skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables in this study. Therefore, for the calculated skewness and kurtosis values, zero assumes perfect normality in the data distribution (which is seldom achieved), ± 2.58 indicates rejecting the normality assumption at the 0.01 probability level, and ± 1.96 signifies a 0.05 error level (Hair et al. 1998). Table 4.4 summarizes the skewness and kurtosis for the seven main variables of this study. By applying the above criteria to the skewness values for each of the study variables, it is clear that none of the variables fall outside the ± 2.58 range of skewness. Thus, the data for this study are normal with regards to skewness.

Another data characteristic that was considered is the kurtosis. That is, how observations "cluster around a central point" for a given standard distribution (Norusis, 1990). Distributions that are more peaked than normal are called "leptokurtic", whereas those that are flatter than normal are referred to as "platykurtic". Positive values for kurtosis show that a distribution has a higher than normal peak (leptokurtic) while negative values show that a distribution has a lower than normal peak (platykurtic). The same criteria for skewness was applied to the kurtosis values for each variable and it is clear that none of the variables fall outside the ± 2.58 range of kurtosis. Thus, the data for this study are also normal with regards to kurtosis.

Table 4.4
Skewness and Kurtosis for the Study Variables

Study Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
American Popular Culture	0.181	-0.609
Conspicuous Consumption	-0.130	-0.347
Price Sensitivity	-0.222	-0.121
Brand Sensitivity	-0.306	-0.653
Fashion Consciousness	-1.100	0.717
American Music Television Exposure	-0.165	-0.452
Religiosity	0.539	-0.455

4.4.3 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Normality

Simple linear regression and hierarchical multiple regression analysis are the two main statistical techniques employed to test the hypotheses of this study. Therefore, several assumptions with regards to the use of multiple regressions, namely, linearity, normality and homoscedasticity must be met (Hair et al., 2006). Since multiple regressions is based on correlation coefficient, which is only sensitive to linear relationships, gross departures from linearity will mean that important relationships will remain undetected (De Vaus, 2002).

Linearity of any bivariate relationship is easily examined through scatter plots (Hair, 2006). The resulted scatter plots to test for linearity of the relationships between each of the five dependent variables and one independent variable (American popular culture), were done using the scatter plots shown in Appendix C. A visual inspection of the bivariate scatter plots reveals that there is no U-shaped distribution indicating a curvilinear relationship. Through an analysis of residuals and partial regression plots, no

non-linear pattern to the residuals is found. This indicates that the overall equation is linear and, thus, the assumption of linearity is not violated.

The second assumption is that the relationships between the variables should exhibit homoscedasticity. That is, the variance of one variable will be consistent across all values of the other variables. The opposite of homoscedasticity is heteroscedasticity. It degrades multiple regression analysis by underestimating the extent of the correlation between the variables (De Vaus, 2002). As suggested by Hair et al (2006), the studentized residuals were plotted on the dependent variables to determine the presence of heteroscedasticity. The scatter plots are presented in Appendix C. No discernible patterns of residuals were noted. A visual inspection of the scatter plots did not show any pattern of increasing or decreasing residuals. Thus, homoscedasticity exists for the dependent variables of the study.

The analysis on skewness and kurtosis presented earlier in this chapter reveals that the data in the study are normally distributed. In addition, the Normal Probability-Plot (P-P) for standardized residuals was also examined to determine the normality of the independent variable. The resultant Normal P-P plot, as presented in Appendix B, shows that the plotted data values do not deviate much from the straight diagonal line. Thus, indicating that the dependent variables of this study are normally distributed.

4.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The present researcher would like to clarify that the main objective of exploratory factor analysis are data reduction and exploration of the factors loaded in the present study. As mentioned earlier exploratory factor analysis was run, using the varimax (an orthogonal)

and oblimin (an oblique) rotation procedure as suggested by Stewart (1981). The results of both forms of rotation were almost identical. However, the orthogonal rotation dominates the strong likelihood that correlated factors and hierarchical factor solutions were attractive and theoretically justified. Thus, orthogonal (varimax) factor analysis was used for further analysis.

To identify the underlying dimensions of American Popular Culture, a principal component factor analysis with orthogonal rotation was conducted. A total of seven constructs (66 items), namely, American Popular Culture, conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, American music television exposure and religiosity were factor analysed to identify the number of dimensions derived. As suggested by Aaker (1971), factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were retained. The rotated factor matrix shows that ten factors can be identified to explain the underlying characteristics of all the constructs. The fifteen factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (see Appendix D). To ensure that only very significant loadings are considered, the variables for a factor are selected only when the absolute size of their factor loadings is 0.5 or more (Hair et al., 2006).

The results of the exploratory factor analysis showed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.896, which is acceptable (see Figure D1 in Appendix D). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (Approx. χ^2 = 21265.198, d.f. = 2145, p = 0.00) and conformed to the multivariate normality of the data (see Figure D1, Appendix D).

Table 4.5
Factor Loadings and Dimensions

Items/Factors	Loadings
Factor 1	
I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's behaviour (IM_12_10).	.783
I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's style of dressing (IM_11_6).	.766
My favourite popular American singer / music band exhibits the kind of behaviour that I try to imitate (RM_14_4).	.738
I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's mode of speech (IM_9_9).	.724
I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's hairstyle (IM_16_7).	.623
I buy souvenirs related to my favourite American singer / music band (AD_10_12).	.613
I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's opinions (IM_3_8).	.581
I collect personal details about my favourite American singer / music band (AD_17_15).	.534
Eigenvalues	10.1
Percent total variance	15.3
Factor 2	
Religious beliefs influence all dealings in life. (REG_65_30).	.822
Religion is especially important to me because it answers many questions about the meaning of life (REG_57_28).	.799
My religious beliefs lie behind my whole approach to life (REG_61_29).	.784
I always spend time in private religious thought and reflection (REG_63_31).	.729
I make financial contributions to my religious organization (REG_46_26).	.626
I consider myself to be very religious (REG_38_25).	.617
If Malaysians were more religious, this country would be a better one (REG_34_24).	.608
I regularly go to mosque / church / temple (REG_22_22).	.575
I often read books and magazines about my faith (REG_52_27).	.512
Eigenvalues	6.5
Percent total variance	9.8

Table 4.5, continued
Factor Loadings and Dimensions

Factor 3	
I get to know the melodies of my favourite American singer / music band's songs (KC_20_20).	.775
I watch my favourite American singer / music band (KC_18_19).	.754
I get to know the lyrics of my favourite American singer / music band's songs (KC_4_21).	.750
I listen to my favourite American singer / music band's music (KC_8_17).	.708
I purchase a number of my favourite American singer / music band's cassettes and CDs (KC_21_16)	.644
I search for information about my favourite American singer / music. band in magazines and newspapers (AD_6_13)	.549
Eigenvalues	3.7
Percent total variance	5.6
Factor 4	
When I buy a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.), I take brands into account (BS_32_57).	.802
When I buy a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.), I look for brand (BS_26_56).	.760
When I buy a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.), I prefer buying well known brands (BS_50_60).	.732
Brand is not important to me (RECODE_BS_44_59). (R)*	.672
I don't choose a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.) according to its brand (RECODE_BS_39_58). (R)*	-.660
Eigenvalues	2.9
Percent total variance	4.4
Factor 5	
I frequently wait until a product goes on sale before buying it (PS_37_49).	.726
I am willing to make an extra effort to find a low price for the product that I'm interested in (PS_60_53).	.659
I will change what I had planned to buy in order to take advantage of a lower price (PS_64_54).	.655
I am sensitive to differences in price of the product that I'm interested in (PS_66_55).	.585
I like to go to stores that are having sales just to see if I can find a bargain (PS_31_48).	.554
Eigenvalues	2.6
Percent total variance	4.0
Factor 6	
I dress for fashion (FC_29_41).	.804
I dress in style (FC_36_42).	.778
I usually have one or more outfits that are of the very latest style (FC_24_40).	.737
Eigenvalues	1.9
Percent total variance	2.9

Table 4.5, continued
Factor Loadings and Dimensions

Factor 7	
My favourite popular American singer / music band provides a good model for me to follow (RM_1_1).	.718
My favourite popular American singer / music band leads by example (RM_7_2).	.688
My favourite popular American singer / music band sets a positive example for others to follow (RM_19_3).	.629
My favourite popular American singer / music band acts as a role model for me (RM_5_5).	.600
Eigenvalues	1.6
Percent total variance	2.4
Factor 8	
I dress for comfort (RECODE_FC_42_43). (R)*	-.670
When shopping I always check the price before I decide to buy the product (PS_49_51).	.668
Dressing smartly is an important activity in my life (FC_48_44).	.567
Eigenvalues	1.5
Percent total variance	2.3
Factor 9	
People judge others by the things they own (CC_53_37).	.723
I think other people judge me based on the kind of products and brands that I use (CC_62_39).	.697
I buy some things that I secretly hope will impress other people (CC_58_38).	.530
Eigenvalues	1.4
Percent total variance	2.1
Factor 10	
I watch American music television programmes a few hours per day (MTV_45_65).	.693
I watch American music television programmes every day (MTV_33_63).	.654
I watch American music television programmes whenever I desire (e.g., MTV Hits, MTV Burned, MTV Jams etc.) (MTV_51_66).	.582
I never watch American music television programmes (RECODE_MTV_27_62). (R)*	.509
Eigenvalues	1.2
Percent total variance	1.9
Factor 11	
I enjoy reading fashion magazines (FC_59_46).	
Eigenvalues	1.8
Percent total variance	1.2

Table 4.5, continued
Factor Loadings and Dimensions

Factor 12 What others think of the product I buy is important in my purchasing decision (CC_35_34).	
Eigenvalues **Percent total variance**	1.8 1.2
Factor 13 NO ITEM LOADED	
Eigenvalues **Percent total variance**	1.7 1.1
Factor 14 I watch American music television programmes less than 1 hour per day (MTV_40_64).	
Eigenvalues **Percent total variance**	1.6 1.1
Factor 15 I am not against a person who buys a product for the purpose of showing off (CC_41_35).	
Eigenvalues **Percent total variance**	1.6 1.0

*Factor loading of less than 0.5 was omitted.
*Factor 8 was dropped from further analysis due to low Alpha Score (Please refer to Table 4.6).
*Factors 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 were dropped from further analysis due to less than two items loaded.
*All items are measured on a scale of (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly Agree.
(R) means Reverse Score.

Table 4.5 presents the derived factor analysis solutions. The principal components analysis extracted fifteen factors having eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The fifteen factors accounted for 59.3 percent of total variance. Factor 1 was loaded with eight items, explaining 15.3 percent of the variance. Factor 2 comprised nine loaded items, explaining 9.8 percent of the variance. Factor 3 comprised six loaded items, explaining 5.6 percent of the variance. Factors 4 and 5 were each loaded with five items, explaining 4.4 percent and 4.0 percent of the variance, respectively. Factors 6, 8 and 9 were loaded with three items, explaining 2.9 percent, 2.3 percent, 2.1 percent of the variance, respectively. Factors 7 and 10 were loaded with four items, explaining 2.4 percent and 1.9 percent of the variance, respectively. Factors 11 and 12 were loaded with one item,

explaining 1.8 percent and 1.2 percent, respectively. Factors 14 and 15 were also loaded with one item, explaining 1.6 percent with 1.1 percent and 1.0 percent of the variance, respectively.

Table 4.5 shows that Factor 1 consisted of eight items, five items from imitation (sub-dimension of American popular culture scale), two items from admiration of American popular culture and one item from role model of American popular culture scale. All eight items can be found in the American popular culture scale of 21 items (IM_12_10, IM_11_6, RM_14_4, IM_9_9, IM_16_7, AD_10_12, IM_3_8 and AD_17_15) that was included in the questionnaire. Factor 2 had nine out of ten items from the religiosity scale (REG_65_30, REG_57_28, REG_61_29, REG_63_31, REG_46_26, REG_38_25, REG_34_24, REG_22_22 and REG_52_27). Factor 3 consisted of five items from the knowledge and consumerism dimension and one item from the admiration dimension (KC_20_20, KC_18_19, KC_4_21, KC_8_17, KC_21_16 and AD_6_13).

Factor 4 had five out of six items from the brand sensitivity scale (BS_32_57, BS_26_56, BS_50_60, RECODE_BS_44_59 and RECODE_BS_39_58). However, item RECODE_BS_39_58 was dropped from further analysis to increase the alpha value from 0.508 to 0.820. Factor 5 consisted of five out of nine items on price sensitivity (PS_37_49, PS_60_53, PS_64_54, PS_66_55 and PS_31_48). Factor 6 consisted of three items, one of seven from fashion consciousness (FC_29_41, FC_36_42 and FC_24_40).

Factor 7 had four out of five items on role model dimension (RM_1_1, RM_7_2, RM_19_3 and RM_5_5). Factor 8 combined two items on fashion consciousness (RECODE_FC_42_43 and FC_48_4) and one item on price sensitivity (PS_49_51).

Factor 9 consisted of three items out of eight items on the conspicuous consumption scale (CC_53_37, CC_62_39 and CC_58_38). Factor 10 included four out of five items on American music television exposure scale (MTV_45_65, MTV_33_63, MTV_51_66 and RECODE_MTV_27_62).

Factor 11 had one item on fashion consciousness scale (FC_59_46). Factor 12 consisted of one item from conspicuous consumption scale (CC_35_34). Factor 13 did not load any item. Factor 14 had one item from conspicuous consumption scale (CC_35_34). Lastly, Factor 15 consisted of one item from the conspicuous consumption scale (CC_41_35) (refer Table 4.5, Figure D4 and Figure D5 in Appendix D). From Table 4.6, Factor 8 was dropped from subsequent analysis as it had limited use in regression analysis due to its low reliability. Factors 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 were dropped from further analysis due to less than two items loaded. Thus, nine factors or dimensions (F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F6, F7, F9 and F10) emerged, representing 46 of the items.

When analysing the items in the factors, some interpretable dimensions can be identified (see again Table 4.5). Factor 1, considered as "Imitation and Adoration" dimension due to all the three dimensions (i.e., imitation, admiration and role modelling) collapsed in this dimension. The decision to collapse the three dimensions was based on the unbalanced weights in each dimension. In order to balance all dimensions, the researcher took the average weights. Factor 2 called "Religiosity" showed the degree of individuals' conviction to a particular religious group that led to practice. Factor 3 showed the importance of the "Knowledge and Consumerism" dimension of American popular culture.

Factor 4, labelled as "Brand Sensitivity" indicated the consumers' sensitivity in selecting brand. Factor 5 called "Price Sensitivity" showed the consumers' sensitivity in

price differences. Factor 6 ("Fashion Consciousness") indicated that consumers' passion in being up-to-date according to the latest fashion will affect their consumption decision. Factor 7 considered as "Role Model" portrayed the consumers' attitudes towards their role model (popular American singer/music band). Factor 9 called "Conspicuous Consumption" the consumers' consumption with intention of displaying wealth, prestige and status appeal. Factor 10 labelled "Music Television Exposure" indicated the consumers' frequency in viewing American music television within a specific time period.

The results show that marketers need to focus on these nine dimensions to influence their customers in buying decisions if American Popular Culture is the main concern. For further analysis, only nine out of ten dimensions were used based on the reliability score and the number of items loaded. Factor 8 was dropped due to a low reliability score (see Table 4.6).

4.5.1 Reliability Assessment

In order to ensure that the developed scales/factors measured consistently what they were intended to measure, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Nunnally, 1967) was employed to test their reliability. A post test of the reliability of the survey instrument used in this study was measured by using an internal consistency approach (Churchill, 1979). The Cronbach's alpha was computed on each of the Likert scale items that were factor loaded into the ten factors mentioned earlier (Table 4.6). The internal consistency reliability scores ranged from 0.420 to 0.877 (see Table 4.6).

The alpha coefficients for the scales/factors in Table 4.6 show that most factors are highly reliable and acceptable, with alpha scores exceeding 0.5, the threshold recommended by Nunnally (1967) for exploratory research and the evaluation guidelines suggested by Peter (1979). The values of the alphas indicate that each of the scales possess a moderate to high level of internal consistency. Therefore, the final 46 items were used for further analysis (refer to Table 4.6).

Table 4.6
Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficient

Factor	Number of Items	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
Factor 1- Imitation and Adoration	8	0.877
Factor 2 - Religiosity	9	0.865
Factor 3 - Knowledge and Consumerism	6	0.846
Factor 4 - Brand Sensitivity	4	0.820
Factor 5 - Price Sensitivity	5	0.726
Factor 6 - Fashion Consciousness	3	0.818
Factor 7 - Role Model	4	0.835
Factor 8*	3	0.420*
Factor 9 - Conspicuous Consumption	3	0.562
Factor 10 - Music Television Exposure	4	0.637

*This factor was dropped from further analysis due to low Reliability Score.

4.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The main objective of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is to validate the measurements under study. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to analyse

convergent and discriminant validity, by assessing the measurement model developed for testing each of the main variables in the present study. There are two methods commonly used by previous researchers in evaluating the validity of a measurement model: testing each construct separately, or testing all constructs together at one time (Cheng, 2001).

A study conducted by Woo (2009) has tested all constructs at once (including the moderating variable) in his measurement model. In this study, testing all the constructs at once also is preferable than to test each construct separately because of the ability to take into account the relationships between the indicators of different constructs. In this sense, discriminant validity is not only assumed but also statistically tested. However, it should be noted that researchers attempting to model relationships among a large number of latent variables (e.g., in the overall measurement model with CFA) have found it difficult to fit such a model to predictions even with strong theoretical support (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1986). Therefore, steps are needed to decrease the number of indicators used while maintaining the estimation of measurement error given by using multiple-item indicators.

In the present study, all the final variables derived as listed in Table 4.6 from the exploratory factor analysis were used in assessing the measurement model. Once the measurement model is specified (using all the derived items), the researcher must examine unidimensionality, which refers to the existence of a single construct underlying a set of measures (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). This is because a highly mandatory condition for construct validity and reliability checking is the unidimensionality of the measure (Anderson and Gerbing, 1991).

Additionally in this study, a separate measurement model with three dimensions (i.e., role model, imitation and adoration, and knowledge and consumerism) for American popular culture construct has been conducted to gain a better model fit following the argument stated earlier in Chapter 2. We have argued that American popular culture construct can be explained by two main dimensions of role modelling and expression of idolization (adapted from Raviv et al., 1996; Harper, 2000; Hogg and Banister 2000; Martin and Bush 2000; and Bush et al., 2004) as illustrated in Figure 2.5, Chapter 2. While, the expression of idolization is then further explained by three sub dimensions, i.e., imitation, adoration and knowledge and consumerism (adapted from Raviv et al. 1996) as illustrated in Figure 2.6, Chapter 2. However, the results in Exploratory Factor Analysis revealed three dimensions for American popular culture construct (i.e., role model, imitation and adoration, and knowledge and consumerism).

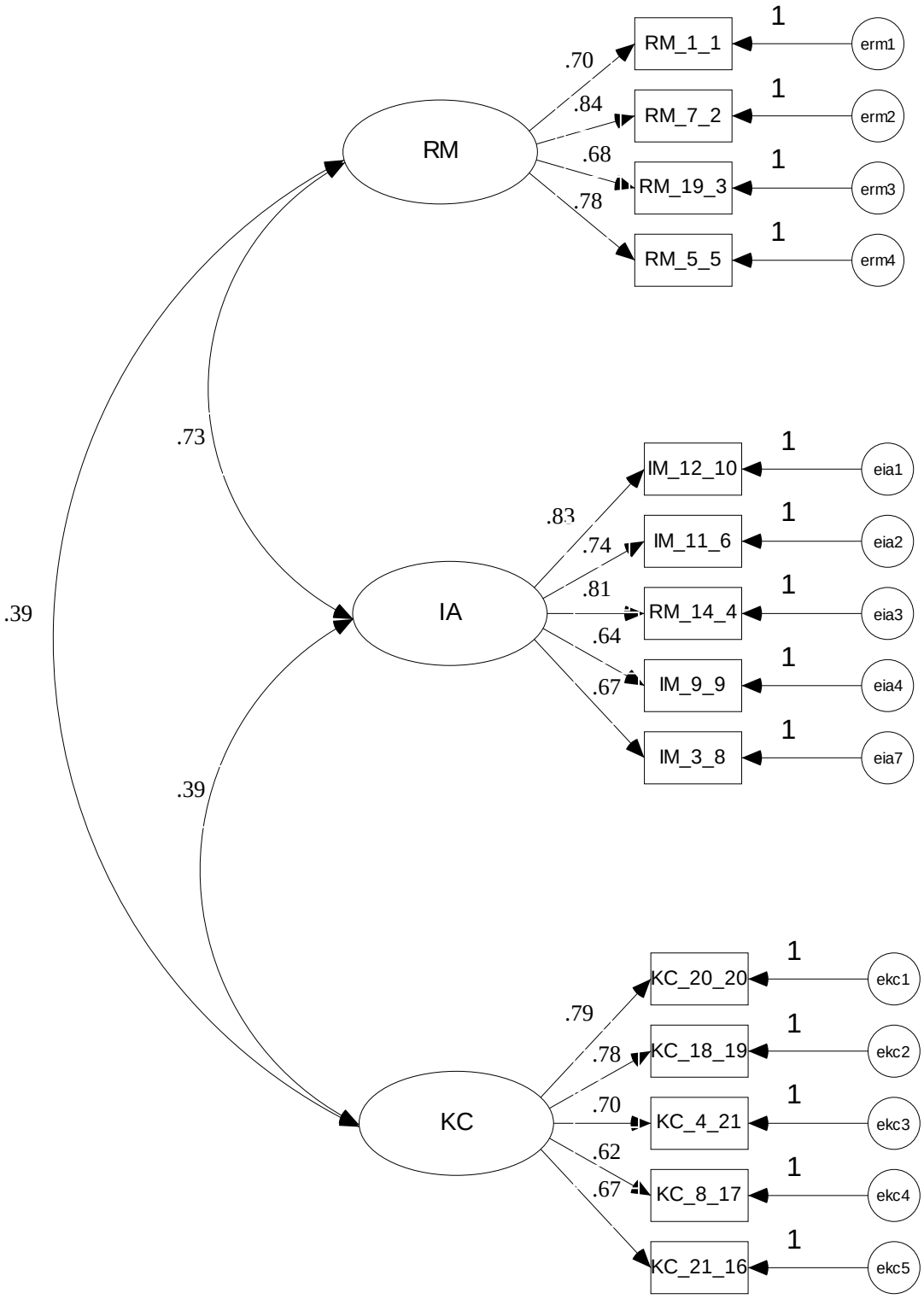
Therefore, the first order and second order Confirmatory Factor Analysis have been conducted to determine a better model fit (please refer Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2). When comparing the first-order model and second-order model, both performed identical results (see Table 4.7, comparing their fit indices). However, where both models show acceptable fit indices as in this case, there are two ways in which a decision concerning which model to choose for further analysis can be made. Firstly, it can be based on the priori status of the American popular culture structure. As is recommended by priori theoretical structure, whereby American popular culture consists of multidimensional constructs with at least two dimensions of role modelling and expression of idolization (adapted from Raviv et al., 1996; Harper, 2000; Hogg and Banister 2000; Martin and Bush 2000; and Bush et al., 2004), this suggest that the second-order model may be preferable.

Table 4.7
First Order and Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Results for American Popular Culture Construct

	χ^2	df	P	χ^2/ df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
1st Order CFA								
	330.615	74	0.000	4.468	0.944	0.920	0.951	0.065
2nd Order CFA								
	330.615	74	0.000	4.468	0.944	0.920	0.951	0.065

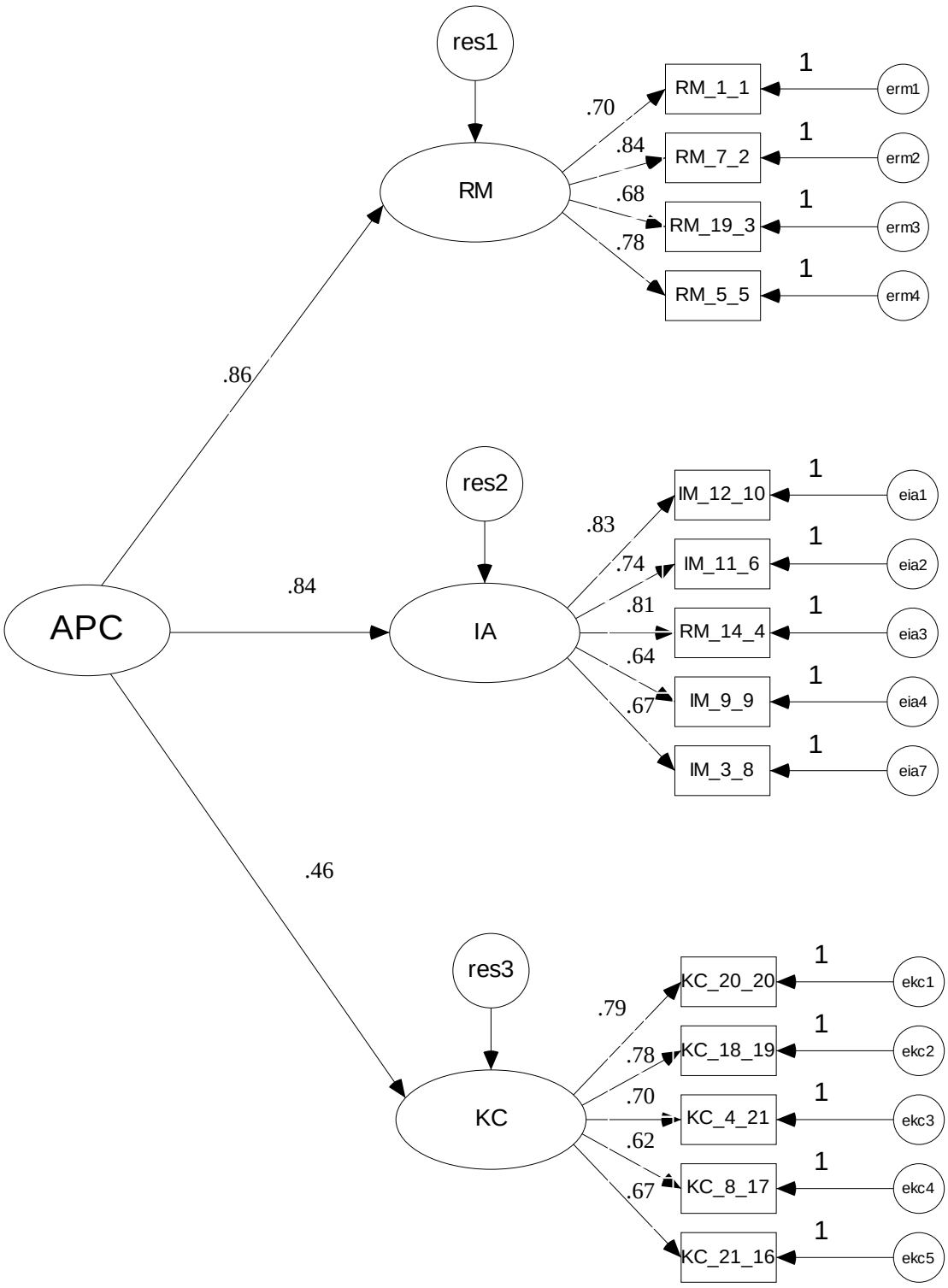
Secondly, the use of a second-order model increases the validity of the construct (Garver and Mentzer, 1999; Hair et al., 1998, page 626). If the prior structure demonstrates multidimensionality, then all dimensions should "measure the same thing and should covary at a higher level if they are good measures of the underlying variables (Bagozzi, 1994, p.331). In other words, if the model could be empirically tested in a second-order form, this would allow a stronger statement: "While there may be some overlap between the dimensions of American popular culture, the dimensions are to some extent distinct from each other" (Hair et al., 1998; Schmidt, 2005). As indicated in Figure 4.2, the structural relationships (or factor loadings) covaried from one dimension to another (ranging from 0.46 to 0.84) when they were tested in a higher/second form. Therefore, on the basis of the prior status of the scale and construct validity (that measures indeed covary as shown in Figure 4.2), a decision to select the second-order model was made. For further analysis, the researcher decided to take a balance weighted average for the dimensions to represent the American popular culture variable.

Figure 4.1
First Order American Popular Culture



χ^2 (1) = 330.615, p = .000; GFI = 0.944; AGFI =0.920; CFI = 0.951 and RMSEA =0.065

Figure 4.2
Second Order American Popular Culture



χ^2 (1) = 330.615, p = .000; GFI = 0.944; AGFI =0.920; CFI = 0.951 and RMSEA =0.065

Furthermore, Garver and Mentzer (1999) also suggest that the process of refining and testing for unidimensionality be conducted independently with each latent variable. Once each construct in the measurement model is deemed acceptable, the overall measurement model should be assessed and each construct should be evaluated for unidimensionality in the presence of other constructs (Medsker, William and Holahan, 1994).

The criteria for assessing construct unidimensionality in CFA include (Steenkamp and van Trijp, 1991):

1) the fit of the overall measurement model, and
2) the fit of the component of the measurement model.

According to Kelloway (1995), researchers should use multiple indices of model fit in determining the fit of the model, choose the indices that operationalized different aspects of model fit, and be consistent with the choice of decision rule within and across any analysis. The choice and the decision rules for the present study have been laid out in the chapter on methodology. In terms of the fit of components of the measurement model, researchers should examine the diagnostic indicators such as standardised residuals and modification indices, and the relationship between indicators and latent variables (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). However, theoretical considerations should always be used as the primary consideration when making model modifications based on standardised residuals and modification indices (Byrne, 2001).

To fulfil the second criteria of construct unidimensionality, modification indices and standardised residuals were examined to see whether there was any misspecification in the model (Byrne, 2001) (as suggested by Steenkamp and van Trijp, 1991). Thus, in this

study, four items were dropped from second order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for American popular culture construct. Another six items were dropped in the measurement model. A total of ten items were dropped in order to have the model fit, using the modification indices, standardised residual and standardised regression weight. As discussed earlier, the measurement model in this study was examined by correlating all the variables (the entire final variable derived from exploratory factor analysis which was taken from Table 4.6). Each variable was allowed to correlate with each other.

The present researcher would like to clarify that the theoretical reasoning to drop 4 items from Imitation scale (three items) and Knowledge and consumerism (one item). Aforementioned items were dropped due to the overlapping statement within the scale. For Imitation scale, three items were dropped for further analysis. The two items (i.e., "I buy souvenirs related to my favourite American singer / music band (AD_10_12)"and "I collect personal details about my favourite American singer / music band (AD_17_15)") were not reflecting the intended construct of imitation. According to Raviv et al. (1996) these items belongs to the worship (adoration) sub-dimension for expression of idolization dimension. Another item, "I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's hairstyle (IM_16_7)" overlapped with other item which were retained for further analysis such as "I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's behaviour (IM_12_10)", "I adopt my favourite American singer / music band's style of dressing (IM_11_6)" and "My favourite popular American singer / music band exhibits the kind of behaviour that I try to imitate (RM_14_4)".

For Knowledge and consumerism scale, one item "I search for information about my favourite American singer / music band in magazines and newspapers (AD_6_13)" was

dropped for further analysis as the item was not explaining the intended construct. According to Raviv et al. (1996) this item belongs to the worship (adoration) sub-dimension for expression of idolization dimension. Another six items dropped in the measurement model will be discussed in the following section.

a. Convergent Validity

The first criteria of construct unidimensionality, as suggested by Steenkamp and van Trijp (1991), was fulfilled in which the result of CFA indicates a well-fitting model of GFI = 0.916; AGFI = 0.900; TLI = 0.927; RMSEA = 0.040. Comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.9 or above for the model implies that there is strong evidence of unidimensionality (Kline, 1998). In the present study, the CFI indices together with the other indices to measure the model fit, i.e., GFI, TLI and RMSEA for all constructs presented in the developed instrument are shown in Figure 4.3.

The chi-square statistics were significant and other fit indices indicate a recommended level of indices, thus, suggesting a well-fitting measurement model. Figure 4.3 also showed the correlation among variables in the present study. The results from the measurement model show that one item from the Brand Sensitivity scale, BS_50_60, three items from the Religiosity scale, REG_46_26, REG_22_22 and REG_52_27, and two items from the American Music Television Exposure scale, MTV_51_66 and RECODE_MTV_27_62 were deleted to get the data fit with the model.

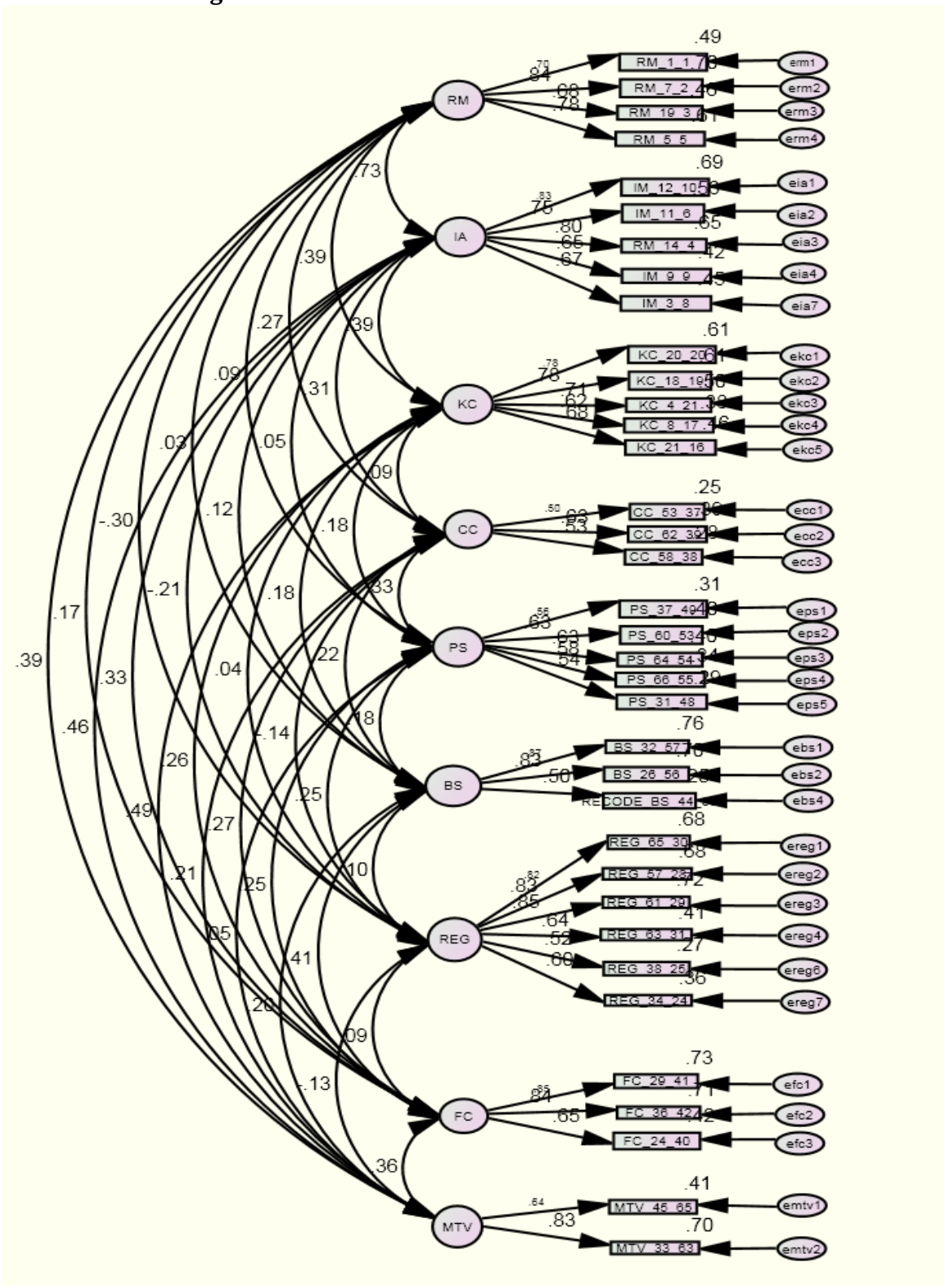
For Brand sensitivity scale, one item “When I buy a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.), I prefer buying well-known brands (BS_50_60)” was dropped from further analysis as it overlapped with another two items “When I buy a product (e.g., sport

shoes, caps etc.), I take brands into account (BS_32_57)" and "When I buy a product (e.g., sport shoes, caps etc.), I look for brand (BS_26_56)".

For Religiosity scale, three items were dropped for further analysis. The three items (i.e., "I make financial contributions to my religious organization (REG_46_26)", "I regularly go to mosque / church / temple (REG_22_22)"and "I often read books and magazines about my faith (REG_52_27)") were dropped from further analysis as it overlapped with "Religious beliefs influence all dealings in life. (REG_65_30)" and "My religious beliefs lie behind my whole approach to life (REG_61_29)". According to Wilkes et al. (1986) and Md Nor (1988), both items (i.e., "I make financial contributions to my religious organization (REG_46_26)" and "I often read books and magazines about my faith (REG_52_27)") were not included in their religiosity scale. Furthermore, Safiek (2006) also did not include item "I regularly go to mosque / church / temple (REG_22_22)" in his religiosity scale. Therefore, the present researcher decided to drop these three items from the scale.

Figure 4.3 indicated that all latent variables were measured by more than three items except American music television exposure scale. A few studies have been conducted by Sherman et al. (1997), Dabholkar et al. (1996) and Zeithaml et al. (1996) also used only two items to measure latent variables. Therefore, we believed that it is reasonable to accept only two items to measure latent variable.

Figure 4.3: Measurement Model for All Variables



χ^2 (1) =1293.706; p = .000; χ2/df = 2.318; GFI = 0.916; AGFI = 0.900; CFI = 0.927 and RMSEA = 0.040.

Figure 4.3 also showed the correlation among variables in the present study. The covariance ranged from -0.481 to 1.104. The negative covariance indicates that higher than average values of one variable tend to be paired with lower than average value of the other variables. In this case, the covariance between religiosity with American music television exposure, conspicuous consumption, imitation (dimension of American popular culture) and role model (dimension of American popular culture) were negative accounting for 19.5%, 17.4%, 34.1% and 48.1%, respectively. The results implies that the higher religious value possess by the consumer, they becoming less influence towards American music television and American popular culture and becoming less involve in conspicuous consumption.

In the same sense, similar results reported by Haryati (2007) for the negative covariance between religiosity and American music television exposure. While, the research done by Lindridge et al. (2004) and Lindridge and Dibb (2003) found negative covariance between religiosity and conspicuous consumption. Finally, the similar studies conducted by Sherkat (2002) and Strinati (2004) also showed similar results of negative covariance between religiosity and American popular cultureThe convergent and discriminant validity can be assessed and tested using the measurement model in SEM. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which different methods used to measure the same construct produce similar results (Anderson and Gerbing, 1998). Ideally, convergent validity is tested by determining whether the items in a scale converge or load together on a single construct in the measurement model (Garver and Mentzer, 1999).

The critical ratio (t-test) for the factor loading is often used to assess convergent validity (Syuhaily, 2008). Dunn, Seaker and Waller (1994) argued that “if the factor loadings are statistically significant, then convergent validity exists” (p.164). According to Anderson

and Gerbing (1988), it means that convergent validity is achieved when all the indicators have significant factor loadings; it supports the view that the indicators are efficiently measuring the same construct. Researchers should also assess the overall fit of the measurement model, as well as the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the estimated parameters between latent variables and their indicators in order to assess convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp, 1991).

Thus, in the present study, the overall fit of the measurement model was assessed using GFI, AGFI, CLI and RMSEA for indices. The magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the estimated parameters between latent variables (consumer behaviour aspects, i.e., conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure; moderating variable, i.e., religiosity; and American popular culture dimensions, i.e., role model, imitation and adoration and knowledge and consumerism) and their indicators. The results are shown in Table 4.7.

The results of all the criteria for the GFI (0.916), AGFI (0.900) and TLI (0.927) yielded results of above 0.9, indicating a good fit model, with RMSEA of 0.040 and suggesting evidence of convergent validity. With regard to the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the estimated parameters between latent variable and their indicators, the results also found that the magnitude for all variables and their indicators were above the reasonable benchmark of 0.5 (Hair et al, 2006), indicating that convergent validity exists (refer to the “standardised regression weights” column).

Table 4.7
The Magnitude, Direction and Statistical Significance of the Estimated Parameters between Latent Variables and Their Indicators – Testing for Convergent Validity

Indicators		Latent Variables	Std. Regression Weight	Std. Error (S.E)	Critical Ratio (C.R)	P
RM_1_1	←	Role Model	0.703			
RM_7_2	←	Role Model	0.838	0.052	21.097	***
RM_19_3	←	Role Model	0.677	0.052	17.539	***
RM_5_5	←	Role Model	0.780	0.055	19.978	***
IM_12_10	←	Imitation and Adoration	0.830			
IM_11_6	←	Imitation and Adoration	0.751	0.045	23.567	***
RM_14_4	←	Imitation and Adoration	0.804	0.038	26.230	***
IM_9_9	←	Imitation and Adoration	0.646	0.045	19.076	***
IM_3_8	←	Imitation and Adoration	0.670	0.045	19.703	***
KC_20_20	←	Knowledge and Consumerism	0.783			
KC_18_19	←	Knowledge and Consumerism	0.781	0.043	21.752	***
KC_4_21	←	Knowledge and Consumerism	0.705	0.044	19.840	***
KC_8_17	←	Knowledge and Consumerism	0.619	0.040	16.917	***
KC_21_16	←	Knowledge and Consumerism	0.676	0.051	18.797	***
CC_53_37	←	Conspicuous Consumption	0.500			
CC_62_39	←	Conspicuous Consumption	0.627	0.127	9.209	***
CC_58_38	←	Conspicuous Consumption	0.528	0.139	7.028	***
PS_37_49	←	Price Sensitivity	0.557			
PS_60_53	←	Price Sensitivity	0.634	0.092	12.040	***
PS_64_54	←	Price Sensitivity	0.634	0.092	11.751	***
PS_66_55	←	Price Sensitivity	0.585	0.087	11.223	***
PS_31_48	←	Price Sensitivity	0.536	0.085	10.979	***
BS_32_57	←	Brand Sensitivity	0.870			
BS_26_56	←	Brand Sensitivity	0.834	0.053	18.903	***
RECODE_BS_44_59	←	Brand Sensitivity	0.501	0.044	13.513	***
REG_65_30	←	Religiosity	0.822			
REG_57_28	←	Religiosity	0.827	0.036	26.208	***
REG_61_29	←	Religiosity	0.850	0.037	27.572	***
REG_63_31	←	Religiosity	0.639	0.039	19.386	***
REG_38_25	←	Religiosity	0.516	0.039	14.825	***
REG_34_24	←	Religiosity	0.603	0.045	17.828	***
FC_29_41	←	Fashion Consciousness	0.852			
FC_36_42	←	Fashion Consciousness	0.840	0.043	23.248	***
FC_24_40	←	Fashion Consciousness	0.646	0.042	18.797	***
MTV_45_65	←	Music Television Exposure	0.643			
MTV_33_63	←	Music Television Exposure	0.834	0.107	12.104	***

Moreover, to show that the convergent validity exists for the study variables of the measurement models, the direction for all the estimated parameters were in the same direction as the researcher expected (based on the previous research). In addition, the critical ratio (C.R.) for all the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of ±1.96, which were also found to be statistically significant, and the standard error (S.E.) were not excessively large or small (Bryne, 2001).

4.5.3 Reliability Test – Using SEM

Reliability is also an indicator of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). As recommended by Baumgarter and Homburg (1996), researchers should report at least one measure of construct reliability, which is based on estimated model parameters (e.g., composite reliability, average variance extracted). This is because, according to them, coefficient alpha is generally an internal measure of reliability as in most practical cases it is only the lower bound on reliability.

Hair et al. (2006) also stated that coefficient alpha remains a commonly applied estimate although it may understate reliability. It is computed from the squared sum of factor loading (λ_i) for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct (δ_i) as:

$$\text{Construct Reliability} = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i\right]^2}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i\right]^2 + \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i\right]}$$

Sources: Hair et al. (2006), p.777

The results of construct reliability for all the constructs studied, based on the measurement model output, are presented in Table 4.9. The rule of thumb for the reliability estimate is that 0.7 or higher suggests good reliability (Hair et al., 2006), and the results show that the constructs displayed construct reliability of 0.7 and above. Thus, the results indicate that convergent validity exists for the constructs of the study.

Table 4.9
Construct Reliability and Variance Extracted for the Study Constructs

Constructs	Construct Reliability	Variance Extracted
Role model	0.941	0.566
Imitation and Adoration	0.961	0.553
Knowledge and Consumerism	0.961	0.512
Conspicuous Consumption	0.899	0.307
Price sensitivity	0.961	0.349
Brand sensitivity	0.895	0.568
Fashion consciousness	0.899	0.616
American music television exposure	0.797	0.555
Religiosity	0.972	0.520

A complementary measure of construct reliability is the variance extraction measure (Hair, et al., 2006). It measures the total amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent variable. It can be calculated simply using standardised loadings:

$$\text{Variance Extracted} = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i^2\right]}{n}$$

Sources: Hair et al. (2006), p.777

Using the same logic, a variance extracted of less than 0.5 indicates that, on average, more error remains in the items than variance explained by the latent factor structure in the measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). The calculated results of the variance extracted, as shown in Table 4.9, indicate that the variance extracted for two items (i.e., conspicuous consumption and price sensitivity) are below 0.5; however, they did not cause concern as it is not uncommon to find estimates below 0.5, even when the reliabilities are acceptable (Hatcher, 1994).

The results of the construct reliability for the variables examining the dimension of American popular culture are shown in Table 4.9. The results showed that the overall alphas are 0.941, 0.961 and 0.961 for role model, imitation and adoration and knowledge and consumerism, respectively. All the overall alpha values exceed the cut-off point of reliability recommended by Nunnally and Berstein (1994) and Nunnally (1978). The result of the reliability score for role model construct used in this study is similar to the reliability score obtained by previous studies, i.e., Martin and Bush (2000) and Rice (1997). In terms of the imitation and adoration construct used in this study the reliability score is similar to that obtained in past research, i.e., 0.887 for imitation and 0.887 for adoration in Raviv et al. (1996). With regards to the knowledge and consumerism construct used in this study the reliability score is similar to that obtained in past research, i.e., 0.860 in Raviv et al. (1996).

Construct reliability coefficients were also calculated for conspicuous consumption. The result showed that the alpha for conspicuous consumption construct was 0.899. Compared to the original conspicuous consumption scale by Md Nor (1988) it further validated using factor analysis and internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficients (α

= 0.80). While in O'Cass and McEwen's (2004) study, the internal reliability consistency (alpha) coefficient was 0.887.

With regards to price sensitivity construct, the construct reliability coefficient is 0.961. The result of the reliability score for price sensitivity construct used in this study is similar to the reliability score obtained by the previous studies, i.e., 0.800 in Md Nor (1988), 0.86 and 0.89 in Wakerfield and Inman (2003) for functional and hedonic product categories.

In terms of brand sensitivity construct, the construct reliability coefficient is 0.895. The result of the reliability score for brand sensitivity construct used in this study is similar to the reliability score obtained by the previous studies, i.e., 0.89 in Lanchance et al. (2003) and 0.89 in Nelson and McLeod (2005).

With regards to the fashion consciousness construct, the construct reliability coefficient is 0.899. The result of the reliability score for fashion consciousness construct used in this study is similar to the reliability score obtained by the previous studies, i.e., 0.740 in Manrai et al. (2001) and 0.740 in Dutta-Bergman (2006).

In terms of American music television exposure construct, the construct reliability coefficient is 0.797. The alpha value for this construct exceeded the cut-off point of reliability recommended by Nunnally and Berstein (1994) and Nunnally (1978). The results of this reliability test could not be compared with past studies as no previous studies have been conducted on these elements of American music television exposure. In addition, most of the items measuring the study constructs were taken from various sources and there were also items that were newly developed by the researcher.

With regards to the religiosity construct, the construct reliability coefficient is 0.972. The result of the reliability score for the religiosity construct used in this study is similar to the reliability score obtained by the previous studies, i.e., 0.810 in Md Nor (1988), 0.85 and 0.68 for intrapersonal and interpersonal religiosity, respectively, in Safiek (2006).

b. Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was then tested using CFA. With CFA, the categories are predetermined by the researcher and the analysis determines how well each question within a factor correlates with that particular factor. To test for discriminant validity using CFA, the chi-square differences test is conducted by comparing the freely-estimated measurement model with a theoretical model where the correlation parameter is constrained to 1 (Joreskog, 1971). Discriminant validity of two constructs is achieved if the chi-square value for the unconstrained model is significantly lower than that of the constrained model (Bagozzi and Philips, 1982). Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step approach using confirmatory analysis and SEM was followed. In SEM, the measurement model was first tested to validate the measurement instruments used in the study.

i. Results of Discriminant Validity

Table 4.10 captures all the results of discriminant validity on the constructs in this study. Figures 4.4 to 4.7 exhibit the measurement models for the constructs of the independent, dependent and moderating variables. The summary of results in Table 4.10 compared the 9-factor Model with 1-factor Model, 2-factor Model and 7-factor Model.

Table 4.10
CFA Result for Discriminant Validity

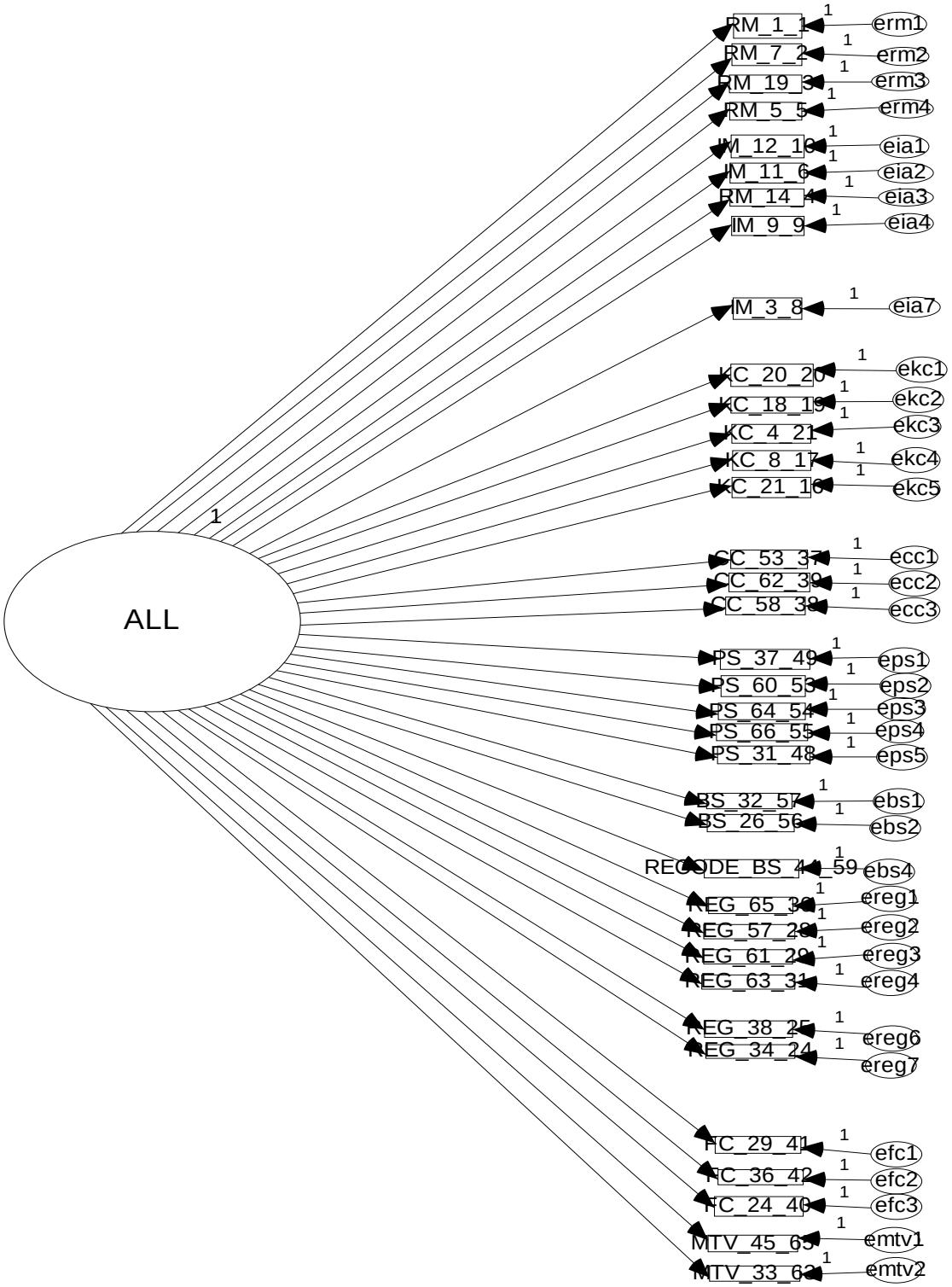
	χ^2	df	P	χ^2/ df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
1-Factor Model								
	7819.086	594	0.000	13.163	0.554	0.500	0.367	0.122
2-Factor Model								
	6193.428	593	0.000	10.444	0.624	0.578	0.509	0.107
7-Factor Model								
	2896.270	573	0.000	5.055	0.791	0.757	0.796	0.070
9-Factor Model								
	1293.706	558	0.000	2.318	0.916	0.900	0.936	0.040

In the 9-factor Model, six constructs and three sub-constructs (American Popular Culture consists of three dimensions, Role Model, Imitation and Adoration and Knowledge and Consumerism) were treated as nine independent factors. In the 2-factor Model, the three American Popular Culture dimensions (Role Model, Imitation and Adoration and Knowledge and Consumerism) were loaded on one factor and the other constructs were loaded into another factor. The decision to combine the entire three dimensions was based on the discussion in Chapter 2. Based on the arguments from several researchers, American popular culture involves dimensions of role modelling and expression of idolization (Hebdige, 1988; Raviv et al., 1996; Harper, 2000; Jensen, 2003).

However, no previous study attempted to establish a measurement for American popular culture. Therefore, the researcher decided to take a weighted average for the dimensions to represent the American popular culture variable. This enables a balance weighted average to be used in further analysis. The other variables (conspicuous consumption,

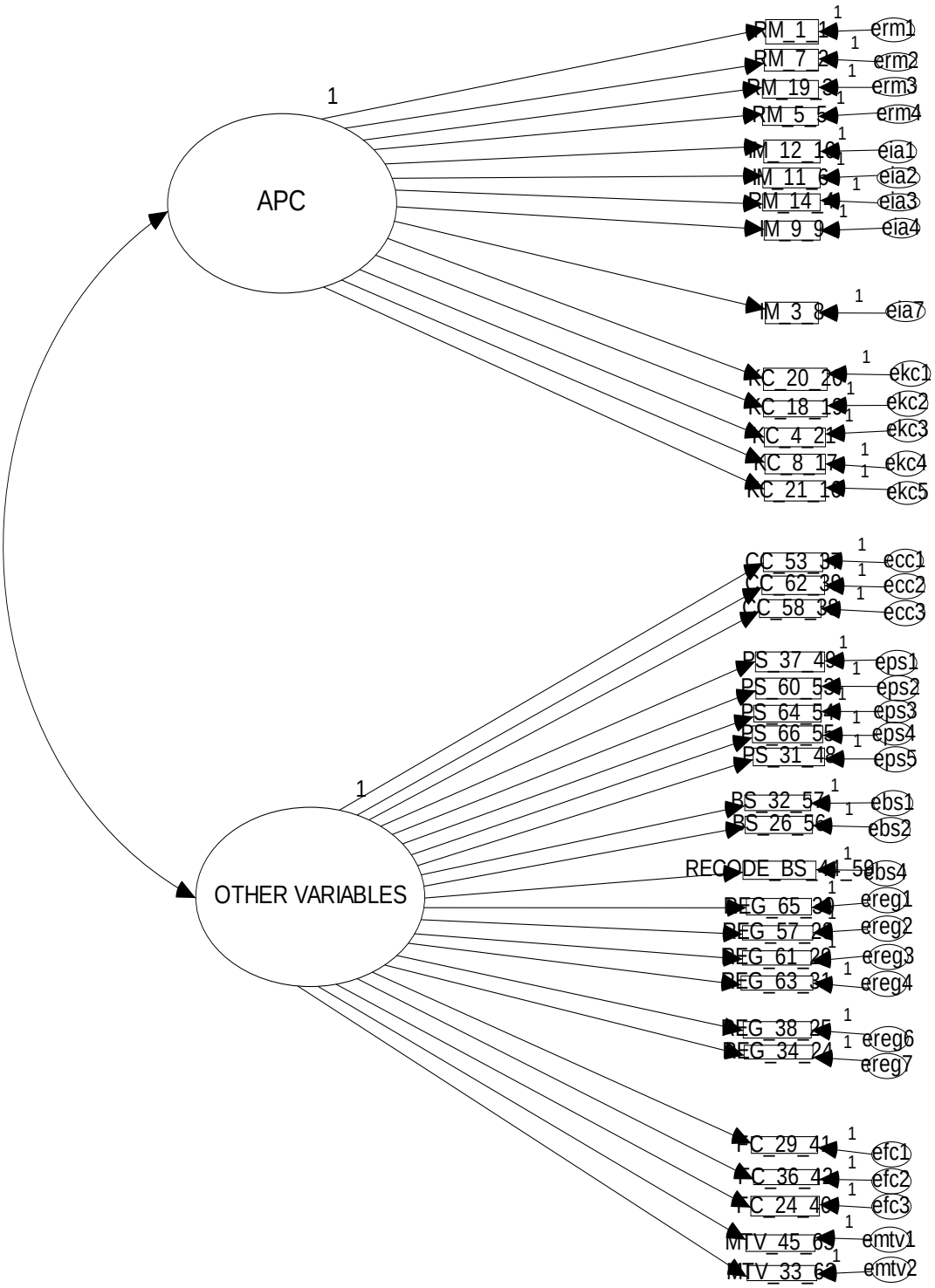
price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, American music television exposure and religiosity) were loaded on another factor in the 2-factor Model.

Figure 4.4
1-Factor Model



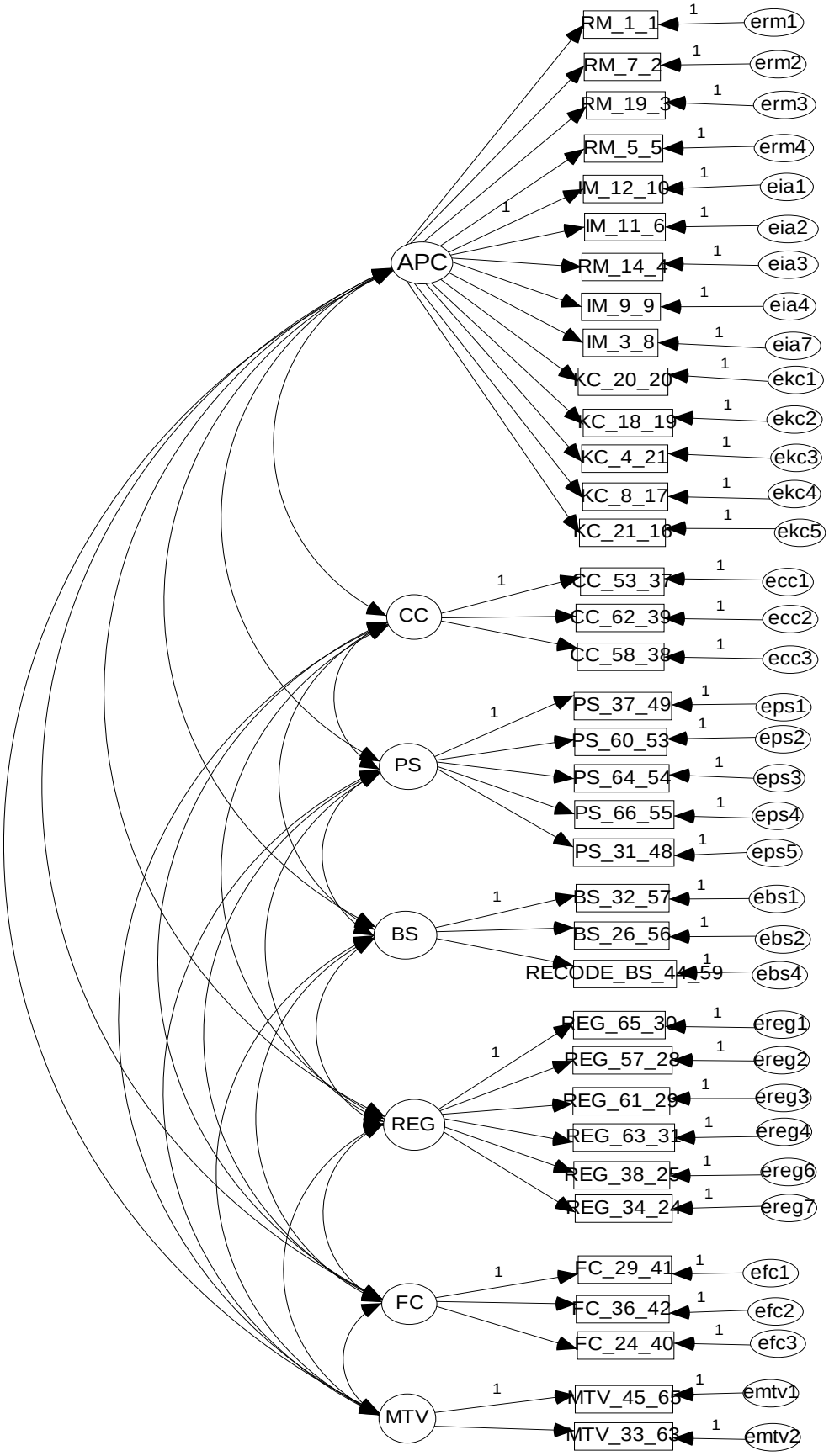
χ^2 (1) = 7819.086, p = .000; GFI = 0.554; AGFI =0.500; CFI = 0.367 and RMSEA =0.122.

Figure 4.5
2-Factor Model



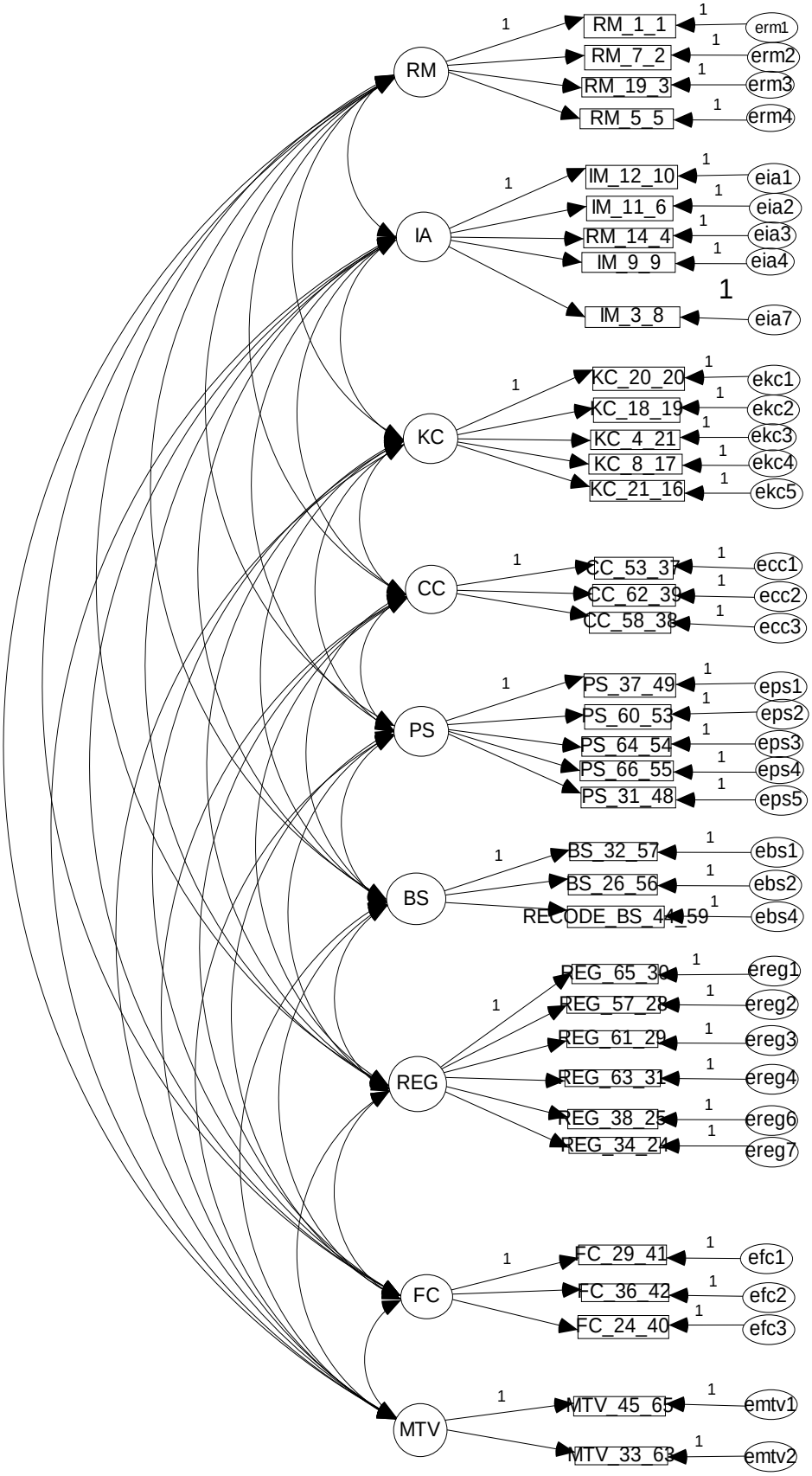
χ^2 (1) =6193.428, p = .000; GFI =0.624; AGFI =0.578; CFI = 0.509 and RMSEA = 0.107.

Figure 4.6
7-Factor Model



χ^2 (1) = 2896.270, p = .000; GFI = 0.791; AGFI = 0.757; CFI = 0.796 and RMSEA = 0.070.

Figure 4.7
9-Factor Model



χ^2 (1) = 1293.706, p = .000; GFI = 0.916; AGFI = 0.900; CFI = 0.936 and RMSEA = 0.040.

In the 1-factor Model, all variables studied were loaded on one factor. The 7-factor Model, all the sub dimensions of American popular culture (Role Model, Imitation and Adoration and Knowledge and Consumerism) were treated as one factor and the other six constructs were loaded separately. As shown in Table 4.10, the fit indices revealed support for the hypothesized 9-factor model suggesting support for the distinctiveness of the constructs used in this study.

4.6 Correlational Analysis

Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted on all the main constructs as well as between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure. In addition, the results help further elaboration on the findings of the hypotheses testing.

The main objective of confirmatory factor analysis is to confirm the measurements used. Therefore, after the measurements were confirmed, the correlation analysis was performed to provide preliminary information regarding the associations between the constructs studied. It was done before proceeding to determine how significant the relationships of each dependent variables with independent variable using simple linear regression. The correlation analysis also gives an indication of whether there exist any multicollinearity problems in the data set. Furthermore, it is very common for researchers to do correlation analysis after confirmatory factor analysis.

In this study, American popular culture variable is explained by three separate dimensions (i.e., role modelling, imitation and adoration and knowledge and consumerism). In order to generate comparable mean scores on American popular

culture variable for each of the three dimensions, the weighted average approach was used. For example, the total score for each three dimensions were divided by numbers of items. Among the studies that used weighted average approach were Albers-Miller and Straughan (2000).

4.6.1 Among the Study Variables

Correlation analysis was performed among all seven variables of this study to understand the relationships between each of the variables. The resulting Pearson correlation coefficients are presented in Table 4.11. The values of the coefficients range between -1 to +1 where 0 represents no relationship between two variables, and -1 or +1 shows perfect correlation (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Burns and Bush (2000), correlation coefficients that fall between ±1 and ±0.81 are generally considered to be "very high", which, in turn, will create multicollinearity, i.e., a problem where very high correlation among clustering variables may overweight one or more underlying constructs. In interpreting the correlations coefficient for this study, the correlation values of ±0.5 and above reflect strong correlation between two variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

From Table 4.11, there was an evident that there is no very strong correlation (0.8 and above) between any pairs of the seven variables of this study. The table reveals that one correlation coefficient value (religiosity and price sensitivity) was significant at the 0.01 level while the remaining were significant at the 0.05 levels.

Table 4.11
Correlation Coefficient Matrix – Main Variables

	American Popular Culture	Conspicuous Consumption	Price Sensitivity	Brand Sensitivity	Fashion Conscious-ness	American Music Television Exposure	Religiosity
American Popular Culture	1						
Conspicuous Consumption	.200**	1					
Price Sensitivity	.112**	.220**	1				
Brand Sensitivity	.115**	.145**	.091**	1			
Fashion Conscious-ness	.269**	.176**	.202**	.324**	1		
American Music Television Exposure	.449**	.120**	.047	.137**	.283**	1	
Religiosity	-.161**	-.108**	.213**	.050	.112**	-.088*	1

**Significant at the 0.01 level.
*Significant at the 0.05 level.

American popular culture was found to have quite a strong and positive correlation with one variable, namely, American music television exposure (r = 0.449), but a low and negative correlation with religiosity (r = -0.161). However, American popular culture recorded a low and positive correlation with conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity and fashion consciousness (r = 0.200, r = 0.112, r = 0.115 and r = 0.269, respectively).

According to Benny and Feldman (1985), a rule of thumb states that any correlation exceeding a value of 0.8 (a very strong correlation) between independent variables is likely to result in multicollinearity in the data. Results of correlational analysis, as

presented in Table 4.11, revealed that multicollinearity is unlikely to affect the interpretation of the regression model as the absolute values of the correlation coefficients (ranging from -0.088 and 0.449) are lower than the acceptable cut-off value of 0.8.

4.7 Relationships between Demographic Variables and the Study Variables

The tests of significant differences were performed on the demographic variables including age, gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education level to determine whether or not the subgroups within each variable were significantly different in terms of their American popular culture influences. The statistical tools included independent t-test, when comparing the means for two groups of demographic variables (gender and religiosity) and one-way ANOVA when comparing the means for two groups and more of the demographic variables (gender, age, ethnicity, family income group and primary education stream). The objective of ANOVA differences test is for preliminary test. The decision to select certain demographic factors in this study was based on past literatures that were discussed in Chapter 2.

4.7.1 Demographic Variable (Gender) and the Study Variables

Table 4.12 to table 4.14 summarised the output of the independent sample t-test for gender. The independent sample t-test was performed to test whether or not there were significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to the independent variable (American popular culture), five dependent variables (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, American music television exposure) and moderating variables (religiosity).

Table 4.12
Results of Independent Sample T-test – Demographic Variable (Gender) and Independent Variable (American Popular Culture Variable)

Variables	Gender (Mean)		t	Sig.
	Male	Female		
American Popular Culture	10.5836	10.0574	2.359	**0.019***

Table 4.12 showed the results of independent sample t-test – demographic variable (gender) and independent variable (American popular culture variable). With respect to independent variable (American popular culture), the results showed that it was significant (t = 2.359, p = 0.019). The male respondents seemed to have a higher mean than the female respondents, indicating that males were more prone to being influenced by American popular culture than their female counterparts. The findings supported the previous research done by Katz (1995), which found that boys were increasingly affected by the role model of muscular men in the media. However, the effects are stronger when girls personally identify with the thin models (Harrison, 1997). In another sense, both studies done by Frith (1983) and Fine et al. (1990) claim that boys tend to attend concerts more than girls and express their identification with singers publicly and out loud. As mentioned earlier, in the present study, role model and expression of idolization is the dimension for American popular culture.

Table 4.13 show the results of the independent sample t-test for demographic variable (gender) and all five dependent variables (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, American music television exposure). The findings indicated mixed results. With regards to conspicuous consumption, the results showed there was a relationship between gender and conspicuous consumption (t = 2.459, p = 0.014). The male respondents seemed to have a higher mean than the female

respondents, thus, indicating that the males had a greater tendency to conspicuously consume compared to females. The finding was consistent with past research. In Malaysia, no comparison can be made as no research has been done to investigate this relationship. However, O'Cass et al. (2004) found that young males place more importance on the conspicuousness of the product use.

Table 4.13
Results of Independent Sample T-test – Demographic Variable (Gender) and Five Dependent Variables

Variables	Gender (Mean)		t	Sig.
	Male	Female		
Conspicuous Consumption	11.8427	11.1708	2.459	**0.014***
Price Sensitivity	23.4800	23.3843	0.243	0.808
Brand Sensitivity	13.8027	12.0687	5.451	**0.000***
Fashion Consciousness	12.1813	12.9955	-2.808	**0.005***
American Music Television Exposure	6.0480	6.1326	-0.381	0.703

With regards to brand sensitivity, the results showed that there is relationship between gender and brand sensitivity ($t = 5.451$, $p = 0.000$). The male respondents seemed to have a higher mean than female respondents, indicating that males were more brand sensitive than their female counterparts. In contrast, Nelson and McLeod (2005) found no significant differences for brand sensitivity across gender.

With regards to fashion consciousness, the results showed that there is relationship between gender and fashion consciousness was significant ($t = -2.808$, $p = 0.005$). The female respondents seemed to have a higher mean than the male respondents, thus,

indicating that female respondents were more fashion conscious than their male counterparts. This finding supported the previous research done by Kwon (1997) and Gould and Stern (1989), which found that there was a gender difference in fashion consciousness. Kwon (1997) found that women indicate a greater interest in clothing compared to men. Moreover, fashion conscious women pay more attention to external appearance while men were more private, or internalized self-identity and maleness. Another recent study done by Wan et al. (2001) found that women show greater fashion consciousness than men. In contrast, the comparative study by Manrai et al. (2001) found that men are more fashion consciousness than women for respondents in three countries, i.e., Bulgaria, Hungary, and Romania.

The results showed that there is no significant difference ($t = 0.243$, $p = 0.808$) between gender and price sensitivity at the 0.05 level. This finding supported the previous research done by Munnukka (2005), which found that gender has no significant effect on consumers' price sensitivity. The present study's findings implied that adolescents in this study do not differ in terms of their price sensitivity, regardless of their gender.

Similar results show that there is also no significant difference ($t = -0.381$, $p = 0.703$) between gender and American music television exposure at the 0.05 level. However, the present study's finding is inconsistent with past research done by Abt (1987), Kinder (1984) and (1988). The previous literature showed that young girls watched more music television and were more personally involved than boys.

Table 4.14 indicated a result of independent sample t-test – demographic variable (gender) and moderating variable (religiosity). With regards to religiosity, the results showed that religiosity is found significant ($t = -2.500$, $p = 0.013$). The female

respondents seemed to have a higher mean than the male respondents, indicating that female respondents tend to be more religious than their male counterparts. Previous studies nearly universally found girls to be more religious than boys (King et al., 2002; Miller and Hoffman, 1995).

Table 4.14
Results of Independent Sample T-test – Demographic Variable (Gender) and Moderating Variable (Religiosity)

Variables	Gender (Mean)		t	Sig.
	Male	Female		
Religiosity	31.3173	32.5955	-2.500	**0.013***

4.7.2 Demographic Variables and American Popular Culture

One-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was performed to test whether the study variables (American popular culture, conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure) are significantly different in terms of six selected demographic variables (gender, age, ethnicity, religion, family income level and primary education stream). The overall results showed American popular culture has a significant relationship with all the variables except for age.

Table 4.15 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and American popular culture. With regards to gender, the one-way ANOVA result showed that the American popular culture ($F = 5.567$, $p = 0.019$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The female respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they were less influenced by American popular culture than male respondents. The study's finding is consistent with the past study conducted by Raviv et al. (1996). Raviv et al.

(1996) found that idolization (dimension of American popular culture) is more prevalent among girls than boys.

Table 4.15
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and American Popular Culture

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		**5.567**	**0.019***	-
Male	10.5836			
Female	10.0574			
Age		1.310	0.270	-
16 years old	10.4618			
17 years old	10.3409			
18 years old	10.4616			
19 years old	9.9265			
Ethnicity		**44.043**	**0.000***	Chinese and Malay > Indian and Malay
Malay	9.4459			
Chinese	11.5138			
Indian	11.2897			
Religion		**21.466**	**0.000***	Buddhism and Islam > Christianity and Islam
Islam	9.5158			
Buddhism	11.6898			
Hinduism	10.8135			
Christianity	11.3786			
Others	10.1909			
Family Income Level		**5.012**	**0.001***	RM5000 to RM6999 and Below RM1000 > RM3000 to RM4999 and Below RM1000
Below RM1000	9.7566			
RM1000 to RM2999	10.4937			
RM3000 to RM4999	10.7493			
RM5000 to RM6999	11.3132			
RM7000 and above	10.6881			
Primary Education Stream		**13.299**	**0.000***	SRJKC > SRJK
SRJK	9.8651			
SRJKC	11.4975			
SRJKT	10.2340			
Private	10.2755			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

In the original data set, 15 respondents from "others" ethnic group were dropped from further analysis. The decision was made by the researcher due to the small number of respondents in this category. Therefore, further analyses only took into account the three major ethnic groups, i.e., Malay, Chinese and Indian. With regards to ethnicity, the one-way ANOVA result showed that American popular culture ($F = 44.043$, $p = 0.000$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Malay respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they were less influenced by American popular culture than Chinese and Indian.

Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to American popular culture were found between Malay and (i) Chinese (mean difference = 2.07), and (ii) Indian (mean difference = 1.84). The Malay and Chinese group were found to be having a higher mean difference than the Malay and Indian group. The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that the Malay and Chinese group were more influenced by American popular culture than the Malay and Indian group. No comparison can be made with previous literature as there is no studies have been done in this aspect. However, based on the current Malaysia scenario, we can also observe that Chinese community are more influence by America popular culture in terms to their attitude, clothing and lifestyle. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies since no previous study has conducted in this issue.

With regards to religion, the one-way ANOVA result showed that the American popular culture ($F = 21.466$, $p = 0.000$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Islam respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they were less influenced by American popular culture than Buddhism, Hinduism, Christianity and other religion. Using Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to American popular culture were

found between Islam and (i) Buddhism (mean difference = 2.17) and (ii) Christianity (mean difference =1.86). The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that Buddhism and Islam group were more influenced by American popular culture than the Christianity and Islam group. No comparison can be made with previous studies since no previous study has conducted in this issue.

With regards to family income level, the one-way ANOVA result showed that the American popular culture ($F = 5.012$, $p = 0.001$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. Those who earned "RM5,000 to RM6,999" were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they were more influenced by American popular culture than other income categories. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to American popular culture were found between those who earned "below RM1,000" and those who earned: (i) RM3,000 to RM4,999 (mean difference = 0.99), (ii) RM5,000 to RM6999 (mean difference = 1.56). The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that those who earned RM5,000 to RM6999 and below RM1,000 groups were more influenced by American popular culture than those who earned RM3,000 to RM4,999 and below RM1,000 group. No comparison can be made with previous studies since no previous study has conducted in this issue.

In terms of primary education stream, the one-way ANOVA result showed that the American popular culture ($F = 13.299$, $p = 0.000$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. Those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) were found to have a higher mean, indicating they were more influenced by American popular culture than those who studied in other primary education stream. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to American popular culture were found between those who studied in Sekolah

Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) and those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) (mean difference = 1.63). The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they were more influenced by American popular culture than those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary). No comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

Lastly, in terms of age, the study found that there was no significant difference between age ($F = 1.310$, $p = 0.270$) and American popular culture. However, the Scheffe post hoc test revealed that there is no difference between groups of age with American popular culture at the significance level if 0.01. The study's finding is inconsistent with the previous finding by Raviv et al. (1996). Raviv et al. (1996) found that the idolization (dimension of American popular culture) decreases with age.

4.7.3 Demographic Variables and Conspicuous Consumption

Table 4.16 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and conspicuous consumption. The overall results showed conspicuous consumption has a significant relationship with all the variables except for age and family income level.

With regards to gender, the one-way ANOVA result showed that conspicuous consumption ($F = 5.951$, $p = 0.015$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The female respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they consumed less conspicuously

compared to male respondents. However, the study's finding was inconsistent with an earlier study by O'Cass and McEwen (2004) that claimed young males place more importance on the conspicuousness of product use.

Table 4.16
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and Conspicuous Consumption

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		**5.951**	**0.015***	-
Male	11.8427			
Female	11.1708			
Age		1.362	0.253	-
16 years old	11.2759			
17 years old	11.5808			
18 years old	11.8306			
19 years old	11.1359			
Ethnicity		**13.362**	**0.000***	Chinese and Malay > Indian and Malay
Malay	10.8903			
Chinese	12.3309			
Indian	12.2794			
Religion		**6.594**	**0.000***	Buddhism > Islam
Islam	10.9143			
Buddhism	12.3953			
Hinduism	12.3750			
Christianity	12.1250			
Others	11.4545			
Family Income Level		1.750	0.137	-
Below RM1000	11.3265			
RM1000 to RM2999	11.2533			
RM3000 to RM4999	11.4889			
RM5000 to RM6999	12.3585			
RM7000 and above	12.3492			
Primary Education Stream		**3.969**	**0.008***	SRJKC > SRJK
SRJK	11.1615			
SRJKC	12.2513			
SRJKT	12.0800			
Private	11.5490			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

With respect to ethnicity, the one-way ANOVA result showed that conspicuous consumption (F = 13.362) was significant at p≤0.01. The Malay respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they consumed less conspicuously compared to Chinese and Indian respondents. Using the Scheffe post hoc test it was found that the mean was different between Malay and (i) Chinese (mean difference = 1.44), and (ii) Indian (mean difference = 1.39). The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that the Malay and Chinese group consumed less conspicuously compared to the Malay and Indian group. However, the study's finding was inconsistent with an earlier study by Chung and Fisher et al. (2001) that found conspicuous consumption was not related to a person's ethnicity.

With respect to religion, the one-way ANOVA result showed that conspicuous consumption (F = 6.594) was significant at p≤0.01. The Islam respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they consumed less conspicuously compared to Buddhism, Hindusim, Cristianity and other religion. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to conspicuous consumption were found between Buddhism and Islam respondents (mean difference = 2.17). The Scheffe post hoc test indicated that Buddhism respondents consumed conspicuously compared to Islam respondents. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

In terms of primary education stream, the one-way ANOVA result shows that the conspicuous consumption (F = 3.969) is significant at p≤0.05. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to conspicuous consumption were found between those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) and those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis

Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) (mean difference = 1.09). The Scheffe post hoc test revealed that those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) were more influenced by American popular culture than those who study in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary). However, no comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

Lastly, in terms of age and family income level, the one-way ANOVA result showed that for conspicuous consumption there was no significant difference between age ($F = 1.362$, $p = 0.253$) and family income level ($F = 1.750$, $p = 0.137$). However, this finding was inconsistent with past literature. Past research done by Duesenberry (1949), Congleton (1989) and Rauscher (1993) pointed out that income and conspicuous consumption are correlated. In the context of age, Solomon et al. (2002, p. 213) concluded that people usually choose different products and services over a lifetime and their purchasing behaviour is also age-related, even in the context of conspicuous consumption.

4.7.4 Demographic Variables and Price Sensitivity

Table 4.17 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and price sensitivity. The overall results showed price sensitivity has no significant relationship with all the variables.

Table 4.17
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and Price Sensitivity

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		0.059	0.808	-
Male	23.4800			
Female	23.3843			
Age		1.232	0.297	-
16 years old	22.7414			
17 years old	23.8081			
18 years old	23.5785			
19 years old	23.4660			
Ethnicity		0.461	0.631	-
Malay	23.6086			
Chinese	23.1985			
Indian	23.5000			
Religion		1.503	0.199	
Islam	23.6184			
Buddhism	22.8186			
Hinduism	22.8750			
Christianity	24.1786			
Others	25.4545			
Family Income Level		1.515	0.196	-
Below RM1000	22.8765			
RM1000 to RM2999	23.6681			
RM3000 to RM4999	23.8444			
RM5000 to RM6999	24.1321			
RM7000 and above	24.0476			
Primary Education Stream		1.968	0.117	-
SRJK	23.5963			
SRJKC	22.8894			
SRJKT	21.9200			
Private	24.4706			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

The results show no significant difference between gender (F = 0.059, p = 0.808), age (F = 1.232, p = 0.297), ethnicity (F = 0.461, p = 0.631), religion (F = 1.503, p = 0.199), family income level (F = 1.515, p = 0.196) and primary education stream (F = 1.968, p

= 0.117) and price sensitivity. The research findings support the previous research done by Munnakka (2005), which found that gender, education and income have no significant effect on consumers' price sensitivity. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies in terms of age as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect. In terms of ethnicity, the study's finding is inconsistent with past literature. Past research done by Wilkes et al. (1985), Deloitte et al. (1990), Mulhern et al. (1994) and Hoch et al. (1995) pointed out that ethnicity shows a significant effect to price sensitivity.

4.7.5 Demographic Variables and Brand Sensitivity

Table 4.18 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and brand sensitivity. The overall results showed brand sensitivity has a significant relationship with all the variables.

In terms of gender, the one-way ANOVA result showed that brand sensitivity ($F = 29.716$, $p = 0.000$) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The female respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they are more brand sensitive than the male respondents. The study's finding is in line with Bush et al. (2004) that found females are in stronger agreement with their athlete role models (dimension of American popular culture) when it comes to expressing their idolization on buying certain brands.

In terms of age, brand sensitivity ($F = 2.552$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The 17 years old respondents were found to have higher mean, indicating they are more brand sensitive than the other age groups. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found between those age 17 years old and 19 years old

(mean difference = 1.23). The Scheffe post hoc test also revealed that those who 17 years old are more brand sensitive than those who age 19 years old. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

In terms of ethnicity, brand sensitivity (F = 9.084) is significant at $p \leq 0.05$. The Chinese respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they are less brand sensitive compared to Malay and Indian respondents. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean difference was found between Chinese, and (i) Indian (mean difference = 1.66), and (ii) Malay (mean difference = 1.41). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found Chinese and Indian group found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that Chinese and Indian group are more brand sensitive than Chinese and Malay group. The study's findings contradict a recent Malaysian study by Ghazali (2006), which found that other ethnic groups were more likely to be highly brand-conscious than Malay, Chinese, or Indian.

In terms of religion, brand sensitivity (F = 8.008) was significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Buddhism respondents were found to have a lower mean, indicating they are less brand sensitive compared to Buddhism, Hinduism, Christianity and other religion. Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity were found between (i) Islam and Buddhism (mean difference = 8.13), (ii) Islam and Hindu (mean difference = 4.12), (iii) Buddhism and Hindu (mean difference = 4.00). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found Islam and Buddhism group were more brand sensitive than Islam and Hindu group and Buddhism and Hindu group. However, no comparison can be made

with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in terms of this aspect.

Table 4.18
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and Brand Sensitivity

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		**29.716**	**0.000***	-
Male	13.8027			
Female	12.0697			
Age		**2.552**	**0.052***	17 years old > 19 years old
16 years old	12.7759			
17 years old	13.4192			
18 years old	13.0372			
19 years old	12.1942			
Ethnicity		**9.084**	**0.000***	Indian and Chinese > Malay and Chinese
Malay	13.3828			
Chinese	11.9706			
Indian	13.6324			
Religion		**8.008**	**0.000***	Islam and Buddhism > Islam and Hindu > Buddhism and Hindu
Islam	13.4388			
Buddhism	11.5070			
Hinduism	14.0417			
Christianity	12.1964			
Others				
Family Income Level		**4.232**	**0.002***	-
Below RM1000	12.1029			
RM1000 to RM2999	13.3755			
RM3000 to RM4999	13.1630			
RM5000 to RM6999	13.6981			
RM7000 and above	13.7460			
Primary Education Stream		**11.377**	**0.000***	Private and SRJKC > SRJK and SRJKC
SRJK	13.3761			
SRJKC	11.2312			
SRJKT	13.3200			
Private	12.5098			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

In terms of family income level, brand sensitivity (F = 4.232, p = 0.002). Those who earned "RM7000 and above" were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more brand sensitive compared to those who earned "below RM1,000". The Scheffe post hoc test found that the mean was different between those who earned "below RM1,000" and "RM3,000 to RM4,999" (mean difference = 1.27). However, the Scheffe post hoc test also reveals that there is no difference between groups of family income level at the significance level of 0.01. This study's finding is consistent with a related study done by Jin et al. (2006) that revealed brand evaluations are related to consumers' income. Therefore, we speculated that brand evaluation have a close relationship with brand sensitivity.

In terms of primary education, brand sensitivity (F = 11.377, p = 0.000). Those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more brand sensitive than those studying in other schools. The Scheffe post hoc test found that the mean was different between those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) and (i) Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) (mean difference = 2.15) and (ii) primary private school (mean difference = 2.28).

Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found primary private school and Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) group were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more brand sensitive compared to Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) and Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) group. However, no

comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

4.7.6 Demographic Variables and Fashion Consciousness

Table 4.19 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and fashion consciousness. The overall results showed brand sensitivity has a significant relationship with all the variables except for gender, age, family income level and primary education stream.

In terms of gender, fashion consciousness ($F = 7.886$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The female respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating they are more fashion conscious than male respondents. The study's finding is in line with past study done by O'Cass (2001) found that in the context of fashion clothing, females are significantly more involved than males.

Table 4.19 shows no significant difference between age ($F = 1.951$, $p = 0.120$) and fashion consciousness. In contrast, the study of Manrai et al. (2001) found that younger consumers have more fashion consciousness than older consumers. The direction of results in Manrai et al. (2001) was as predicted for two out of the three countries. Younger consumers were more fashion conscious than older consumers in the case of Bulgaria and Hungary, but not in the case of Romania. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in terms of age.

Table 4.19
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and Fashion Consciousness

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		**7.886**	**0.005***	-
Male	12.1813			
Female	12.9955			
Age		1.951	0.120	-
16 years old	11.9885			
17 years old	12.9444			
18 years old	12.6281			
19 years old	12.8447			
Ethnicity		**5.950**	**0.003***	Indian and Chinese > Indian and Malay
Malay	12.7441			
Chinese	12.1581			
Indian	14.0441			
Religion		**3.411**	**0.009***	Hinduism and others > Hinduism and Buddhism
Islam	12.7735			
Buddhism	12.1349			
Hinduism	14.0208			
Christianity	12.5000			
Others	10.0000			
Family Income Level		**3.627**	**0.006***	-
Below RM1000	12.0059			
RM1000 to RM2999	13.2445			
RM3000 to RM4999	12.7481			
RM5000 to RM6999	13.2830			
RM7000 and above	12.8730			
Primary Education		**3.239**	**0.022***	-
SRJK	12.7982			
SRJKC	11.8794			
SRJKT	13.6000			
Private	13.1765			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

In terms of ethnicity, fashion consciousness (F = 5.950) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Indian respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating they are more fashion conscious than Chinese and Malay respondents. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean

difference was found between Indian respondents and (i) Malay respondents (mean difference = 1.30) and (ii) Chinese respondents (mean difference = 1.89). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found Indian and Chinese group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they are more brand sensitive compared to Indian and Malay group.

The research finding is in line with past studies done by Manrai et al. (2001) and Parker et al. (2004), which indicated the effect of ethnicity towards fashion consciousness. The study of Manrai et al. (2001) found that fashion consciousness for Hungarian consumers was higher compared with Bulgarian consumers, but was more or less the same as Romanian consumers. While Parker's (2004) study found that respondents in the United States have a stronger positive attitude towards fashion consciousness than those in Japan and China. In contrast, respondents in China have relatively more negative attitudes towards fashion consciousness than either their United States or Japanese counterparts. Additionally, the means in the United States and Japanese sub-samples were at or above the grand mean, while the China sub-sample means were considerably below the grand mean.

In terms of religion, fashion consciousness ($F = 3.411$, $p = 0.009$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Hinduism respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating they are more fashion conscious than other religions. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean difference was found between Hinduism respondents and (i) Others (mean difference = 4.02) and (ii) Buddhism (mean difference = 1.89). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to brand sensitivity found Hinduism and Others group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they are more

brand sensitive compared to Hinduism and Buddhism group. No comparison can be made as there have been no previous studies conducted in this aspect.

In terms of family income level, fashion consciousness ($F = 3.627$, $p = 0.006$). Those who earned "RM5,000 to RM6,999" were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more fashion conscious compared to other income categories. The Scheffe post hoc test found that the mean was different between those who earned "below RM1,000" and "RM1,000 to RM2,999" (mean difference = 1.24). However, the Scheffe post hoc test also revealed that there is no difference between groups of primary education stream at the significance level of 0.01. The present study's finding is consistent with past literature. A study done by Parker (2004) showed all three-country respondents from United States, Japanese and China indicated similar effects on fashion consciousness, whereby allowance was positively related to fashion consciousness.

In terms of primary education stream, fashion consciousness ($F = 3.239$, $p = 0.022$). Those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT or Tamil based Elementary School) were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more fashion consciousness than those studying in other primary education streams. The Scheffe post hoc test found that the mean was different between those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary/Elementary) and Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) (mean difference = 0.92). However, the Scheffe post hoc test also reveals that there is no difference between groups of primary education stream at the significance level of 0.01. A related study done by Crask and Reynold (1978) claimed that fashion consciousness are slightly younger, better educated, have higher income, are more active at travel, sports and entertainment frequently. However, no comparison can be

made between primary education stream and fashion consciousness. Therefore, we speculate that primary education stream may have a close relationship with education level.

4.7.7 Demographic Variables and American Music Television Exposure

Table 4.20 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and American music television exposure. The overall results showed American music television exposure has a significant relationship will all the variables except for gender, age, ethnicity and primary education stream.

In terms of ethnicity, American music television exposure ($F = 3.140$, $p = 0.044$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Indian respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more expose to American music television compared to other ethnic groups. However, the Scheffe post hoc test also revealed that there is no difference between groups of ethnicity with American popular music television exposure at the significance level of 0.05. The present study's finding is in line with previous studies by O'Guinn and Meyer (1983), Deshpande et.al. (1986), Delener and Neelankavil (1990), Webster (1992), Andreoli (1994) and Kim and Kang (2001). All the past studies pointed out a difference in the ethnicity aspect.

In terms of religion, American music television exposure ($F = 3.178$, $p = 0.013$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The Hinduism respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more expose to American music television compared to others. However, the Scheffe post hoc test also revealed that there is no difference between groups of religion with American popular music television exposure at the significance

level of 0.01. No comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in this aspect.

Table 4.20
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and American Music Television Exposure

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		0.145	0.703	-
Male	6.0480			
Female	6.1326			
Age		1.087	0.354	-
16 years old	5.9713			
17 years old	6.2778			
18 years old	6.2686			
19 years old	5.8155			
Ethnicity		**3.140**	**0.044***	-
Malay	5.8989			
Chinese	6.2574			
Indian	6.8382			
Religion		**3.178**	**0.013***	-
Islam	5.8816			
Buddhism	6.3674			
Hinduism	7.1250			
Christianity	6.3571			
Others	4.3636			
Family Income Level		**6.036**	**0.000***	RM3000 to RM4999 and Below RM1000 > RM1000 to RM2999 and Below RM1000
Below RM1000	5.4765			
RM1000 to RM2999	6.3493			
RM3000 to RM4999	6.6963			
RM5000 to RM6999	6.6604			
RM7000 and above	6.7302			
Primary Education		1.045	0.372	-
SRJK	6.0697			
SRJKC	6.0804			
SRJKT	5.4400			
Private	6.7355			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

In terms of family income level, American music television exposure (F = 6.036, p = 0.000), the Scheffe post hoc test found that the mean was different between those who earned "below RM1,000" and those who earned: (i) RM1,000 to RM2,999 (mean difference = 0.87), (ii) RM3,000 to RM4,999 (mean difference = 1.22). Those who earned "below RM1,000" and "RM3,000 to RM4,999" were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are more expose to American music television than those who earn "below RM1,000" and "RM1000 to RM2999". In both Europe and the United States, studies have found evidence for the importance of socioeconomic status with regard to adolescents' media usage. The present study's finding is in line with previous studies in Britain (Livingstone, 1990), Flanders (Roe, 1998), the Netherlands (Hansman, 1996) and Sweden (Roe, 1993); (Johnsson, 1994); (Reimer, 1994); (Rosengren, 1989) and comparative studies of the Netherlands and Britain (Van der Voort et al., 1998) and Flanders, Germany and Sweden (Johnsson et al., 1998). All the above mentioned studies indicate, in various ways, the continuing importance of social class factors (including income factor) in structuring various aspects of media use.

In contrast, the result shows no significant difference between gender (F = 0.145, p = 0.703), age (F = 1.087, p = 0.354) and primary education stream (F = 1.045, p = 0.372) and American music television exposure. The study's finding is in line with Haryati (2007) that found gender does not appear to be significant determinant in American music television exposure. The findings of past literature showed the opposite direction with regards to age, as indicated in O'Cass and McEwen (2004) where music television showed significance results with age. However, no comparison can be made with previous studies as there has been no previous study conducted in terms of primary education stream.

4.7.8 Demographic Variables and Religiosity

Table 4.21 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA test for selected demographic variables and religiosity. The overall results showed religiosity has a significant relationship will all the variables.

In terms of gender, religiosity ($F = 6.427$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The female respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating they are more religious than male respondents. The study's finding is consistent with Rusnah (2006) that found female is having more religiosity value compare to male respondents.

In terms age, religiosity ($F = 5.137$, $p = 0.002$) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. The mean for the 19 years old group (mean = 33.3447) is higher than other age groups. The result indicates that the 19 years old group tends to be more religious than other age groups. The Scheffe post hoc test result showed a mean difference between the 19 years old group and those (i) 18 years old (mean difference = 2.43) and (ii) 16 years old (mean difference = 1.99). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to religiosity found 19 years old and 18 years old group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they have more religiosity value than 19 years old and 16 years old group. The study's finding is consistent with an earlier study done by Ozorak (1989) and Wan et al. (2008) that found a significant relationship between religiosity and age among adolescents.

Table 4.21
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test between Selected Demographics Variables and Religiosity

Variables	Mean	F	Sig.*	Differences*[2]
Gender		**6.427**	**0.011***	-
Male	31.3173			
Female	32.5955			
Age		**5.137**	**0.002***	"19 and 18 year old" > "19 and 16 years old".
16 years old	31.3506			
17 years old	32.5455			
18 years old	30.9132			
19 years old	33.3447			
Ethnicity		**150.719**	**0.000***	"Malay and Chinese" > "Malay and Indian" and "Malay and Others".
Malay	35.1398			
Chinese	27.0110			
Indian	31.0147			
Religion		**100.391**	**0.000***	"Islam and Others" > "Islam and Buddhism", "Islam and Hinduism", "Islam and Christianity", "Buddhism and Hinduism", "Buddhism and Christianity", "Hinduism and Others" and "Christianity and Others".
Islam	35.1163			
Buddhism	25.8279			
Hinduism	31.2917			
Christianity	31.1250			
Others	22.1818			
Family Income Level		**6.385**	**0.000***	RM7000 and above > "RM1000 to RM2999" and "Below RM1000".
Below RM1000	32.7441			
RM1000 to RM2999	32.8690			
RM3000 to RM4999	30.5185			
RM5000 to RM6999	31.0566			
RM7000 and above	28.9365			
Primary Education Stream		**71.999**	**0.000***	"SRJK and SRJKC" > "SRJKT and SRJKC" and "Private and SRJKC".
SRJK	34.0385			
SRJKC	26.2412			
SRJKT	33.5600			
Private	32.0980			

Note: 1) *. The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.
2) *[2]. The differences were based on the Scheffe post hoc test.
3) Due to small sample size a) "Others" in the variable "ethnicity" have been dropped.
4) SRJK = Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (National Primary / Elementary); SRJKC = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (Chinese based Elementary School); SRJKT = Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (Tamil based Elementary School); Private = Private Primary School

In terms of ethnicity, religiosity (F = 150.719) is significant at p≤0.01. The mean for the Malay group (mean = 35.1398) is higher than other ethnic groups. The result indicates that the Malay respondents have more religiosity value than the Chinese and Indian respondents. The Indian respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they have more religiosity value than the Chinese respondents. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean was difference was found between Malay and those (i) Chinese (mean difference = 8.13), (ii) Indian (mean difference = 4.13) and (iii) Others (mean difference = 4.94). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to religiosity found Malay and Chinese group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they have more religiosity value than Malay and Indian group and Malay and others group. This finding supports the previous research done by Gunnoe and Moore (2002), which used data from three waves of the National Survey of Children and showed that subsequent adolescents' religiosity was best predicted by ethnicity. The findings showed that African American respondents' religiosity tends to be more than other ethnic groups. While Regnerus et al. (2004) found that Asian American adolescents appeared to exhibit higher religiosity than White adolescents.

In terms of religion, religiosity (F = 100.391, p = 0.000) is significant at p≤0.01. The Islam respondents were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are having more religiosity values compared to others. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean was difference was found between (i) Islam and Buddhism (mean difference = 9.29), (ii) Islam and Hinduism (mean difference = 3.89), (iii) Islam and Christianity (mean difference = 3.99), (iv) Islam and others (mean difference = 12.93), (v) Buddhism and Hinduism (mean difference = 5.46), (vi) Buddhism and Christianity (mean difference = 5.30), (vii) Hindu and Others (mean difference = 9.11), and (viii) Christianity and Others (mean difference = 8.94). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean

differences with regards to religiosity found Islam and others group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they are having more religiosity value than other groups. No comparison can be made as no previous studies have been done in this aspect.

In terms of family income level, religiosity (F = 6.385) is significant at $p \leq 0.01$. Those earned "RM1000 to RM2999" were found to have a higher mean, indicating that they are having more religiosity values compared to others. Using the Scheffe post hoc test a mean was difference was found between "RM7000 and above" group and those (i) "RM1000 to RM2999" (mean difference = 3.93), and (ii) "Below RM1000" (mean difference = 3.81). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to religiosity found "RM7000 and above" group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they are having more religiosity value than "RM1000 to RM2999" and "Below RM1000" groups. The study's finding is inconsistent with previous study conducted by Wan et al. (2008). Wan et al. (2008) found that family income level is not related with religiosity value.

Lastly, in terms of primary education stream, religiosity (F = 71.999, p = 0.000). Those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) were found to have a lower mean, indicating that they have less religiosity value than those who study in other primary education stream category. The Scheffe post hoc test a difference between the mean of those who studied in Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) and those who studies in (i) Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary / Elementary) (mean difference = 7.80); (ii) Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT or Tamil based Elementary School) (mean difference = 7.32) and (iii) primary

private school (mean difference = 5.86). Using the Scheffe post hoc test, significant mean differences with regards to religiosity found Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC or Chinese based Elementary School) and Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK or National Primary / Elementary) group were found to have a higher mean difference, indicating that they are having more religiosity value than other groups. The study finding was in line with Regnerus et al. (2004) and Wan et al. (2003), which found a significant relationship with years of education attended by adolescents.

4.8 Test of Hypotheses

In this sub section, we will examine the relationships between the independent variable (American popular culture) and each of the dependent variables (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure). In addition, the effect of moderating variables on the relationships between independent variable and dependent variables will also be observed. The moderating variables are effects of religiosity and selected demographic variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream). Simple regression was employed to test the direct relationship of a single independent variable to each of the five dependent variables involved in the present study. While hierarchical multiple regressions was performed to test the hypotheses for moderating effects.

4.8.1 Testing Hypotheses

Table 4.22 exhibits the summary results of the Simple Regression analysis for the present study. All the results have been discussed in detail in the sub sections. All

relationships were found to be significant relationship ($p<0.05$) and were in the direction of the postulated hypotheses except for H1b.

Table 4.22
Testing the Direct Effect of American Popular Culture and Five Selected Aspects of Consumer Behaviour

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Adjusted R Square	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
American popular culture (IV) vs Conspicuous consumption (DV)	0.247	0.042	0.200	5.832	0.039	**0.000***
American popular culture (IV) vs Price sensitivity (DV)	0.197	0.061	0.112	3.222	0.011	**0.001****
American popular culture (IV) vs Brand sensitivity (DV)	0.167	0.050	0.115	3.317	0.012	**0.001***
American popular culture (IV) vs Fashion consciousness (DV)	0.351	0.044	0.269	7.995	0.071	**0.000***
American popular culture (IV) vs American music television exposure (DV)	0.446	0.031	0.449	14.385	0.201	**0.000***

*Significant level at 0.01
**Test is significant but in the opposite direction

i. The relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption

Hypothesis 1a: The higher the level of American popular culture, the higher will be the conspicuous consumption among the respondents.

To test the relationship between the independent variable (American popular culture) and conspicuous consumption, simple regression was utilized. The result is shown in Table 4.22, the standardised coefficient was found to be 0.200, with a t value of 5.832 and adjusted R Square of 0.039. The significant level of 0.000 was found for this hypothesized main effect at the highly significant level of 0.01. This means that hypothesis 1a is accepted. The results strongly indicate that the higher the level of American popular culture among respondents, the higher will be the level of conspicuous consumption.

As expected, the results of the simple regression on the effect of American Popular Culture on conspicuous consumption showed a significantly strong positive relationship. No previous studies have been conducted in this aspect. However, the findings are consistent with related studies done by O'Cass and McEwen (2004) and Piancentini and Mailer (2004). Both study by O'Cass and McEwen (2004) and Piancentini and Mailer (2004) found that role model (American popular culture dimension) played a significant role in conspicuous consumption. O'Cass and McEwen (2004) and Piancentini and Mailer (2004) concluded that adolescents who were highly influenced by celebrities (role model a dimension of American popular culture) wanted to show to others that they can afford the products (conspicuous consumption).

A few scholars also highlighted that consumers acquire, own, use and display certain goods and services to enhance their sense of self, to present an image of what they are like, to represent what they feel and think, and to bring about the types of social relationships they wish to have (Goffman, 1959; Belk, 1988; Ewen, 1988; Braun and Wicklund, 1989). They argued that consumers may have a particular role model (dimension of American popular culture) and want to show to others that they can afford the products (conspicuous consumption).

A related study conducted in United State by Raviv et al. (1996) examined the phenomenon of adolescent's idolization of pop singers. Raviv et.al. (1996) further argued that adolescents are dependent on their peer group and conform to its values, attitudes, and pattern of behaviour that are typical of youth culture. Therefore, we believed that in order to idolize their favourite pop singers, adolescents try to consume products conspicuously to indicate their belongingness to their peer group. This is where the situation permits conspicuous consumption to play its role.

A similar study done by Scitovsky (1992) discussed that a sense of belonging to groups is both necessary and psychologically satisfying to humans. People imitate group members in order to be accepted as group members themselves. Scitovsky goes on to argue that the desire for status involves more than assurance of group membership. People also seek distinction and recognition within their groups and strive to gain this. Implicitly, saying that shared role model (e.g., Britney Spears) among adolescents will lead to the purchase of products conspicuously to show their conforming to group norms.

ii. The relationship between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

Hypothesis 1b: The higher the level of American popular culture, the lower will be the price sensitivity among the respondents.

To test the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity, simple regression was utilized. The result is shown in Table 4.22, the standardised coefficient is 0.112, with a t value of 3.222 and adjusted R Square of 0.011. The significant level of 0.001 was found for this hypothesized main effect at a highly significant level of 0.01 but in the opposite direction to the hypothesis. This means that hypothesis 1b was rejected. The results strongly indicated that the higher the American popular culture among Malaysian adolescents, the more likely it would lead to higher price sensitivity. We believed that due to the higher price for imported goods, Malaysian adolescents are more prone to be highly price sensitive even they are highly influenced by American popular culture. The imported products (e.g., clothes and shoes) in Malaysia are more expensive than its country of origin (e.g., United State) because of the import duty, sales tax and excise duty imposed by the Malaysian government (Royal Malaysia Customs Department Website). Further more, from the researcher's observation, majority Malaysian adolescents do not get fixed monthly allowances from their parents. Due to the limited purchasing power, Malaysian adolescents are prone to be highly price sensitive even they are highly influenced by American popular culture.

No previous studies have been conducted in this aspect. However, there is a related study done on role model (dimension of American popular culture) and price done by Martin and Bush (2000). A survey conducted in 74 different high schools from a large metropolitan area in United States by Martin and Bush (2000) examined the role models

influences to teenagers' purchase intentions and behaviour. They found that adolescents do not appear to be strongly influenced by potential role models when price is a central issue. In short, any slight price increase will have a greater impact on the buying decision of adolescents. Therefore, the less the influence of the role model, the more price sensitive they are. In other words, the highly price sensitive consumers will be less influenced by the role model (famous icon – e.g., popular singer/music band).

iii. The relationship between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

Hypothesis 1c: The higher the level of American popular culture, the higher the brand sensitivity among the respondents.

To test the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity, simple regression was utilized. The result is shown in Table 4.22, the standardised coefficient was 0.115, with a t value of 3.317 and adjusted R Square of 0.012. The significant level of 0.001 was found for this hypothesized main effect at a highly significant level of 0.01. This means that Hypothesis 1c is accepted. The results strongly indicated that the higher the American popular culture among Malaysian adolescents, the more likely it would lead to higher brand sensitivity.

No previous studies have been conducted in this aspect. In a related study conducted in United States by O'Cass and McEwen (2004) revealed that brands were *a priori* classified as either high or low status via the focus group influence. Stronger agreement among peers regarding their favourite athlete role models influence them to say positive things about a product or brand and recommend the product or brand to others as well as encouraging friends or relatives to buy certain products or brands (Bush et. al, 2004). In

short, it was proven that the relationship between idolized role model (dimension of American popular culture) may lead to classification of brands or formulating brand sensitivity among them. The influence of famous American role models (American popular culture dimension) encourages consumers to be more selective in choosing a brand (brand sensitivity). Therefore, adolescents who are highly influenced by American Popular Culture tend to be more brand sensitive in expressing their idolization (O'Cass and McEwen, 2004; Bush et. al, 2004).

In another related study by Shermach (1997) found the notion that people using brands for social acceptance is consistent with the study done in Australia by O'Cass and Mc Ewen (2004), showing how group affiliation can be promoted or identified through the use of a particular product via susceptibility to interpersonal influence. Therefore, implying the selective behaviour in choosing brands (brand sensitivity) is biased towards imitating the role model (American popular culture dimension).

More empirical evidence is found in the survey conducted in 74 different high schools from a large metropolitan area in United States by Martin and Bush (2000). Martin and Bush's study indicated that vicarious role models such as entertainers and athletes have a much greater impact in terms of influencing adolescents to switch or alter their brand choice (to be more brand sensitive), compared to influencing adolescent consumers to remain loyal to one particular provider. Athletes are role models to many teenagers and they look up to them for what's "cool" in products and brands. In short, vicarious role models (American popular culture dimension) have a greater impact in encouraging consumers to be more selective in choosing a brand (brand sensitivity).

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While a related study by Zollo (1995) mentioned that some of the top reasons that make a brand a "cool brand" among teens are "quality", "it's for people my age", "advertising", "if cool friends or peers use it" and "if a cool celebrity uses it". Thus, it appears that idolizing celebrity/role models has the potential to contribute to create brand sensitivity phenomenon among teens. In a similar study done by Lim and O'Cass (2001) it was argued that nowadays, increasingly, brands are seen as important in creating an identity, a sense of achievement and identification for consumers. It is also proven that certain brand dimensions and associations lead to increased marketplace recognition and economic success as a result of the value consumers place on them. Therefore, it can be concluded that by having a role model (American popular culture dimension) of a famous American singer/music bands may lead to the importance of brand selection (brand sensitivity).

iv. The relationship between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

Hypothesis 1d: The higher the level of American popular culture, the higher the fashion consciousness among the respondents.

To test the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity, simple regression was utilized. The result is shown in Table 4.22, the standardised coefficient is 0.269, with a t value of 7.995 and adjusted R Square of 0.071. The significant level of 0.000 was found for this hypothesized main effect at a highly significant level of 0.01. This means that Hypothesis 1d was accepted. The results strongly indicated that the higher the American popular culture among Malaysian adolescents, the more likely it would lead to higher fashion consciousness.

No previous studies have been conducted in this aspect. However, at least three recent related research proved fashion involves the adoption of symbols to provide an identity (O'Cass and Ewen, 2004; Hogg and Banister, 2000; Strinati, 2000). The symbols may be from any socially visible object that communicates meaning within the popular culture. In sum, fashion is currently accepted or popular style in a given field. Fashion tends to grow slowly, remain popular for a while, and then decline slowly (Sproles, 1979). Implicitly saying that the influence of a famous American singer or music bands (role model as a dimension of American popular culture), as one of the contributors of popular culture, communicates fashion symbols (fashion consciousness), which provides an identity to adolescents who are in the stage of seeking personalities.

Further, in a related study, Harter (1989) found that it is through the selection of clothing, hairstyle or speech that adolescents express their difference from adults to children and a similarity with their peers. They develop their different appearance in part by imitating idols (dimension of American popular culture) such as pop singers (role model). It presents viewers with a new "televisual experience" that includes among its elements real and surreal portrayals of the "personal style" of the icon of teen popular culture (rock star) (Kaplan, 1987). The research by Hogg and Banister (2000) argued that clothes play an important role in pop star's appeal for fans, and clearly communicates certain messages about that pop star's identity and also their music. In short, pop stars (role model as a dimension of American popular culture) have the power to make certain looks popular and fashionable (fashion consciousness).

Another related study conducted by Raviv et al. (1996) argued that modelling a role model (dimension of American popular culture) refers to the desire to be like an idol, which may involve imitation of the idolized figures (dimension of American popular

culture), for example, by copying their dress and hairstyle. Explicitly, they explained that the consumers try to express their idolization of their role model through imitation (dimension of American popular culture). Solomon and Englis, 1993 believed the stylistic behaviour of these role models may influence the audience as strongly as the explicit messages they deliver. The researcher of the present study believes that role model's i.e., famous entertainers (dimension of American popular culture) stylistic behaviour (in terms of clothing and behaviours portrayed) may lead to fashion consciousness among consumers. Thus, the heroes of popular culture seen on television, in movies, or on stage may becomes icons of style and, thereby, provide the prototypes that consumers strive to emulate.

Previous research in psychology, sociology and communication has also consistently pointed out that adolescents rely on popular celebrities from the fields of entertainment, music, film and television for information about everything ranging from preferred dress-style to desired values (Brown and Hendee, 1989; Pratkanis and Aronson, 1992). Englis (1991) postulates that a famous pop-rock group 'New Kids On The Block" (as an icon of role model) conveyed messages that are not linked directly to a particular product but to a particular style. It is also discussed in the study that the clothes and lifestyles that this group represents have had a tremendous impact on the teenage audience.

v. The relationship between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure.

Hypothesis 1e: The higher the level of American popular culture, the higher the American music television exposure among the respondents.

To test the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure, simple regression was utilized. The result is shown in Table 4.22, the standardised coefficient is 0.449, with a t value of 14.385 and adjusted R Square of 0.201. The significant level of 0.000 was found for this hypothesized main effect at a highly significant level of 0.01. This means that Hypothesis 1e was accepted. The results strongly indicated that the higher the American popular culture among Malaysian adolescents, the more likely it would lead to higher American music television exposure.

No previous studies have been conducted in this aspect. However, the overview of previous literature on adolescents' socialization pointed out the teens' ability to observe and learn from the media, as well as allowing them to call on the media to satisfy various individual needs. Often, adolescents are described as using media for the purposes of entertainment, identity formation, sensation-seeking, coping and youth-formation identification (Arnett, 1995; Steele and Brown, 1995). Findings from past research support the idea that adolescents use media to help define the world around them (Arnett, 1995; Davis and Davis, 1995). Media channels (newspaper, magazines and television) also represent the other important system in the construction and transfer of meaning and images (Negus, 1992).

The related study conducted by Rice (1981) quoted that the heroes of popular culture influence the verbal expressions, hairstyles, clothing, music, food preference and even the basic social values of adolescents. In short, we believed that music television carries information about the heroes of popular culture (e.g., famous American singers or music bands) personality, styles and clothing. The information in the music video may lead to media preference in choosing certain types of television programmes (i.e., music television). Adolescents (in particular) tend to express their idolization through seeking information about their idols in certain types of television programme (e.g., music television). They also imitate their idol's verbal expressions, hairstyles, clothing, music, food preferences and even the basic social values in order to express their idolization.

A few related research done by Brown, Campbell and Fisher (1986) and Sun and Lull (1986) quoted that information about desirable and undesirable products and lifestyles is sifted by teens from magazines advertisements, television commercials, movies, stores displays, observation of peers and celebrities and particularly from music television. These messages are assimilated by teenage consumers, who construct a lifestyle representing their unique interpretations of the consumption ideal prevalent in popular culture. Therefore, explicitly explained, teenage idolized role models (e.g., famous American singers or music bands) may be the main incentive to select types of media to find out information about particular popular entertainers. Adolescents also try to express their idolization through imitation, which, finally, affects their lifestyle.

Another related research conducted in United States (Brown et al. 1986) and Sweden (Bjustrom, 1992) confirmed that viewers used music television to learn about current trends. In short, it shows that music television that carries the famous role model (e.g., popular singer or music band) may lead to media preferences of choosing music

television to track down the latest trends. Therefore, adolescents (in particular) try to express their idolization of a specific role model by imitating behaviour/trends popularized by their famous idols (famous American singer or music band).

4.9 Examining the Moderating Influence of Variable between American Popular Culture and Five Aspects of Consumer Behaviour

Hierarchical multiple regression was employed to test the moderating effects of religiosity, gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream on the relationship of American Popular Culture and each of the dependent variables (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure).

It is very common for researchers to use the hierarchical multiple regression to test the moderating effect. Most recent study by Sarminah (2011) used hierarchical multiple regression in her analysis. Her hierarchical analysis found that job satisfaction (both the hygiene and motivator factors) played moderating role on the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance. In the present study, for example, the analysis for religiosity as moderating variable has been divided into two groups (i.e., high and low religiosity). It is also very common for researchers to divide religiosity for instance into two groups in their analysis. As referred to Wills et al. (2003), they divided their analysis for religiosity construct into two main groups (i.e., high and low religiosity). Therefore, all moderating variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream) are divided into two to four groups. The present researcher concluded religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and five aspects of consumer behaviour if both high and low religiosity showed

significant results. Therefore, it applies to all moderating variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream).

4.9.1 Religiosity as the Moderating Variable

Table 4.23 to 4.27 exhibit the summary results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the study. All the results have been discussed in detail in the above sections. Column (i) shows the values of R^2, indicating how much of the variance in each dependent variable (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure) is explained by the model, when American popular culture is used as the independent variable. Column (ii) of the same table shows the change in R^2 with the interaction effect. This R^2 multiplied by 100 will give the percentage of the variance that is accounted for by the interaction in terms of American popular culture and religiosity after both the individual variables of American popular culture and religiosity are entered into the equation. Column (iii) shows the Beta (β) value, indicating the importance of the independent variable, i.e., in terms of the contribution of American popular culture in explaining each dependent variable (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure), when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. Column (iv) shows the significant value before introducing the interaction (moderating effect) in the relationship between American popular culture and each of the dependent variables. Lastly, column (v) shows the significant value when moderating variable moderates the relationships, as hypothesized.

a. Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of religiosity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2a

Religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

With regards to religiosity as a moderating variable, the results have been divided into two main sections (i.e., low religiosity and high religiosity). Table 4.23a and 4.23b indicated the results of hierarchical multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high and low religiosity between American popular culture and five dependent variables (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness and American music television exposure).

i. High Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

Table 4.23a shows the results of hierarchical multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of high religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of high religiosity and the interaction terms increased R square from 4.0% to 4.7%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model shows that this element contributed -0.088 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23a shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption

and American popular culture (p = 0.000). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.011).

Table 4.23a
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regressions to Test the Moderating Effects of High Religiosity

American popular culture	R^2 (i)	ΔR^2 (ii)	Beta (iii)	Sig. (iv)	Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Religiosity as the Moderator) (v)
Conspicuous consumption	0.047	0.008	-0.088	**0.000***	**0.011***
Price sensitivity	0.046	0.033	0.186	**0.001***	**0.000***
Brand sensitivity	0.018	0.005	0.074	**0.001***	**0.038***
Fashion consciousness	0.090	0.018	0.136	**0.000***	**0.000***
American music television exposure	0.202	0.000	0.080	**0.000***	0.936

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= High Religiosity; 0= Low Religiosity)

ii. Low Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low religiosity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.23b shows the results of hierarchical multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of low religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

The addition of low religiosity and the interaction terms increased R square from 4.0% to 4.7%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this

element contributed 0.094 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23b shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture (p = 0.000). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.011).

Table 4.23b
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regressions to Test the Moderating Effects of Low Religiosity

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Religiosity as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.047	0.008	0.094	**0.000***	**0.011***
Price sensitivity	0.046	0.033	-0.197	**0.000***	**0.000***
Brand sensitivity	0.018	0.005	-0.078	**0.001***	**0.038***
Fashion consciousness	0.090	0.018	-0.145	**0.000***	**0.000***
American music television exposure	0.202	0.000	0.003	**0.000***	0.936

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= High Religiosity; 1= Low Religiosity)

From the results, both high and low religiosity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. However, the negative beta value for high religiosity changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 2a stated that religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of religiosity on American popular culture and price sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2b

Religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity.

i. High Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high religiosity on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.23a shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of high religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of high religiosity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.6%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.186 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23a shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

ii. Low Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low religiosity on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.23b shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of low religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of low religiosity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.6%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.197 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23b shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

From the results, both high and low religiosity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. However, the negative beta value for low religiosity changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 2b stated that religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

c. Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of religiosity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2c

Religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity.

i. High Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high religiosity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.23a shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of high religiosity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.8%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.074 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23a shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.038$).

ii. Low Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low religiosity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.23b shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of low religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of low religiosity and the interaction terms increased R square from 1.3% to 1.8%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.078 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23b shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.038$).

From the results, both high and low religiosity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. However, the negative beta value for low religiosity changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 2c stated that religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

d. Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of religiosity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2d

Religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness.

i. High Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high religiosity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.23a shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of high religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of high religiosity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.2% to 9.0%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.136 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23a shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

ii. Low Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low religiosity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.23b shows the results of multiple regressions for testing the moderating effect of low religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of low religiosity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.2% to 9.0%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model shows that this element contributed -0.145 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23b shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

From the results, both high and low religiosity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. However, the negative beta value for low religiosity changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 2d stated that religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

e. Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of religiosity on American popular culture and American music television exposure as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2e

Religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure.

i. High Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high religiosity on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.23a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of high religiosity and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 20.2%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.080 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23a shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) shows that when high religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.936$).

ii. Low Religiosity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low religiosity on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.23b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of low religiosity and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 20.2%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.003 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.23b shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) shows that when religiosity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.936$).

Hypotheses 2e attempted to examine the moderating role of religiosity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The results showed that high and low religiosity did not moderate the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. Thus, the Hypothesis 2e was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

Based on Table 4.23a and 4.23b results, religiosity showed a moderating effect on all the above relationships except American music television exposure. Therefore, all the hypotheses above were supported except for American music television exposure.

4.9.2 Gender as the Moderating Variable

Table 4.24a and 4.24b exhibit the summary results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the study. The results have been divided into two main sections (i.e., male and female).

a. Gender as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of gender on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 3a

Gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

i. Male as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

The results of hierarchical multiple regression as summarised in Table 4.24a shows that the addition of male and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 4.0% to 4.5%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.072 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24a shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when gender was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.047$).

Table 4.24a
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Male

American popular culture	R^2 (i)	ΔR^2 (ii)	Beta (iii)	Sig. (iv)	Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Gender as the Moderator) (v)
Conspicuous consumption	0.045	0.005	0.072	**0.000***	**0.047***
Price sensitivity	0.013	0.000	-0.001	**0.001***	0.968
Brand sensitivity	0.043	0.030	0.184	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.083	0.011	-0.111	**0.000***	**0.002***
American music television exposure	0.204	0.002	-0.049	**0.000***	0.143

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= Male; 0= Female)

ii. Female as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

The results of hierarchical multiple regression as summarised in Table 4.24b shows that the addition of female and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 4.0% to 4.5%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed -0.070 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24b shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when female was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.047$).

Table 4.24b
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Female

American popular culture	R^2 (i)	ΔR^2 (ii)	Beta (iii)	Sig. (iv)	Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Gender as the Moderator) (v)
Conspicuous consumption	0.045	0.005	-0.070	**0.001***	**0.047***
Price sensitivity	0.013	0.000	0.001	**0.001***	0.968
Brand sensitivity	0.043	0.030	-0.178	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.083	0.011	0.107	**0.000***	**0.002***
American music television exposure	0.204	0.002	0.047	**0.000***	0.143

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= Male; 1= Female)

From the results, both male and female showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. However, the negative beta value for female changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 3a stated that religiosity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Gender as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of gender on American popular culture and price sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 3b

Gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity.

i. Male as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of male on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.24a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of male on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of male and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 1.3%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.001 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24a shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) shows that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.968$).

ii. Female as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of female on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.24b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of female on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of female and the interaction terms did not

impact the R square at 1.3%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.001 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24b shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when female was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.968$).

Hypotheses 3b attempted to examine the moderating role of gender on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The results showed that male and female did not moderate the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. Thus, the Hypothesis 3b was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

c. Gender as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of gender on American popular culture and brand sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 3c

Gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity.

i. Male as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of male on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.24a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of male on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of male and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.3%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.184 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24a shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

ii. Female as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of female on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.24b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of female on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of female and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.3%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.178 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24b shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p =$

0.001). The significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

From the results, both male and female showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. However, the negative beta value for male changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 3c stated that gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

d. Gender as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of gender on American popular culture and fashion consciousness as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 3d

Gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness.

i. Male as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of male on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.24a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of male on the relationship between American popular

culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of male and the interaction terms decreased the R square from 7.2% to 8.3%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed -0.111 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24a shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.002$).

ii. Female as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of female on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.24b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of female on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of female and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.2% to 8.3%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.107 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24b shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.002$).

From the results, both male and female showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. However,

the negative beta value for female changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 3d stated that gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

e. Gender as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of gender on American popular culture and American music television exposure as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 3e

Gender moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure.

i. Male as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American music television exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of male on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.24a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of male on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of male and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.2% to 20.4%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed -0.049 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24a shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture

(p = 0.000). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.143).

ii. Female as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American music television exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of female on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.24b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of female on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of male and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.2% to 20.4%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.047 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.24b shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture (p = 0.000). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when male was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.143).

Hypotheses 3e attempted to examine the moderating role of gender on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The results showed that male and female did not moderate the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. Thus, the Hypothesis 3e was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

Based on Table 4.24a and 4.24b results, gender showed a moderating effect on all the above relationships except price sensitivity and American music television exposure. Therefore, all the hypotheses above were supported except for price sensitivity and American music television exposure. None of the moderating results of this study pertaining to gender could be compared with past studies since as discussed earlier, no studies done examining this issue.

4.9.3 Ethnicity as the Moderating Variable

Table 4.25a and 4.25b exhibit the summary results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the study. The results have been divided into three main sections (i.e., Malay, Chinese and Indian).

a. Ethnicity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of ethnicity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 4a

Ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

i. Malay as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.25a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Malay ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 3.7% to 4.7%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed -0.102 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25a shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Malay ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.003$).

Table 4.25a
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Malay

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Ethnicity as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.047	0.010	-0.102	**0.000***	**0.003***
Price sensitivity	0.014	0.003	0.057	**0.003***	0.108
Brand sensitivity	0.037	0.024	0.154	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.086	0.012	0.111	**0.000***	**0.001***
American music television exposure	0.212	0.006	0.078	**0.000***	**0.013***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= Malay; 0= Chinese; 0= Indian)

ii. Chinese as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.25b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Chinese ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 3.7% to 4.5%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.099 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25b shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Chinese ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.010$).

Table 4.25b
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Chinese

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Ethnicity as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.045	0.008	0.099	**0.000***	**0.010***
Price sensitivity	0.015	0.003	-0.063	**0.003***	0.103
Brand sensitivity	0.042	0.029	-0.189	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.096	0.022	-0.163	**0.000***	**0.000***
American music television exposure	0.215	0.009	-0.105	**0.000***	**0.002***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= Malay; 1= Chinese; 0= Indian)

iii. Indian as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.25c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Indian ethnicity and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 3.7%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.021 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25c shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Indian ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.545$).

Table 4.25c
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Indian

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Ethnicity as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.037	0.000	0.021	**0.000***	0.545
Price sensitivity	0.011	0.000	0.000	**0.003***	0.990
Brand sensitivity	0.014	0.001	0.027	**0.001***	0.451
Fashion consciousness	0.077	0.003	0.060	**0.000***	**0.083****
American music television exposure	0.207	0.001	0.028	**0.000***	0.385

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level
**Significant at $p \leq 0.1$ level
Dummy Variables (0= Malay; 0= Chinese; 1= Indian)

From the results, all ethnicity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption except for Indian respondents. However, the negative beta value for Malay ethnicity will change the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 4a stated that ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Moderator Effect of Ethnicity on American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of ethnicity on American popular culture and price sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 4b

Ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity.

i. Malay as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.25a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Malay ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.1% to 1.4%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.057 in

explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25a showed that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.003$). However, the significant value in column (v) shows that when Malay ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.108$).

ii. Chinese as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.25b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Chinese ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.1% to 1.5%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model shows that this element contributed -0.063 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25b shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.003$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Chinese ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.103$).

iii. Indian as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.25c shows the results of multiple

regression for testing the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Indian ethnicity and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 1.1%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.000 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25c shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.003$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Indian ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.990$).

From the results, all ethnicity showed not significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. Thus, the Hypothesis 4b stated that ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

c. Ethnicity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of ethnicity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 4c

Ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity.

i. Malay as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.25a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Malay ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 3.7%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.154 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25a shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Malay ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

ii. Chinese as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.25b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Chinese ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.2%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.189 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25b shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity

and American popular culture (p = 0.001). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Chinese ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.000).

iii. Indian as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.25c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Indian ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.4%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.027 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25c shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture (p = 0.001). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Indian ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.451).

From the results, all ethnicity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity except for Indian respondents. However, the negative beta value for Chinese changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 4c stated that ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

d. Ethnicity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of ethnicity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 4d

Ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness.

i. Malay as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.25a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Malay ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.4% to 8.6%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.111 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25a shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Malay ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

ii. Chinese as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.25b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Chinese ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.4% to 9.6%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed -0.163 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25b shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Chinese ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

iii. Indian as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.25c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Indian ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 7.4% to 7.7%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.060 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25c shows that there was significant

relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture (p = 0.000). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Indian ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.1$ level (p = 0.083).

From the results, all ethnicity showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness except for Indian respondents. However, the negative beta value for Chinese will change the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 4d stated that ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

e. Ethnicity as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of ethnicity on American popular culture and American music television exposure as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 4e

Ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure.

i. Malay as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.25a shows the results

of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Malay ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Malay ethnicity and the interaction terms increased the R square from 20.6 to 21.2%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.078 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25a shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Malay ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.013$).

ii. Chinese as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.25b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Chinese ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Chinese ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.6 to 21.5%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed -0.105 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25b shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Chinese ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.002$).

iii. Indian as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.25c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Indian ethnicity on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Indian ethnicity and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.6 to 20.7%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.028 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.25c shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Indian ethnicity was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.385$).

From the results, Malay and Chinese ethnics showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and five selected aspects of consumer behaviour except for Indian respondents. However, the negative beta value for Chinese changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 4e stated that ethnicity moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

The possible explanation for the results above might lie on the influence of Bollywood among Indian communities. Based on our observation, the Indian communities in Malaysia are more influence by Hindi music and movies from Bombay, India (Bollywod) compared to westernised culture (e.g., American popular culture). Therefore, it is reasonable to accept that Indian respondents did not moderates the relationship between American popular culture and five selected aspects of consumer behaviour.

4.9.4 Family Income Level as the Moderating Variable

Table 4.26a and 4.26b exhibits the summary results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the study. The results have been divided into two main sections (i.e., low and high family income level).

Table 4.26a
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of High Family Income Level

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Family Income Level as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.040	0.000	-0.012	**0.000***	0.761
Price sensitivity	0.015	0.002	- 0.055	**0.001***	0.162
Brand sensitivity	0.026	0.013	0.128	**0.001***	**0.001***
Fashion consciousness	0.078	0.006	0.084	**0.000***	**0.027***
American music television exposure	0.213	0.011	0.116	**0.000***	**0.001***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= High Income; 0= Low Income)

Table 4.26b
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Low Family Income Level

American popular culture	R^2 (i)	ΔR^2 (ii)	Beta (iii)	Sig. (iv)	Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Family Income Level as the Moderator) (v)
Conspicuous consumption	0.040	0.000	0.010	**0.000***	0.761
Price sensitivity	0.015	0.002	- 0.049	**0.001***	0.162
Brand sensitivity	0.026	0.013	0.013	**0.001***	**0.001***
Fashion consciousness	0.078	0.006	- 0.075	**0.000***	**0.027***
American music television exposure	0.213	0.011	-0.104	**0.000***	**0.001***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= High Income; 0= Low Income)

a. Family Income Level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of family income level on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 5a

Family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

i. High family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high family income level on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.26a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of high family income level and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 4.0%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed -0.012 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26a shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when high family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.761$).

ii. Low family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low family income level on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.26b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of low family income level and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 4.0%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.010 in explaining American popular culture. When

examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26b shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when low family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.761$).

From the results, both high and low family income levels showed not significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Thus, the Hypothesis 5a stated that family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Family Income Level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of family income level on American popular culture and price sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 5b

Family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity.

i. High family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high family income level on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.26a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of high family income level and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.5%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.055 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26a shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when high family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.162$).

ii. Low family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low family income level on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.26b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of low family income level and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.5%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.049 in explaining American popular culture. When examining

the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26b shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when low family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.162$).

From the results, both high and low family income levels showed not significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. Thus, the Hypothesis 5b stated that family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

c. Family Income Level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of family income level on American popular culture and brand sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 5c

Family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity.

i. High family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high family income level on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.26a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of high family income level and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 2.6%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.013 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26a shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

ii. Low family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low family income level on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.26b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of low family income level and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 2.6%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.013 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the

significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26b shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

Hypotheses 5c attempted to examine the moderating role of family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The results showed that high and low family income level moderate the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Thus, the Hypothesis 5c was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

d. Family Income Level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of family income level on American popular culture and fashion consciousness as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 5d

Family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness.

i. High family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high family income level on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.26a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of high family income level and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 7.2% to 7.8%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.084 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26a shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.027$).

ii. Low family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low family income level on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.26b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of low family income level and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 7.2% to 7.8%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model shows that this element contributed -0.075 in explaining American popular culture. When

examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26b shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.027$).

Hypotheses 5d attempted to examine the moderating role of family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The results showed that high and low family income level moderate the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Thus, the Hypothesis 5d was accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

e. Family Income Level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of family income level on American popular culture and American music television exposure as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 5e

Family income level moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure.

i. High family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of high family income level on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.26a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of high family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of high family income level and the interaction terms increased the R square from 20.2% to 21.3%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.116 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26a shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when high family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

ii. Low family income level as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of low family income level on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.26b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of low family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of low family income level and the interaction terms increased the R square from 20.2% to 21.3%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed -0.104 in

explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.26b shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when low family income level was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

Hypotheses 5e attempted to examine the moderating role of family income level on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The results showed that high and low family income level moderate the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. Thus, the Hypothesis 5e was accepted.

From the results, all family income levels showed significant results as a moderator except for conspicuous consumption and price sensitivity. Nevertheless, the negative beta value for low family income level changed the direction of the relationship of American popular culture with conspicuous consumption and American music television exposure. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

4.9.5 Primary Education Stream as the Moderating Variable

Table 4.27a, 4.27b, 4.27c and 4.27c exhibit the summary results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the study. The results have been divided into four main sections (i.e., SRJK, SRJKC, SRJKT and private primary school).

a. Primary Education Stream as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of primary education on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 6a

Primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption.

i. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.27a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 4.0% to 4.1%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed -0.036 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27a shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when

Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.303$).

Table 4.27a
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK) (National Primary/Elementary School)

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Primary Education as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.041	0.001	- 0.036	**0.000***	0.303
Price sensitivity	0.019	0.006	0.080	**0.001***	**0.026***
Brand sensitivity	0.049	0.036	0.194	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.085	0.013	0.116	**0.000***	**0.001***
American music television exposure	0.208	0.007	0.083	**0.000***	**0.010***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (1= SRJK; 0= SRJKC; 0= SRJKT; 0= Private School)

ii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.27b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis

Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 4.0% to 4.2%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.052 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27b shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.149$).

Table 4.27b
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC) (Chinese based Primary/Elementary School)

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Primary Education as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.042	0.002	0.052	**0.000***	0.149
Price sensitivity	0.019	0.006	- 0.083	**0.001***	**0.024***
Brand sensitivity	0.061	0.048	- 0.232	**0.001***	**0.000***
Fashion consciousness	0.094	0.022	- 0.156	**0.000***	**0.000***
American music television exposure	0.212	0.010	- 0.105	**0.000***	**0.001***

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= SRJK; 1= SRJKC; 0= SRJKT; 0= Private School)

iii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.27c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 4.0%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed 0.002 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27c shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.947$).

Table 4.27c
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT)
(Tamil based Primary/Elementary School)

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Primary Education as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.040	0.000	0.002	**0.000***	0.947
Price sensitivity	0.016	0.003	- 0.056	**0.001***	0.107
Brand sensitivity	0.014	0.001	0.026	**0.001***	0.459
Fashion consciousness	0.073	0.001	0.031	**0.000***	0.351
American music television exposure	0.203	0.001	- 0.033	**0.000***	0.298

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= SRJK; 0= SRJKC; 1= SRJKT; 0= Private School)

iv. Private Primary School as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Conspicuous Consumption

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Table 4.27d shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. The addition of Private Primary School stream and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 4.0%. The beta value for conspicuous consumption in this model showed that this element contributed -0.023 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27d shows that there was significant relationship between conspicuous consumption and American

popular culture (p = 0.000). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Private Primary School stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level (p = 0.498).

Table 4.27d
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression to Test the Moderating Effects of Private Primary /Elementary School

American popular culture	**R^2** **(i)**	**ΔR^2** **(ii)**	**Beta** **(iii)**	**Sig.** **(iv)**	**Sig. (Involved Interaction Effect of Primary Education as the Moderator)** **(v)**
Conspicuous consumption	0.040	0.000	- 0.023	**0.000***	0.498
Price sensitivity	0.014	0.001	0.031	**0.001***	0.366
Brand sensitivity	0.013	0.000	0.014	**0.001***	0.691
Fashion consciousness	0.073	0.001	0.026	**0.000***	0.446
American music television exposure	0.204	0.002	0.047	**0.000***	0.135

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$
Dummy Variables (0= SRJK; 0= SRJKC; 0= SRJKT; 1= Private School)

From the results, all primary education streams showed not significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption. Thus, the Hypothesis 6a stated that primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and conspicuous consumption was rejected. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Primary Education Stream as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of primary education stream on American popular culture and price sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 6b

Primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity.

i. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.27a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.9%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.080 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27a shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan

(SRJK/National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.026$).

ii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.27b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.9%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.083 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27b shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.024$).

iii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.27c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.6%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.056 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27c shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.107$).

iv. Private Primary School as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Price Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on American popular culture and price sensitivity. Table 4.27d shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream

on the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity. The addition of Private Primary School stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.4%. The beta value for price sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.031 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27d shows that there was significant relationship between price sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Private Primary School stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.366$).

From the results, the primary education streams showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity except for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and Private Primary School stream. However, the negative beta value for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 6b stated that primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

b. Primary Education Stream as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of primary education stream on American popular culture and brand sensitivity as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 6c

Primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity.

i. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.27a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 4.9%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.194 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27a shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

ii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.27b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms increased the R square from 1.3% to 6.1%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed -0.232 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27b shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

iii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on American

popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.27c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 1.3% to 1.4%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.026 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27c shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.459$).

iv. Private Primary School as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Brand Sensitivity

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on American popular culture and brand sensitivity. Table 4.27d shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity. The addition of Private Primary School stream and the interaction terms did not impact the R square at 1.3%. The beta value for brand sensitivity in this model showed that this element contributed 0.014 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27d shows that there was significant relationship between brand sensitivity and American popular culture ($p = 0.001$).

However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Private Primary School stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.691$).

From the results, the primary education streams showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity except for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and Private Primary School stream. However, the negative beta value for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 6c stated that primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and brand sensitivity was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

c. Primary Education Stream as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of primary education stream on American popular culture and fashion consciousness as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 6d

Primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness.

i. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.27a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.2% to 8.5%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.116 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27a shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

ii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.27b shows the results of

multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms increased the R square from 7.2% to 9.4%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed -0.156 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27b shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.000$).

iii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.27c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 7.2% to 7.3%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.031 in

explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27c shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.351$).

iv. Private Primary School as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and Fashion Consciousness

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on American popular culture and fashion consciousness. Table 4.27d shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness. The addition of Private Primary School stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 7.2% to 7.3%. The beta value for fashion consciousness in this model showed that this element contributed 0.026 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27d shows that there was significant relationship between fashion consciousness and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Private Primary School stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.446$).

From the results, the primary education streams showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness except for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil

based National Primary School) stream and Private Primary School stream. However, the negative beta value for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream changed the direction of the relationship. Thus, the Hypothesis 6d stated that primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and fashion consciousness was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

d. Primary Education Stream as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure.

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of primary education stream on American popular culture and American music television exposure as suggested by the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 6e

Primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure.

i. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.27a shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan

(SRJK/National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms increased the R square from 20.2% to 20.8%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.083 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27a shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan (SRJK/National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.010$).

ii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.27b shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.2% to 21.2%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed -0.105 in explaining American

popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27b shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). The significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.001$).

iii. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based Primary School) as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television Exposure

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.27c shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.2% to 20.3%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed -0.033 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27c shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil

based National Primary School) stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.298$).

iv. Private Primary School as a Moderating Variable between American Popular Culture and American Music Television

In this subsection, we examined the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on American popular culture and American music television exposure. Table 4.27d shows the results of multiple regression for testing the moderating effect of Private Primary School stream on the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure. The addition of Private Primary School stream and the interaction terms slightly increased the R square from 20.2% to 20.4%. The beta value for American music television exposure in this model showed that this element contributed 0.047 in explaining American popular culture. When examining the significant value in column (iv), Table 4.27d shows that there was significant relationship between American music television exposure and American popular culture ($p = 0.000$). However, the significant value in column (v) showed that when Private Primary School stream was included as the moderator, the relationship become not significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level ($p = 0.135$).

From the results, the primary education streams showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure except for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and Private Primary School stream. However, the negative beta value for Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SRJKC/Chinese based National Primary School) stream changed the direction of the relationship. Thus,

the Hypothesis 6e stated that primary education stream moderates the relationship between American popular culture and American music television exposure was partially accepted. However, no comparison could be made regarding this outcome due to no previous study have examined the issue.

The possible explanation might lie on the availability of two main streams for private schools in Malaysia (e.g., Islamic and international private schools). The Islamic religious private school in Malaysia (e.g., International Islamic School, Sri Ayesha, Pusat Pendidikan Al-Amin Berhad, IQKL and etc.) focus on Islamic teaching in the developing Muslim generation capable of analytical and creative thinking. While international private school (e.g., International School of Kuala Lumpur, Australian International School Malaysia, Cempaka International School and etc.) use American or other foreign country curriculum. We concluded that there are two main extremes in terms of private schools curriculum in Malaysia. Therefore, we believed that both effects of Islamic and international private schools cancelled off with each other. As such, it is reasonable to accept that private primary school stream did not moderate the relationship of American popular culture and five selected consumer behaviour aspects.

4.10 Chapter Summary

The sample population of this study consisted of teenagers ranging from 16 years old to 19 years old who resided in Peninsular Malaysia. The total number of useable questionnaires was 820. Data entry had been carefully examined and items that had been stated negatively in the questionnaire had been reverse coded. The results of the construct reliability for all the constructs studied, based on the measurement model output, displayed a construct reliability of 0.7 and above (please refer to Table 4.8).

Factor analysis, i.e., exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was performed for construct validation purposes before testing the hypotheses of the study. A final measurement model of the study consisted of six constructs (conspicuous consumption, price sensitivity, brand sensitivity, fashion consciousness, American music television exposure and religiosity) and three sub-constructs (American Popular Culture consisted of three dimensions, role model, imitation and adoration and knowledge and consumerism).

The distribution of data was found to meet the assumption of multivariate analyses i.e., linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality, in order to use the appropriate techniques for hypotheses testing. Simple regression was performed to test hypotheses 1a to 1e; while hierarchical multiple regressions was performed to test the moderating effects of religiosity, gender, ethnicity, family income level and primary education stream (Hypotheses 2a to 6e).

From the hypotheses testing, the study found that four out of five hypotheses for direct relationship between independent variable and dependent variables showed significant relationships. The relationship between American popular culture and price sensitivity was found significant but in the opposite direction to the Hypothesis 1b. All moderating variables indicated mixed findings. Religiosity showed a moderating effect towards all relationships except American music television exposure. In terms of gender, the results showed a moderating effect on all the above relationships except price sensitivity and American music television exposure. Ethnicity showed mixed results among three main ethnic groups, i.e., Malay, Chinese and Indian. The Malay and Chinese showed significant results as a moderator for the relationship between American popular culture and five selected aspects of consumer behaviour except for price sensitivity. However,

the Indians only showed significant result for fashion consciousness. The results indicated three out of four hypotheses showed partially supported results for conspicuous consumption, brand sensitivity and American music television exposure.

All family income levels integrations showed significant results as a moderating effect except for conspicuous consumption and price sensitivity. Lastly, the primary education streams indicated four out of five hypotheses with partially supported results. Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SRJKT/Tamil based National Primary School) stream and Private Primary School stream showed not significant results to all relationship between American popular culture and five selected aspects of consumer behaviour.