

## ATTRACTION EFFECT ON CONSUMER'S DECISION MAKING

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**Abstract:** *Understanding customers in making a choice is apparently inevitable. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) provides marketers in of purpose. However, since the TPB looks like does not pay attention to other alternatives, when they get in and in some extent develop a particular situation such as an attraction effect, the choice likely should be carefully interpreted. The study primarily needs to know the influence of the attraction effect to customers' decision making, particularly its effect to customers' attitude and subjective norm. Eventhough it is no doubt of the TPB's efficacy, the influence of the behavioral intention's predictors i.e. attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, is on the second purpose. A sample consists of 100 respondents who buy, or own, or use, or just are interested in matic motorcycles, withdrawn through convenience and judgment technique. Data analyzed by Amos 5.0 and SPSS 16.0. As expected, the attraction effect has a significant influence whether to customers' attitude or subjective norm. Likewise, both the customers' attitude and perceived behavioral control are good predictors of the customers' behavioral intention, though the subjective norm is on oppose.*

**Keywords:** *attraction effect, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, behavioral intention.*

### INTRODUCTION

A moment of consumer's purchase of a particular product commonly is not spontaneous, but through a process. The decision to buy is generally considered carefully, comprehensively and thoroughly. Some factors should be taken into account, such as price, quality, design, fiture, color, package, etc. In other words, he/she might bear in mind anything relating to atribut of the product. Schiffman & Kanuk (2002) classify those who consider atribut in decision making process as rational motive consumers.

In some extent, some consumers do not need long time to decide what they like to buy. Some factors might encourage such behavior (Assael, 1995), firstly, they frequently buy a particular product. Thereby, the product and/or the brand are very familiar of them and the repeated purchase looks like a habit. Secondly, the product is not expensive. It likely leads to ignore the risk if the product and/or the brand are not appropriate. Thirdly, the product is not important of them.

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There are some cases that consumers do not like to think much about decision making process. They prefer to buy something impulsively (Kotler, 2000). He/she probably needs of variation (pure impulse), or is affected by ads which are available at the purchasing area (suggestion effect), or is driven by auction (planned impulse), or is reminded by an existing poster at the store (reminder effect), or consciously intends to buy unplanned brand (planned product category).

Generally, products that consumers can buy belong to four categories, *i.e.* convenience goods, shopping goods, specialty goods, and unsought goods (Kotler & Keller 2013). While convenience goods tend to lead consumers to decide concisely, shopping goods need consumers to follow much more steps before purchasing. They should firstly know what the product is. Brand and reputation of the brand in some extent have high contribution in decision making. Likewise, price, quality, design, durability, color and even package. Therefore, it is common for consumers to compare one to another before making a choice.

Some products that characterized by high price, risky, and complex products (specialty goods and some particular unsought goods) need longer process to make decision which product and/or brand to buy. For such products, acquiring information about the products is a necessity. A consumer attending an exhibition or sales promotion likely does not want to buy, but just submit information. Even he/she is not reluctant to ask everybody who are supposed knowing about the products or having experience of the products. Support of others who are close to him/her, such as family, friends and colleagues, in similar choice is very contributive in generating an intention to buy (Ajzen, 1991).

The decision to buy a particular product and/or brand normally is congruent with his/her attitude. An intention to buy a particular product and/or brand is triggered when the customer's attitude toward the buying behavior meets the behavior itself (Ajzen, 1991). The intention gets stronger when factors such as sufficient money, available stocks, achievable price, and the easiness of payment are accessible. Normally, the strong intention will produce behavior to buy.

Frequently, the choice of a particular product is confused by similar products. Factors such as similar price, similar technology and/or performance, similar quality or durability, similar design, similar value, *etc.* lead the choice is uneasy. Since comparison commonly gives way to assess an alternative, the consumer evaluates the particular product based on a third product's value. As a result, the particular product becomes more attractive than others. This might happen because of an attraction effect (Simonson, 1989; Santosa, 2005).

Let us remind to the model before, that the behavior commonly is preceded by behavioral intention. While the intention is in accordance with the consumer's

attitude, also appropriate to the support and/or the recommendation of close family, friends, or colleagues, some questions arise, whether the consumer's attitude is affected by the attraction effect. In addition, whether the support and/or the recommendation of close family, friends, or colleagues also influenced by the attraction effect.

The questions likely are prominent in this study which lead to the purpose of the study. However, such questions concerning with the influence of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control to behavioral intention are not worthy to be overlooked. Thereby, they need to be supported by empirical data as a consequence of the implication of the Theory of Planned Behavior. The empirical data withdrawn from those who are interested in motorcycles, especially matic. Some theoretically reviews are provided. An enlightenment of methods, analysis and findings are reported.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **(a) Attraction Effect**

Huber, Payne, and Puto (1982) and Huber and Puto (1983) are researches that initially proclaimed the finding, which is called attraction effect. The finding afterwards was further investigated by Ratneshwar, Shocker, and Stewart (1987). Respondents showed two different brands (A and B) that each had two attributes. They had to choose one of the two. Two weeks later they had to choose the same two products but with one new brand (C). The new product was dominated by one of the original alternatives (B) but not by the other (A). Respondents tended to alter their choice. The addition of brand C increased the attractiveness and choice probability of the now asymmetrically dominating alternative (brand B). Huber and Puto (1983) extended this finding to include the addition of nondominated alternatives that were relatively inferior compared to one of the two alternatives in the core set.

The finding alters the regularity that says a new alternative will not draw more shares from originals. In other words, one could not increase the choice probability of product by adding another product in the set (Simonson, 1989). This finding also runs counter to the similarity effect, that is, the intuition that a new alternative will draw more from the similar alternatives than from the dissimilar alternatives (Pan and Lehman, 1993).

Figure 1 shows the work of attraction effect. The core set is brand A and B. When new alternatives are added (such as brand C and D), which each is inferior to only one original brand (A or B), increases the attractiveness of the asymmetrically dominating alternative. Brand A will be more attractive than B when D is added, or brand B will be more attractive than A when C is added.

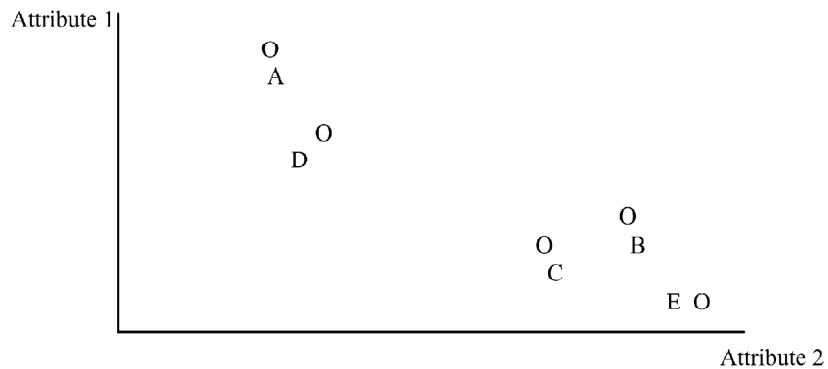


Figure 1  
Attraction Effect

Core set	:	A, B
Set with relatively inferior alternative	:	A, B, and E
Set with asymmetrical dominance	:	(1) A, B, and C and (2) A, B, and D

Source: Simonson, Itamar (1989). "Choice Based on Reason: The Case of Attraction and Compromise Effects". *Journal of Consumer Research*. 16. September. p. 160.

Further, Huber and Puto (1983) explored more studies of attraction effect. On their experiment the new alternative was only relatively inferior compared to one of the two alternatives in the core set (brand E). The finding also shows the alteration of choice.

The term of asymmetrical dominating product, relatively inferior product, and dominated product will be defined as follows. An asymmetrical dominating product is a product that in perceptual space of two given attributes has superiority, whether on one particular attributes or both, compared to other products (Pan and Lehman, 1993). A relatively inferior product is a product that in perceptual space of two given attributes has inferiority on only one attributes compared to a particular product. A dominated product is a product that in perceptual space of two given attributes has inferiority on one attribute or both compared to a particular product (Pan and Lehman, 1993).

### (b) Attitude, Subjective Norm, Perceived Behavioral Control and Behavioral Intention

Understanding the four variables, *i.e.* attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention, one needs to figure out the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) which originally developed from the Theory of Reasoned Action

(TRA). According to the both theories, the emerge of the behavioral intention can be predicted from the one's attitude and subjective norm (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Azjen, 1991). Accordingly, will be firstly highlighted the Theory of Reasoned Action.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). The theory is firstly proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). The model initially consists of three variables, *i.e.* attitude, subjective norm, and behavior. It is assumed that attitude is in line with behavior. In other words, if some body's attitude is favorable toward an object, it leads to favorable behavior as well to purchase. Thereby, attitude is prerequisite of behavior to buy.

A lot of studies find that attitude toward object are not a good predictor of behavior (Corey, 1937; Wicker, 1969; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Thomsen, Borgida & Lavine, 1995; Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1998; Corner & Sparks, 2002). Baron & Kenny (1986) propose a moderator which partitions a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable. The stronger attitudes are likely to be more predictive of people's behavior than are weak attitudes. Some researches then are ignited to further explore. Corner & Sparks' study (2002) indicates that attitudes are generally more predictive of subsequent behavior if they are univalent rather than ambivalent. Likewise, attitudes are more predictive if they are accessible in memory (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1998). Furthermore, attitudes are more predictive if they are personally involving (Thomsen, Borgida & Lavine, 1995).

Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) introduce the principle of correspondence. To measure the relation of attitude-behavior the measurement should match one another in terms of specific actions. For instance, global attitudes (such as attitude to religion) can not be used to predict very specific actions (*e.g* attending church). This principle when applied to researches produces more favorable correlation. They then introduce a mediator variable, namely behavioral intention. Behavioral intentions are regarded as a summary of the motivation required to perform a particular behavior, reflecting an individual's decision to follow a course of action, as well as an index of how hard people are willing to try and perform the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The idea that behavioral intentions mediate the attitude-behavior relationship representing a significant move away from the traditional view of attitudes, rather than attitudes being related directly to behavior, attitudes only serve to direct behavior to the extent that they influence intentions (Armitage & Christian, 2003). Therefore, the TRA consequently takes behavioral intention in as a mediator between the relation of attitude and behavior.

Fishbein & Azjen (1975) subsequently assert that attitude and social pressure are predictors of behavioral intention. The perceived social pressure commonly identified as subjective norms. An individual may have a lot of confidence to do something, but at a specific occasion only particular encouragement will be superior.

Therefore, the two factors, *i.e.* attitude and subjective norm, are fully encouraged by strong conviction as a basis, which subsequently determine an individual's attitude.

The attitude usually consist of two components, *i.e.* outcome belief and outcome evaluation. The outcome belief relates to a tendency of particular outcome. For instance, there is a tendency that weight will be lessened by diet. Likewise, there is a tendency to get cancer by smoking. The power of the outcome belief is magnified by the outcome evaluation which significantly contributes to the form of behavioral belief. It is understandable that only a significant outcome wil virtually affect an individual's attitude.

The subjective norms appear as normative beliefs and motivation to comply. The normative belief is concerning with what other people want him/her to do something and his/her motivation to comply. As in attitude, the two factors should be multiplied to get greater power. A social pressure likely will be taken into account if appropriate to his/her motivation to comply.

Accordingly, the TRA encompasses four variables, a behavior that predicted by the behavioral intention, while the behavioral intention itself is formed by an attitude and subjective norms. The theory can be formulated as follows,

$$B \sim BI = A_{act} (w1) + SN (w2)$$

Where:            B = Particular behavior

                      BI = Behavioral Intention

                      A<sub>act</sub> = Attitude toward behavior

                      SN = Subjectve Norms, relates to the existence of a sosial pressure that an individual must do something

                      w1 & w2 = Weight

Those four variables can be subsequently clarified as follows,

- a. Behavior (B), is a certain action relating with certain object. A behavior usually always happens within a situational context in a particular time.
- b. Behavioral Intention (BI), is a want correlating with self and action in the future. Some people may have an opinion that an intention is really a plan to do something concerning with a certain objective. A behavioral intention primarily is generated by a decision making process, which integrating factors such as attitude toward behavior and subjective norms, to evaluate alternatives which in turn choosing one of them. The behavioral intention varies of its power depending on the probability of doing something.
- c. Attitude toward behavior or action (A<sub>act</sub>), illustrating one's total evaluation to do something. The power and evaluation of a conspicuous conviction about a particular action consequence can be formulated as follows,

$$A_{act} = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

- d. Subjective Norms, exemplifying one's perception about people surrounding think of what he/she should do. A normative belief is concerning with what other people want him/her to do something and his/her motivation to comply. The formula is as follows,

$$SN = \sum_{j=1}^m NBI MCI$$

Eventhough the theory has been supposed that it works in predicting behavior and behavioral tendency (Ryan, 1982; Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988; Jyh, 1998), the theory is also assumed has a weakness (Azjen, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995). it might occur when subjects do not have control in relation with a willingness of doing a particular behavior. Therefore, it only happens as expected concerning with relatively simple behavior, when subjects really have particular intention. As a matter of fact the theory has been restored by the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which is suggested by Azjen (1991) who proposes one more variabel e.g. perceived behavioral control.

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The TPB is introduced by Azjen (1991), which actually proposed to remedy a theory existing beforehand, the TRA. It includes another source that will have influence on behavioral intentions and behavior, perceived behavioral control, in the model. The inclusion of perceived behavioral control as a predictor of behavior is based on the rationale that holding intention constant, greater perceived control will increase the likelihood that enactment of the behavior will be successful. Furthermore, to the extent to which perceived behavioral control reflects actual control, perceived behavioral control will directly influence behavior. Therefore, it acts as both a proxy measure of actual control and a measure of confidence in one's ability.

As with the attitude and subjective norm constructs, Ajzen (1991) posits that control beliefs underpin perceived behavioral control. Control beliefs are the perceived frequency of facilitating or inhibiting factors multiplied by the power of those factors to inhibit/facilitate the behavior in question. Congruent with the other belief components in the TPB, it is the control beliefs that are salient at any one time which determine global perceptions of control.

### (c) Formulating Hypotheses

- (1) The Relation Between Effect Attraction (EA) with Attitude (Ab) Variable, Subjective Norm (SN) Variable, and Behavioral Intention (BI) Variable.

In a cognitive system, the work of information and evaluation are in line. They work in the same direction. An information might lead to meaning which in turn develops conviction (Peter & Olson, 2002). While whether information or evaluation has a great contribution in assessing a particular object, it is inevitably affected by the assessor's subjectivity. There by, an assessment toward a particular brand leads to a value in which a consumer believes that the particular brand has perceptive atribut in a particular product category (Pan & Lehmann, 1993). As a matter of fact, the perceptive atribut does not actually exist, it is abstract. Therefore, each consumer might have different perception Sciffman & Kanuk, 2000).

About the assessment itself, the consumer firstly classifies the information, incorporates with past experience, and later on comes to a conclusion which arises as a response (Peter & Olson, 2002). The subjective assessment occurs by means of a learning process relating with the atribut dimension, comparing a brand with others, and even reducing the amount of the atribut dimension which perceived just a few.

While a great quantity of brand and atribut of each product category makes consumers are not easy to integrate and analyze information, they simplify through subjective judgment or a belief toward a particular brand. The reason is the limitation of somebody's cognitive capacity (Bettman, 1979; Newell & Simon, 1972). In some studies of price, consumers compare one price to others resulting a perception of price. The price perception inevitably affects consumers in comprehending quality, value, and intention to buy (Dodds *et al.*, 1991; Monroe & Petroschius, 1981).

The becoming more interesting of a product when an inferior product comes closer (attraction effect) obviously demonstrates the subjective judgment of consumers. While the subjective judgment will lead to an attitude creation through an integration of belief and evaluation, an hypothesis can be formulated as follows,

H1: The atraction effect (EA) affects the attitude creation (Ab).

The subjective norm which developed through a normative belief and motivation to comply is apparently subjective. The more favorable of the subjective norm clearly is in accordance with the inner wants which actually always cares for other people's intention. While the subjective judgment of the attraction effect will likely also affect the subjective norm when the other people's intention arises from a subjective judgment of the attraction effect, a second hypothesis can be formed as follows,

H2: The attraction effect (EA) affects the subjective norm (SN) creation.

A behavioral intention is actually a plan to behave someday. The intention arises through selection and integration of an attitude toward behavior (Ab) and subjective norm (SN). While it is assumed that whether attitude toward behavior (Ab) or subjective norm (SN) are affected by the effect of attraction, the next hypothesis is as follows,



H3: The attraction effect (EA) influences the behavioral intention

- 2) The Relation of Attitude toward Behavior (Ab) and Subjective Norm (SN) with Behavioral Intention (BI).

While it is in accordance with whether the TRA or the TPB that behavioral intention can be predicted by attitude toward behavior and subjective norm (Fishbein & Azjen 1975; Azjen 1991), the next hypotheses can be formulated as follows,

H4: The more favorable attitude toward behavior (Ab), the more behavioral intention (BI) will be.

H5: The more favorable subjective norm (SN), the more behavioral intention (BI) will be.

- 3) The Relation of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) with Behavioral Intention (BI).

In line with H4 and H5 that based whether on the TRA or TPB, the hypothesis corresponding to perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention is as follows,

H6: The more favorable perceived behavioral control (PBC), the more behavioral intention (BI) will be.

### Research Model

Based on the hypotheses a research model can be developed as follows,

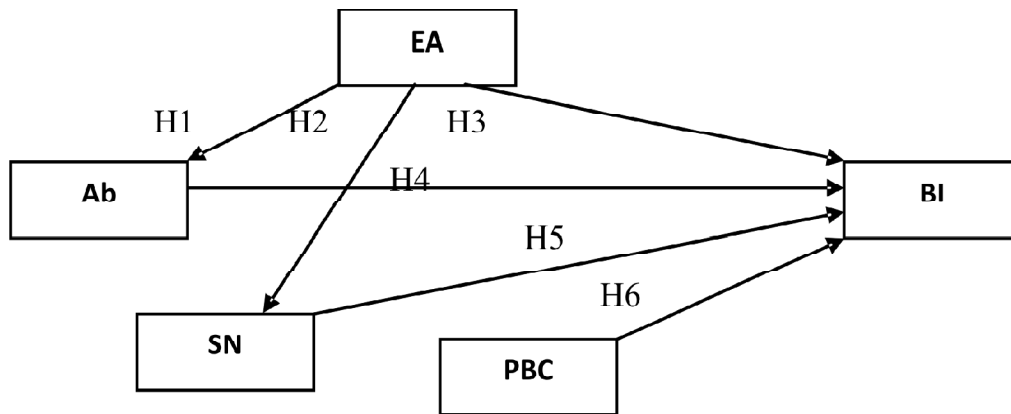


Figure 2: Research Model

### Methods

Sample is drawn through convenience and judgment technique (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Data collected by questionnaires, distributed to respondents whether who already have bought or just are interested in having matic motorcycle.

After being examined based on data completion, 100 questionnaire forms are successfully admitted out of 104 forms (96.15% response rate), which supposed meet the sample adequacy (Ghozali, 2005; Hair *et al.*, 1998) and liable to be further administered. The Likert scale is operated corresponding to a five-point scale ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree). The instrument, which denotes to indicators, will firstly be justified through factor analysis, and Cronbach's alpha analysis. Further, data are analyzed by employing Amos 5.0.

## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

**Test of Validity:** Test of KMO and Bartlett's test are firstly conducted to check whether the sample adequacy meets the prerequisite or the factor analysis can be employed. Table 1 shows that all variables excluded EA (Ab, SN, PBC and BI) have sample adequacy, which denoted by all scores more than 0.5 (Gozali, 2005). Likewise, the outcome of Bartlett's test performs favorable condition, denoted by the significance of Chi-square, indicating that the exercise of factor analysis is certainly approved (Gozali, 2005).

**Table 1**  
Test of KMO, Bartlett's Test, and Factor Loading  
Ab, SN, PBC and BI Variables

Var	KMO	App Chi-sq	Bartlett's Test		Component Matrix	
			df	signif	Item	Komp 1
Ab	0,712	338.580	15	0,000	b1	0.784
					b2	0.708
					b3	0.801
					ev1	0.804
					ev2	0.690
					ev3	0.835
SN	0,679	311.494	15	0,000	NB1	0.815
					NB2	0.776
					NB3	0.716
					MC1	0.750
					MC2	0.746
					MC3	0.768
PBC	0,668	320.812	15	0,000	PF1	0.698
					PF2	0.756
					PF3	0.545
					CB1	0.708
					CB2	0.790
					CB3	0.624
BI	0,755	75.905	6	0,000	BI1	0.784
					BI2	0.720
					BI3	0.715
					BI4	0.758

Source: data analysis

All indicators of the variables Ab, SN, PBC and BI *i.e.* b1, b2, b3, ev1, ev2, ev3, NB1, NB2, NB3, MC1, MC2, MC3, IB2, IB3, IB4 belong to valid indicators, since their loading factor > 0.5 (Gozali, 2005). Table 1 does not encompass variable EA, since the variable is operated by merely one indicator. Thereby, the indicator supposed does not need a test of validity and reliability.

**Test of Reliability.** The Cronbach's alpha analysis is exercised by employing SPSS 16.0. The result shows that all variables (excluded EA) are reliable, indicated by the Cronbach's alpha score > 0.6 (Gozali, 2005) (Table 2). An exception is on PBC variable that its Cronbach's alpha assumed less than 0.6. It is true since PF's Cronbach's alpha = 0,513 and CB's = 0,592. However, when they are exercised simultaneously the score indicates be better off, that is more than 0,6.

**Table 2**  
**Test of Reliability**  
**Ab, SN, PBC and BI Variables**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
Ab	b (b1, b2, b3)	0,710
	ev (ev1, ev2, ev3)	0,732
	b+ev	0,864
SN	NB1, NB2, NB3	0,746
	MC1, MC2, MC3	0,721
	NB + MC	0,866
PBC	PF (PF1, PF2, PF3)	0,513
	CB (CB1, CB2, CB3)	0,592
	PF + CB	0,778
BI	BI1, BI2, BI3, BI4	0,731

*Source:* Analisis Data

The Structural Equation Model. The model has one initial independent variable (EA) and three dependent variables (Ab, SN, BI) in which two dependent variables at some extent are treated as independent variables as well. Since the purpose of the study is eagerly to know the relationship between the one initial independent variable (EA) and the primary dependent variables (Ab, SN), likewise among the three dependent variables separately and simultaneously, a structural equation modelling is employed (Hair *et al.*, 1995).

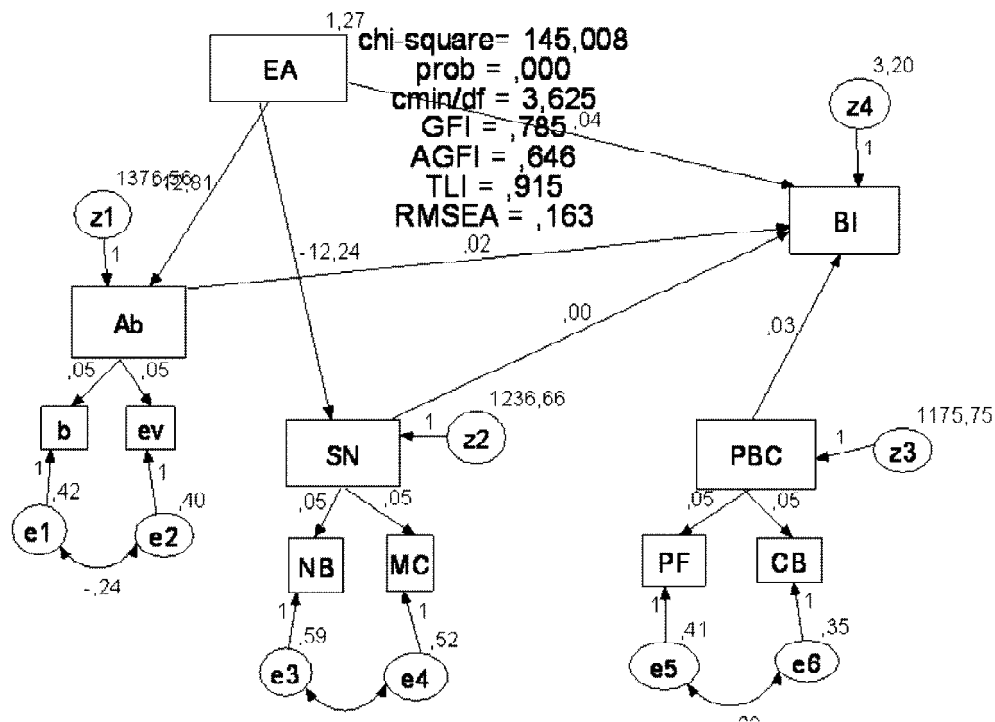
An initial structural equation model is drawn by connecting all variables as hypothesized. This model is likely not thoroughly appropriate to expectancy, since all indicators, *i.e.* Chi-Square/Prob, Cmin/df, GFI, AGFI, TLI, RMSEA, do not meet the criteria. Consequently, a modification model is generated by connecting e1 ↔ e2, e3 ↔ e4, and e5 ↔ e6. This modification model seemingly produces better scores than before (Table 3, Figure 3).

Table 3 denotes that although not all the model's indicators meet the criteria, some (Cmin/df and TLI) equalize the requirements. It means that the model's data are in accordance with the structural parameter. As a consequent, the model is worthy of use.

**Table 3**  
**The Second Indicators Resulted from Modification**

Indicators	Initial Scores	Second Scores	Threshold	Justification
Chi-square/ Prob	352.795/p= 0,000	145,008/p= 0,000	31,264/ p>0.05	Not meet the criterion
Cmin/df	8,205	3,625	≤ 5	Meet the criterion
GFI	0,672	0,785	Tinggi	Not meet the criterion
AGFI	0,496	0,646	≥ 0,9	Not meet the criterion
TLI	0,768	0,915	≤ 0,9	Meet the criterion
RMSEA	0,270	0,163	0,05 s.d 0,08	Not meet the criterion

Source: Data Analysis



**Figure 3: Modified Model of the Initial Structural Equation Model**

**Evaluation of Normality.** Evaluation of normality is carried out by univariate test (Ferdinand, 2002; Ghozali, 2005). It is exercised by scrutinizing the skewness value whether its critical ratio values are less or equal to  $\pm 2.58$ . As a matter of fact, most c.r value are less than  $\pm 2.58$ . However, there is one variable *i.e.* ev which its c.r value more than 2.58. Thereby, it indicates that univariately the data distribution is not normal. To check further, a multivariate test is executed. The result of the data analysis shows up that the multivariate critical value is 15,583. It is more than 2.58 as required. As a result, the normality test needs a bootstrap analysis.

**Bootstrap Analysis.** A Bollen-Stine bootstrap analysis illustrates as follows, (a) The model fits better in 500 bootstrap samples, (b) It fits about equally well in 0 bootstrap samples, (c) It fits worse or failed to fit in 0 bootstrap samples, (d) Testing the null hypothesis that the model is correct, Bollen-Stine bootstrap  $p = ,002$ . The result shows although whether univariately or multivariately the data distribution is abnormal, yet it is worthy of use.

**Outliers.** Evaluation of outliers is carried out whether by univariate test or multivariate test (Ferdinand, 2002). The univariate test might be successfully exercised by firstly converting data to Z-score, in which they should be less than  $\pm 3.0$  (Hair *et al.*, 1995). The result indicates that all variables' Z-score are less than  $\pm 3.0$ . In other words, there is no outlier found.

To check further, it needs a multivariate outliers test. It demonstrated by determining *chi-square* value which subsequently be used as upper limit, in which could be calculated by searching on *chi-square* table whose degree of freedom is equal with the amount of variables employed, that are 11, under degree of significance ( $p$ ) = 0,001. The *chi-square* value found out is 31,264. In fact, most scores of Mahalanobis distance are less than 31,264, except numbers of 97, 92, 27 and 87 which inevitably suggests outliers. However, because of no specific reason to dismiss, the outliers are likely worthy operated (Ferdinand, 2002).

**Multicollinearity and Singularity.** According to the Amos output, the determinant of sample covariance matrix is equal with 1708847,163. The value is furtherly more than zero. As a consequent, it belongs to no multicollinearity and singularity category.

**Test of Hypotheses.** The regression weights output indicates that the influence of EA to Ab and SN are significant. Likewise, the influence of Ab to BI. In addition, it is so in the case of the influence of SN to IB. Conversely, the influence of whether EA to BI or SN to BI, are not significant ( $p = 0,832$ ;  $p = 0,771$ ) (Table 4). The result shows that the hypotheses proposed supported by the empirical data, except H3 and H5.

**Table 4**  
**Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

			<i>Estimate</i>	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>C.R.</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Label</i>
Ab	<--	EA	-12,806	3,308	-3,871	***	par_7
SN	<--	EA	-12,242	3,136	-3,904	***	par_9
b	<--	Ab	,052	,002	31,704	***	par_1
ev	<--	Ab	,050	,002	31,315	***	par_2
NB	<--	SN	,051	,002	24,975	***	par_3
MC	<--	SN	,052	,002	27,291	***	par_4
PF	<--	PBC	,047	,002	25,035	***	par_5
CB	<--	PBC	,052	,002	30,061	***	par_6
BI	<--	EA	,037	,177	,212	,832	par_8
BI	<--	Ab	,024	,006	3,873	***	par_10
BI	<--	SN	-,002	,006	-,291	,771	par_11
BI	<--	PBC	,033	,006	5,205	***	par_12

Source: Amos output

**Discussion.** Table 4 shows that both the influence of EA to Ab and EA to SN are significant which denoted by  $p = 0,000$ . It leads to a consequence that the hypotheses *i.e.* 'The attraction effect (EA) affects the attitude creation (Ab)' and 'The attraction effect (EA) affects the subjective norm (SN) creation' are really empirically supported. While it corresponds of such similar study or even a new finding if no such exploration before, it should be appreciated as a new significant fact into theoretical development. The findings indicate that the attraction effect can develop a consumer's subjective judgment, in which through integration of consumer's belief and evaluation can build up the consumer's attitude. Meanwhile, the consumer's subjective judgment leads to collectively consumers's attitude which motivated by the need to comply of people surround. However, the finding obviously needs further exploration and development.

While the attraction effect not only affects consumer's attitude individually but also collectively, it likely does not have an effect to consumer's behavioral intention. The hypothesis is not empirically supported ( $p = 0,832$ ). There are at least two explanation, first of all, a stimulant of becoming more attractive of a product does not assert a consumer to buy. In other words, simply an interest of a product is supposed meager of generating behavioral intention. Secondly, in accordance with whether the TRA or the TPB, consumer's behavioral intention is predicted by consumer's attitude. In other words, there is a need to form favorable consumer's attitude first before an intention to buy takes place.

While other predictors of consumer's behavioral intention, such as attitude and perceived behavioral control, are empirically supported, subjective norm is conversely not. In this case, consumer's behavioral intention is not fully preceded by three predictors. While it is absolutely not in line with the TPB, a simple

explanation might be beneficial, such as, a generation of consumer's intention apparently depends on him/her self. Although people surround want him/her to do something, the decision is still up to him/her. Therefore, the contribution of subjective norm in this case might be likely ignored.

## CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study principally can be distinguished into two types, *i.e.* elaborating the consequence of the attraction effect while consumers making a choice, and applying the TPB. The first produces three important findings that are, the attraction effect affects the consumer's attitude, the attraction effect affects the subjective norm, and the attraction effect does not affect the consumer's behavioral intention.

This findings enlarge and give details of the situation consumers meet when making a choice. It is likely recognized that the TPB works well under normal condition, that is investigating someone in doing something, in which competitors are absent. While the situation might change, when competitors get in, the decision making thereby, is not simple. It is obviously known that the TPB initially developed not only for marketing. However, when marketers talk about market, they should pay attention to competitors. In other words, when they need to know the reason of doing something, *i.e.* choosing a particular product/brand, they should inevitably take competitors into account.

The attraction effect might occur unintentionally, but it might on purpose. Both has an effect on choice, though indirectly through attitude and subjective norm creation. This is in accordance with the findings that the effect does not directly influence the consumers' intention. Under such condition, the choice might change when the products in the market also change, particularly when the composition of products which develop the attraction effect is deliberately modified. As a consequence, understanding consumers in making a choice applying the TPB let marketers unavoidably also recognize products in the market.

While understanding of consumers in making choice is beneficial, marketers might influence the choice as in on purpose through modification of products' composition in the market. It leads to a strategic generation, while some might not yet be aware of, which has an advantage to be a winner in a tight competition.

The second findings denote that two findings are in keeping with the TPB, *i.e.* whether attitude or perceived behavioral control are good predictors of behavioral intention. On the other hand the third *i.e.* subjective norm that is not valid as a predictor of behavioral intention, is not in accordance with the TPB. While the first two can corroborate the TPB, the third is likely acceptable since it occurs in different situation.

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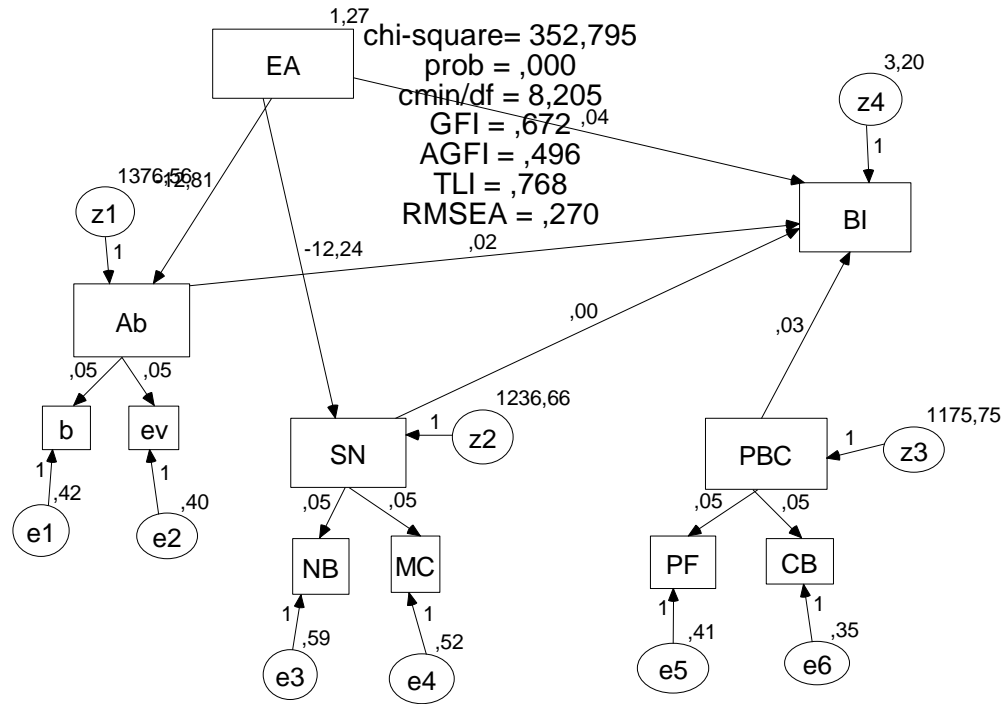
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APPENDIX A

The Initial Structural Equation Model



APPENDIX B

Assessment of normality (Group number 1)

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
EA	1,000	5,000	-,362	-1,479	-,880	-1,795
PBC	36,000	196,000	-,029	-,117	-,213	-,434
SN	36,000	225,000	-,070	-,284	,015	,031
Ab	25,000	225,000	-,087	-,356	-,033	-,067
BI	8,000	19,000	-,381	-1,553	-,027	-,055
CB	6,000	15,000	-,538	-2,196	,456	,931
PF	6,000	14,000	-,551	-2,251	,003	,006
MC	6,000	15,000	-,546	-2,229	-,398	-,813
NB	6,000	15,000	-,573	-2,338	-,450	-,919
ev	5,000	15,000	-,687	-2,806	,053	,109
b	5,000	15,000	-,513	-2,093	-,005	-,010
Multivariate					52,706	15,583

APPENDIX C

Z-score

Descriptive Statistics

	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Zscore(EA)	100	-2.08334	1.44774	-6.5995810E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(b1)	100	-1.66043	1.51237	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(b2)	100	-2.41874	2.25515	-3.6453503E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(b3)	100	-1.80475	1.47662	-3.8875594E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(ev1)	100	-1.64682	1.76039	-1.2181227E-15	1.00000000
Zscore(ev2)	100	-1.36570	2.49948	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(ev3)	100	-2.88019	1.38676	-1.9729007E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(NB1)	100	-2.62945	1.77131	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(NB2)	100	-1.61931	1.85064	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(NB3)	100	-2.78000	2.27454	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(MC1)	100	-2.52237	1.61266	-1.3692347E-15	1.00000000
Zscore(MC2)	100	-1.63664	1.77302	-4.3697667E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(MC3)	100	-1.42677	2.26315	-1.9607542E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(PF1)	100	-2.56085	1.26131	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(PF2)	100	-1.66493	1.90278	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(PF3)	100	-2.38384	2.40780	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(CB1)	100	-2.26949	1.20422	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(CB2)	100	-1.65553	1.91755	-1.7524180E-16	1.00000000
Zscore(CB3)	100	-2.42573	2.47473	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(BI1)	100	-1.82122	1.77329	-1.6306142E-15	1.00000000
Zscore(BI2)	100	-1.97461	1.75107	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(BI3)	100	-2.07062	1.41919	.0000000	1.00000000
Zscore(BI4)	100	-1.54532	1.91436	-8.6714490E-16	1.00000000
Valid N (listwise)	100				

## APPENDIX D

## Observations farthest from the centroid (Mahalanobis distance) (Group number 1)

<i>Observation number</i>	<i>Mahalanobis d-squared</i>	<i>p1</i>	<i>p2</i>
97	46,239	,000	,000
92	44,444	,000	,000
27	34,335	,000	,000
87	31,975	,001	,000
76	25,661	,007	,001
23	24,177	,012	,001
57	23,043	,017	,002
30	22,927	,018	,000
48	22,846	,019	,000
4	22,683	,020	,000
2	22,568	,020	,000
3	21,844	,026	,000
61	20,810	,035	,000
94	18,564	,069	,009
98	18,116	,079	,012
86	18,116	,079	,005
12	18,116	,079	,002
95	17,579	,092	,004
83	17,561	,092	,002
96	17,178	,103	,003
37	16,726	,116	,005
81	16,561	,122	,004
59	16,522	,123	,002
60	16,370	,128	,002
88	16,045	,139	,002
69	15,819	,148	,002
100	15,306	,169	,007
45	14,226	,221	,098
78	12,971	,295	,583
15	12,962	,296	,501
89	12,720	,312	,555
77	12,569	,322	,558
71	12,405	,334	,571
62	12,366	,337	,510
90	12,001	,364	,647
82	11,720	,385	,730
29	11,579	,396	,736
33	10,699	,469	,971
41	10,635	,474	,964
25	10,516	,485	,964
46	9,805	,548	,998
64	9,798	,549	,996
74	9,621	,565	,997

*contd.*

<i>Observation number</i>	<i>Mahalanobis d-squared</i>	<i>p1</i>	<i>p2</i>
21	9,486	,577	,998
5	9,341	,590	,998
53	9,059	,616	,999
44	8,831	,638	1,000
16	8,691	,650	1,000
67	8,369	,680	1,000
65	8,032	,710	1,000
42	7,962	,717	1,000
22	7,903	,722	1,000
55	7,625	,746	1,000
6	7,490	,758	1,000
80	7,132	,788	1,000
63	7,131	,788	1,000
75	7,097	,791	1,000
7	6,981	,801	1,000
68	6,766	,818	1,000
24	6,731	,820	1,000
52	6,687	,824	1,000
40	6,572	,833	1,000
43	6,366	,848	1,000
38	6,347	,849	1,000
28	6,325	,851	1,000
91	6,154	,863	1,000
50	5,998	,873	1,000
72	5,992	,874	1,000
8	5,886	,881	1,000
93	5,574	,900	1,000
1	5,429	,909	1,000
58	5,427	,909	1,000
39	5,403	,910	1,000
54	5,047	,929	1,000
17	5,025	,930	1,000
56	4,963	,933	1,000
73	4,879	,937	1,000
10	4,686	,945	1,000
13	4,653	,947	1,000
51	4,277	,961	1,000
79	4,112	,967	1,000
11	4,074	,968	1,000
36	3,979	,971	1,000
70	3,905	,973	1,000
99	3,901	,973	1,000
47	3,900	,973	1,000
19	3,848	,974	1,000
18	3,607	,980	1,000

*contd.*

<i>Observation number</i>	<i>Mahalanobis d-squared</i>	<i>p1</i>	<i>p2</i>
31	3,592	,980	1,000
26	3,363	,985	1,000
20	3,334	,986	1,000
49	3,315	,986	1,000
32	3,192	,988	1,000
84	3,113	,989	1,000
85	3,113	,989	,999
14	2,916	,992	,999
66	2,158	,998	1,000
35	2,130	,998	,999
34	2,048	,998	,987
9	1,371	1,000	,976

## APPENDIX E

## Sample Covariances (Group number 1)

	<i>EA</i>	<i>PBC</i>	<i>SN</i>	<i>Ab</i>	<i>BI</i>	<i>CB</i>	<i>PF</i>	<i>MC</i>	<i>NB</i>	<i>ev</i>	<i>b</i>
EA	1,270										
PBC	-3,670	1175,750									
SN	-15,552	623,448	1427,048								
Ab	-16,268	704,782	926,742	1584,886							
BI	-,437	54,823	39,828	59,281	6,357						
CB	-,300	60,990	37,178	42,532	3,033	3,510					
PF	-,068	55,392	26,046	28,280	2,519	2,582	3,022				
MC	-,817	31,523	74,781	49,201	2,125	1,833	1,402	4,440			
NB	-,776	33,444	73,025	47,494	2,073	2,044	1,404	3,420	4,330		
ev	-,746	34,294	48,745	79,278	3,103	2,064	1,454	2,626	2,542	4,366	
b	-,832	36,908	47,857	82,210	3,018	2,268	1,441	2,573	2,453	3,869	4,684

Condition number = 49436,193

Eigenvalues

2956,565 679,806 576,452 3,208 1,054 ,991 ,709 ,504 ,222 ,093 ,060

Determinant of sample covariance matrix = 1708847,163