The Influence of Package Design on Consumer Preference

Ravindra Chitturi, Lehigh University, USA
Ricardo Castaño, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia
Maria Cecilia Henriquez-Daza, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia
Juan Carlos Londoño-Roldan, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia

Prior research has studied the general influence of packaging on brand awareness, pricing, etc. However, we study two key dimensions of package design—i.e., color and shape. We research these relationships using the category of water bottles. The research tests and finds the following significant results: 1) Blue color has the most positive influence compared to white, black, and red; 2) Anthropomorphic bottle has the most positive influence compared to round or square bottle shapes; 3) quality for blue cap is highest compared to bottles with white, black or red colored caps; 4) the perception of quality was significantly higher for anthropomorphic bottle compared to bottles with round or square shape; 5) the choice of blue-anthropomorphic bottle was not determined by a single emotion, and 6) An increase in price on the design with the best combination of color and shape will decrease choice preference until it reaches a 10% difference, but a 20% gap makes the product more attractive.

[to cite]:

[url]:
http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/1700057/la/v4_pdf/LA-04

[copyright notice]:
This work is copyrighted by The Association for Consumer Research. For permission to copy or use this work in whole or in part, please contact the Copyright Clearance Center at http://www.copyright.com/.
The Influence of Package Design on Consumer Preference
Ravindra Chitturi, Lehigh University, USA
Juan Carlos Londoño-Roldan, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia
Maria Cecilia Henriquez-Daza, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia
Ricardo Castaño, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali, Colombia

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The influence of packaging on consumer behavior has been an object of study in the past. However, how to define color and shape to create desired aesthetics remains a challenge for marketers. An experiment demonstrated that blue was the dominant color related to water (Ngo, Piqueras-Fiszman, & Spence, 2012). Similarly, blue creates a sense of coolness and airiness (Cheskin, 1957). As a result, this study expects to find a positive influence on preference if color blue is selected for the design of the cap of a product such as bottled water.

Some studies have demonstrated that there is a tendency to prefer rounded objects as opposed to sharp angular shaped objects. The tendency to prefer rounded objects is based on a fear response that angular contoured objects generate as they activate the amygdala (Bar & Neta, 2007). Therefore, we expect that consumers will prefer rounded shapes more than angular bottle shapes for water bottles. Similarly, anthropomorphic designs can generate approach, engaging consumers with the product and thus enhance brand performance (Puzakova, Kwak, & Rocereto, 2013). We expect that the water bottle with more anthropomorphic characteristics will be preferred more than non-anthropomorphic characteristics.

Perceived quality is understood as the overall judgment of the product’s excellence (Anselmsson, Johansson, & Persson, 2007). We expect that the water bottle with blue color cap to have the highest influence on quality compared to bottles with white, black or red colored caps. Water is predominantly a utilitarian product because it serves a basic need so we expect a blue bottled water with anthropomorphic characteristics to inspire greater confidence and a sense of safety with the consumption of the water. Therefore, choice of the blue caped water bottle with anthropomorphic characteristics is associated more with primarily prevention emotions of safety, confidence and satisfaction.

A higher level of perceived product value is reflected in a higher expected price and other aspects (T. Erdem & Swait, 1998; Tülin Erdem & Swait, 2004). However, higher price could result in less preference, therefore, it is expected that preference for the product with the best combination of color and shape will decrease as price increases.

STUDY 1: COLOR

90 students, and university staff participated an experiment that consisted in presenting the subjects with four bottles of water, with the same cylindrical shape (round), without labels or brands, each bottle was presented with a different color cap: blue, white, black and red. The participants were informed that all the bottles had the same price and amount of water. The participants were asked to choose the bottle of their preference. The blue color cap bottle achieved the highest preference (68.9%).

STUDY 2: SHAPES

The second study was performed with 33 subjects (different to those recruited for study 1), from the same conditions described for study 1. The respondents were presented with three bottles of water of different shapes: rounded, squared, and anthropomorphic. Participants were informed that all shapes had the same content of water. The anthropomorphic bottle achieved a superior preference (72.7%).

STUDY 3. TWO BOTTLES AND PRICE.

This study used only two bottles: anthropomorphic shape bottle with blue cap and a squared shape bottle with red cap. Participants were asked to select one of the two bottles in different price situations: Same price (control), 5%, 10% and 20% more in the price of the blue-curved bottle. The preference was higher for the curve-blue bottle (84.9%) as expected. As the price increased, the consumers started to change their preference and the percentage that selects curve-blue bottle deceases to 71.8% (5%) and 57.1% (10%). However, as the price gap increased to 20%, the preference for the anthropomorphic-blue bottle increased to 71.4%.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Society – a complexus

Edgar Morin is a sociologist of modernity and mass culture. The most important thing to underline is that Morin’s goal is not merely to deliver a cultural critique of the trivial and banal forms of mass culture. It represents an attempt to grasp both the systemic logic between culture production and modern capitalism but also how both this system and its products is formed by and forming the human imaginary and that this forming, beyond a simple alienation also represents a profound humanness – the stuff that dreams are made of. If mass culture is filled with nonsense, it is exactly because humanity is filled with it, not only in a negative but also a positive way.

One of the central conclusions of Morin’s sociology is the significance of the “event”, the fact that a single fantastmatic production of a narrative can produce a long chain of consequences. The event contributes to questioning even multi-causal and multi-rational explanatory frameworks for social and institutional change and provides a foundation for a fundamental critique of social prediction.

Homo Demens

Morin (1974) argues against one the one hand a biologicist reductionism that neglects cultural and communicative dimensions of humanity or reduces cultural forms to reflect simple evolutionary advantages. On the other hand, he accuses anthropology for neglecting the fact, that humans are not only cultural but also biological beings. Human nature and human culture are not “separate layers” of human existence but mutually constitutive. Homo Sapiens is not separate from nature and human order is not in opposition to natural (dis) order, at the same time as disorder is a fundamental and constitutive element in the formation of humanity.

Behind the reassuring name of Sapiens, Morin writes, the true face of the human being appears. It is an animal of hubris, of strong and unstable feelings, an animal that invents demons and chimera and who is always caught in the dilemma of deciding what is real and what is unreal; an animal that is ecstatic, loving and violent; who knows death without being able to believe in it, an animal of delirium and pleasure, myth, magic and illusions. And since we, Morin concludes, by madness understand the combination of illusion, exaggeration, instability, hesitation between real and unreal, subjective and objective, error and disorder, a more correct denomination for the human species might be homo demens.

The uniduality of the magic and the real

Morin’s most important legacy may be his opus major, the search for a scienza nuova as unfolded in the six volumes of La Méthode. In the two first volumes (Morin 1977, 1980), he applies the perspective of complex, open systems on the physical world and the biological world respectively. This he does in order to provide a general foundation for his real concern – the discussion of the complexity of the human knowledge (Morin 1986, 1991) and human societies (2001, 2004). It is noteworthy, that Morin with this work aims at the establishment of a certain unity of science. However, instead of the logical-empiricist goal of analytical and logical reductionism that has served as an unattainable goal for much social science, Morin’s unity of science is based on principles of self-organization and complexity in physical, biological and anthropological systems.

Morin himself highlights three principles that characterize a complex epistemology: The principle of dialogic, the principle of recursiveness and the hologrammatic principle (Morin 1986). The consumer research interest in such an epistemology is first and foremost the acknowledgment of what Morin would call the uniduality of concepts. For example, it generates an ability to see not the opposition between the rational and the magic but their mutual dependence and their deep ingraining in the formation of the human subject.

REFERENCES

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary society, we are surrounded by people displaying, online or offline, their possessions, talents and new acquisitions, tempting us to want the things that they have and we do not. And when we start asking ourselves why they have it and not we, envy may arise. Envy is a negative emotion that occurs when one wants what someone else has (Lazarus, 1991; Parrott & Smith, 1993). Recent consumer researches demonstrate that a more benign form of envy is a consumption motivator and highlight the differences between the two subtypes of the emotion. However, a literature review on envy reveals that we are far from understanding this emotion in the consumer behavior area. In this study, we investigate how the envy concept is defined within different perspectives, its core features, coping strategies that may or may not drive consumption, and the resulting positive and negative consequences. Our objective is to develop a theoretical framework with a series of propositions, suggesting that both subtypes of envy may occur simultaneously and that benign envy may also motivate less unnecessary consumption.

WHAT IS ENVY?

Envy is a negative emotion that results from goal incongruence, occurring when one does not have what someone else has, “a superior quality, achievement or possession”, which leads to a desire to have it and/or a wish that the other person does not have it, or even loses it (Lazarus, 1991; Parrott & Smith, 1993, p. 906). In a negative emotion experience, a state of impermanence is established and to return to a normal state, one is motivated to act to cope with the emotion (Lazarus 1991; Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer 1999). The coping strategies of envy vary accordingly to how the emotion is experienced; in an upward social comparison, a gap between an enviable person and an envied superior other is created, and to reduce this gap, the envious one may be motivated to improve herself, driven by benign envy, or to pull down the superior other, moved by malicious envy (Belk, 2011; Lamberton, Kristofferson, & Dahl, 2013; Van de Ven, Zeelenberg, & Pieters, 2009). For Kant, envy is a propensity to view the well-being of others with distress, even though it does not detract from one’s own. It is a reluctance to see our own well-being overshadowed by another’s because the standard we use to see how well off we are is not the intrinsic worth of our own well-being but how it compares with that of others (Kant, 1785/1996).

In the traditional view of envy, malicious envy is an unpleasant and painful emotion caused by an upward social comparison, with hostile feelings that may lead to hostile actions (Smith & Kim, 2007). A person may experience a feeling of pain when she discovers that someone else owns something that she desires but does not have, and if she realizes that she is unable to obtain it, she wishes that the other person loses it and may do anything to make it happen, eliciting a “malicious ill will” toward the envied other (Belk, 2011, p. 121; Schimmel, 2008). Most often, the malicious envious person does not make use of violence against the envied other or compete directly for the desired object, instead she wishes that the other loses the advantage or suffer (Clanton, 2006; Schoeck, 1969). Malicious envy consumers may be motivated to follow two paths to cope with the emotion: i) a destructive one to pull the envied other down to the level of the envious self, driving harming behaviors (Smith, Parrott, Ozer, & Moniz, 1994; Van de Ven et al., 2009; Van de Ven, Zeelenberg, & Pieters, 2011), such as one sabotaging a friend gossiping that her beautiful coveted Chanel bag is not original; ii) finding alternative options to make the envied option less desirable, aiming social differentiation to reduce the gap (Lamberton et al., 2013; Van de Ven et al., 2011), such as one buying a Gucci bag to differentiate herself from the envied Chanel bag that a friend has.

On the other hand, benign envy is free of hostile feelings or harming behaviors; its focus is “I wish I had what you have” and not “I wish you did not have what you do” (Neu, 1980; Parrott, 1991, p. 10). Benign envy inspires people to improve themselves, to level up through consumption buying desired objects or even to consume to provoke envy; it is a consumption motivator (Belk, 2011). A benign envious person identifies something of value in an envied other that she wants, and becomes motivated to take actions. One person feeling benign envy of a friend’s fit body may be driven to buy a gym membership and shop healthier foods. Both subtypes of envy are intense and negative; the essential appraisal that determines which one of them is elicited is the perception of the deservingness of the envied person: if she deserves the coveted object, benign envy occurs, if she does not, a subjective perception of injustice is felt and malicious envy may arise (Smith, Parrott, Diener, Hoyle, & Kim, 1999a; Smith et al., 1994; Van de Ven et al., 2011).

Some scholars have argued that benign envy should not be considered as pure envy (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007; Rawls, 1971; Schoeck, 1969; Silver and Sabini, 1978). Benign envy may lack hostile feelings that are essential for the “envy proper” definition, so it may be described as “closer to admiration and longing” (Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 49). However, many authors consider benign envy as a subtype of envy (Belk, 2011; Crusius & Lange, 2014; Foster et al., 1972; Neu, 1980; Parrott, 1991; Van de Ven et al., 2009; Ven, 2016). Following this view, we believe that there is a general type of envy with essential conditions that elicit the emotion, and two subtypes, benign and malicious, that may provide a more detailed level of the emotion and may occur simultaneously.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Our theoretical framework depicts some essential conditions of general envy, motivations that divide the emotion into two subtypes, envy coping strategies that drive consumption and the resulting positive and negative consequences. A series of propositions is also offered to provide insights for future studies in the consumption context. Figure 1 illustrates the relations to be discussed.

Antecedents

Upward social comparison.

Envy starts with an upward social comparison, when one notices that someone else has a desired advantage (Parrott, 1991; Smith et al., 1999). Individuals compare themselves to assess their own abilities and opinions, self-evaluation processes are accomplished by comparisons with others and social comparisons are mainly with those perceived as similar or slightly superior (Festinger, 1954). The more similar the compared one is to the person, the more intense are expected to be the comparison and the envy feeling if the other one is superior (Festinger, 1954; Salovey & Rodin, 1984). For envy to arise, not only the compared person should be similar or slightly superior on characteristics related to the comparison, but also the desired advantage should be important to the self, so people envy what they value (Lazarus, 1991; Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Smith, 2000;
Tesser 1991). For example, an actress may compare herself to another one when both are auditioning to a movie, and may become envious if the other gets the part that she desperately wanted to play.

**Sense of inferiority**

From an upward social comparison, a person may realize that a close one is better than her in something that she values, and a complex range of emotions may be produced, which may be positive experiences, such as admiration and inspiration, or negative ones, such as envy and shame (Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Smith, 2000; van de Ven, 2015). When a person makes a self-evaluation comparing herself to another and recognizes that the other is superior in something that she lacks, she may analyze this deficit as self-caused; which may decrease self-esteem giving rise to feelings of inferiority, eliciting discontent and frustration, and provoking envy (Festinger, 1954; Parrott & Smith, 1993; Smith et al., 1999).

According to social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Wood, 1989), people select others who have similar characteristics related to the aspect under comparison to compare themselves. However, we propose that the more similar the characteristics in a variety of domains between a person and a compared other are, and the more related these are to the comparison, the stronger will be a sense of inferiority resulted from an upward social comparison. When an actress loses a movie part to another actress and starts a comparison process, the more similarities she perceives between both, more likely her self-esteem will decrease. If she perceives that both have similar acting experience, the same type of personality, similar age, race and sex, and even look like each other, having similar characteristics necessary to play the part, the more likely she will start questioning herself “why does she have it and not I?” and/or “What am I doing wrong?” She may not find any differences between their characteristics to justify why the other actress is superior and has this coveted part, and a sense of inferiority will emerge. So, the following proposition is posited:

**Proposition 1:** In an upward social comparison, the more similarity (concerning characteristics in a variety of domains that are related to the comparison object), the more likely a sense of inferiority will arise in the one who makes the comparison (and who perceives him/herself as inferior).

**Sense of Ego Threat**

In the self-evaluation maintenance model (SEM), when one feels inferior on an important characteristic to one’s self-concept to another, the closer the other person, the greater will be the threats to self-evaluation, being outperformed by a close one results in greater arousal than by a distant other (Tesser, Millar, & Moore, 1988). Students in the same classroom frequently compare their grades and presentations with each other; a student comparing her performance with an outstanding achievement of another student may start perceiving her work as low, affecting her self-evaluation and making her feel worse about herself. As envy arises from an upward social comparison, ego threat is a critical element of the emotion (Lamberton et al., 2013); when a person compares herself with another and an unfavorable comparison emerges, the other becomes “superior” in the desired compared aspect, and as a sense of inferiority may arise with a decrease in self-esteem, she becomes “inferior”, and a gap between herself and the other may be created with a sense of ego threat. The higher the degree of inferiority a person feels about another that has a desired advantage, the bigger will be the gap between them and more likely she will feel a sense of ego threat. Thus:

**Proposition 2:** When a person perceives that a superior other has a desired comparable advantage and she feels inferior, the relationship between sense of inferiority and sense of ego threat will be positive.

**Types of envy**

General envy is a discrete emotion which in a higher level is “the pain over good fortune of others” (Aristotle, 350BC/1954). It starts with an upward social comparison and with the recognition that a similar other is superior in a desired advantage, evolving to a sense of inferiority and a sense of ego threat (Lamberton et al., 2013; Parrott, 1991; Smith et al., 1999; van de Ven et al., 2015). If the person thinks that the envied peer does not deserve the desired advantage and starts resenting the unfairness, a subjective perception of injustice may occur, generating hostile affective behaviors toward the envied one, as anger and ill will, giving rise to a more detailed level of the emotion: the malicious envy (Smith et al., 1994; Smith et al., 1999). The perception that the envious person has of the deservingness of the envied one is essential to determine which subtype of envy is elicited (Van de Ven et al., 2011). Benign envy is more likely to occur when one thinks that the envied one deserves
the advantage, and malicious envy occurs when she does not. We agree that there are two subtypes of envy; however, we propose that there are situations that they may occur simultaneously. For example, a person with benign envy toward a friend’s fit body, may be motivated to improve herself and start exercising, she may also think that it is unfair that her friend may have a genetic predisposition to build muscles, which may elicit malicious envy. But this perception may not be strong enough to reduce the benign envy and its coping strategy of self-improvement to malicious envy and ill will; she may still be motivated to have a fitted body driven by benign envy, even still thinking that it is unfair that her friend easily builds muscles. So, the following propositions are suggested:

**Proposition 3:** The higher the subjective perception of injustice, the more strongly malicious envy will arise.

**Proposition 4:** Under conditions of subjective perception of injustice, both benign and malicious envy occur simultaneously, if malicious envy is not strong enough.

**Coping strategies**

Regardless the type of envy a person is feeling, she may be motivated to reduce the pain of the negative emotion and to decrease the gap between herself and an envied other, developing coping strategies. These strategies may vary and lead to a constructive or destructive motivation; benign envy may drive individuals to improve themselves to “level up” buying products, and malicious envy may drive harming behaviors to pull the envied one down or to choose alternative options aiming social differentiation (Belk, 2011; Lambert et al., 2013; Van de Ven et al., 2009; Van de Ven et al., 2011). Benign envy of other’s possessions drives consumption (Belk, 2011), which may bring positive and negative consequences as will be detailed next. However, benign envy may also reduce consumption in some situations, especially regarding coveted superior qualities or achievements of others. For example, a compulsive consumer who buys far beyond her means (O’Guinn & Faber, 1989) may feel benign envy not toward other’s possession, but toward a frugal friend lifestyle and may be motivated to improve herself by reducing her consumption habits. So, when consumers feel benign envy of others’ possessions, superior qualities or achievements, they are more likely to improve themselves to reduce the gap between their inferiority and the envied others’ superiority. So,

**Proposition 5:** When consumers feel benign envy of others’ possessions, they are more likely to improve themselves by acquiring possessions.

**Proposition 6:** When consumers feel benign envy toward others’ superior qualities or achievements, they are more likely to improve themselves by acquiring possessions only if such acquisition helps them to achieve the desired advantage. In contrast, if the desired advantage requires fewer possessions, they are more likely to improve themselves by reducing acquisitions (for example, in cases when consumers envy those who achieved frugality status).

A malicious envious consumer may be motivated to pull the other down with hostile behaviors or may turn to social differentiation as a coping strategy to reduce the negative emotion. Social differentiation occurs when in a competition or comparison, someone else is better off in a decisive aspect; to be different, a consumer seeks out an alternative option searching for some new criteria to outperform the superior one (Lemaine, 1974). Van de Ven et al. (2011) found that when an envied other was described as owing an iPhone, those who felt malicious envy were willing to pay more to buy a Blackberry. For example, instead of buying an envied Adidas shoe that a friend has, a consumer may buy a New Balance shoe to differentiate herself aiming “originality” (Lemaine, 1974) or “coolness” (Belk, Tian & Paavola, 2010). Thus:

**Proposition 7:** Alternative product consumption reduces malicious envy toward others’ possessions, for those seeking social differentiation.

**Consequences**

The benign envy coping strategy of self-improvement may bring positive and negative consequences to an envious person. If a benign envious person wishing what the other owns, acquires the desired object, she reduces her envy and increases happiness (Ackerman, Macllnis, & Folkes, 2000). However, if she struggles to buy the desired object to improve herself, negative consequences may arise such as consumer debt or overwork. Wooten et al. (2011) discuss that although benign envy is free of hostile feelings, it may bring harm for consumers making them more vulnerable, especially low income ones. Some scholars argue that the acquisition of goods and emulation of others’ consumption habits may develop unhappiness (Belk, 1985; Belk, Ger, & Askegaard, 2003). We believe that when one experiences a negative emotion as envy, a state of impermanence is established and coping strategies are produced to reduce the unpleasant feeling, and the most positive consequence of these strategies is the cease of the emotion. But if this positive consequence brings further negative consequences to the envious person, we consider the final outcome as a negative one and not positive. Thus, we propose:

**Proposition 8:** When consumers feel benign envy, consumption has positive consequences (only when the consumption of a desired possession does not bring personal negative consequences and reduces the envy feeling).

**Proposition 9:** When consumers feel benign envy, consumption has negative consequences (only when the consumption of a desired possession requires strong sacrifices, e.g.; excessive debt, bringing personal negative consequences, even when the envy feeling is reduced).

The malicious envy coping strategy of alternative product choices may also bring positive and negative consequences to an envious person. Following the same reasoning of self-improvement, if one buys an alternative product that does not bring further negative consequences, we may say that consumption of an alternative option of an envied product brings positive consequences to an envious person. But, if a person envying a friend’s Prada sunglasses buys an alternative option that causes herself harm (such as a counterfeit Prada option), negative consequences emerge. Accordingly, the following propositions are projected:
Proposition 10: When consumers feel malicious envy and consider alternative product choices, consumption has positive consequences (only when the consumption of an alternative product does not bring personal negative consequences and reduces the envy feeling).

Proposition 11: When consumers feel malicious envy and consider alternative product choices, consumption has negative consequences (only when the consumption of a desired possession requires strong sacrifices, e.g., excessive debt, bringing personal negative consequences, even when the envy feeling is reduced).

The most probable negative outcome of envy occurs when malicious envy motivates hostile behaviors resulting in negative consequences for the envious person and/or the envied other. This is envy in its pure form, a painful feeling that someone has something that one is unable to obtain, resulting in a wish that the other loses it, probably leading to hostile behaviors (Epstein, 2003; Schimmel, 2008; Smith & Kim, 2007). In this situation, envy is directed to the envied person, there is no consumption involved in the emotion coping process. This hostile nature of envy brings various negative consequences: some envious people spend their own money to hurt other people (Oswald & Zizzo, 2001), feel pleasure when the envied one suffers (Smith et al., 1996), and may suffer from mental health disorders, such as depression (Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Smith et al., 1994).

FINAL REMARKS

Though envy is a negative emotion and unpleasant experience, with feelings of inferiority and a sense of ego threat, its coping strategies may lead to constructive or destructive motivations resulting in positives or negatives consequences for envious consumers as presented in our framework and propositions. In our contemporary society, consumers are constantly tempted by envy, especially nowadays where online social networks promote social comparisons. So, it is critical to understand this construct from a consumption perspective and its positive and negative consequences to consumers. Envy has a powerful influence in everyday social interactions and in shaping societal norms, and its effects on consumption need to be further explored (Miceli and Castelfranchi, 2007; Smith & Kim, 2007). Our framework is comprehensive in that it integrates antecedents, types, coping strategies and consequences of envy, and our propositions attempt to provide a starting point for future inquiry and to instigate researchers to study this emotion in a consumption context. And maybe, with a deeper understanding of this condemned and hidden negative emotion, we can better educate ourselves and other consumers, to recognize and acknowledge envy feelings, to be able to transform them in positive consequences for consumer’s well-being.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was conducted during a scholarship supported by CAPES – Brazilian Federal Agency for Support and Evaluation of Graduate Education, at EAESP-FGV.

REFERENCES


Ven, N. (2016). Envy and its consequences: Why it is useful to distinguish between benign and malicious envy. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 10*(6), 337-349.


The Impact of Consumer Mood on Use of Mobile Payment

Sahar Karimi, University of Liverpool Management School, UK
Yu-Lun Liu, Coventry University, UK

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Current studies of m-payment usage have predominantly focused on the technology acceptance model (TAM). Although TAM’s antecedent constructs (e.g., ease of use and usefulness) can shed light on the adoption of m-payment services, they do not adequately explain consumers’ usage behaviour. Therefore, other factors that can explain m-payment adoption behaviour of consumers should be examined (Djamashba et al., 2010). Drawing on the Mood-Behaviour Model (MBM), proposed by Gendolla (2000), we suggest that affective states of consumers can influence their m-payment adoption by having a) an informational impact and b) a directive impact. Mood is, therefore, a strong determinant of consumer usage behaviour that could be evoked by retailers to increase penetration of m-payment services.

Mood is a long-lasting affective state that can be associated with a positive or negative valence (Biss, et al., 2010). Compared to emotions and feelings, moods are more holistically experienced and are not affective reactions to specific events (Gendolla, 2000). Prior research (e.g. Djamashia et al., 2010) has demonstrated that moods have significant effect on individuals’ cognitive processing and can effectively influence their decisions and reactions. According to the mood-behaviour model (MBM), moods can have two types of impact on human behaviour: informational and directive impacts (Gendolla, 2000). The informational impact of mood changes the behaviour by influencing judgments. People use their mood as an input to their decision making by asking themselves how they feel about a decision problem (Schwarz and Clore, 1983). Directive impact of the mood, on the other hand, influences behavioural preferences by triggering hedonic motives. In this situation, people who are hedonically oriented seek to maintain their positive mood and repair a negative mood by changing their decisions and behaviour. Therefore, mood affects actions by influencing cognitive processing and hedonic motivations in individuals. It is able to prompt certain behaviour in consumers such as their m-payment usage intention.

Positive mood leads to a more optimistic evaluation and assessment of expectations and has a positive influence on intention to adopt a new technology (Djamashia et al., 2010). Consequently, positive mood can enhance consumers’ intention to use m-payment as they will assess its value more optimistically, while negative mood may decrease the willingness of using m-payment. However, moods can affect individuals differently (Salovey et al. 1995). This research considers two individual characteristics of decision-making style and shopping gratification motives that closely relate to the two impacts of mood.

Consumer’s decision-making style may be a factor that moderates the effect of mood on m-payment adoption. Schwartz et al. (2002) propose that individuals have different maximisation tendencies and can be classified into maximisers or satisficers. Maximisers are careful decision-makers and engage with intensive cognitive processing; they cautiously weigh and evaluate the information. Satisficers do not spend as much time and effort on information evaluation (Karimi et al., 2015) and tend to use heuristics (Liu et al., 2016) that simplify their choice behaviour such as instincts and feelings. They are inclined to use what they feel as information in order to make a decision. Therefore, satisficers are more affected by informational mood impacts, compared with maximisers.

On the other hand, directive impact of mood suggests that individuals are motivated to sustain positive and avoid negative affective states (Gendolla, 2000). They perform certain behaviour to serve this purpose. However, not all consumers have the same level of motivation to maintain or repair their mood. The Uses and Gratification (U&G) theory proposes that the level of gratification affects an individual’s motivation towards an action. In a purchase situation, ‘gratification shopping motives’ refer to purchase related behaviour that help consumers to escape from a negative state (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). Consumers, who are high in level of gratification shopping motives, have a stronger motivation to release their tension when experiencing negative mood. This leads to prompting a behaviour that can repair their mood. Provoked behaviour can simply act as a distraction from the negative mood (Wegener and Petty 1994). The decision to use m-payment, an opportunity to distract the consumer from negative feelings, can be used as a way to repair their mood. This research examines a three-way interaction between mood valence, consumer decision-making style and level of gratification shopping motives.

A scenario-based experiment has been designed to examine the impact of mood valence on m-payment adoption and to explore the moderating effects of decision-making style and gratification shopping motives. A pre-test with 30 participants verified the experimental manipulations (mood valence). The study was conducted with a sample of 125 participants (68 male and 57 female) in September 2016. Participants were randomly assigned to a positive mood or negative mood scenario and their individual characteristics (i.e. decision-making style and gratification shopping motives) were measured using previously developed scales (Dalal et al., 2015 and Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). After experiencing the mood manipulation, they were asked about their intention to use m-payment for paying their order.

Results indicate that consumers’ mood alters their m-payment usage intention. The effect of mood varies according to customer’s decision-making style and gratification shopping motive. Satisficers are demonstrated to be influenced by the informational impact of mood; they use their mood as information when making decisions. On the contrary, maximisers are influenced by the directive impact of mood; they try to repair their negative feelings through the choices. Findings suggest that mood state is an influential variable that should not be ignored and underestimated when examining m-payment usage decisions.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

More than 80% of new product introductions are extensions (Simms 2005). Brand extensions are cheaper to develop and far less risky than radically new products (Keller 2003). An extension’s success or failure depends in part on how it is positioned and, if the extension is introduced globally, how it is received across multiple cultures.

An extension can be positioned as an exemplar fit—“the level of consistency between a brand extension and an existing product of the brand”—or a prototype fit—“the level of consistency between a brand extension and the generalized imagery of the brand” (Mao and Krishnan 2006, p. 42). Which of these two positionings is more likely to succeed depends on the accessibility of existing brand associations (e.g., the concrete image of the baby shampoo bottle versus the prototypical softness of Johnson & Johnson products) held in the target customer’s memory (Ng and Houston 2006). The answer may lie in the customer’s cultural background, which governs a person’s self-view or self-construal (Ahluwalia 2008; Monga and John 2007). Self-construal is how one sees oneself with respect to others (Markus and Kitayama 1991). North Americans generally have an independent self-construal, which means they tend to perceive themselves as separate and unique from others. East Asians, on the other hand, tend to define their selves as “inextricably and fundamentally embedded within a larger social network” (Gardner, Gabriel, and Lee 1999, p. 321) of roles and relationships, in line with their interdependent self-construal.

Self-construal predisposes people to process information in a characteristic way, such that certain types of information are more salient and readily accessible in memory. Consequently, they should be more receptive to a particular type of extension—either prototype- or exemplar-based. In view of the staggering size of brand extension efforts—both the number of extensions and the costs associated with them—and failure rates of 50% to 60% (Vasek 2002), these issues are of pivotal strategic importance. Resolving them could not only shape an extension’s introduction strategy, including the choice of extension type (exemplar versus prototype) but also pinpoint the markets where an extension type is more likely to succeed.

We study the interaction between the extension type and the customers’ cultural background as manifest in self-construal. Noting differences in the characteristic modes of cognition across people with different self-construals, we expect that failure or success of an extension redound only on the attitude toward the parent brand for independents, but it affects the most accessible exemplar (flagship product) for interdependents.

RESULTS

The results of Study 1 demonstrate that the dilution of overall attitude toward the parent brand and the most accessible exemplar of the brand depend on the accessibility of brand associations. For independents, the prototype associations were more accessible than the exemplar associations, resulting in dilution of only attitude to the brand, $A_b$. For interdependents, the greater accessibility of the exemplar associations led to the dilution of only attitude to the exemplar, $A_{ex}$. Effect sizes in both studies are large (Cohen 1988) suggesting that self-construal had a very strong impact on $A_b$ and $A_{ex}$.

Moreover, consistent with Ahluwalia and Gürhan-Canli (2000), the results of Study 1 also showed in conditions of high accessibility—when the parent brand and the exemplar were evaluated immediately after getting exposed to the extension news—it was only the valence of the extension news (negative) and not the nature of the extension failure (prototype versus exemplar-based) that participants considered for evaluative purposes. Consequently, the negative impact of extension failure did not vary with the nature of extension.

In Study 2, also, the most accessible brand associations drove the evaluation process. Consequently, the greater accessibility of the prototype associations for independents led to the enhancement of only attitude toward the parent brand. In contrast, for interdependents, the greater accessibility of the exemplar associations led to the enhancement of only attitude toward the most accessible exemplar of the brand—its flagship product. The significant effect sizes measured by Cohen’s $d$ were greater than .8 ("large" effects, Cohen 1988, p. 22) and mirrored the brand dilution results from Study 1.

IMPLICATIONS

Results attest to the role of brand association accessibility in brand dilution and enhancement. The findings of both these studies follow a similar pattern, with the most accessible brand association determining the negative (dilution) and positive (enhancement) effects of extension failure and success. The significant effects in both studies were large in magnitude, which suggested that self-construal was a major determinant of participants’ evaluations of the parent brand and the flagship product.

We also found that information about the failure of an extension had a greater impact on the evaluation of the parent brand and the flagship product than information about the success of an extension. This result is consistent with previous findings—that is, negative information is more diagnostic or informative than positive information (Fiske 1980; Maheswaran and Meyers-Levy 1990). It is also interesting to note that the extent of dilution (enhancement) of the parent brand for independents was similar to the dilution (enhancement) of the flagship product for interdependents. Thus, the differential accessibility of the abstract and concrete associations of a brand across forms of self-construal not only determined the pattern of the reciprocal effects of extension failure (success) but also the magnitude of the effects; the most accessible representations—parent brand versus the flagship product—underwent similar levels of dilution (approximately 35% on average) and enhancement (approximately 23% on average).

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The decision by companies to reintroduce previously discontinued products is typically motivated by a desire to capitalize on the nostalgic appeal and lingering equity of their brands while mitigating the cost associated with developing new products. Brown, Kozinets and Sherry Jr. (2003) define this activity as retro-marketing. Although this strategy is becoming increasingly prevalent, academic interest in retro marketing has been sparse and largely conceptual in nature. It is thus important in the first instance, to examine the factors related to the discontinuation aspect of this activity, such as switching costs, the quality of the discontinuation implementation process and product type, which can significantly affect retro-marketing success but have not been examined in detail. Additionally, this study applies the appraisal theory of emotion to demonstrate how consumers’ emotional responses to product discontinuation affect their purchase intentions for the brand upon re-launch.

Appraisal theory suggests that emotions are referent and arise when evaluative judgments are made about the relevance of an event or incident to one’s personal wellbeing or after processing personally relevant information (Frijda, 1993). In any given situation an individual’s emotional response and resulting behavioral outcome is based on two main processes; (1) the antecedents of the appraisal process (prior knowledge and experiences) and (2) the appraisal of personally relevant information (the degree of goal congruence, agency, normative/moral compatibility and goal importance). Therefore, personally relevant elements of the retro-marketing process such as switching costs, the quality of the discontinuation implementation process and the type of product involved are likely to be assessed by customers, which would inform their resulting emotional and behavioral reactions.

Switching costs can be defined as the various costs involved in changing between alternatives (Heide & Weiss, 1995) and can be grouped into three categories, namely continuity, learning, and sunk costs. When switching costs are perceived to be substantial, consumers will respond more negatively to the discontinuation of the product because they are likely to feel as though they are being punished rather than rewarded for their continuous loyalty by having their benefits removed (continuity costs) and have to engage in extensive search and evaluation (learning costs). As a result it was expected that:

Hypothesis 1: Higher perceived switching costs lead to a stronger negative emotional response by consumers to product discontinuation.

The hypothesized effect of switching costs is likely to be moderated by the quality of the implementation process. According to Homburg, Fürst and Prigge (2010) this is the degree to which customers perceive that the firm has considered the impact on consumers when discontinuing a product. Failure to do so leads to a significant psychological costs that strain the company-customer relationship. Therefore, improving this process allows the company to offset the costs associated with product discontinuation and moderate the negative emotions experienced by consumers.

Hypothesis 2: The quality of the discontinuation implementation process moderates the relationship between perceived switching costs and a consumer’s emotional response.

Product type was also expected to influence consumer response because hedonic products are generally more affect-rich in nature and provide a greater sensory appeal as compared to utilitarian products which are consumed mainly for functional purposes. Additionally, hedonic products are associated with higher anticipation utility suggesting a greater expectation to consume these types of products (Lowenstein, 1987). Violation of this expectation due to discontinuation will therefore negatively affect consumers’ emotions since it is contrary to their emotional desires. This led to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Discontinuation of hedonic products elicits a stronger negative emotional response than discontinuation of utilitarian products.

Since emotional response has been shown to influence thinking, judgment and decisions (Forgas, 2003), negative emotions arising from product discontinuation were thought to reduce consumers’ desire to remain loyal to the organization and the probability of purchase on re-introduction. We thus anticipated that efforts by the firm to persuade customers to purchase the discontinued product when reintroduced were likely to be less successful when directed at customers who were emotionally traumatized by the product’s removal. As such, the following relationship was hypothesized.

Hypothesis 4: The more negative consumers’ emotional response after product discontinuation, the lower their purchase intention on reintroduction of the product.

Data was collected via a survey randomly administered to 200 adult shoppers in face-to-face mall intercepts. Respondents were asked to identify a discontinued product that they were previously loyal to and indicate their emotional reactions after discontinuation and how likely they were to purchase the product if it was reintroduced. The products identified by respondents were classified by the researchers as either hedonic or utilitarian based on the extent to which the discontinued product was purchased for its functional usefulness (utilitarian) or its experiential value (hedonic product). The survey also included several questions to ascertain the perceived quality of the implementation process and switching costs faced by consumers. Information on consumer brand loyalty and demographics was recorded in order to control for the influence of these possible confounding factors.

Switching costs were found to be a strong predictor of the negative emotions experienced by customers ($\beta=-.56$, $t=-9.544$ and $p=.000$). However, the strength of this relationship was moderated by the quality of the discontinuation implementation process ($\beta=-.175$, $t=2.573$ and $p=.011$) to the extent that negative emotions experienced were not as strong when the quality was perceived to be high. These findings were consistent for both utilitarian and hedonic products. Counter intuitively, however, the negative emotions experienced due to product discontinuation and its associated switching costs only served to strengthen the consumers’ purchase intention upon reintroduction ($\beta=.45$, $t=7.149$ $p=.000$).

Our findings suggest that negative emotions associated with discontinuation may eventually be overshadowed by the positive emotions evoked by the brand’s reintroduction. This supports the
view that brand attachment is a strong predictor of both current and future purchase intentions (Esch, Langner, Schmitt & Geus, 2006).

REFERENCES
Impact of the Attractiveness of a Shopping Center in the Consumer Satisfaction: The Moderator Role of the Motivations and the Frequency of Visits
Ma Margarita Orozco-Gómez, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Eva M. González, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Josep Rialp, Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona, Spain

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
The continuous rise of shopping centers (SC) competition in Latin America has increased the pressure to attract new consumers, and to preserve actual customers. Previous marketing studies suggest that, in order to attract customers and obtain greater profitability, the SC must generate a fulfilling experience (LeHew, Burgess, and Wesley, 2002) and relevant differentiation (Kasulis and Lusch, 1981; Williams, Slama, and Rogers, 1985). The literature suggests that positive experiences generate satisfaction, and consumer satisfaction translates into loyal customers.

The purpose of this study is to analyze how SC attractiveness impacts consumers’ satisfaction. In addition, it is important to know if this relationship can be moderated by other factors such as the frequency or the motivations that the consumers have to visit the SC. In order to achieve these objectives, we started with a deep review of the literature to define theoretical concepts such SC attractiveness (Orozco-Gómez, 2016), customer satisfaction in terms of SC (Burns and Neiser, 2006; Terblanche and Boshoff, 2006), as well as the motivations to visit (Babin, Darden, and Griffin, 1994; Bellenger, Robertson, and Greenberg, 1977; Patel and Sharma, 2009), and frequency of visit (Iksuk, Christiansen, Feinberg, and Choi, 2005; Kuruvilla and Ranjan, 2008; Roy, 1994).

Specifically, the hypotheses that were tested in this study are the following:

Hypothesis 1: The SC attractiveness has a positive impact on its consumers’ satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: The impact of the SC attractiveness on its consumers’ satisfaction is higher in hedonic consumers than in utilitarian ones.

Hypothesis 3: The impact of SC attractiveness on its consumers’ satisfaction is higher in those consumers who have higher frequency of visits.

A national sample of 1,033 Mexican SC consumers participated in the study; an electronic questionnaire was distributed in January 2015. Data was processed using IBM SPSS Statistics and IBM SPSS Amos.

The hypotheses were supported by a multi-group structural equation model (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). Reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012; Fornell and Larcker, 1981), and tests on discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), of the data were also conducted. Additionally, the fit of the measurements and structural models for attractiveness and satisfaction were evaluated using the following criteria: chi-square, normalized chi-square, GFI, IFC, NFI and RMSA. Finally, the invariability of the measurement model across customers groups was also tested, hedonic vs utilitarian and high vs low frequency of visits (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). (See Table1 for details)

The SC attractiveness dimensions are presented in Figure 1, where the results indicate positive and significant standardized factor loadings for all of them. Starting with atmosphere (0.838), followed by offer (0.769), service (0.769), and entertainment (0.745). Subsequently, H1 is supported, the SC attractiveness is positively related with consumer satisfaction (0.707***).

Table 1: Measurement invariance test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Model Chi²</th>
<th>Δd.f.</th>
<th>ΔChi²</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>NFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sc-attractiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal form</td>
<td>440.004 170</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal factor loadings</td>
<td>456.203 180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the multi-group structural model indicate that the difference between the structural model with equal factor loadings and the structural model of equal structural loadings are significant for both variables, motivations for visiting (ΔX² = 35.00, Δdf = 4, p <0.001) and frequency of visits (ΔX² = 12,513, Δdf = 4, p <0.05). Thus, SC attractiveness has a greater impact on hedonic consumer’s satisfaction than utilitarian (t = 3.824, p <0.001), which supports H2. In the same way, results indicate that the impact of a SC attractiveness was higher for consumers who visit frequently SC than for those who visit it less frequently (t = -2.753, p <0.01). These results support H3. Table 2 presents the results of the multi-group structural model in detail.

Figure 1: Structural Model

The continuous rise of shopping centers (SC) competition in Latin America has increased the pressure to attract new consumers, and to preserve actual customers. Previous marketing studies suggest that, in order to attract customers and obtain greater profitability, the SC must generate a fulfilling experience (LeHew, Burgess, and Wesley, 2002) and relevant differentiation (Kasulis and Lusch, 1981; Williams, Slama, and Rogers, 1985). The literature suggests that positive experiences generate satisfaction, and consumer satisfaction translates into loyal customers.

The purpose of this study is to analyze how SC attractiveness impacts consumers’ satisfaction. In addition, it is important to know if this relationship can be moderated by other factors such as the frequency or the motivations that the consumers have to visit the SC. In order to achieve these objectives, we started with a deep review of the literature to define theoretical concepts such SC attractiveness (Orozco-Gómez, 2016), customer satisfaction in terms of SC (Burns and Neiser, 2006; Terblanche and Boshoff, 2006), as well as the motivations to visit (Babin, Darden, and Griffin, 1994; Bellenger, Robertson, and Greenberg, 1977; Patel and Sharma, 2009), and frequency of visit (Iksuk, Christiansen, Feinberg, and Choi, 2005; Kuruvilla and Ranjan, 2008; Roy, 1994).

Specifically, the hypotheses that were tested in this study are the following:

Hypothesis 1: The SC attractiveness has a positive impact on its consumers’ satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: The impact of the SC attractiveness on its consumers’ satisfaction is higher in hedonic consumers than in utilitarian ones.

Hypothesis 3: The impact of SC attractiveness on its consumers’ satisfaction is higher in those consumers who have higher frequency of visits.

A national sample of 1,033 Mexican SC consumers participated in the study; an electronic questionnaire was distributed in January 2015. Data was processed using IBM SPSS Statistics and IBM SPSS Amos.

The hypotheses were supported by a multi-group structural equation model (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). Reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012; Fornell and Larcker, 1981), and tests on discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), of the data were also conducted. Additionally, the fit of the measurements and structural models for attractiveness and satisfaction were evaluated using the following criteria: chi-square, normalized chi-square, GFI, IFC, NFI and RMSA. Finally, the invariability of the measurement model across customers groups was also tested, hedonic vs utilitarian and high vs low frequency of visits (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). (See Table1 for details)

The SC attractiveness dimensions are presented in Figure 1, where the results indicate positive and significant standardized factor loadings for all of them. Starting with atmosphere (0.838), followed by offer (0.769), service (0.769), and entertainment (0.745). Subsequently, H1 is supported, the SC attractiveness is positively related with consumer satisfaction (0.707***).

Table 1: Measurement invariance test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Model Chi²</th>
<th>Δd.f.</th>
<th>ΔChi²</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>NFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sc-attractiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal form</td>
<td>440.004 170</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal factor loadings</td>
<td>456.203 180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the multi-group structural model indicate that the difference between the structural model with equal factor loadings and the structural model of equal structural loadings are significant for both variables, motivations for visiting (ΔX² = 35.00, Δdf = 4, p <0.001) and frequency of visits (ΔX² = 12,513, Δdf = 4, p <0.05). Thus, SC attractiveness has a greater impact on hedonic consumer’s satisfaction than utilitarian (t = 3.824, p <0.001), which supports H2. In the same way, results indicate that the impact of a SC attractiveness was higher for consumers who visit frequently SC than for those who visit it less frequently (t = -2.753, p <0.01). These results support H3. Table 2 presents the results of the multi-group structural model in detail.

Figure 1: Structural Model
From academic and managerial perspectives, the relevance of this study lies in evaluating the overall impact of a SC attractiveness on consumers' satisfaction, and the moderating role of motivations for visit and frequency of visit.

Findings suggest that the consumer who visits more frequently a SC is less difficult to be satisfied with the SC, which in terms of SC strategy, implies a higher profitability of frequent customers. Likewise, a conclusion of this study is, that a SC should be at the same time practical enough to satisfy the utilitarian needs of its consumers, and also innovative and appealing to satisfy the needs of its hedonic consumers. Therefore, a customizable experience would help to increase the satisfaction of the different segments of SC consumers.

REFERENCES


An Exploration of Competitive Spirituality in Brazilian Religions

Victoria Rodner, Fundação Getúlio Vargas, Brazil
Russell Belk, York University Schulich School of Business, Canada
Chloe Preece, University of London, UK

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the use of magic and spirit possession in a highly competitive Brazilian religious landscape involving Neo-Pentecostal, Catholic Charismatic Renewal (CCR), Spiritist and Afro-Atlantic churches. Their competing magical appeals are part of a wider shift in belief systems away from traditional Catholicism toward pneumacentric religions (centered on the spirit and faith healing) and mysticism taking place across Latin America (Chestnut, 2003). Besides organized religion, the need for magic in modern lives is apparent in medicine. Recent clinical studies have shown the power of medical faith healing on physical recovery and wellness in general (Bragdon 2012; Vance 2016). Although previous studies have explained spiritual consumption as arising in the lower classes as a means to cope with the “pathogens of poverty” (Chestnut 1997, 48; Mariz 1992), it is clear that magical discourses and practices are spreading into the middle and upper classes of Latin American society, led by celebrities, footballers, and politicians who have converted (Mariano 2004). Our paper responds to calls for further research on the consumption of religion, particularly in emerging economies (Richelieu & Korai, 2012). Although there have been other consumer research studies of Pentecostal churches (e.g., Bonsu and Belk 2010; Crocket and Davies 2016; O’Guinn and Belk 1998), little attention has been given to the magical and spirit possession aspects of these churches, which we see as key to their popularity.

Religious organizations are not immune to market forces and must compete with one another to offer more compelling packages of services and ideologies to potential consumers (see Miller 2004; Einstein 2007; Hoover 2000; Moore 1994; Roof 1999; Twitchell 2005; Shachar, et al. 2011). Berger (1967; 1969) demonstrates that churches and their belief systems must now be ‘marketed’ as commodities rather than being imposed on the consuming public. Previously Catholicism had ruled the roost across Latin America including Brazil, enjoying a largely uncontested spiritual, political, and commercial monopoly for four centuries. Introduced by the Portuguese during colonization, Brazilian Catholicism enjoyed an unrivaled authority and remains “enmeshed with national culture and society” (Chestnut 1997, 70). However, one in three Brazilians today have converted from their former faiths (Almeida 2004; 2009) in search of a more spiritually satisfying, socially relevant, and up-to-date alternative. In the resulting highly competitive religious economy we show how magic has become instrumental in precipitating this shift to pneumatic (spirit-based) churches. We demonstrate how carefully packaged magical discourses and rituals help to differentiate one supernatural belief system from another by providing solutions for specific everyday problems.

Spiritual identity is of central significance in many people’s lives, providing them with a set of beliefs, meanings, rituals, values, and community that helps them make sense of the world (Mathras et al., 2016). In the present cases spirit possession is also involved (Johnson 2014). The rapid growth of these pneumacentric religions needs unpacking and in order to do so we adopted an ethnographic approach consisting of observations, introspection and depth interviews. We found that these churches focus on two key practices -- materialization and commodification of the spirit -- in order to compete for legitimacy and power. Spirits and spiritual forces lack materiality so they must inhabit people or possessions such as clothing in order to perform their magical roles. The churches commoditize these spirits through religious paraphernalia offered for specific purposes. Afro-Atlantic churches are distinguished from their Protestant and Catholic rivals in their use of mediums and drums to work their benign (or in some cases malicious) spirit magic, invoking the agency of spirits for specific ailments and needs. In Neo-Pentecostalism and CCR, by contrast, spirit possession is always seen as the work of the Devil and therefore as an evil to be driven out through exorcism (Bledsoe 2012; Lehmann 2001). Spiritism and Afro-Atlantic religions offer individual consultations so as to diagnose spiritual, emotional, and physical afflictions. In Neo-Pentecostal and CCR services, on the other hand, individual testimonies act as evidence of the efficacy of the faith healing on offer and individual as well as collective blessings and exorcisms are carried out in the services. Evincing the instrumentality of the magic, adherents of each of these faiths are expected to pay for the healing services rendered, either through offerings or tithes. In the Afro-Brazilian faiths, clients are expected to make animal sacrifices and offer monetary and other gifts to mediums. Without their offerings, the Neo-Pentecostal and CCR adherent remains unable to access the church’s magic. The financial commitment demonstrates faith and the more you sow, the more you reap (Mulholland 2001).

The instrumentality of this magic therefore allows for more relevant, active, purpose-motivated, individual goals rather than the passive, intangible, collective, long-term goals of traditional Western religions. This is part of a more general shift from focusing on afterlife salvation to concentrating on the everyday problems of church-goers. It is also part of the appeal of these religions to the middle class. Spiritual healing provides a concrete benefit rather than offering general comfort from a higher power. Adherents are buying solutions to specific problems as a form of self-help for problems such as physical and mental illness, divorce and unemployment. When one belief system does not work, the consumer can switch to another ‘package.’ Brazilians are multifarious spiritual consumers, converting easily and often (Almeida 2004). Individualizing and commoditizing the magic provides an illusion of hope in a precarious political and economic environment. This includes money magic through the gospel of prosperity. Although the churches studied clearly compete, the Afro-Atlantic and Spiritist churches seek to empower believers who strive to be possessed by spirits, while the Neo-Pentecostal and CCR churches seek to heal by exorcizing these same spirits. One’s meat is the other’s poison. Magic is not only employed to achieve concrete, individual goals, but is also used to make the religious experience more participatory and co-created (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) rather than submitting to outside powers. As such, these religions are seen as more relevant in a contemporary consumer culture characterized by purchasable instant consumption solutions (Driessens, 2013).

REFERENCES


Peter Voyer, University of Windsor, Canada
Dave Bussiere, University of Windsor, Canada
Gokul Bhandari, University of Windsor, Canada

INTRODUCTION

Clicks are more than just computer actions – they can tell entire stories about consumers and their personalities. As consumers click through various websites, their navigation patterns are captured to form clickstreams. When these clickstreams are analyzed to measure webpage click locations and times, online consumer journey maps are formed. In this research, we apply sophisticated statistical analyses to thousands of these maps, whereby several key clusters emerge. Each cluster describes a typical consumer type – a persona – in terms of related online purchases, how/where they search for information, duration of pre-purchase activities, etc. Importantly, based on our clickstream analyses and using mathematical modeling, our research shows how we can predict future click locations.

Too many firms neglect focused CB analyses in their consumer-related decision-making. Paradoxically, while 88% of companies recognize the benefits of consumer-centrism, only 37% believe that they have the online tools needed to deliver the desired consumer experience (Silverpop 2015). The need to mine consumer insights from big data was recognized by 57.9% of US marketers as a top priority (eMarketer 2015). To assist industry, consumer researchers need to focus on: (1) enhancing detailed “understanding” of online CB; and (2) determining how to improve online consumer experience (Wedel and Kannan 2016). Recognizing that the latter depends on the former, our research enriches understanding of the online consumer by employing important, yet under-researched topics: consumer journeys, and consumer personas.

In order to enhance understanding of consumers, can we predict future clicks by using journey maps (clickstreams), and can clickstreams be used to construct consumer personas? Using the individual consumer as the unit of analysis, we address these research questions by employing big data from a major vacation travel provider accessed through the Wharton Customer Analytics Initiative. In so doing, we support the ACR’s Mission to “facilitate the exchange of scholarly information among members of academia, industry, and government worldwide.” Here, we link, conceptually, the domain of data-rich marketing with consumer-focused, big data analysis – our emphasis in this research, which is recognized as being in need of research attention (Wedel and Kannan 2016).

Consumers are met with a vast amount of online travel information as they engage in their purchase decision process (Jordan et al. 2013); 65% of American adults buy or make travel reservations online (Pew 2014). Lacking sufficient knowledge of online CB, destination marketing organisations are facing challenges in providing useful information to consumers, resulting in ineffective information management (Choi et al. 2007), and compromised consumer experience (Lemon and Verhoef 2016). To help, CB researchers must understand the online consumer (Belk 2013).

The consumer research literature is somewhat limited in detailed understanding of online CB. Recognizing this, more empirical attention is needed in order to gain insights as to how online consumer journey mapping can be leveraged to predict online behavior (captured by clicks), as well as to construct consumer personas. These areas have recently emerged as “some of the hottest trends in marketing” (Silverpop 2015, 2). Further, analysis of big data to enhance consumer experience has been identified as a pressing research priority in marketing (Ostrom et al. 2015; Lemon and Verhoef 2016). The present research represents an initial attempt to use big data consumers’ clickstreams to build personas resulting in insights into their personalities, which in turn, can enhance consumer knowledge and predict clicks.

In addressing the above research questions, this research is positioned within the CB literature on personality, specifically, the motivational research stream. Key contributions are made: understanding of online CB is enhanced; we develop consumer personas from clickstreams; we predict online behavior (clicks); and the enhanced understandings and personas can be leveraged to enhance the online consumer experience. Adopting a multi-disciplinary perspective, this research is informed by literatures from management science, CB, marketing, and psychology.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Research Setting
Considering the traditional five-stage consumer decision-making model, our analysis concentrates on three fundamental stages: (1) information search; (2) alternative evaluation; and (3) purchase decision (Javad et al. 2012; Solomon et al. 2017). We use data from an online vacation travel site in our analysis since vacation decision making is complex and often subject to budgetary constraints, as well as prior travel experience (Walsh and Gwinner 2007). Consumers’ journey maps developed through the analysis of clickstreams have the potential to yield consumer behavioral insights.

Journey Maps – Relevance to CB
Understanding consumer journeys (clickstreams) can facilitate a consumer-centric approach to marketing. The sequence of clicks that a consumer undertakes while formulating purchase alternatives ultimately forms an online consumer journey map, which captures multiple touchpoints with the firm, channels, and devices. Together, this data encompasses the multitude of steps that a consumer goes through leading to purchase (Norton and Pine 2013; Lemon and Verhoef 2016). A consumer searches for information by visiting various web pages and sites. In so doing she expands her knowledge-base, resulting in the formation of an evoked/consideration set – the suite of alternatives from which the ultimate purchase will be made. Once alternatives have been evaluated, purchase (conversion) is potentially completed. This online CB is influenced by numerous internal and external factors such as the consumer’s information processing ability (Beldona et al. 2004), as well as her past related experience and knowledge, intelligence, education, and marketing message complexity (Jaworski and MacInnis 1989).

Personas – Definition, Theoretical Basis and Relevance to CB
Consumer personas are examples or archetypes of real consumers, which enable marketers to develop marketing strategies for products aimed at the consumers who might purchase these products (Revella 2015); they serve as models of consumers (Blomquist and Arvola 2002). Observed during research, personas...
are specific descriptions that are archetypical representations of current or potential consumers, and typically include consumption patterns, motivations, goals, and likes/dislikes (Calde et al. 2002; Thoma and Williams 2009). Theoretically, personas are grounded in the motivational research stream of personality theory. Motivational research has attempted to apply Freudian ideas of personality, including psychoanalytic theory, to CB. This has included a focus on the deeper meaning of products-motive links (Dichter 1964). Relatively little dedicated scholarly CB research has been devoted to consumer personas as they relate to marketing applications, thus, reinforcing the importance of the current research in marketing and e-commerce.

**Developing Personas Using Big Data in e-Commerce**

Appropriately constructed and applied, consumer personas can be powerful tools since they are built around consumers’ purchase decisions and reveal insights into their expectations, concerns, and desires (Revella 2015). Building personas complements other CB research methods, and as Brangier and Bornet (2011) note: “there is no scientific method behind the construction of personas” (p. 40). Initially, developing consumer personas requires gathering both qualitative and quantitative data, related to consumer needs, behaviors, and preferences (Thoma and Williams 2009). This macro level, preliminary step, resulting in broad persona themes, is designed to attain a general understanding of consumers. Subsequently, these persona themes are then developed in greater detail to better understand target consumers through comprehensive descriptions (Thoma and Williams 2009). Hence, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1:** Macro level data [demographic and lifestyle, coupled with online journey mapping (clickstream locations and times)] will facilitate development of broad consumer persona themes.

As Walsh and Gwinner (2007) note, micro level, consumer-oriented, cluster analysis (as a statistical technique) has been used to better understand online CB. In fact, Rohm and Swaminathan (2004) identified four distinct online shopping personality clusters, and found that travel purchase activity varied across each of these clusters. This matching of clusters and personas is consistent with prior research suggesting that cluster analysis techniques are ideal for persona analysis and development because they identify and distinguish behavioral patterns (Thoma and Williams 2009). Thoma and Williams (2009) also posit that clickstream analysis is a suitable way to understand and validate persona themes. Hence, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 2:** Individual level online journey mapping (clickstreams that capture locations, times, return visits, and purchase decisions) will uncover broad behavioral clusters, which when combined with lifestyle data, will facilitate development of consumer personas.

**Prediction and Validation of Personas**

Prediction is critical. The persona, by virtue of its very nature, is intended to convey predictive CB to marketers (Brangier and Bornet 2011). Behavioral prediction has received considerable CB research attention. Past behavior is a good predictor of future behavior (Bentler and Speckart 1981). Knowing that online behavior is captured by clickstream information, it is reasonable to believe that future online behavior – future clicks – should be predicted by known journey maps (clickstreams) – past clicks. Knowledge of future clickstream behavior could be used to inform persona construction by providing a critical knowledge of potential future online behavior. Therefore, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 3:** Journey mapping will facilitate prediction of future clicks (clickstream behavior).

**RESEARCH DESIGN, METHOD, AND RESULTS**

Three studies were used to assess the hypotheses. Studies 1 and 2 sought to determine if online journey mapping (macro- and individual-level) could be used to develop consumer personas. Extending these ideas, Study 3 attempted to predict future clickstream behavior based on known prior clickstreams.

**Study 1 – Hitwisy Study: Macro-level Analysis**

**Aim, Data and Measures**

Our aim in Study 1 was to assess H1. We examined journey maps (clickstreams) using Experian Hitwise data, which tracks daily web traffic for 10 million Americans. Our sample consisted of data for a particular all-inclusive vacation website spanning December 2014 to January 2015 (Daily M_visit = 3217.9, SD_visit = 691.6), including clickstream and lifestyle information [M_age > 45, F = 44%, annual individual income > $60,000 (58.5% of cases)].

**Analysis and Findings**

Consumers were analyzed using the PRIZM (Potential Rating Index for ZIP Markets) geodemographic clustering system – aggregate data developed by combining US Census data with consumer surveys. PRIZM provides 40 mutually exclusive lifestyle clusters for all 36,000 US ZIP codes (for details see Burrows and Gane 2006). Upper Income Family and Mature individuals were extremely active in our focal website activity (55.79% of visits), though High Income Young Families were also active (17.48%). Our focal website visits were dominated by high earning Suburban and Town & Rural individuals (58.0%). The Urban Social group had relatively low website activity (11.96% of all traffic, across all income levels).

The top 20 websites (by traffic volume) that were visited immediately prior to our focal vacation website represented 71.86% of (our focal website) visitors, where (of this portion) 65.68% visited non-vacation-specific websites (e.g. Google). Other between-site movement focused exclusively on vacation websites. The top 20 websites visited immediately following our focal website represented 51.56% of downstream traffic, where 69.72% (of this portion) moved to non-travel sites.

**Conclusions**

This macro-level analysis supports H1. Journey mapping, combined with lifestyle data, provides general consumer persona insight (broad persona themes). This macro-level of data, however, prevents us from understanding the relationship between clickstream data and available lifestyle or demographic data. Study 2 will address this limitation.

**Study 2 – Consumer Personas: Individual-level Analysis**

**Aim, Data and Measures**

Our aim in Study 2 was to assess H2. Data from two major sources were used: an online all-inclusive vacation provider; and a financial (credit card) company. All data was accessed through the Wharton Customer Analytics Initiative. These data included 2305 individual consumers’ journey maps (each with a minimum of 10
The analysis and results

Clusters were developed using two variables: type of activity in the clicks prior to purchase (information seeking vs. alternative evaluation), and the total time between the clicks. A two-stage cluster analysis was employed since the dataset was large, and we used both categorical (activity) and continuous (time) variables (Dolnicar and Leisch 2008). A four-click history with a five-cluster structure provided the strongest result ($S(i) = 90$) and will be described next.

The analysis showed that four clusters were particularly meaningful and clickstream activity occurred within a single day. Two clusters were highly transactional – consumers actively evaluated vacation alternatives (as measured by % of total clicks devoted to vacation alternative pages vs. informational pages): Cluster A (28.1% of sample, 100% of clicks), and Cluster B (32.1% of sample, 75% of clicks). Two other clusters were less inclined to evaluate alternatives, and instead, were focused on vacation information seeking (% of clicks devoted to information yielding pages): Cluster C (25.2% of sample, 50% of clicks), and Cluster D (10.5% of the sample, 25% of clicks). Vacation information includes (for example): destination attributes, accommodation, related tourist sites, etc. A final, small cluster (0.04% of the sample) consisted of 97 consumers whose clickstream occurred over a 12 day period. This cluster displayed outlier behavior and was discarded. From the foregoing, a persona space was developed (see figure 1). Additional cluster differences coupled with lifestyle data from the financial company, were then integrated into the clusters to enhance their explanatory power with behavioral descriptions. Results yield consumer personas and are described in figure 1.

Conclusions

H2 was supported. The analyses identified statistically significant clusters, each representing a consumer persona. This supports the use of online big data as a means of analyzing consumer journey maps (clickstreams) and in turn, developing consumer personas.

Note on Cluster Analysis – Study 2:

A two-stage cluster analyses was run on two to eight click histories. The silhouette statistic, $S(i)$, is a measure of the distance within a cluster as a function of distances between clusters. Specifically: $S(i) = \frac{b(i) - a(i)}{\max\{a(i), b(i)\}}$ where $a(i)$ is the average dissimilarity of objects $i$ within the cluster, $b(i)$ is the average dissimilarity between objects $i$ and other clusters, and $-1 < S(i) < 1$. As values of $S(i)$ approach 1, the within cluster dissimilarity is very small in comparison to the between cluster dissimilarity (Rousseeuw 1987). Using the silhouette criterion of cluster quality, a four-click history with a five-cluster structure provided the strongest result ($S(i) = 90$).

Figure 1. The Behavioral Persona Space & Descriptions of Travel Purchasers (Study 2)

Cluster A: Luxury Vacationer
Profile:
- Tend to spend time and money on specific purchases (e.g., fine dining, organic grocery items, coffee, car rentals, and shopping at megastores).
- High-end purchasers who enjoy luxury travel.
- Experienced travelers, less price-sensitive than other clusters.
- Avoid store loyalty cards, furniture shopping, home construction projects, and going out to movies.
- Concerned with transactional vacation attributes such as, dates, timings, room availability, price, etc. (like Cluster B).

(28.1% of sample, 100% of clicks)

Cluster B: Cost-efficient Vacationer
Profile:
- Tend to frequent casinos and economy hotels, purchase cruise vacations and appliances, and shop at megastores.
- Frequent economy travelers who are likely more price-sensitive than other clusters.
- Experienced travelers, concerned with transactional vacation attributes such as, dates, timings, room availability, price, etc., (like Cluster A).

(32.1% of sample, 75% of clicks)

Cluster C: Family Vacationer
Profile:
- Tend to spend more time at home, spend disposable income on home TV/video services, home construction projects, and mid-range and non-fast-food restaurants – vs. other clusters.
- Avoid: fine dining, international air travel, casinos, and organic grocery stores and megastores.
- Vacation travel is infrequent and treated as a special occurrence.

(25.2% of sample, 50% of clicks)

Cluster D: Business Traveller’s Escape
Profile:
- Tend to use loyalty cards, go out to movies, eat at mid-range and non-fast-food restaurants, often buy home furnishings, lead uneventful lives centered at home, and frequently visit casinos.
- Unique consumers – engage in frequent international business travel.
- Avoid: domestic train travel, spending large amounts of money; fine dining restaurants; and coffee shops.
- Vacation travel is an irregular and regarded as a special event.

(10.5% of the sample, 25% of clicks)

Experienced Vacationers – Alternative evaluation is the dominant stage (in the consumer purchase process) for these two personas. Extensive experience allows these consumers to rapidly progress to this stage.

Infrequent Vacationers – Information seeking is the dominant stage requiring much time, and dedicated effort. Careful assessment of potential benefits, and detailed evaluation of alternatives is seminal in the purchase decision process. Importantly, for these consumers, the process of information seeking constitutes a key benefit of a vacation; planning is seen as part of the vacation fun.
Study 3 – Consumer Personas – Predicting Clickstream Behavior

Aim
To assess H3, a two-stage mathematical modeling process was developed: (1) we focused on consumer cognitive dimensions using Markov chain analyses; and (2) we focused on consumer behavioral aspects using Association analyses as a basis for developing our model.

Data and Rationale
Our sample, provided through the Wharton Customer Analytics Initiative, contained 48,170 consumer journey maps; a total of 346,297 clicks ([17,389 mobile (5%) and 328,908 non-mobile (95%)], suggesting a preference for non-mobile devices. Journey maps (clickstreams from decision making processes) possess cognitive, behavioral, and affective dimensions (Bhandari and Hassanein 2012); here we consider the first two dimensions. In typical clickstream analysis, each click is construed as an exclusive event, unrelated to the immediately preceding, and subsequent, click. In contrast, here we posit that clicks are related, and that they can be construed as possessing human-like “memory.” Using this “memory,” we suggest that it should be possible to predict the next, subsequent, click. We can understand and model consumers’ bipartite dimensions via various analytical techniques described herein.

Analysis I – Cognitive Focus
Initially we focus on predictive modeling emphasizing consumers’ cognitive dimensions using Markov chain analysis. Journeys, manifest as clickstreams, can be modelled as a Markov process (Xu et al. 2014). A Markov chain of order k is a process (\(U_i\)) such that for each \(i \geq k\) and \(v_{t+1}, \ldots, v_i\), it holds that \(Pr \{X_{t+k} = v_{t+k} | X_t = v_t, \ldots, X_1 = v_1\} = Pr \{X_{t+k} = v_{t+k} | X_{t+k-1} = v_{t+k-1}\}\) (Chierichetti et al. 2012). This model enables us to understand the cognitive dimension; we can determine if clicks have “memories.” A zero order Markov process is “memoryless,” whereas a first order process retains a “memory” from one state earlier (the previous click); a higher order can be interpreted similarly. We analyzed the clickstreams from the order of zero to five. Model goodness of fit was based on Log Likelihood (highest), AIC (Akaike’s Information Criterion – lowest), and BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion – lowest), suggesting the first order Markov process as the best model.

Findings
The top five predicted probabilities ranged from .5 to .98 when a click point is known; with these probabilities the subsequent click can be predicted. This indicates that clicking is relatively short-term (in terms of memory); consumers are guided by the immediate past. This suggests that the loss of information due to a broken chain of cookies may not be as severe as one might expect – what matters is the immediate past only. Clicks have “memories.”

Analysis II – Behavioral Focus using Association analysis
Above we considered click temporal order. Here, we use a non-temporal approach; an aggregation of clicks. Marketers use association rules for “shopping basket” analysis when researching multi-category purchases (Manchanda et al. 1999). Mathematical analytical procedures are at the Addendum – figure 1.

Conclusions
No meaningful Association rules existed for clickstream data. Implications of this finding are similar to the above Markov analysis and thus, validates it. Consumers are goal-oriented and they are not necessarily constrained by their chain of clicks. Findings suggest support for H3. Our contribution to the motivational research literature stream within the theoretical domain of personality is reinforced.

Major analytical findings are summarized in table 1.

Description of Mathematical Analysis for Analysis II – Study 3
First, we converted clickstreams into transactions. Then we ran the a priori algorithm to compute the support and confidence of the derived association rules. A brief mathematical definition of these terms (based on Tan et al. 2006) follows: let \(C = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_p\}\) be the set of all clicks in the clickstream, and let \(S = \{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_j\}\) be the set of all clickstreams. Each stream \(s_i\) contains a subset of clicks chosen from \(C\). The stream length is defined as the number of clicks present in a stream. A stream \(s_i\) is said to contain a click set \(X\) if \(X\) is a subset of \(s_i\). Support count refers to the number of streams that contain a particular click set. Mathematically, the support count, \(\sigma(X)\), for a click set \(X\) can be defined as, \(\sigma(X) = \{c_t | X \subseteq c_t, c_t \in S\}\) where the symbol \(|| \cdot ||\) denotes the number of elements in a set. The Association rule is the implementation of \(X \rightarrow Y\) where, \(X\) and \(Y\) are disjoint click sets, i.e., \(X \cap Y = \emptyset\). The strength of an association rule is measured in terms of its support and confidence which are defined as: \(Support(X \rightarrow Y) = \sigma(XUY)/\sigma(X)\); and \(Confidence, c(X \rightarrow Y) = \sigma(XUy)/\sigma(X)\). We set out to extract the Association rules using standard values for Support and Confidence such as, 30% and 80% respectively. No such rules could be found with these values. Consequently, we lowered these values until an Association rule could be found.

Outcome. Since the observed values of Support and Confidence were so low, no meaningful Association rules existed for clickstream data. This is similar to Analysis I (Markov) analysis and validates it.

GENERAL DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS
Much consumer information is captured by their clicks (web locations, times, touchpoints, etc.). Leveraging the hidden potential richness of big data, our research has shown that consumer journey maps, captured by clickstreams, can be harvested and analyzed to yield personas, resulting in robust insights into consumers’ personalities. Further, attesting to the veiled power of clickstreams, we have unlocked the predictive capability of clickstreams by showing that clicks can be thought of as possessing “memory,” and knowing this memory, future clicks can be predicted. Therefore, we can forecast future points in consumers’ online journeys, which is especially important for marketers since online shopping mainly occurs as self-directed search prior to purchase.

By predicting clicks, practitioners would be able to tap into the self-directed nature of online shopping and introduce marketing efforts to influence the consumer in a desired direction. Applied to clickstreams, our Markov chain analyses, showed that we can bridge the gap between technology/touchpoints/clicks and the consumer experience by potentially crafting specific and tailored messages to particular consumers. By providing sage, dedicated, information to the consumer during the journey process, practitioners can enhance the likelihood of purchase. This was confirmed by managers from the company that provided the data for our research, as they believe that they could use this knowledge to enhance their consumers’ online experience. Using big data isn’t a panacea. Depending on the state of data warehousing, mining from big datasets can be extremely effortful and time-consuming. Thus, as mentioned, it is important to develop automated means of tapping into big datasets. Notwithstanding, we suggest that our methodology can be extended to a variety of online contexts where clicks can be tracked.
H1: Macro level data (demographic and lifestyle, coupled with online journey mapping [clickstream locations and times]) will facilitate development of broad consumer persona themes.

Source: Experian/Hitwise:
December 2014 to January 2015
Details: (Daily \(M_{\text{visits}} = 3217.9\), \(SD_{\text{visits}} = 691.6\), including clickstream and lifestyle information [\(M_{\text{age}} > 45\), \(F = 44\%\), annual individual income > $60,000 (38.5\% of cases)].

Method of Analysis: Between Group Analysis
Main Results: H1 was supported. Journey mapping, coupled with lifestyle data, can facilitate insight into consumer personas. This macro-level data, however, prevents us from understanding the relationship between clickstream data and available lifestyle or demographic data.

H2: Individual level online journey mapping (clickstreams that capture locations, times, return visits, and purchase decisions) will uncover broad behavioral clusters, which when combined with lifestyle data, will facilitate development of consumer personas.

Source: Data from a major vacation provider was accessed through the Wharton Customer Analytics Initiative:
December 2014 to January 2015
Details: 2305 individual consumers’ journey maps (clickstreams each with a minimum of 10 clicks) spanning two months, which resulted in purchase. The clickstreams captured: type of page visited (information-oriented, option/package-oriented, etc.); time between clicks; and conversion.

Method of Analysis: Cluster Analysis
Main Results: H2 was supported. Through cluster analysis, four consumer personas were developed. Cross-tabulating those clusters with purchasing data provided meaningful personas.

H3: Journey mapping will facilitate prediction of future clicks (clickstream behavior)

Source: Data from a major vacation provider was accessed through the Wharton Customer Analytics Initiative:
December 2014 to January 2015
Details: 48,170 consumers’ journey maps; a total of 346,297 clicks [17,389 mobile (5\%) and 328,908 non-mobile (95\%)]

Method of Analysis: Markov Chain Analysis
Main Results: H3 was supported. Consumers are goal-oriented and they are not necessarily constrained by their chain of clicks. Our contribution to the motivational research literature stream within the theoretical domain of personality is reinforced.

From a scholarly perspective, our research has contributed to the CB literature on personality (the motivational research stream), by showing how clicks can be analyzed. We have demonstrated that big data clickstream analysis is a viable area of research in CB, whereby insights could accrue to the CB researcher that ordinarily would not be attainable solely through other techniques such as observation, survey, or experimentation. Thus, our research has enriched the CB discipline, as it has for marketing. Big data was recently cited in the *Journal of Marketing* as an important avenue for future research since we need to better understand how big data can be used to personalize content, give real time consumer insights, and enhance experience (Wedel and Kannan 2016). Our research has responded to this research need.

**Limitations**

Rational choice has been assumed to prevail. We did not consider affective aspects of CB, nor the influence of possible ad exposure. This research was conducted in a travel setting that included consumers from around the world. However, the nature of the dataset did not allow for geographic-specific analyses. Also, because the dataset provider standardized all times to EST, time-of-day influences could not be measured.

**REFERENCES**


eMarketer (2015), December Marketing Automation Roundup.


Can Guilt be Repaired by Consumption? 
An Experimental Analysis of Brazilian Mothers 
Suzana Valente Battistella-Lima, EAESP-FGV, Brazil 
Delane Botelho, EAESP-FGV, Brazil 

EXTENDED ABSTRACT 
In this research we propose that consumption to benefit children can become a mechanism to mitigate mother’s guilt due to feeling of being absent from the child’s life. To alleviate feelings of guilt, the individual can adopt behaviors to repair the damage caused by the transgression (Sukhdial & Boush, 2004). In the case of the mother who feels guilty, she may adopt behaviors to repair the damage she believes she has caused to her children. We hypothesize that allowing the child to influence consumer decisions is a way to grant the child a moment of fulfillment and, therefore, repair the guilt experienced. Hence, our first hypothesis is: 

Hypothesis 1: GEM experienced by the mother (GEM) (due to feeling of being absent from the child’s life) leads to greater influence of the child in buying decisions (CBD).

Meeting the child’s request (Bruner & Hensel, 1992) refers to the degree to which parents confess to buying a specific product for their children when they ask for it. We assumed that the mother’s need to repair guilt is related to the fact that she yields to her children’s requests. Thus:

Hypothesis 2: GEM leads to greater yielding to the child’s requests (YCR).

Often, the child’s requests are related to a superfluous product from the perspective of the parents; superfluous can be defined as too much, useless due to being excessive, or unnecessary. The purchase of superfluous items is related to the satisfaction of desires. Thus, the mother would seek ways to provide moments of pleasure to the child to repair guilt. Therefore:

Hypothesis 3: GEM increases the frequency the mother buys superfluous products for the child (SPC).

We propose that the relationship between GEM and YCR is moderated by the mother’s consumption style (MCS) (H2a) and by the mother’s purchasing impulsiveness (MPI) (H2b). We also propose that the relationship between GEM and SPC is moderated by the mother’s consumption style (H3a) and by the mother’s purchasing impulsiveness (H3b).

To test the hypothesis, we performed two experimental studies. Our first study tested H1, H2 and H3, as well as H2a and H3a with manipulation of GEM and MCS (mother’s consumer style) with a 2x2 between-subjects factorial experimental design. The manipulation was conducted using the projective technique. A total of 122 valid questionnaires were collected. To measure the dependent variable CBD, we adapted a scale from Foxman and Tansuhaj (1998), and YCR was measured by a five-item scale adapted from Carlson and Grossbart’s (1988). SPC was measured by one item. The second study tested hypotheses H1, H2, H3, as well as H2b and H3b, with a 2x2 (GEM high versus low; MPI high versus low), between-subjects factorial experimental design. The dependent variables were the same as those in study 1. Data was collected through online questionnaires, the link to which was sent by e-mail to a group of mothers. A total of 154 valid questionnaires were obtained. The manipulation was conducted by means of autobiographical memory, as the respondents were asked to recall a situation in which they felt guilty for being absent at some point in their children’s life. In the control condition, the mothers were asked to think about any situational routine they have with their child. The scales used for the dependent variables were the same as those in Study 1.

Both studies confirmed H1 and H2, indicating that, in the sample studied and based on the way the experiment was conducted, mothers who feel more guilty are more permissive in relation to their child’s consumption requests and allow their child to influence their consumer decision, compared to mothers that feel little to no guilt. The first study confirmed H3, indicating that on average, guilt leads the mother to buy more superfluous products for the child. There was no verifiable effect of an interaction between GEM and MPI or GEM and MCS. The results of this research demonstrate that, in the studied samples, mothers who feel more guilty are more tolerant and permissive with regard to consumer requests from their children. This confirms that guilt propels them to perform a reparatory action (Dahl et al., 2005), and that this reparation can be achieved through consumption.

Here, we have contributed to the discussion on child consumption by highlighting another factor that leads to its excess. Educating parents on the subject seems crucial, especially when purchasing out of guilt occurs unconsciously. Compensating the feeling of guilt through consumption is a solution that gives a short feeling of well-being, but this guilt soon re-emerges and new compensation will be required.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS 
This research was conducted during a scholarship supported by CNPq – Brazilian Center of Scientific and Technological Development, at EAESP-FGV.

REFERENCES 
**EXTENDED ABSTRACT**

**Introducción**

Lo que desean los clientes va más allá de las características funcionales que derivan en beneficios, el cliente busca experiencias (Schmitt, 2006); Bianchi y Mena (2008, p.20) afirman: “El futuro hará relación a la venta de experiencias, de esta forma productores y comerciantes deberán pensar más allá de las características y beneficios de los productos y servicios que está vendiendo, deberá conocer que elementos soportan o mejoran la experiencia del cliente”.

Se indaga la experiencia de compra en tiendas de barrio y supermercados dada su participación de mercado, enfocando la investigación en el estrato socio-económico 3, que hace parte de la “clase media colombiana”.

**Revisión de literatura**

Pine y Gilmore en 1999, plantean el ingreso de una nueva oferta económica, la oferta de la “experiencia”, concepto que involucró los aspectos no racionales implícitos en las transacciones, y que fueron aportados por Holbrook y Hirschman en 1982, quienes expusieron que algunas actividades de consumo se explican mejor desde la perspectiva “experiencial”.

Mascarenhas, Kassavan & Bernacchi (2006) señalan que, desde la perspectiva de mercadeo la experiencia se puede definir como: “lo que el consumidor gana, siente, aprende, memoriza y genera a partir de la acción resultante de la interacción de la empresa y el cliente”; Meyer y Schwager (2007), presentan la experiencia como la respuesta interna y subjetiva que tiene el consumidor frente a un contacto directo o indirecto con la compañía; para Verhoef et al. (2009), la experiencia es un constructo de naturaleza holística y envuelve el conocimiento, los afectos, las emociones y las respuestas físicas y sociales dirigidas al detallista.

**Los atributos de la experiencia**

Hansen y Deutscher (1977) presentan los diez atributos más relevantes y los cinco menos importantes, en una tienda por departamentos y una tienda de víveres. Para Terblanch y Boshoff (2004, 2006), la experiencia del consumidor dentro de la tienda tiene cinco dimensiones básicas; Bianchi y Mena (2008) en Chile, presentan doce atributos e identifican uno nuevo: “ambiente seguro de la tienda”.

No se registraron estudios concluyentes de la experiencia de compra en la tienda de barrio, aunque si se aborda su estudio con otros objetivos: 1) Pisani y Yoskowitz (2012), invistan la tienda en Nicaragua y Salvador, dirigiendo su atención al dinamismo, informalidad y competitividad; 2) Flexor (2014) estudia las tiendas en Río de Janeiro frente a la “revolución de los supermercados”; 3) Duhaug y Giglia (2007), resaltan la coexistencia-complementariedad de las grandes cadenas globalizadas y el micro comercio.

**Metodología**

La investigación se desarrolló desde una perspectiva mixta, aplicando 12 entrevistas, 1 grupo focal y 760 encuestas.

**Análisis y Resultados**

En la fase exploratoria se identificaron 24 atributos que conformaron el instrumento cuyos resultados fueron procesados identificando 8 componentes. En el supermercado los componentes conformados por los factores comodidad, tranquilidad y variedad explican la experiencia de compra del consumidor estudiado. Para la tienda de barrio, el componente producto y más específicamente la posibilidad de encontrar diferentes referencias (tamaños) de productos es el factor que más aporta a explicar la experiencia en este formato. En este contexto económico, en el que la capacidad adquisitiva de la clase media tiende a reducirse, la posibilidad de encontrar calidad y variedad de productos, marcadas y en especial referencias de menor tamaño de productos y marcas bien posicionadas y de calidad reconocida, es el aspecto que incide en la experiencia de manera protagónica en la tienda de barrio y de forma complementaria en el supermercado.

**Discusión y conclusiones**

Como variables que explican la experiencia del consumidor en el supermercado se señalan: variedad de productos y marcas; limpieza; orden y exhibición. Para el formato tienda de barrio, el encontrar referencias ajustadas a las necesidades del consumidor determina la experiencia en este formato. Los resultados señalan variables diferentes al precio ganando espacio en la mente de los consumidores ratificando la “nueva oferta económica” presentada por Pine y Gilmore a finales del siglo pasado.

**REFERENCIAS**


INTRODUCTION

It is an undeniable fact that, in the current context, companies from emerging countries strive to adapt to the dynamics of the environment and to compete efficiently based on the unique characteristics they possess (Gudziol, 2015). These characteristics are essential for the construction and consolidation of profitable relationships between buyers and sellers.

This paper aims to establish the main aspects considered by Colombian importers-buyers when they select their foreign suppliers and that facilitate them to consolidate profitable relationships that in the future allow them to compete with greater efficiency. We focused specifically on trade relations between Colombia (buyers / emerging country) and France (country / developed vendors). We focused specifically on trade relations between Colombia (buyers / emerging country) and France (country / developed vendors).

This article has four parts: the first one presents a review of the relevant literature; the objectives of the study and their justification presented in the second part. In the third part, we propose the hypothetical model and the respective hypotheses on the relations between the variables and the methodology to test them; and finally we explain the conclusions, future lines of research and the limitations of the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

Trust

Defined in many ways (Gefen, Karahanna and Straub, 2003). The field of relations between buyers / importers and sellers / suppliers has been extensively studied (Poon, Albaum and Yin, 2017) and particularly with regard to international marketing and business (Jiang, Henneberg and Naudé, 2011; Lander and Konning, 2013).

In addition, the literature emphasizes the importance of trust-based relationships between buyers and sellers, as Ratnasingham (2005) argues, trust is the subjective probability with which members of the organization collectively evaluate how a particular transaction will occur in accordance with their expectations of trust. The cognitive and affective components of trust (Akrout, Diallo, Akrout and Chandon, 2016) studied in the business-to-business (B2B) literature, are considered, also, in the model proposed in this study.

In the study, we also consider the definition of Wang and Huff (2007) who argue that it is crucial for sellers to gain the trust of buyers, and that trust facilitates the buyer economy in efforts to reduce uncertainty present in Cross-border transactions. According to this approach, trust consists in the willingness to trust the seller in a situation of uncertainty, based on the expectation of confidence that the seller will satisfactorily perform a major activity for the buyer.

Reputation

The complexity of the relations of exchange between seller-buyer has been rising due to the increasing degree of specialization, intensity of knowledge and service, and obviously by the complexity that permeates these relations (Nordin and Kawalkowski, 2010; Aarikka and Sakari, 2014). Reputation is an important indicator of trust in the seller-buyer relationship as it reduces uncertainty in new exchange situations while building and strengthening the relationship.

Loyalty

Loyalty refers to a deeply held commitment to rebuy a preferred product or service consistently in the future, thereby causing same-brand or same organization purchasing, despite influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching (Oliver, 1997).

Value Perception and Competitiveness

The value perceived by the customer is a crucial aspect that facilitates the forecasting of their buying behavior and attain the competitive advantage (Landroguez, Castro and Cepeda, 2013). As we have previously pointed out, companies compete in a highly dynamic and competitive environment where customers demand high levels of value added, which means that organizations must strive to create and deliver superior value to their customers (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Therefore, in this study we propose that focusing to the clients brings with it the creation of value, and accordingly will facilitate the obtaining of competitive advantage and later gains.

Ethnocentrism

Several aspects analyzed and relating to the international trade framed a markedly cultural and immersed in this sphere is ethnocentrism that has re-emerged with unusual force, as examples cited what happens today with “Brexit” and “America First”. The tendency of people to be ethnocentric represents their beliefs about the appropriateness and moral legitimacy of the purchase of foreign products (Shim y Sharma, 1987).

Conceptual framework

In the field of seller-buyer relationships, building and strengthening trust leads the seller to be more competitive vis-a-vis other market players (Ganesan, 1994). Trust facilitates, strengthening interpersonal relationships, between organizations and within the organization (Svensson, 2004), reducing transaction costs (Rousseau, 1998) and achieving high levels of loyalty that improve profitability by being an incentive for seller-buyer to work cooperatively to achieve long-term benefits for both (Kottila and Rönö, 2008).

In business and academia, it is in the interest of academics and practitioners to study interpersonal trust, which refers to the relationship between two people representing their respective companies (buyer / seller, buyer / retailer, retailer / seller, etc.). Interpersonal trust was studied as an expectation (Dwyer et al., 1987; Zaheer et al., 1998) as a partner / partner belief (Schurr and Ozanne, 1985; Kumar et al., 1995), and / or as disposition or intention of behavior (Shou et al., 2011). On the other hand, as the seller / buyer trust is strengthened, the buyer’s value perception rises. Competitiveness in the buyer-seller relationship improves as confidence builds and partners combine capabilities in order to extend competitive advantage (Hammervold and Toften, 2010). These authors also establish that as the competitive advantage grows and confidence develops the perception of value for the parties’ increases. Given the above arguments, we propose Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1: The level of trust of the relationship vendor - purchaser positively affects the perception of value of the relationship of the importer with the supplier.
On the other hand, trust in collaborative relationships greatly influences the future relationship between seller-buyer and has greater impact than fair rewards and reputation (Wagner, Coley and Lindemann, 2011).

Consequently, to the extent that the seller has a reputation, the buyer’s trust will be the same. Likewise, to the extent that the seller has a reputation, the buyer will value the existing or projected relationship. Buyers have optimistic feelings about the future of the buyer-seller relationship, as they perceive a certain degree of commitment from the parties and in particular increase the buyer’s confidence level to the extent that the perception of the seller’s reputation is high. In consequence, to the previous arguments, we propose the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 2:** Reputation of the seller is related positively with the level of trust of the relationship, perceived by the buyer.

**Hypothesis 3:** Reputation of the seller level positively affects the value of the relationship perceived by the buyer.

Likewise, companies driven by the competitive environment strive to improve their capabilities, product supply and skills to increase value for customers/buyers and shareholders (Feurer and Chaharbaghi, 1994). However, by increasing their competitiveness, companies adapt more easily to a very dynamic and demanding environment, and to achieve greater competitiveness, companies will commit more resources in the long term, which will invest in human capital and technology. In B2B relationships, reputation plays an important role in building trust in the long run, which has a solid foundation in the image of the seller, the quality of the product he sells, and the perceived value of the product (Cretu and Brodie, 2007).

In the international business context, there is great uncertainty when making transactions between parties that are unknown, which makes the process of buying and selling quite complex, this is one of the reasons why the reputation of both, the supplier and or the buyer, is of great value for the construction of reliable relationships (Aarikka-Stenroos and Makkonen, 2014). Therefore, we can propose the following two hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 4:** The degree of competitiveness of the seller company, perceived by the buyer, is positively related to perceptions of trust on the relationship by the importer.

**Hypothesis 5:** The degree of competitiveness of the seller company, perceived by the buyer, positively affects the perception of value by the importer.

Following the line of argument, the value perception of RCS affects the degree of commitment between the parties (Simpson et al., 2005), and there is empirical evidence of the positive effect of the perceived value on the degree of commitment between the parties (Barry and Terry, 2008; Ulaga and Eggert, 2006). Other authors such as Möller (2006) point to the empirical evidence of the relationship between the degree of commitment and perceived value (Möller, 2006).

The ex-ante literature emphasizes that the degree of commitment between the parties is a duration determinant of the RCS (Andaleeb, 1996; Morgan and Hunt, 1994), which will probably result in the degree of loyalty to the resulting compromise (Evanschitzky et al., 2006). Considering the aspects discussed in the previous paragraphs we propose the following hypotheses

**Hypothesis 6:** The level of trust in the seller/buyer relationship positively affects the loyalty of the importer to your provider.

**Hypothesis 7:** The perception of value in the buyer/seller relationship positively affects the loyalty of the importer to your provider.

Ethnocentric consumers prefer the products of their own country because they consider that they are better (Klein et al., 1998, Wang and Chen, 2004). The greater the importance that individuals place on production or non-production in the country of origin, the greater their ethnocentric tendency (Huddleston, Good and Stoel, 2001).

Research in developed countries shows that ethnocentric individuals overestimate the country’s products and undervalue those of foreign countries, have a preference and feel a moral obligation to buy products from the country (Sharma et al., 1995). For these reasons, it can be deduced that a buyer with a marked ethnocentrism will have a low confidence and perception of value of the foreign seller. Therefore, and taking into account what we have argued in the previous paragraphs, we propose the following hypotheses.

**Hypothesis 8:** The degree of ethnocentrism of the buyer negatively affects the trust in the relationship with the foreign seller.

**Hypothesis 9:** The degree of ethnocentrism of the buyer adversely affects the perceived value of the seller by the importer.

In consideration of the arguments raised up to this part of the discussion, we will now discuss the methodology developed.

**METHOD**

In order to test the hypotheses, a questionnaire of 53 questions was applied to 5 employees from different areas of the company in order to control the response bias, obtaining 200 valid questionnaires obtained in a database of importing companies from Colombia, and who voluntarily pledged to respond to the survey.

The model considers: “trust”, “reputation”, “commitment”, “loyalty”, “ethnocentrism”, and “perceived value” constructs. A 5-point Likert scale is used for its measurement, where 5 is “Absolutely Agree”, 4 “Agree”, 3 “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 2 “Disagree”, and 1 “Absolutely Disagree”. To test the relationship between the variables and the goodness of fit of the model (SEM) and the goodness of fit of the model we used AMOS.

However, in terms of measurement, “Trust” is measured by the scale developed by Arnolds and Reynolds (2003), and Ding, Ng and Wang (2014). “Perceived value” is measured using the 30-item scale of Gallarza-Saura (2006), Ralston (1999), Sánchez et al., 2006, and Otto and Ritchie (1996). “Competitiveness” has been measured with the 7-item scale validated by Terblanche (2014), the “Reputation” with the 2-item scale validated by Walsh and Beatty (2007), “Loyalty” is measured by the 3-item scale Morgan and Hunt (1994), and “Ethnocentrism” with the 6-item scale validated by Shimp and Sharma (1987).
RESULTS

For purposes of the hypotheses set forth, Table 1 below shows the results of the test. Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were confirmed; hypotheses 1 and 9 were not confirmed, as indicates Figure 1.

However, the reliability of the measures observed and the number of indicators per factor determine the fit of the model, which is why it is advisable to work on 200 questionnaires valid for any SEM (Jackson, 2003). The goodness of fit of the model is analyzed from several indicators: CEMIN / DF: 1,966 – close to 2,00; CFI: 0.925; IFI: 0.926, TLI: 0.912, and RMSEA: 0.07 <0.08, the above indexes are indicators of a very good adjustment (Cupani, 2012).

Table 1. Summary of statistical testing to the purposed model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Relation</th>
<th>Estimate β</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>VALUE – TRUST</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
<td>-1.541</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>not confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>REPUTATION – TRUST</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>10.134</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>VALUE – REPUTATION</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>TRUST – LOYALTY</td>
<td>0.864</td>
<td>8.385</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>COMPETITIVENESS – TRUST</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>5.113</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>LOYALTY – TRUST</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>3.611</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>VALUE – COMPETITIVENESS</td>
<td>2.187</td>
<td>2.187</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>ETHNOCENTRISM – TRUST</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>1.459</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9</td>
<td>TRUST – ETHNOCENTRISM</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The direct effect of the trust in the perceived value has not established, since the results indicated non-significant effect in their relationship. We conjecture that the perception of value by Colombian buyers (small business) is independent of the development of trust in the seller, probably because they consider other factors (i.e. low price) in a cultural media where trust in not precisely a great value (i.e. Odebrecht, an actual State corruption case in Latin America).

However, the indirect effect of trust on the perceived value through the mediation of competitiveness and reputation is evident. It indicates that the small business claims for external suppliers perceived with high level of reputation and competitiveness.

The degree of ethnocentrism of the buyer has no significant effect on the perception of the value of the seller, and this probably is because the local offer is perceived as of lesser economic value relative to foreign supply.

Latin America Advances in Consumer Research (Volume 4) / 135

Trust in the supplier/buyer and perceived value of the relationship supplier/buyer are certainly drivers for getting the loyalty of the buyer.

The model results in an important instrument to accelerate the international trade (sales) from external suppliers to small business buyer in Colombia.

For futures investigations is desirable to incorporate new variables (i.e. cost of the product, difficulty for import, number of alternatives of external suppliers, cultural distance), and conducts the study in other sizes (medium, large). In addition, it will be interesting making the investigation in other Latin-America countries.

REFERENCES


Better Safe than Sorry: Effects of Brand Hatred on Preferences for Competing Brands
Johannes Boegershausen, University of British Columbia, Canada
Anne-Kathrin Klesse, Erasmus University, Netherlands
Joandrea Hoegg, University of British Columbia
Darren W. Dahl, University of British Columbia, Canada

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Consumers frequently experience negative feelings toward brands. Indeed, research has shown that a majority of consumers have experienced negative feelings toward brands, including worry, dissatisfaction, and hatred (Fournier and Alvarez 2013; Romani, Grappi, and Dalli 2012). A recent campaign by Spirit Airlines suggests that companies are aware of such intensely negative feelings towards brands. In 2014, Spirit invited consumers to visit its website and express their hatred for Spirit or other airline brands. Spirit marketers rejoiced that “60% of the total hate [of the 30,000 consumers who participated] went to other airlines”. Presumably, Spirit’s managers believed that consumers’ hatred for competitors would be beneficial for their brand. Such a belief appears to be consistent with managerial wisdom. We contacted twenty-two restaurant managers and asked them whether their brand would profit, suffer, or be unaffected if consumers hated one of their close competitors. The majority indicated that hatred toward a close competitor would not cause their brand to suffer. Indeed, 41% believed it would be beneficial and 41% believed it would not affect their brand. This begs the question: do companies really remain unaffected or even benefit from hatred directed at their close competitors?

The current research examines how hatred toward one brand influences consumer preferences toward competing brands. Brand hatred is characterized by “intense feelings of dislike, animosity, hostility and aversion” (Matsumoto 2009, p. 230) and may result from the combination of experiences of anger, contempt, and disgust toward the hated object (Sternberg 2003). Because of these emotional markers and its negativity, the effects of brand hatred may reach beyond the focal brand that is the target of these feelings. Relative to neutral (i.e., indifference) and other negative (i.e., dissatisfaction) feelings, hatred toward a brand shifts consumer preferences for competing brands. We predict that hatred for a brand activates self-protection concerns, which in turn lead consumers to prefer competitors from a different subcategory to close competitors from the same subcategory. Thus, whether a brand profits or suffers from hatred toward a competitor depends on whether the brand is in the same or a different subcategory as the hated brand.

We test our predictions in six studies providing converging correlational and experimental evidence. Studies 1a (n = 198), 1b (n = 136), and 2 (n = 244) test our central prediction that brand hatred shifts consumer preferences for competing brands toward brands from another subcategory. Specifically, studies 1a and 1b provide correlational and experimental evidence from several industries that hatred relative to neutral feelings for one brand sways consumer choice toward a competitor from a different subcategory. Study 2 demonstrates that these shifts in consumer preferences are unique to brand hatred and do not emerge for other negative feelings toward brands such as dissatisfaction. By way of mediation and moderated mediation, studies 3 (n = 154) and 4 (n = 329) provide evidence that self-protection concerns as hypothesized in H_2 explain these shifts in consumer preferences. Specifically, study 3 shows that hatred activates self-protection concerns, which in turn result in greater purchase likelihood for the brand from the other (vs. same) subcategory. Study 4 tests the effectiveness of intervention strategies (i.e., a reputation for superior quality and money-back guarantees) that brands can employ in order to prevent being negatively impacted by consumer hatred for another brand in their subcategory. Finally, study 5 (n = 1092) provides field data to further corroborate that hatred for a brand leads consumers to eschew same-subcategory competitors. Specifically, we analyze restaurant reviews by more than 1,000 consumers from the online review portal Yelp to test how hatred-evoking dining experiences affect consumers’ propensity to return and review other restaurants from the same subcategory as the focal brand.

By demonstrating effects of brand hatred on consumer preferences for competing brands we make several contributions. First, we identify the potential of brand hatred to exert strong and predictable effects beyond avoidance of the focal object of these feelings. Brand hatred shifts consumer preferences for competing brands in choice sets that do not even feature the hated brand. We also identify self-protection concerns as a driver of consumer preferences when feelings of hatred are activated. We show that brand hatred is distinct in its tendency to produce such preference shifts for competitors. Our account of how hatred triggers self-protection concerns can deepen our understanding of how actions and corresponding perceptions of a focal brand affect other brands as demonstrated in research on brand crises.

From a practical perspective, we highlight the importance of monitoring consumer perceptions not only of a company’s own brand but also of its competitors. Our work shows that merely having a reputation for superior quality is not sufficient to prevent consumers who hate a close competitor from avoiding a brand. While a quality reputation certainly offers some protection, only marketing instruments that directly assuage consumers’ self-protection concerns enable brands to insulate themselves from hatred toward other brands in the same subcategory.

REFERENCES
Construction Process of a Destination Image: Applying the “Schemas” Concept
Pedro Quelhas Brito, Universidade do Porto - Faculdade de Economia, Portugal
Zaíla Oliveira, Universidade do Porto – Faculdade de Economia, Portugal

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Destination image is one of the most popular topics in tourism. The concept of image is a quite losing construction since there is a huge diversity of definitions and it incorporates both concrete and abstract content not clearly rooted on fundamental theories of psychology. The current methods impose a structure such as multi-attribute rating of some destinations, in many cases he/she hardly ever had considered and using attributes not relevant to them. There are particularly two publications with a relatively high number of citations (in January 2017): Echtner and Ritchie (1993) with 1871, and Baloglu and McCleary (1999), quoted 2805 times. These authors and probably many of their followers propose lists of attributes to measure image. In the case of the first authors, that set of attributes was designed aiming to help clarify the dichotomy in destination characteristics: between functional/psychological components and between holistic/attributes dimensions. Specifically the holistic dimension and the characteristics considered unique, as opposed to the common indexed in attributes lists, deserve further attention in those articles. The method proposed in the research by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) consisted in the development of three open questions designed to define the holistic element in its functional/psychological and unique dimension.

The works of these reference authors deserve the following comments:

• Even the designated functional attributes necessarily contain psychological dimensions insofar as they are likely to generate feelings and preferences. The semantics (adjectives) used is revealing. Hence, such a division is somewhat artificial. Categorization in natural versus human attributes, put forward by other authors has more theoretical substance and consistency;

• The term applied to the open question used by these researchers already limits the scope of the response. Respondents tend to focus on their interpretation of atmosphere and mood;

• Each attribute may have different meanings, not only because the can evoke (through the communication performed by their promoter), but also by specific experiences from the tourist. For example, the same tropical beach destination can be classified totally differently depending on the context of the visit, alone/ with company or for business/leisure;

• Finally, what are unique attributes? And for whom? For the tourist, if it is a first visit to the destination or if there is nothing similar in the world. But even if technically (due to the history, culture, etc.) there is nothing unique for the tourist, his experience in that place may be unique. No matter how technically unique a destination may be, a tourist may classify it as very similar to other destinations.

What are the attributes (and terminology used), feelings, needs/ motivations and contexts associated with destinations the respondents freely indicate, following a narrative whose logic and construction is entirely their responsibility and autonomy?

At this early stage of the empirical data collection, the goal was to get from the respondents the description of the main characteristics of their dream destination. We started with a general question and encouraged the respondent to speak freely about the subject. The purpose is to record the order in which the individual expresses something about the concept of dream, afterwards characterizing and classifying such elements. The characterization will be based on categories. They include an attribute; the expression of a need/ feeling; an attitudinal provision; among other forms of knowledge representation: hence an almost phenomenological characterization of the referenced elements.

Relying on Spreading Activation Theory of Memory, Theory of Mental Schemas and Retrieval Theory of Priming in Memory Thordyke, 1984; Komatsu, 1992: Nelson et al., 1993; Romanik and Sharp, 2004), we designed a research instrument to capture under a phenomenological approach the authentic meaning of image for tourists. We left our 220 Brazilian respondents unconstrained to spontaneously express anything that comes to her/his mind about whatever place she/he dreams to visit. Then we obtained her/his personal narrative. The content produced was coded allowing to depict not only the nature of elements verbalized – attributes, needs, feelings and context – but also the order under which they mentioned. Such structure represented their mental schemas – network of meaningful concepts.

We found that most of natural and human attributes used in the literature were meaningful to tourists still they portrayed an idiosyncratic sequential combination of attributes, needs and feelings in their personal conceptualization of image. Secondly just a very restricted number of attributes proved relevant. We demonstrated the inaccuracy of current methods taking for granted one-fits-all approaches. The application Schema theory almost implied reading people’s minds, since that under the effect of ‘priming’ we have an extensive and complex neuronal network, available almost simultaneously and in a few thousandths of a second in the mind of the receiver. The operationalization of that concept implied the development of procedures to obtain the sequential verbalized nodes of each network. Both at a theoretical and methodological level our research calls for a re-conceptualization of image of destination. The major limitation lies in geographical/cultural context. In the future it would be interesting to apply this research in other countries and compare the nature and amount/proportion of verbalized elements among a more diversified cultural settings. A bigger sample would allow a tourists’ segmentation based on their mental schema elaborations. The application of sentiment analysis procedures (software) associated with researchers content analysis could allow deeper insights about some emotional linguistic specificity of the tourists discourse. Advertisers will get more effective with accurate information about what is meaningful and how image elements are intertwined in the construction of the desired tourist experience.

REFERENCES

Giving Away The Data of Others: An Exploration of an Ownership Ambiguity Framework
Bernadette Kamleitner, Wirtschaftsuniversitat, Vienna, Austria
Sophie Sussenbach, Wirtschaftsuniversitat, Vienna, Austria

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
When registering to use apps or websites, consumers regularly pass on the personal data of others online (Litt & Hargittai, 2014; Sarigol, Garcia, & Schweitzer, 2014). So why do people pass on vast amounts of information about others to unknown recipients, disrespecting deeply ingrained norms of respect for others privacy, information and possessions (Goodwin, 1991; Kelvin, 1973; Rudmin, 1991)? The paper begins by establishing the ownership framework and explores the elements of ambiguity at 3 steps by drawing on qualitative data from a range of sources.

Data from several sources were used in conjunction with literature on perceptions of ownership and personal data, namely, consumer attitudes to giving away the data of others as well as comments and online chatrooms such as the Facebook community webpages. Secondly, 113 subjects were asked to write down their thoughts on a scenario. Thirdly, the researchers engaged in introspection of their own behavior regarding the phenomenon.

The first step entails the realization of data transfer. For people to react to any transfer of ownership they need to be aware of it. Transfer ambiguity can result from; Hidden decision, i.e. the actual decision to give away is ‘hidden’ within the decision to use the app, and not made explicit. Ignorance concerns consumers’ inability or unwillingness to actually read and engage with what is being requested (Dommer & Gross, 2003; Jensen, Potts, & Jensen, 2005). (Motivated) Inattention is a failure to pay attention inadvertently or being motivated.

Object ambiguity refers to the possibility that consumers may have difficulty grasping what the entity of (others’) data is and what value it has. Several factors contribute to this. Elusive nature of data is the idea that data in our phones are complex and largely invisible, we may find it difficult to understand them as an entity that can be owned (Kamleitner & Mitchell, 2017). Bundled sales is the fact that apps do not request permission for specific, meaningful and easily identifiable points of data, such as a specific picture or phone number, but for a whole class of data such as all files or contacts. Lack of value results from consumers struggling to understand value of data for many reasons (Kamleitner & Mitchell, 2017).

The second step of passing on ownership assumes awareness of transfer and tackles the question as to who may hold a claim to the thing being transferred. Here, consumers realize that they are giving away something, but fail to realize that others may also hold a claim to it. Several factors contribute to this. Being asked means consumers may fail to question their entitlements because they automatically react to signals of ownership brought about by the situation. Container effect concerns the question of where the data are stored or located. Creator effect signals control and thus potential ownership is the question of who has created the data (Fuchs, Prandelli, & Schreier, 2010; Levene, Starmans, & Friedman, 2015). Conveyed ownership is the idea that most of the data about others have been obtained directly from the other with their permission or at least with their acquiescence. Public good is where data has been shared a lot and is common knowledge to many, means they treat it like a public good (cf. Feeny, Berkes, McCay, & Acheson, 1990; Hardin, 1968).

In the third step consumers understand others’ data have value and recognize that others have rights to it, but they fail to respect the rights of others. Several factors contribute to this. Diffusion of responsibility relates to the fact that personal data rights and responsibilities are rarely explicitly discussed and thus it is very difficult to draw clear boundary lines that show where each party’s responsibilities begin and end. Nothing to hide is an underlying assumption held by some that sharing data only harms those how have something to hide. Little harm comes from consumers not knowing for certain whether there is any harm in the action. Blind trust in the app provider seemed to play a role in making the need to respect the rights of others less clear. Reciprocity norms means consumers may use signals from others to infer what they are and are not allowed to do (Lin & McFerran, 2016; Ratner & Hamilton, 2015). Privacy is dead means whatever one does no longer makes a difference because the dice of privacy have fallen. You are me suggests that the passing on of intimate information to others is also a matter of the relationship between the person the information is about and the consumers the information is about (Vangelisti & Caughlin, 1997).

First, we have shown that the framework provides a useful starting point for the identification of specific reasons causing the (inadvertent) disclosure of others’ data which is saturated with ambiguities. Second, the phenomenological decomposition of the phenomenon of the transfer of others data has brought to light that there are still substantial gaps in ownership research. Third, the framework is one of very few frameworks in marketing that explicitly recognizes the social nature of ownership and adds to a steadily growing stream of research across disciplines (Aryee, Seidu, Sacramento, & Martinaityte, 2015; Ashby & Burgoyne, 2009). Fourth are the practical implications of our findings with regards to public policy because interventions geared at reasons and ambiguities arising at step 3 will only be effective if there is not also a problem at step 1 and 2. For example, for step 1, where the consumer is unaware there is anything being transferred, companies could alert consumers to the transfer of other’s data and app providers could make this more salient by using personalisation, e.g., ‘the emails of your best friends’ to overcome the incomprehensibility of ‘all your contacts’.

REFERENCES

1 Note that our exploratory interviews can only deliver insights on this step because participants had been made aware that the data transferred concern other people.


Diving and Sustainability: Does The Consumer Perceive Sacrifice In This Experience?
Polyanna Do Nascimento, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Brazil
Salomão De Farias, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Brazil

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The complexity that involves consumer behavior studies, including the individual’s perception of what is received and what is given in an exchange (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007), what they need to give up and what they get in the establishment of their consumer relations is a highlighted issue that has been investigated in different contexts. Here we are interested in the diving experience in sites where a sustainable behavior is required from the consumer side.

As stated by Cayolla and Loureiro (2014), the strong connection process and the willingness to sacrifice that happens in the relationship between a consumer and a brand are not yet understood. In this perspective, the sacrifice that the individual can perform to consume a product is associated with aspects of choice, and relates to the attachment, the strength of the emotional and cognitive connection between the brand and the consumer’s self (Park, MacInnis & Priester, 2006).

In tourism, the hedonic experience is a relevant aspect and includes a complex mix of functional, objective and tangible components, as well as subjective, hedonic, emotional and symbolic components (Williams & Soutar, 2009). It is thought that the individuals who choose a tourist adventure trip are buying a hedonic experience unlinked to their daily lives, in which they will experience different aspects of a local culture, such as local scenarios, new excitements, etc., and will probably need to have obligations with schedules or policed behavior.

Thus, if the individual chooses a scuba diving trip, where he/she needs to behave in a sustainable way and preserve the local environment, culture and economy, is this perceived as a sacrifice? Considering that those are more rational behaviors than the expected hedonic context of a service like this (scuba diving business). This way, we are interested in knowing: How do consumers perceive the sacrifice in the diving experiences where the practice of sustainability is required?

This study adopted a qualitative approach considering that qualitative research seeks the capture of subjective meanings of the issues studied from the perspectives of the participants (Flick, 2013). Seeking a better understanding of the research problem, we used data collected through the semi-structured interviews with divers: nine Brazilians, fifteen Italians and fourteen Dutch divers. The data was analyzed according to content analysis.

The individuals of three countries have different behavior related to the diving consumption, especially regarding the diving frequency, Brazilian and Italian respondents, in general, dive more often than the Dutch participants. These last, practice the activity only on holidays, the Brazilians and Italians respondents, often, go diving in the region they live.

The diving experience is evaluated according different perspectives by the informants; all of them reported a positive experience with the activity. It was possible to understand, all the speeches were always imbued with feelings (as passion, love, freedom, well-being, emotion and addiction) and sensations (as good, very good, different). Moreover, it was possible to identify behavior of strong attachment with diving and devotion to the aquatic environment. The experience is for them a sacred one, even for those that are experienced on the activity.

During the interviews the informants were asked about what they understand by sustainability. According to UNWTO (2005), there are three dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental. Data analysis showed that the environmental dimension of sustainability was the main concept that respondents identified, the further aspects such as preservation; awareness and environmental education, were highlighted by the respondents.

Although the divers’ perspective of sustainability is limited, they demonstrated a large concern with the environment, all the informants highlighted the importance to take care of and preserve the environment.

Sacrifice is perceived from different perspectives by the respondents of the three countries: the act of giving up something aiming to conquer another; aspects related to currency or time. However, for the sustainability practice in diving, three dimensions of sacrifice emerged: giving up leisure time, comfort and spending (more) monetary resources, to contribute financially to keep a safe diving environment.

Although sacrifice is present in diving, especially when it involves issues related to adoption of sustainable behavior it was found that the informants believe that any sacrifice is valid to continue practicing the activity. The preservation of the environment and the search for balance of the aquatic ecosystem is revealed as an indispensable factor for the informants to continue diving.

The adoption of a sustainable behavior despite being rated by most informants, sacrifice is seen as something positive and essential in the diving practice, considering that the high affective and emotional involvement with the activity makes them wanting to continue practicing the activity for the rest of their lives, as well as finding a healthy aquatic environment, full of color, rich in fauna and flora.

This study has limitations in terms of methodological nature and some difficulties experienced during the research. We stress the following: the variation in the number of respondents per country, this may hinder the process of comparison between the country’s behavior, even using the saturation criterion; because it is a qualitative research, subjectivity in interpreting the responses of respondents at the time of the analysis can be placed as a research bias.

This study contributed to the understanding of sacrifice in the diving experience when the practice of sustainability is required. In this section, based on the findings of this research some questions for future studies to corroborate with the expansion of knowledge about sacrifice in consumption and sustainability practices are suggested:

Sacrifice is still a relatively unexplored subject in consumer behavior, it is suggested that further studies will be conducted to explore this concept more deeply, related to the willingness to sacrifice, the impact it may cause in consumer attitude and the emergence of new ways to consume.

New studies that relate the sacrifice and sustainability to other consumer activities or different diving services and are more associated with the individual’s daily life. These studies can confirm the construction of new perspectives for Marketing associated with sustainable consumption.

REFERENCES


Tradition and Sacralization: When the Profane Aspects of a Street Fair Makes It Sacred

Marianny Silva, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Brazil
Polyanna Do Nascimento, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Brazil
Salomão De Farias, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Brazil

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The street fairs are common in several cities in Brazil. They are culturally rich spaces and represent more than simple trades. They reveal the society dynamics at a given moment and are places of diverse experiences shared by consumers and other individuals that are part of them, being a crucial part of local economy (Zhang & Pelechris, 2016).

Despite being one of the most primitive forms of commerce, street fair still has elements not yet explored in the consumer behavior area, especially when the established approaches are analyzed. Among them, it’s possible to emphasize the notion of sacred and profane that Belk, Wallendorf and Sherry Jr (1989) discussed in the sphere of consumption. They consider that consumed objects and experiences become sacred when bring unique, special, authentic and pleasure-related aspects. In the other hand, since this idea is a binary categorization, the profane in consumption involves common and routine products and actions.

This perspective helps to understand the deep consumption aspects in a street fair. Is it possible to categorize it as profane, because going to the fair is a common activity? Or sacred, since this kind of trade presents a historical and cultural relationship with the city and generates meanings for the people? These questions reinforce the need for studies that return to analyze the environments that are still little explored, such as street fairs. This article seeks to narrow this gap.

Among the street fairs in different Brazilian regions, the one with the most notoriety, size and diversity is Caracaru Fair, located in Pernambuco state. It has gained national notoriety since the middle of the last century and became in 2006 an immaterial cultural patrimony of the country by the Brazilian National Institute of Historical and Artistic Patrimony [IPHAN] (2006). Caracaru Fair is composed of several sectors, but the one that has always been functioning since the beginning of the fair in the 18th century is the Fruit and Vegetable Fair (Ferreira, 2001). It highlights the origins of Caracaru fair and what is more traditional in it. For this, it was chosen as research locus due to its symbolic contribution to its patrons.

Because it is considered an immaterial patrimony, it is assumed that Fruit and Vegetable Fair has sacred elements. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to discern which domains of the sacred are present on it, how the profane aspects interact with such sacredness and what process of sacralization has made this fair to be considered an immaterial patrimony of Brazil’s rich culture.

THE STREET FAIRS

The street fair is described as a weekly street market modality that locally distributes food and other basic goods (Mascarenhas & Doilzani, 2008). It belongs to the marginal circuit of the economy, with low labor qualification and low technological level, having in its activities the purpose of subsistence (Santos, 1979).

Fairs represent the space of restructuring of the small farmer in face of large retail chains that suit the need for speed, so-called modern business models of society. With the emergence of these new formats of retail, the street fairs try to compete with establishments with greater hygiene, convenience, and that offer fresh products every day with convenience (Cazane, Machado, & Sampaio, 2014).

However, as a rebellious daughter of modernity (Mascarenhas & Doilzani, 2008), the fair survives.

The economic significance of the street fair is expressed for vendors (they are the farmers too) as the main source of income and for consumers as a place to find goods at more affordable prices (Almeida & Pena, 2011). Besides the economic aspect, other elements (social, cultural and symbolic meanings) help in the continuity of this space of exchanges. As D’Angelo (2011, p. 22) states, the street fair “brings us back to the essential and offers food for body and for human desire: the encounter among colors, textures, people […] a sociability that feeds the senses and still goes to the table”.

SACRED AND PROFANE CONSUMPTION

Belk, Wallendorf and Sherry Jr (1989) developed the notion of sacred as a characteristic not only found in the religious field, but also in various consumption contexts that involve expression rooted in cultural and symbolic values. In general, the sacred consumption involves different objects and actions treated with respect and reverence, taking people to transcend physical matter, leading them to an otherworldly experience (Celsi, 1992), signifying an individual’s attempt to develop a deeper relationship with nature (Kunchambo, Lee, & Brace-Govan, 2017).

The choice of the sacred object involves an emotional connection between the individual and the sacred thing (Tynan & McKechnie, 2006). On the other hand, profane consumption involves common activities and objects, which don’t deserve prominence compared to other experiences in daily life (Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry Jr., 1989).

In practice, however, the boundaries between sacred and profane are already recognized as diffuse, existing places that combine sacred and profane elements (Higgins & Hamilton, 2011).

Domains as places, time, tangible things, intangible things, people and/or beings, and experiences may acquire profane or/sacred characteristics by means processes such as rituals, pilgrimages, quintessence, gift given, collecting, objects or practices inheritance, and external sanction (Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry Jr, 1989; Durayski & Fonseca, 2014). Two of them are especially related with tradition; they are: ritual and inheritance. They enable collective (re)creation and reinforcement of behaviors and identities through traditions, popular beliefs, eating habits, languages, festivities and various manifestations orally or gesturally transmitted (Müller, Amaral, & Peleaz, 2013).

METHODOLOGY CHOICE

Considering the locus investigated in this article, it was clear to use more naturalistic methods of data collection. This way it was used a qualitative research method, considering it the most appropriate for analysis and interpretation of social realities (Bloomberg & Volpe 2008). Observation and semi-structured interviews were used as data collection tools. Initially, two Saturdays (the day that the fair happens) of direct observation were carried out as a preliminary study in order to familiarize researchers with the phenomenon to be investigated (Theodorson & Theodorson, 1970). They were held in June 2014.

During the observation time, semi-structured interviews were performed with consumers who were walking the fair. Therefore, the researchers had an interview guide with a list of questions to...
be asked related to the like for the fair, to the positive and negative points perceived by the consumer, but it was possible to follow up on interesting issues that appeared during the conversation.

In the first observation, ten consumers were interviewed; in the second, another seven. They were chosen randomly, during their purchases at Fruit and Vegetable Fair in Caruaru. The interviews were recorded with the aid of appropriate equipment and with the authorization of the participant. At the end we had 17 participants and a total of 192 minutes of interview.

After the data collection, interviews were transcribed and analyzed according to the Content Analysis, performing it based on three phases proposed by Bardin (2011); they are: 1) Pre-analysis, 2) exploration of the material and 3) Treatment of results, inference and interpretation.

**ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

The three categories analyzed are: 1) profane aspects of the fair, including subcategories of product quality and variety, price and space hygiene; 2) sacred aspects of this place, encompassing time, place and experience; and 3) its processes of sacralization. The decision to have previously established the categories was based on the literature review and on the suggestions of Bardin (2011) when conducting content analysis.

**Profane Aspects**

In Caruaru Fair, purchase choices were associated with the ability to touch the fruits and vegetables offered in the tents. Consumers also smelled these items to ensure they carried the freshness necessary for their decision. Thus, the analyzed requisites emerged to measure the quality of goods. Consumers may use more time to choose products, resorting to their senses, going against the speed of modern times to which supermarkets fit (Santos, 1979).

Because the fair is considered a space for restructuring the small farmer, its products are viewed by some consumers as holders of “real farm freshness”:

> Here the quality is very good, because here is more who is from the countryside [...]. They plant, reap in their little farms and sell here (Informant 10).

Since products are seen as truly “rural goods”, involving a low level of technology, fruits and vegetables have their qualities influenced by the season and by the harvest, in the opinion of other respondents.

> The product is by season, right?! At the time, everything is good, but there is a season that it is weak (Informant 1).

> The quality is variable. The choice of this fair is precisely because you have choice, it has variety (Informant 5).

As Informant 5 reveals, it’s precisely this variety of products that makes the fair an environment rich in choices. With many tents placed in a single perimeter, consumers have the possibility of finding goods they want. Caruaru Fair “has everything” (Informant 9). So, variety impacts on the choice of this place for purchase.

This category invades the diffuse boundaries of the sacredness (Higgins & Hamilton, 2011). Caruaru Fair is described as a patrimony because of its variety. Therefore, the profane criterion considered for choosing the place of purchase also becomes a sacred element.

Informants also highlighted in their speeches the affordable price of the goods at this fair:

> It’s cheap! It is one of the main factors (Informant 16).

> It doesn’t compare to the supermarket. At the fair, goods are much cheaper (Informant 11).

In fact, prices at fairs are cheaper than prices of fruits and vegetables in supermarkets. This feature reinforces the economic significance of fairs in offering goods at more affordable prices (Almeida & Pena, 2011) in an attempt to survive in front of supermarkets (Mascarenhas & Dolzani, 2008).

The last category identified was the hygiene. Despite the diversity of tents and products, and the low price, peels and scraps of fruits and vegetables, and other dirt on the floor, are noticed by consumers. So, the lack of hygiene is highlighted as a negative factor of this activity:

> [...] hygiene does not have, never had (Informant 4)!

> I think this place isn’t so clean, but we have to understand that it’s fair (Informant 9).

The outdoor place where the fair takes place brings less amenities and hygiene when compared to the daily air-conditioned and organized supermarket (Cazez, Machado, & Sampaio, 2014). In fact, the problems encountered at fairs are often related to the poor hygienic-sanitary conditions of the marketing points (Alcântara & Kato, 2016). Even with this inadequate site, consumers recognize the difficulty of organizing in an open place, and turn their attention to the economic and symbolic importance of this trade for local people and little farmers.

**Sacred Aspects**

The consumer experience was held amidst of many tents covered by canvasses of various colors around the simple and rustic space of Fruit and Vegetable Fair. There, individuals walked quietly, analyzed the products and made their choices of consumption (Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Consumers and vendors at Fruit and Vegetable Fair in Caruaru](image)

Known as a place that sells everything, Caruaru Fair gained fame from the music sung by Luiz Gonzaga, characterizing it as a fair you feel pleasure to see because of its variety. Such variety made Caruaru Fair to be recognized by the world as immaterial patrimony of Brazil (IPHAN, 2006). Consumers who buy at this fair also consider it a patrimony, sacralizing it through their unique experiences of the variety that the fair offers:

> The variety is excellent, it has no way to compare with any other place. It’s a patrimony, right (Informant 4)!!

This experience is also linked to the contemplation of the different forms of exchange, of the historical and cultural meanings; it doesn’t mean something totally extraordinary, but contemplative (Caru & Cova, 2003). The mere fact of being at the fair refers to past experiences that bring with them two other categories sacralized by the consumers interviewed; they are place and time.
Although dirty, the fair environment is described as a sacred **place** that portrays the experiences of informants in this atmosphere during their childhoods:

My parents worked at this fair. I was very little and I was coming (Informant 10).

Good heavens! Ever since I can remember, I buy here, I come here (Informant 12).

Therefore, this space is associated with the identity of a social group (Dion & Borraz, 2015) because it’s connected with a family practice of legitimate power that influences in the origin of the decision to buy at this fair. So, this activity in Fruit and Vegetable Fair of Caruaru represents an inheritance that is still practiced.

The **time** dimension permeates the other two dimensions already mentioned. This aspect reinforces that the sacredness of time is related with all domains described as sacred (Belk, Wallendorf & Sherry Jr, 1989). This time in Caruaru Fair is cyclic, occurring every Saturday, from the childhood of the interviewees to the present period.

Since 18 years ago I come to the fair. I already came with my parents (Informant 15).

I come to the fair every week. It’s the only thing I wake up early. I got here it was still dark, I like fair (Informant 17)!

As the informant 17 points out, the time at the fair is pleasant. Since early in the day, vendors are ready in place to serve their customers. It’s possible to bargain the price with producers and to contemplate their strategies to attract attention. For this, relationships between consumers and sellers are established amidst a regular period of purchase. These elements can be observed in the following quotes:

The difference here is the producers; they are more open to trading (Informant 12).

I always shop in the same places. I buy are precisely because of service, because of people who sell (Informant 13).

In this way, it is understood that consumers seek to arrive at this fair in time to find the best fruits and vegetables (profane aspects), but also to enjoy the experience of dealing directly with the producer of goods, to relive their childhood moments, and to feel a part of this patrimony that offers a great goods and tents diversity.

**Sacralization Processes**

Some ritualistic aspects were identified in the practice of these consumers at Caruaru Fair, such as the act of going to this place every week and of acquiring the products in the same vendors.

Despite these characteristics, it is not possible to categorize this consumption as a ritual, considering the inexistence of a set of exactly identical practices among all informants, an element pointed out by Rook (1985) as part of this activity. Some characteristics reveal a habit rather than a completely ritualistic process. In this context, the process of sacralization of consumption is inheritance, an activity also recognized by Belk, Wallendorf and Sherry Jr (1989) as responsible for the maintenance of the sacred.

This process makes the practice of going to the fair to be seen as a patrimony to be managed. This process of sacralization transfers the practice of shopping at the fair from father/mother to son/daughter worshiping memory and reaffirms a legacy. The discourses that support this process of sacralization can be observed in the previous section, where most of the informants revealed that they accompanied their parents during their childhood in this fair. This heritage associates the fair to a place that emanates the cultural tradition of the region and that offers a diversity of products that no other place can offer. It is part of the locals imaginary that needs to be preserved for the next generation.

All these results are summarized in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profane Aspects</td>
<td>Quality of goods</td>
<td>- Quality ascertained by touch and smell; - Perception that products are truly rural goods and have the real farm freshness; - The product quality offered depends on the harvest/season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>- The fair has varieties of price, quality and tents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>- This fair offers goods at more affordable prices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacred Aspects</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>- The profane aspect of variety is also sacred by the unique experience of consumers finding everything they desire in one place, creating a symbolic aspect from a utilitarian view; - This experience is contemplative; - Consumers can experience different forms of exchange, of the historical and cultural meanings in their purchases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Place</td>
<td>- It portrays the experiences that informants lived in childhood in this fair; - Space associated with the identity of a group (family).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacralization Process</td>
<td>Inheritance</td>
<td>- Practice of shopping at the fair is transferred from father to son. - This heritage reaffirms a legacy and enables the continuation of a cultural practice based on tradition.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSIONS**

This paper aimed to identify the profane and sacred aspects of the Fruit and Vegetable Fair of Caruaru, Pernambuco, Brazil, their relations and the process of sacralization that makes this street fair an environment of purchase where the culture and tradition of the people emerges. In it, the boundaries of sacredness were diffused (Higgins & Hamilton, 2011), revealing that this place combines sacred and profane elements intertwined in the midst of the contemplative experience of consumption.

As revealed this research, individuals see Fruit and Vegetable Fair of Caruaru as a place sacred to the culture of a people; a patrimony built from generation to generation that, consequently, accompanied the development of the city. The fair has grown in size and the city of Caruaru as well. This study revealed this fair is sacralized by the inheritance of the habit of buying in this environment, by the memories and transferred and experienced learning from father/mother to son/daughter, reinforcing the influence of culture and, consequently, of...
the social group in consumer practices. This is Caruaru Fair, resistant to the problems of disorganization and hygiene, alive for its essence of marginal economy circuit, characterized by the affordable price and the deal directly with the farmer, and mainly, survivor by its tradition.

Although carried out in only one of the fairs that make up Caruaru Fair, this research highlighted a peculiar way of how consumers sacralize a consumption phenomenon, suggesting a contribution to this debate, reinforcing that there is space for the sacred in the everyday and supposedly mundane practices of consumption. 

For future research, it is suggested the applicability of this study in the other fairs that make up Caruaru Fair with the aim of perceiving whether sacrality is equally perceived, and if so, what domains and processes to make them sacred in these atmospheres.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The discussion on meat consumption has been the subject of international academic concern. A debate permeates both the relationship of consumers with the meat itself, as well as the treatment that the industry develops in the production and the treatment of the animals. Consequently, the world’s demand for meat has fluctuated a lot, with a greater decline in times when health and animal health problems emerge, and end up achieving the credibility of this food (Miele, 2010).

The reduction of meat consumption and adherence to vegetarianism have been highlighted as food consumption practices arising from the rise of the discourse on the nutritional value of this food in the context of healthy diets. In addition, various studies have shown that consumer questions and consequent meat aversion stem from the impact on human health, from the moral concerns of the meat industry’s treatment of animals, and from the negative externalities that affect the environment (Berdsen & Van der Pligt, 2005; Ruby & Heine, 2011).

This study aims to analyze the motivations of people for the reduction of meat consumption. For this, it was defined stimuli related to health, impact on the environment, suffering and animal rights, in order to explore influential behaviors in reducing this consumption.

To verify the stimuli that influence the reduction of meat consumption, a quantitative study was undertaken. A total of 179 online questionnaires were applied, in which the first part of the questionnaire had questions related to the attitude of the respondents regarding vegetarians, their attention in terms of food safety, general health concerns, and concerns with relative aspects to meat consumption, such scales were drawn from McCarthy’s (2003) study. The second part of the questionnaire was composed of stimuli based on suffering, environment, animal rights and health to identify the likelihood of respondents to reduce meat consumption (Orsini, Barboza & Costa, 2015).

In order to analyze the data collected, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for exploratory data analysis (descriptive measures analysis, Kruskal-Wallis test and ANOVA tests). Initially, we looked at the attitude of the respondents towards vegetarians, their attention in terms of food safety, general health concerns, and concerns about meat consumption.

All variables, excepting the ‘possibility to stop eating meat’ and ‘likelihood of continuing to consume meat’ (which are single-item), were aggregated by the mean of the scores of the respondents weighted by the factorial score of the respective variables. Among the constructs, those who obtained, in average and quartiles, the highest values were ‘health concern’ (7.79) and ‘food safety attention’ (7.42). This indicates that respondents have a good level of concern about the safety of the foods they consume, certainly because of their health concerns (in effect, the two constructs have a good measure of association, as measured by Pearson’s parametric correlation (0.595) and by the nonparametric Spearman (0.590)).

The mean values and the lowest quartiles values were observed in the construct ‘possibility of stopping meat-eating’ (3.62), in which it was revealed that the initial predisposition of the respondents (without having been presented to the stimuli of the four appeals of the study) to stop consuming meat is very small, reaching a moderate level only in the third quartile (that is, only 25% of the respondents). The other constructs obtained averages that indicated a moderate preoccupation with the consumption of meat, as well as a moderate appreciation for the vegetarians.

The initial questions were answered before we presented the respondent to the stimuli of the four appeals, along with the question about the possibility of stopping eating meat. We asked about the level of informative quality, the convincing power of the advertisement, and the use of a good central argument of all four stimuli announcements created in the study. By the obtained values, we conclude say that the advertisement that used the appeal of suffering, on average, was the best evaluated in terms of its informative quality, its convincing power, and the use of a good central argument.

The central hypothesis of our study concerned the likelihood of respondents being willing to continue to consume meat after being exposed to one of the four appeals exposed in the announcements. We sought to identify if there was any appeal that would diminish the person’s intention to continue eating meat. For that, parametric analysis of variance (ANOVA) and non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis techniques were used, from which we extracted the descriptive measures as well as the reference measures in the tests to verify differences between groups.

According to the results presented in table 1, based on the tests (both with p-value > 0.05), we cannot reject the null hypothesis that there is equality in terms of probability of continuing to consume meat, regardless of the appeal to which the respondent was exposed. However, when we observed the magnitudes of the measures of position, there is a sign that those who responded to the health appeal were those that showed a greater tendency to continue to consume meat, by the arithmetic average, by the posts and by the median (second quartile).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appeal</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean</th>
<th>Average of posts</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suffering</td>
<td>6,87</td>
<td>88,14</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>6,76</td>
<td>86,48</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rights</td>
<td>6,64</td>
<td>88,22</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>7,28</td>
<td>97,62</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tests: Kruskal-Wallis c=1,287 (3 gl), p=0,732; ANOVA F=0,489 (3, 175 gl), p=0,690

In order to analyze the motivators of the practice of reducing meat consumption, it were selected some stimuli that present an impact relation on the probability of the individual continuing to eat meat. We believe that the knowledge generated in this study will collaborate to the exploration of influential behaviors in the reduction of this consumption.

Thus, the approach adopted contributes to the analysis of other studies on meat consumption, as well as new perspectives on the subject when developing groups that expose different consumption behaviors. It is desirable that this research be used in contexts of interlocution of the academic scope with the public agents and of social
impact. We propose as a suggestion the involvement of other statistical techniques and we recommend further improvement of sampling.

REFERENCES
Patanjali Ayurved- The Guru and the Myth-Making
Bhupesh Manoharan, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, Kolkata, India
Krishanu Rakshit, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, Kolkata, India

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Myth-making is the process by which a fictional or artificial mythology is created around a product or brand. Marketing managers have often taken the route of myth-making to create idiosyncratic and competitively advantageous brand images (Johar, Holbrook, and Stern 2001) and endear themselves to their customers. Researchers (e.g. Hirschman 2000; Thompson 2004) point out that myths often serve specific ideological purposes.

The globalized world of today, contrary to the expectations of many has produced greater cultural heterogenization than homogeneity (Wilk 1998). Though globalization has resulted in hybridization of consumption practices in multiple contexts, for e.g. reterritorialization of American yoga (Coskuner-Balli and Ertimur 2015) and creolization of youth culture (Kjeldgaard and Askegaard 2006), in many places it has resulted in consumer resistance to global brands and preference to local alternatives (O’Guinn and Belk 1989; Varman and Belk 2009). In these emerging market contexts, consumers have tried to invoke nationalist and religious myths to justify the anti-consumption of the global brands. Nationalistic passions have led many to invoke cultural myths to demonize the global players and project themselves as heroes who safeguard national interests (Izberk-Bilgin 2012). While prominent researchers had predicted that globalization would lead to a homogenous culture (Belk, 1995), others pointed out that the experiences have been at best mixed (Varman and Belk 2009; Izberk-Bilgin 2012). Even, Ger and Belk (1996) found the local responses to the globalization process is contextual and can be complex which may include returning to the local cultural roots, resisting the global culture, appropriating the global into the local or creolizing of the cultural thoughts resulting in a hybrid culture.

In India, the firm Patanjali Ayurved was founded by the yoga guru Swami Ramdev in 2006. Prior to the establishment of the firm, Baba Ramdev conducted yoga-shivirs (interactive camps) across multiple cities where he performed yoga on stage and taught yoga to his followers (Ghosh 2015). Soon, the number of followers grew and the firm started marketing its own branded consumer products through exclusive outlets. The firm claims to produce most of its products in-house at the Patanjali Food and Herbal Park at Haridwar (North India) operated and managed by Patanjali Ayurved. Swami Ramdev also oversees the Patanjali Yog Peeth and the Bharat (India) Swabhimaan (Self-Respect) Trust, both of which claim grow many endangered herbs on its farmland, thereby reviving the indigenous species and protecting them from extinction (Acharya 2015). Apart from Patanjali Ayurved, Ramdev also the pioneering person of Bharat Swabhimaan Movement in 2009 and Anti-Corruption Movement in 2010 arousing nationalist feeling among the masses (Ghosh 2015).

We used qualitative methods to understand the myth-making of Patanjali brand. The data for the research work was collected between May and December 2016; from both primary and secondary sources. One of the researchers participated in 2 yoga-shivirs (camps) conducted by Baba Ramdev directly and observed the Swami Ramdev and his consumers. Further eight (8) interviews with the sales persons of Patanjali Ayurved products and 25 in-depth interviews (1-2 hours each) were conducted with consumers of Patanjali products.

We explored the process by which marketplace mythology was constructed around an Indian herbal brand Patanjali Ayurved. Our findings suggest that yoga guru Ramdev revived the ancient Indian archetype of the Guru-Shishya to establish a relationship between himself and his disciples/consumers. We also found how the process of “denaturalization” was used to demystify the MNC brands in India. We define denaturalization as the process of making something unnatural or alien. Our data indicated that denaturalization of the foreign brands happens at three levels material/physical, cultural and the national level. However, the most important contribution of the brand was to unfurl an alternative mythology constructed by “mystifying” the herbal and connecting it to the somatic-psycho and cultural identity among his predominantly Indian consumers. By emerging as the most influential proponent of “herbal” or “ayurvedic” products, Swami Ramdev has through his congregations created a discourse to link the herbal/ayurvedic way of life to the mythical golden age. Further by linking the human body to the nation’s polity and through his spiritual appeal, he has created a mythology that consumption of the herbal (Patanjali products) will lead India resurrect its golden past.

REFERENCES

“Pay What You Want” Pricing: A Strategy for Integrating the Bottom of the Pyramid?
P. Sergius Koku, Florida Atlantic University, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
In spite of being the subject of numerous studies, marketers’ understanding of price with regard to how it is perceived, interpreted and used by consumers is far from complete (Dickson and Sawyer, 1990). The “pay what you want” approach in which instead of the seller offering the product (good or services) for a posted price, buyers are free to pay what they think the product is worth is now gaining attention from practitioners and academics as evidenced in recent research interests in the area. However, thus far, academic efforts on the PWYW pricing scheme have only focused on those who have the means (purchasing power) to purchase, as such the primary research issues have revolved around price fairness and its associated topics of distributive justice (Laczniak and Santos, 2011), and the examination of issues such as whether consumers exploit the PWYW scheme and take advantage of sellers (Jang and Chu, 2012), or whether buyers as economic agents behave opportunistically (Holmstrom, 1979; Camerer, 1995; Camerer and Thaler, 1997; Reynolds and Harris, 2005)? I argue that extending studies on the PWYW as a pricing mechanism that brings into the mainstream of commerce, those who have been “traditionally” marginalized (at the bottom of the pyramid) could make a significant contribution to both society and our knowledge base. To this end, the objective of this study is to examine how those who live at the bottom of the pyramid in developing countries perceive the PWYW pricing scheme.

An exploratory focus group study which consisted of ten adults (five men and five women) between the ages of 35 to 60 was conducted. The participants resided in an area known to be occupied by people living on the fringes of society in the capital city Ghana, a progressive country in West Africa. All the participants “work” in some form or the other, but earn what can be best described as “precarious living”. For example, two of the women work as hair braid- ers, but earn less than two dollars per day. One sells cooked rice and beans by the roadside to laborers while the fourth and fifth sell fruits, also by the roadside. Two of the five men work as farmers who earn their living by selling what they grow. One is a carpenter of sort who earns a living by selling small chairs (known as stools) that he makes, the fourth works as a day laborer, and the fifth works as a “watchman”.

The preliminary content analysis of the data shows that the participants seemed confused by the PWYW pricing scheme. They did not believe that a seller would voluntarily defer to buyers to pay what they wanted. The participants wanted to know whether the seller was sponsored by a foreign charity organization. Furthermore, they did not believe that a seller of a good quality product of any kind will use the PWYW pricing scheme. According to Robert (a fifty year old who works as a watchman), “We know that we will always get what we pay for. Low quality products are sold at low prices”, and Abena, a 35-year old female who sells fruits believes that buyers who do not pay a fair price in the PWYW will be punished by God. This position was shared by all the participants including the men who participated in a separate study. These preliminary results which warrant further analysis suggest a more expansive study that includes the role of culture and belief systems in the operations of PWYW pricing scheme in developing countries.

REFERENCES
Sex Differences in Customer Retaliatory Behaviors: The Role of Oxytocin?
Lilian Soares Pereira Carvalho, Saint Paul Business School, Brazil
Gad Saad, Concordia University, Canada

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Customer retaliation is meant to punish a firm for perceived grievances (Grégoire & Fisher, 2008), a topic of much practical importance and yet that is understudied in marketing journals (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006, 2008). Customer advocacy websites and online protection agencies are usual outlets for retaliation from dissatisfied customers. The economic impact of dissatisfied customers is quite substantial, as a one-star increase in yelp.com ratings leads to a 5 to 9% increase in revenue (Luca, 2011).

Grégoire and Fisher (2006) propose that following a service failure a customer can restore the balance of the relationship either by demanding reparation from the firm or by retaliating against it. Retaliation has a negative connotation and is defined as “a customer’s effort to punish and make a service firm pay for the damages it has caused” (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006, p. 32).

In the current work, we focus on sex differences in retaliatory behaviors but more generally on its potential hormonal driver as captured by oxytocin colloquially referred to as the “love hormone.” Of note, this hormone has greater neural effect on women, as it helps lactation and facilitates attachment with offspring (Ellenbogen et al., 2012; Kosfeld et al., 2005; Young & Alexander, 2012). Breastfeeding women serve as a group of particular interest when studying the effects of oxytocin, as they are under its influence. Breastfeeding significantly alters the physiology and the psyche of women (Dermer, 1998). It is a common practice and according to the World Health Organization (2014), 40% of Brazilian, 14.4% of Canadian and 14% of American women (the selected sample for this study) exclusively breastfeed their children until 6 months of age. Dermer (1998) adds that breastfeeding increases women’s self-confidence and reduces their responses to stress. For firms that specialize in baby products or maternal care it is important to know whether or not breastfeeding can affect their customers’ behaviors. More generally though, firms stand to benefit in knowing the role that hormones play in the consumer setting. As it stands, very little research has examined the effects of oxytocin in the marketing or economic arena (but see Zak, 2011 for an exploration of how participants who were administered oxytocin were less prone to punish a partner after trust violation during an economic game).

METHODOLOGY AND FINDINGS

This research explores the effects of oxytocin on retaliatory behaviors using breastfeeding women as a “proxy” manipulation since they are under the influence of oxytocin due to lactation. Participants with this profile were recruited via Facebook groups that support breastfeeding and/or deal with motherhood in Brazil, Canada and United States of America. Furthermore, an online platform similar to Amazon’s Mechanical Turk, Crowdflower (Crowdflower, 2014) was used to collect data from participants originating from the same three countries.

We recruited 362 participants. After excluding missing values and following the Norwegian Social Sciences Data Services (2013) protocol for excluding repeated measures (if more than 80% of the answers of a given participant were the same, this data were excluded), the final sample consisted of 196 participants, of which 36 were breastfeeding women (BF), 59 were women (W) who were not breastfeeding when they took the survey, and 101 men.

Using a scenario-based vignette (Rungtusanatham, Wallin & Eckerd, 2011) we tested if there were any differences in retaliatory behaviors between these three groups. The vignette described a scenario in which the participant had a long-term relationship with a bank and one of its account managers. After the birth of his/her child, he/she asked the account manager for advice regarding the child’s education fund. The manager suggested a supposed guaranteed investment of $10,000, subsequent to which the participant trusted the advice in question. But after one month, the participant and his/her spouse found out that all the money had been lost.

Using previous work from Grégoire and Fisher (2006, 2008) we selected seven measures to capture the multifaceted components of retaliatory behavior. The attitudinal measures were: desire for retaliation (6 items, e.g., indicate to which extent you would want to do something to the organization), patronage reduction (4 items, e.g., indicate to which extent you would want to spend less money in this business), negative word-of-mouth (3 items, e.g., indicate to which extent you would want to denigrate this organization to friends), and third party complaining (3 items, e.g., indicate to which extent you would want to take legal action against the firm). The emotional measures were: perceived betrayal (5 items, e.g., through the service failure I felt cheated), dissatisfaction (3 items, e.g., through the service failure I felt displeased), and anger (3 items, e.g., through the service failure I felt outraged). Scale end points ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. We conducted a one-way ANOVA to check for differences between the three groups. Table 1 summarizes the findings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Mean (BF)</th>
<th>Mean (W)</th>
<th>Mean (Men)</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire for retaliation</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.037*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patronage Reduction</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>0.006*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative WOM</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Betrayal</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>0.003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disatisfaction</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.016*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Bonferroni method revealed that breastfeeding women are less prone to retaliate than men even though the vignette recounted financial harm to their children. On the other hand, they had greater means than men for patronage reduction, perceived betrayal, and dissatisfaction. Oxytocin may lead breastfeeding women to adopt a flight instead of a fight strategy (Taylor et al, 2000) when facing a service failure, as their strategy is to adopt an “indirect” strategy (patronage reduction) instead of retaliating directly as was the case for men. Anger was the sole variable that yielded a difference between the two groups of women (lesser for breastfeeding women). This suggests that the “proxy” manipulation for oxytocin was perhaps not very successful. The oxytocin effect could be more accurately and directly tested in a more controlled environment. Accordingly the next step is to conduct a laboratory experiment in which we will present a series of vignettes to participants, whilst also administering intranasal oxytocin in a double-blind manner, as has been done by
Ellenbogen et al. (2012), Kosfeld et al. (2005), and Zak (2011), in order to explore a possible causal relationship between oxytocin and retaliatory behaviors.

REFERENCES


LATIN AMERICA ADVANCES IN CONSUMER RESEARCH (VOLUME 4) / 153

APPENDIX
Scales used in the survey (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006, 2008)

1. Attitudinal Measures: Indicate to which extent you would want (scale end points: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

1a. Desire for Retaliation
- To do something to the organization
- To take actions to get the organization in trouble
- To cause inconvenience to the organization
- To punish the organization in some way
- To make the organization get what it deserves
- To get even with the organization

1b. Patronage Reduction
- To spend less money at this business
- To stop doing business with this firm
- To reduce the frequency of interaction with the firm
- To bring a significant part of my business to a competitor.

1c. Negative Word-of-Mouth
- To spread a negative word-of-mouth about the organization
- To denigrate this organization to friends
- To tell my friends to not do business with this firm, when they are looking for a similar service

1d. Third Party Complaining
- To take legal action against the firm
- To report their behavior to a consumer governmental agency
- To contact the media to denounce their behaviors.

2. Emotional Measures: Through the service fail I felt (scale end points: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

2a. Perceived betrayal
- Cheated
- Betrayed
- Lied to
- The bank did not intend to take advantage of me. (Reverse)
- The bank tried to abuse me

2b. Dissatisfaction
- Dissatisfied
- Displeased
- Discontented

2c. Anger
- Outraged
- Resentful
- Angry
From Consumption to Meaning: How Fans Consume Star Trek in Brazil
Franciain F. Galvão, Universidade Estadual de Maringá, Brasil
Luciano Mota, Universidade Estadual de Maringá, Brasil
Olga Maria C. Pépêce, Universidade Estadual de Maringá, Brasil

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
In recent years, research with a focus on fans and fandom has expanded, revealing important cultural character in societies that study contemporary social behavior. Fan culture or fan subculture refers to members belonging to a particular group with likes and predilections of fiction and fantasy products and texts, engaging in productive activities that result in the creation of new ‘texts’ (events, books, discussions, drawings, movies, etc.) of object consumption (Kozinets, 1997). Star Trek is one of the great consumer phenomena, the most successful and lucrative Cult phenomenon in the history of television (Kozinets, 2001), is the central figure in American culture since the 1960s, crosses cultural boundaries and has a highly complex fan culture (Frazetti, 2011), and is one of the main icons of pop culture of the twentieth century.

Therefore, this research studies the subculture trekkie, fans of the “Star Trek system” or “Universe Star Trek” (Kozinets, 2001), because it is a group that surpasses other fandoms of pop culture in terms of depth and breadth of official and not official creations (Frazetti, 2011). Understanding that the meanings of consumption can be constructed differently by subgroups of consumption, we seek to investigate how the meaning of consumption related to Star Trek is given by the group of editors of the site Trek Brasilis, with the application of the theory of Metaphors of Consumption of Holt (1995). The theory conceived by Douglas Holt (1995), the Metaphor of Consumption, describes four currents of research that portray how consumers buy, divided in: Consumption as experience, Consumption as integration, Consumption as classification and Consumption as play.

About the method, is a qualitative research with a descriptive character, Holt’s (1995) consumption metaphor was applied as a basic theory, adapting the Kozinets (1997), questionnaire data collection was carried out by the application of self-filled digital questionnaire and interview by Phone with four editors of the site, from 20 open questions. From the Star Trek sites in Brazil, Trek Brasilis, the largest, most important and traditional online communication vehicle dedicated to the Star Trek phenomenon in Portuguese (Trek Brasilis, 2015) was found. The content analysis proposed by Bardin (2006) was used.

The results point to fans aged between 36 and 55, men, married, with and without children, family income of more than 10 minimum wages, full undergraduate and specialization, in the professions of Journalism, Systems Analysis, Judicial Analysis and Engineering. By classifying them according to Holt’s metaphors, the results are shown in Figure 1:

The metaphors identify the ‘integration’ by which consumers improve the perception of a consume object as a constituent element of their identity, and facilitates the symbolic use of this object or group of objects (Reading and Jenkins, 2015). This research contributes to a better understanding of the behavior of new fan consumption subcultures, since the entertainment industry has grown exponentially in recent years.

The results compose with previous researches, pointing to similar results with fans of the Star Trek universe, with different profiles, being intellectualized people from the area of exact and human sciences with a high socioeconomic level. They point out that today the experience with the consumption takes place of online form, in search of positive reward with the acquisition; don’t existing consumption as internal or external classification, as they are represented by the site Trek Brasilis; The integration occurs by the representation of the site and not of the components, the site is the mechanism of integration and; The participation is given by the defense of the Star Trek universe, however the immersion by means of games does not occur.

It is noticed that the consumption of the Star Trek universe, is not only an end in itself, but a form of expression of the identity of the fan, apprehended like philosophy of life that goes beyond the own consumption of the products. The fans consume the idealization of the perception of humanity conceived by Gene Rondenberry, and as Robert Kozinets says: “Star Trek’s philosophy is more than a merchandise”, Star Trek is our way of living!

REFERENCES
Kozinets, Robert V. (1997). TO BOLDLY Go: A Hypermodern Ethnography of Star Trek & Fins’ Culture and Communities of Consumption. Thesis submitted to The School of Business in conformity with the requirements for the degree of a Doctor of Philosophy Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada, July.
Online Brand Content Sharing on Social Networks – An Experiment Assessing the Role of Emotions on News and Advertising Online Sharing
Wilian R. Feitosa, IFSP, Brazil
Delane Botelho, Fundação Getulio Vargas, Brazil

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Content sharing is a way to exchange information, as is the case with spoken language. This can also be referred to as word-of-mouth (WOM) communication, which is a term used in marketing literature to describe interpersonal communication about a specific subject, product, person, and/or idea (Berger 2014). All WOM communication involves the sharing of information. Belk (2010) conceptualized sharing in a broader manner, to encompass the allocation of resources in a non-reciprocal way, in which payment is irrelevant, and there is an expression of love and affection from those who share to whom receiving the message, which suggests an altruistic bias. This differs from the direct exchange of goods or the provision of gifts, because, in these acts, reciprocity is expected (Belk 2010). On the other hand, some authors have highlighted a selfish bias, and shown that sharing by an individual – whether this relates to goods or ideas – generates (i) indirect economic gains, such as broadcasting to the world the sharer’s personality or making them appear in a more positive light to others (Berger 2014; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh and Gremler 2004; Sundaram, Kaushik and Webster 1998); (ii) creation of weak ties and maintenance of strong ones (Goldenberg, Libai and Muller 2001; Granovetter 1973); and (iii) formation of connections, reliable relationships, and social capital (Putnam 2000). Social media facilitates information sharing with large groups, but most of this sharing is done offline. However, it remains unclear what leads people to share content that is emotionally charged. People share and pass along information to one another to, for example, reduce anxiety (Sundaram et al., 1998) or to deal with negative feelings (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Thus, sharing has an intrinsic relationship with emotions felt by the sharer. Emotions have been investigated in marketing (Bagozzi et al., 1999) in terms of their impact on customer satisfaction with the use of goods and services (Ladhari 2007; White 2010) and consumers’ intention to share; and their influence on social interactions in general, since emotion conveyed by one person can lead to a desired reaction in another (Andrade and Ho 2009). The main goal of this paper is to evaluate the emotional determinants of online content sharing about brands by consumers.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
Virtual social networks are environments in which online sharing occurs. Content shared may comprise personal perceptions, opinions, photos of the sharer and the places where they have been, or videos and promotional material posted by businesses (Porter and Golan 2006). Content that is shared by many people is referred to as “viral,” in reference to way in which a virus disseminates through environment until it reaches an entire population. This “viralization” is therefore result of sharing. This is because it reduces marginal costs of relaying a message, as (i) there are many “issuers” of the information (any user in a network can potentially re-share content that is of interest to company), and/or (ii) it increases the relevance of the company in online searches, making the firm more discoverable on the Web. Possible consequences of this include a reduction in customer-acquisition cost, increased sales conversions (where online or not), and lead generation. Viral content usually comes in the form of videos, especially humor, music, or opinion pieces, for example user empathy with content; shame for users who have done socially considered social unacceptable; focus on controversial issues; and use of obscene, ironic, or poor-taste humor, or content that was offensive to a certain society group. Tucker (2015) pointed out the existence of a negative relationship between viral content and the persuasion power of online advertisements, especially in videos containing humor or visual appeal. More specifically, by analyzing a database of 400 advertisements in the form of online videos, and measuring persuasion through questionnaires, Tucker (2015) found that the more overtly persuasive video was, the fewer views it had. On the other hand, more persuasive and exciting videos, which also generated a large number of comments, were similarly highly shared. For example, Dobele, Lindgreen, Beverland, Vanhamme, and Wijk (2007) indicated that content that generates surprise, combined with emotions such as disgust, anger, fear, sadness, or joy, tends to go viral more often. Berger (2014) and Dobele et al. (2007) specified that emotions generated by content can lead individuals to share it: more intense emotions – that is, those that generate more arousal – increase chances that individuals will spread the word. Miniero, Rurale and Addis (2014) corroborate this on hedonic, arts and cultural experiences. Baumsteiger, Blatslavsky, Finkenauer, and Vohls (2001) found that people feel negative emotions more intensely than positive ones. Thus, two hypotheses are formulated here:

Hypothesis 1: Content with positive valence generates a higher likelihood of sharing compared to that with negative valence.

Hypothesis 2: Content that generates high arousal has a higher likelihood of being shared compared to that generating low arousal.

Berger (2013) additionally found that a perception that content has practical usefulness can also lead individuals to share it. Warnings, alerts, or content containing unfavorable reviews should be seen as more useful than greetings or compliments, given that negative content is rarer and can lead individuals to be identified as having deep knowledge of a subject. Ho and Dempsey (2010) also showed that usefulness is relevant to determine which content is more likely to be shared, and that higher-usefulness content is more sharable by individualistic people or by those who want to help others, since both groups share to seek inclusion, affection, and control. This means that sharing content with usefulness value can demonstrate altruism and improve the image of those who share it. It can also help others to reduce risk and search time for information, and support their decisions (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998). In other words, useful content can help others, which leads to the sharing of content containing this feature. Examples of this may include content that aims to prevent diseases by reducing the consumption of certain products; notices of store promotions; or communications regarding a company’s poor customer service. However, the human tendency to pursue pleasure also leads to the sharing of other types of content, such as humor, music, and positive messages. A moment of pleasure can be as useful to others as a news story related to health, or one that generates economic benefits (Guerin and Miyazaki 2006, Yang and Wang 2015, Miniero, Rurale and Addis 2014). Sibona (2014), for example, found that people who are most excluded from friendly connections in online social networks are those who post content.
considered as being of little or no importance to those who exclude them. Therefore, usefulness appears to be subjective, and its lack can lead to extreme actions, such as interrupting a friendship. Also, usefulness of content may depend on its valence. Negative-valence content generates greater emotional impact, is processed more slowly (Aihlulwalia 2002; Baumeister et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2009), and can express care for the recipient, and the content is then considered as more trustworthy and accurate (Sen and Lerman 2007). Positive-valence content is more common (De Angelis et al. 2012; East et al. 2007, East et al. 2008) and therefore may be less useful. Chen and Lurie (2013) found empirically that negative evaluations on restaurant review sites have higher perceived value for those who read them than positive reviews, as positive assessments tend to generate suspicion that the views of the person writing the evaluation are unreliable. The generates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Negative-valence content has greater usefulness than positive-valence content.

METHOD

The study involves a factorial 2 (ads vs. news) x 2 (positive vs. negative valence) design. The experiment used an between-subjects approach, with respondents randomly allocated by means of a draw via software to one of four scenarios with different simulated contents.

Data was collected from October 1 to November 22, 2013, using the convenience sampling method. A total of 718 e-mails were sent to undergraduate students in São Paulo, Brazil. It resulted in a total of 157 responses; i.e. a 21.8% response rate. The dependent variables and scales used in this experiment are the following: (i) Likelihood of sharing online; (ii) Likelihood of sharing offline; (iii) usefulness; (iv) Arousal.

The independent variables used in this experiment are I) Emotional valence, manipulated as positive or negative; and ii) Format, manipulated as advertisements or news. The experiment used an initial database of 272 posts identified as comprising content that could meet the experiment’s goal. Thus, these posts consisted of a set of advertising campaigns on social networks, with different valences, which had the purpose of stimulating or inhibiting the consumption of different products or services. Manipulation was needed due to the choice to use positive and negative content in different formats: advertisements and news. The same brand was chosen: Coca-Cola. The choice was made based on both the availability of the pre-tested material (news and advertisements), as well as brand recognition. While the news content had been created by newspapers and reproduced on social networks, the advertisements were developed by users of social networks: the positive by a fan, which was later posted to the official account of the brand on a social network, and the negative by an activist opposed to the brand, and relayed on the network. All content was adapted in order to make it suitable for the experiment, and tested on marketing experts. The adaptation involved the scaling of text and processing of image quality. These four scenarios are: I) a positive ad: based on an ad made by a Coca-cola supporter, on Instagram social network, and retransmitted by the Coca-cola account—a little dog asks, inside a Coca-Cola can: “Did you like my Coca Cola. Open happiness”; II) a negative ad: based on an ad made by an activist against junk food, and published in social networks, a Coca-Cola Zero can appears with these written on it: “The more you avoid soda, the better”, and the account completes: “Do not drink Coca-Cola. Coca-Cola is equivalent to 12 teaspoons of sugar. Obesity, diabetes, stroke, arthritis, and even cancer may be caused by it.”; III) a positive report on an online newspaper telling about a social action sponsored by Coca-Cola helping youngster living in poor regions to get professional training to start working on retail, and IV) a negative report in an online newspaper tells about a mouse found inside a Coca-Cola bottle.

RESULTS

Respondent Profile
The 157 replies came from undergraduate students of a business administration course. In terms of age, 67% were between 19 and 25, and the average age was 24 years. Regarding gender, 70% of the sample was female. In terms of time spent on online social networks, 69% spent more than an hour a day online (56% of men, 74% women), and 32% said they accessed the internet through a mobile phone.

Verification Tests

The internal consistency of the scales used in this experiment was verified using Cronbach’s alpha. All scales had values higher than 0.8.

Manipulations Check

The manipulations check was performed using t-test average differences. With regard to the manipulation, its valence was verified from the answers given to the statement: “This post stimulated positive emotions in me.” The positive content showed an average of around 3.53 (standard deviation of 1.32), while the average for the negative was 2.17 (standard deviation of 1.39), which leads to rejection of the hypothesis of equal averages (t = 6.148, p < 0.001).

Analysis of Variance

The first analysis was performed on likelihood to share. The F-test of the average differences showed no statistical significance between the dependent variable SHARE online and the independent variables valence and format (p > 0.05). Regarding to SHARE offline, the F-test was not statistically significant relative to the isolated variables, but there was a significant interaction (p = 0.005), indicating that the format plays a moderating role in the relationship between valence and likelihood of sharing offline: when the valence is negative, advertising becomes more likely to be shared offline than news; where the valence is positive, the opposite occurs. SHARE offline presented a higher average for news in comparison to advertising when both are positive (3.366 against 2.682). When they are negative, the relationship is reversed: advertising has a higher average than news (3.156 vs. 2.857). Regarding to arousal, there was a statistical significance in the relationship between format and arousal and between valence and arousal, but there was no interaction among the independent variables (p > 0.05). Content with negative valence generated more arousal than positive-valence content (overall average 3.51 versus 2.90, p < 0.001), and news generated more arousal than ads (overall average 3.46 versus 3.00, p = 0.004). Regarding to usefulness, all tests were statistically significant, indicating a relationship between valence (F = 22.342, p < 0.001) and format (F = 5.548, p = 0.02), and an interaction between the dependent variables (F = 6.985, p = 0.009): when the valence was positive, the usefulness of the news was greater than that of the advertisements (3.12 to 2.24); however, when the valence was negative, the advertising usefulness was greater than that of the news (3.54 versus 3.49). The findings show that format moderates relationship between valence and usefulness. Content considered most useful (averaging in the usefulness scale equal to or above 3) had a higher average likelihood of being shared online (3.86, for high usefulness and 2.25 for low; p < 0.001) and offline (3.46 versus 2.24; p < 0.001). The usefulness
was correlated with dependent variables: sharing online (Pearson correlation = 0.674, \( p < 0.001 \)); sharing offline (Pearson correlation = 0.646, \( p < 0.001 \)) and arousal (Pearson correlation = 0.678, \( p < 0.001 \)).

This experiment showed that with respect to format: (i) news tends to be more useful and generate more arousal compared to advertisements; (ii) negative news and positive advertisements tend to generate less likelihood of being shared than positive news and negative advertisements do; and (iii) demarketing actions, which discourage consumption via advertisements, are considered more useful than common advertisements, generate more arousal, and are more sharable compared to ordinary content or positive advertisements.

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper supports the idea that in terms of sharing content, items that are positive and useful are most commonly chosen by the consumer. Furthermore, the study of arousal and its relationship with user predisposition to engage in exchanges of information is in line with findings from previous studies (Dobele et al. 2007, Berger and Milkman 2012) regarding sharing. In addition, the usefulness is determinant and should have a mediating effect on the relationship between arousal, emotional valence, and likelihood to share. Findings can direct the creation of communication campaigns, whether in public relations – as considered in this study – or in other communication tools. When managing institutional crises, organizations can answer questions by order of arousal level generated in each stakeholder group. The findings represent a major challenge for organizations, as well as a theoretical implication: the likelihood that advertisements opposing a company will be shared spontaneously appears to be larger than for positive news. An attempt should be made to better qualify the different types of advertising; for example, institutional advertising and related products and services. Elections have been deeply influenced by the production of negative and positive content by journalists. Brands have been the target of campaigns by activists who exhibit unfavorable characteristics of products. This study helps to explain which content will be welcomed by consumers, and highlights that consumers will share a message if they believe it to be exciting and useful to some extent. But is it the content’s perceived usefulness that generates arousal, or is arousal a prerequisite for content to be considered useful? Finally, would content in the form of advertising generated by a company be received differently from the content studied here? Among the limitations of this study are those relating to experimental research techniques, such as the study’s external validity, which may have been compromised in favor of the internal validity, and the use of a convenience sample, which can lead to bias.

### REFERENCES


### Table 1. Results Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Content Valence</th>
<th>News</th>
<th>Ads</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Share Online</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>No significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share Offline</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>3.366</td>
<td>2.682</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>2.857</td>
<td>3.156</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal*</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usefulness</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* No significance on interplay


Frugality: Antecedents, Consequents and Implications for Consumer Welfare

Leticia Boccomino Marselha, FGV/EAESP, Brazil
Delane Botelho, EAESP-FGV, Brazil

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Current society in industrialized countries is characterized as one of hyperconsumption, which have generated: i) negative impacts in terms of the environmental effect of production and disposal (Fujii, 2006), ii) increase of social inequalities and constant consumer dissatisfaction (Young, 1996), and iii) anxiety regarding the need to buy more, with the purchase by itself not necessarily contributing to consumer well-being. Frugality may be a response to reduce such excessive levels of consumption and increase consumer awareness about the side effects of this behavior. It is defined as an intentional and voluntary behavior (Cherrier, 2009) and a rational virtue, which consists in the reduction of acquisitions (Lastovicka et al., 1999) and the efficient use of economic goods and services to achieve long-term goals, based on a simplification of desires and the lifestyle adopted (Sherry, 1990). Our objective is to investigate the antecedents of frugality to understand what influences its emergence and what leads consumers to adopt such behavior, as well as to understand the relationship between frugality and its consequents.

Self-control of consumer spending

Frugal individuals prioritize long-term goals over immediate satisfaction (Sherry, 1990), and are more conscious in the personal, social, environmental and financial dimension. A highly influential factor in the financial dimension is the self-control of consumer spending (SCCS), and failures in self-control may lead to impulsive buying, so we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Consumers with low (high) levels of self-control over spending are less (more) frugal.

Focus on hedonic purchase values

Buying experiences can have both utilitarian and hedonic values (Belk, 1987; Sherry, 1990), but it is common to associate hedonic attributes with luxury, and utilitarian attributes with pragmatic needs (Kivetz & Zheng, 2006). Frugality is, in fact, a rational virtue, and therefore resembles the utilitarian values of consumption. Thus:

Hypothesis 2: Consumers with a greater focus on hedonic purchase values are less frugal compared to those with a more utilitarian focus.

Susceptibility to interpersonal influence

Individuals who are most susceptible to interpersonal influence are also more susceptible to behavioral changes, and may opt for consumption of certain products and services appreciated by his or her reference group, without necessarily considering his or her individual preferences. Frugal consumers are less willing to consume things that they do not need, so they may be less seduced by their interpersonal network. So, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Consumers who are more susceptible to interpersonal influence are less frugal.

Tendency to repair products

Consumers replace a product when he or she evaluates it as obsolete in some way. This may be in the technical sense, if the product no longer fulfills the functions for which it was acquired, or in the relative sense, when the consumer wishes to replace it on the basis of a comparison of potential. Since repairing entails extending the product life cycle, rather than increasing purchases and searching for substitute products, the fourth hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 4: The more (less) frugal consumers are, the greater (lesser) tendency to repair products they have.

Satisfaction with life

More materialistic individuals tend to have lower levels of satisfaction, greater unhappiness (Belk, 1987), and lower levels of autonomy, gratitude, and meaning in life and take less joy from their relationships. In modern societies, happiness is promised through the acquisition and consumption of goods and services; however, the economic system built on this logic does not fully meet real needs. So, H5 arises:

Hypothesis 5: More frugal consumers have greater satisfaction with life.

An online survey was conducted in October 2015 with 171 Brazilian respondents. The data were analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM) via PLS (Partial Least Square) approach. In the measurement model, all variables presented indexes greater than 0.8 for composite reliability, which indicates internal consistency. For convergent validity two criteria were considered: (i) standard factorial loadings of the indicators (outer loadings) and (ii) average variance extracted (AVE). The standardized root mean square residual was was 0.079, indicating a good fit of the measurement model. Our results support all hypotheses except H2.

Our research has implications for practitioners. Marketing communications to frugal consumers should be more objective and informative, since such consumers (at least those in our sample) tend to be less susceptible to interpersonal influence and have greater self-control over spending. Conscious and efficient consumption may be a relevant trend for years to come, so communications that value consumer well-being over product attributes may be more effective for audiences who are more conscious about the effects (both positive and negative) of consumption. The fact that frugal consumers have a greater tendency to repair products than do nonfrugals has implications for marketing management and for public policies. In terms of environmental benefits, repair is one of the best options because it requires less energy and much of the material is retained. Government incentive mechanisms for product repair could be discussed with companies, so that the habit of repairing (which was common in the 1960s and 1970s) again becomes part of our consumption culture.

REFERENCES


Mobility Factors for Reducing Self-Reported Travel Times to Health Services
Diana E. Forero, Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz, Colombia
Laura M. Torres, Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz, Colombia
Laura S. Rodríguez, Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz, Colombia
Juan C. Correa, Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz, Colombia

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
The spatio-temporal dimension related to mobility and transportation can facilitate or inhibit the physical access to health services. The organization of transportation systems affects travel times to health services as well as individuals’ desired mobility as it makes less attractive for them to take additional routes for reaching health center. Thus, transportation means, travel times and other factors that affect the mobility in general, are said to be contextual aspects that facilitate access or become barriers to the use of health services (Arcury et al., 2005). As such, this is a topic of multidisciplinary interest in the areas of transformative consumer research (Anderson et al., 2013), public policy and management of health care services (Syed, Gerber, & Sharp, 2013). Understanding the factors that facilitate mobility and access to health services enables the design of more flexible, adaptable and integrated strategies in specific consumption contexts, reducing both service barriers and consumers’ vulnerability (Grabovski, Loignon, & Fortin, 2013).

The study of access to health services calls the attention of different perspectives, including the geographic one. From the spatial perspective, one subject of study consists of analyzing the impact of residence areas on the development of morbidity and mortality. From the temporal perspective, other topic entails the relationship between travel times, environmental stress, and population health (Black & Black, 2009; Linard, Gilbert, Snow, Noor, & Tatem, 2012). In particular, previous research have found that travel time to the care setting is a barrier to health care delivery in different populations, especially for the poor, children, the elderly and the young (Syed, Gerber, & Sharp, 2013). When travel time is too extended it is more likely that the person decides not to go to the health service. These studies showed external factors (enabling factors) affecting access to health services that increase health inequities among populations. However, there is less knowledge about the factors that facilitate the reduction of commuting time to health services, when there are mobility problems.

In Bogotá there is a mobility problem that affects the access of the population to health services. The identification of the most vulnerable populations and their associated travel times, as well as the factors that contribute to their speeding, or slowing, can help health service providers and policy-makers to facilitate the access to health centers, especially in those populations with a greater risk of morbidity and mortality. This study tackles this problem, by identifying factors that are good predictors of shorter travel times to health services, from a population perspective.

FACILITATING FACTORS AND THE USE OF HEALTH SERVICES
Travel time to health services can be affected by several factors. Studies in health geography show that both predisposing and enabling factors are the two central aspects affecting the access to health services. Among the predisposing factors are demographic characteristics such as age, gender or ethnicity, and socio-familial characteristics, such as the composition of the household or the number of people with income. The enabling factors include the level of income, the existence of public transport, the type of medical insurance (Arcury et al., 2005), access to telecommunication media. In this context, the transport and its associated dimensions are the enabling factors.

The people mobility is facilitated or restricted by the transport type used, the number of different transportation means required and the mode of transport: public, private, motorized or non-motorized. Other geographical aspects such as home residence and workplace locations, as well as the expense derived from the use of different transportation means, also affect the access to the health center location (Lilienthal, Possemato, Funderburk, & Beehler, 2016). In general, it can be said that enabling factors can include the means available to individuals for the use of health services, they include resources, structures, institutions, procedures and regulations through which they can access or interact with health services (Levesque, Harris, & Russell, 2013). Enabling factors can include individual’s resources to access the services or to facilitate their own mobility. Thus, owning a vehicle or consulting information online can also be considered within this group.

Both predisposing and enabling factors have been extensively studied as determinants of health (Kelly et al., 2016), but these factors can have an impact on travel times. In this regard, these factors help to understand the reasons what decreases barriers to consumer access to health services and the differences between populations, as it is shown in the following.

METHOD
The study was conducted with a sample of 2130 habitants of three towns (n=1745) and six small villages (n=385) in Cundinamarca department of Colombia. The three cities included the capital city (Bogotá) and two nearby intermediate cities (Facatativá and Girardot). The villages were in some cases with more urban characteristics (Chía, Ubaté and Soacha) and, in other cases, they were populations more distant of rural type (Pacho, Buituima and Villa Gómez). The regions included in the sample were selected for their high rates of maternal and infant morbidity and mortality, according to statistics from the Ministry of Health. Multi-stage sampling was used and a survey-type questionnaire was developed with a section of predisposing variables and other of enabling factors and the information about the time that the person takes in the displacement from the house to the health service. The first section included socio-demographic characteristics and family features such as age, sex, income, family size and composition, children in gestation and under five years of age. The second section was about enabling factors related to transportation and telecommunications systems used. Subjects were asked to report the use of different modes of transport employed in a typical day (i.e., the public and private motorized and non-motorized transport and walking); the frequency of use and the total expenses per week of each modality. In addition, subjects were asked to report their areas of residence and workplace as well as the usual commuting time. Finally, we inquired about the telecommunications systems used by each person, whether they had text messaging systems, Internet at home or near the residence and prepaid or postpaid cell phones.

In order to elaborate the model of the factors that predict shorter travel times, a decision tree method was used, with the CART growth method. It was employed the division into two halves of the model validation sample. We took a sample of 100 cases as the minimum for the filial node and 50 for the parental. We used for the pruning process, a standard error of zero, so that the risk of error was minimized.
RESULTS
Of the different variables included for the analysis in the predictive model, only three factors allowed to identify the populations with different durations to attend the health services: i.) commuting time between home residence and workplace, ii.) the access to Internet near to home and iii) the weekly expense in transportation. The importance of these variables was 100% in the time of travel, 47.2% having Internet and 32.9% in weekly transportation expenditure. The risk of the model obtained in the contrast sample was of 804.5, the sample deviation of 28.4, leading to a coefficient of determination of 99.6%. This is a good predictive model of the commuting times to the health service place.

The resulting hierarchical tree shows that the commuting time between home and work is the best predictor of travel times to health service. The first node indicates that travel times to the health service improve when the workplace is less than 82.5 minutes away from home. On average, the time of access to the health service decreases in 7 minutes in comparison with those who need to cover longer distances to move from home to work. Those who reported shorter commuting times from home to work and have Internet access reduce travel time to health services by an average of 5 minutes. Finally, those who have Internet near their homes and a transport cost cheaper than US$ 12 in their weekly trips, showed the shortest travel times to health services. As for the transport expenditure, this is correlated in 43.6% with the number of public transport modalities used, this result indicates that the greater public transport expenditure generates a greater expenditure on transport in general. The results can be seen in figure 1.

On the other hand, it should be noted that none of the predisposing variables was a good predictor of travel times to the health service. Neither the individual characteristics nor the familiar aspects facilitate the access time to health services. Living in rural areas or towns close to cities is not a predictor of travel time to the health service, nor social class. In addition, the correlations between these factors and travel times between the residence and work sites are low (Chi-square = 1291 sig., 0.000, Eta = 0.24 and Chi-square = 324 sig. 0.000, Eta= 0.23, respectively).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS
The results show that travel times to the health service are determined by spatio-temporal factors and by access to information. From the geographic variables, the commuting times from home to workplace are the best predictors of travel times to the health service. However, neither the place of residence nor the place of work are predictors of travel times to health services, this suggests that access to the health service is more related to time than to distance from the source, this is a factor more related to mobility than to the spatial location of the origin of the displacement. These findings are consistent with transport studies that show the differential role of spatial and temporal dimensions in explaining transport and mobility phenomena (Janelle & Gillespie, 2004).

This result shows that health care policies and services should consider the temporal logic of the service for their organizations. Priority must be given to commuting time as well as spatial or social class factors. The temporary convenience to access the service facilitates it in different populations, of all kinds of social classes and rural or urban zones. In this particular case, the locations from the home to the work that are superior to 84 minutes, generate populations with greater vulnerability and with a greater risk of non-physical assistance to the services, increasing the access barrier. Although each case is particular, it is necessary to deepen both the distribution of users’ journeys and the relationship between travel times from different areas of origin and the network of health care centers. This information helps to create models of health care attention networks which in turn are more sensitive to users’ needs as they capture travel demand (Geurs & Van Wee, 2004). From the viewpoint of consumer psychology, it is necessary to understand the time thresholds that are convenient or inconvenient for different services and conditions, so more objective measures can be established on the conditions in which travel times become barriers to access.

Finally, mobility-facilitating factors are associated with increased access to mobile information, such as that provided through the internet, and the decrease in transportation costs. The proximity to urban transport lines and information become facilitators of access and mobility towards health services, these two aspects need to be considered within the barriers to remove to increase access to health services, in addition of others factors that have been studied as financial barriers (Mcpake et al., 2013). The result also highlights the need to increase access by mobile means such as telehealth and health informatics, as well as services in homes.

REFERENCES

Figure 1. Predictors for the time of travel to the health service


The Role of Brand Predisposed Preferences on the Effectiveness of Product Placement: Comparing Hispanic and Non-Hispanic Moviegoers in the US

Sindy Chapa, Florida State University, USA
Alejandro Estrada, Florida State University, USA
Mengying Zhang, Florida State University, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explore to what extent, the level of brand familiarity and a positivity predisposition toward a brand affects the implicit versus explicit product placement on Hispanic moviegoers versus non-Hispanics. For the purpose of this study, the movie “Deadpool” was selected with a total sample size of 616. A national panel was utilized for data collection, and a SEM and ANOVA tests were conducted for Hypothesis testing. A proposed model shows brand familiarity antecedes brand-recall and attitudes toward the brand, which in turns affects the intention to purchase. A brand “predisposed preference” was found to be a stronger antecedent of brand-recall and attitudes, as well as a direct predictor of intention to purchase. When comparing product placement forms, the results showed an explicit brand placement has a greater brand-recall (48%) than the implicit brand placement (26%). Further, it was found that Hispanics were more likely to recall the explicit brand placement when compared to African Americans, Whites, and Asians, in that order.
# Author Index

## A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abdul-Ghani, Eathar</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonio, Juan</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arias, Claudia</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aristizabal, José A.</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Askegaard, Søren</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bajde, Domen</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banerjee, Pronobesh</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbosa, Maria de Lourdes de Azevedo</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barboza, Stephanie</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barrios, Andrés</td>
<td>5, 5, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bastos, Adriana</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battistella-Lima, Suzana Valente</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becerra, Enrique P.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belk, Russell</td>
<td>28, 124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhandari, Gokul</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bockenholt, Ulf</td>
<td>1, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boegershausen, Johannes</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borchardt, Miriam</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botelho, Delane</td>
<td>111, 132, 157, 161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brito, Pedro Quehlas</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britto, Larissa de</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bussiiero, Dave</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bustamante, Juan</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Camacho, Sonia</td>
<td>5, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camerer, Colin</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camilo, Elisabete</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantarotti, Aline</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carvalho, Diana</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carvalho, Lilian Soares Pereira</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casalinho, Gilmar D’Agostini Oliveira</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castaño, Ricardo</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chang, Hua</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapa, Sindy</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatterjee, Subimal</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chitturi, Ravindra</td>
<td>17, 109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chun, Rosa</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correa, Juan C.</td>
<td>103, 163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## D

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dahl, Darren W.</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dakduk, Silvana</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalman, M. Deniz</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalmoro, Marlon</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delgado, Henry Navarro</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimoka, Angelica</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drozdova, Natalie</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duque, Lola</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duque-Oliva, Edison Jair</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eckhardt, Giana M.</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edt, Kiss Orhidea</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estrada, Alejandro</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estrada-Mejia, Catalina</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## F

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farias, Salomão Alencar de</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farias, Salomão De</td>
<td>144, 146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feiereisen, Stephanie</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feitos, Wilan R.</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferreira, Alexandre</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferreira, Bianca Gabriely</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferreira, Kirla</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fleck, João Pedro Dos S.</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forero, Diana E.</td>
<td>103, 163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francisco, Laura Rojas De</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furtado, Wilderson Moisés</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## G

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galvão, Franciciana F.</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galvis, Isabel</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaviria, Pilar Rojas</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giraldo, Mario</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goedegebure, Robert P.G.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gomez-Villanueva, Jorge Eduardo</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>González, Eva M.</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarnieri, Fernanda</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guillermon</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## H

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hansen, Karsten T.</td>
<td>1, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hennig-Thuraus, Thorsten.</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henriquín-Daza, Maria Cecilia</td>
<td>21, 109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herpen, Erica van</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoegg, Joandrea</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hu, Guimei</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husemann, Katharina C.</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyde, Kenneth F.</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iembo, Giandomenico</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## J

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior, João Henriques de Sousa</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## K

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kamleitner, Bernadette</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karimi, Sahar</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim, Pielah</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiss, Orhidea Edith</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kleppe, Ingeborg Astrid</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klesse, Anne-Kathrin</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knoeferle, Klemens</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koku, P. Sergius</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## L

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liang, Jianping</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liu, Yu-Lun</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llonch-Andreu, Joan</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Londono-Roldan, Juan Carlos</td>
<td>21, 109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lopez-Lomeli, Miguel Angel.</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## M

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macias, Juan Lucas</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manoharan, Bhupesh</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manrai, Ajay K.</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manrai, Lalita A.</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcuzzo, Giuseppina</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marchand, Andre</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marselha, Leticia Boccinomo</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall, Roger</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matos, Celso Augusto De</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McShane, Blakeley B.</td>
<td>1, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melo, Francisco Vicente Sales</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mette, Frederike Monika Budiner</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meyvis, Tom</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miranda, Ana Paula de</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mishra, Sanjay</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitchell, Vincent-Wayne</td>
<td>67, 142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montoya, Luz-Alexandra</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mota, Luciano</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## N

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nadler, Amos</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nascimento, Polyanna Do</td>
<td>144, 146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasr, Linda</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nave, Gideon</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neto, João do Carmo Ribeiro</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonehoy, Roberto Guedes</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## O

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ogallar, Pedro M. y</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oliveira, Zaila</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orozco-Gómez, Ma Margarita</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osorio, Juan Carlos Monroy</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otálor, Mauricio Losada</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ouraumhme, Nacima</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## P

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pacheco, Barney G.</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacheco, Barney</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacheco, Marvin</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parente-Laverde, Ana Maria</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paus, Vilhelm</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pépêce, Olga</td>
<td>75, 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pépêce, Olga Maria C.</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pereira, Beatriz</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pereira, Giancarlo</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pernell-Hutton, Cherisse</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preece, Chloe</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahman, Osmud</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rakshit, Krishanu</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramírez, Germán Contreras</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramírez-Angulo, Pedro Julián</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rayburn, Steven</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rech, Eduardo</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rialp, Josep</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robayo-Pinzon, Oscar</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rodner, Victoria</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rodríguez, Laura S.</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rodríguez-Solis, Laura</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rohden, Simoni Fernanda</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosas, Jose A.</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenbaum, Mark S.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubio, Natalia</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saad, Gad</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandoval, M.</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santos, Marcos Ferreira</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sevilla, Julio</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silva, Marianny</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silva, Nőga Da</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singh, Surendra N.</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singh, Vishal</td>
<td>1, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stoel, Leslie</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sussenbach, Sophie</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tello, Luis</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torres, Laura M.</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torres, Luis</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trijp, Hans C.M. van</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tully, Stephanie</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyrelli, Julia</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trujillo, Carlos Andres V.</td>
<td>11, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaidyanathan, Rajiv</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Velasco, Carlos</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venkatraman, Vinod</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veres, Zoltán</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viegas, Cláudia</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vossen, Alexander</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voyer, Peter</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vries, Eline de</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang, Haizhong</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang, Ze</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venkatraman, Vinod</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoltán, Veres</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zavas, David</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Mengying</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoltán, Veres</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>