Preface

The 12th Asia-Pacific Conference of the Association for Consumer Research (ACR) was held at the Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, Gujarat, India, January 10-12, 2019. This volume reports the presentations made in special, competitive paper, and working paper/poster sessions.

A doctoral consortium which attracted 40 doctoral candidates and several leading scholars from around the globe kicked off the proceedings on January 10. The main conference held on January 11 and 12 attracted over 100 participants from 15 countries and featured 38 competitive paper presentations, 45 working papers/posters, and 4 special (invited) sessions.

We thank our generous sponsors: Viacom18 Media Private Limited and Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad. Many wonderful people worked tirelessly to help make the conference a success. We would like to thank in particular reviewers of Competitive and Working Papers. Special thanks are also due to Professor Durairaj Maheswaran (Doctoral Consortium Chair), ACR Executive Director Professor Rajiv Vaidyanathan, administrative coordinators Malika M. and Puneet Bhargava, and ACR Executive Assistant Brenda Monahan. Last but not the least, thanks to the ACR Board of Directors, and especially the 2017 President Meg Campbell and the 2018 President Stacy Wood for offering us the opportunity to organize the Asia-Pacific ACR Conference 2019.

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Table of Contents

Preface ................................................................. iii
Conference Committees & Reviewers ....................................... v

Competitive Papers—Full

Consumers’ Future Orientation and the Effect of Temporal Framing on Health Risk Perception ................................. 1
Silvia Heideker, University of Erlangen-Nürnberg, Germany

The Influence of Shopping Goals on Consumers’ Sequential Choices ................................................................. 4
Naoki Akamatsu, Meiji Gakuin University, Japan
Reo Fukuda, Asia University, Japan

Competitive Papers—Extended Abstracts

A Conceptual Framework of the Role of Shame
During Violation of Trust in a Consumer-Brand Relationship ................................................................. 9
Karthik Selvanayagam, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India
Varisha Rehman, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India

Across Space and Time: How Cultural and Institutional Differences
Explain Consumer-Brand Relationships’ Differential Effects on Brand Loyalty ..................................................... 11
Mansur Khamitov, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
Xin (Shane) Wang, Western University, Canada
Matthew Thomson, Western University, Canada

All That Glitters Is Gold:
Toward a Theory of Sensory Flamboyance and Subtlety in Consumption ..................................................... 13
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA
Russell Belk, York University, Canada

A Serial Mediation Effect of Immersive Virtual Reality on Purchase Intention in
Real Estate and the Moderating Role of Psychological Distance ................................................................. 15
Nabanita Talukdar, Golden Gate University, USA
Shubin Yu, Peking University, China

Assuming Ordinality: Best-to-Worst Inferences in Vertical Lists ................................................................. 17
Mathew Isaac, Seattle University, USA
Shailendra Pratap Jain, University of Washington, USA

Bail Out on the Bundle? A Study of Factors Impacting
Transaction Decoupling and Post Purchase Bundle Consumption ................................................................. 18
Arpita Pandey, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India

Brand Names, Numbers and Forgiveness: The Leet Effect ................................................................. 19
Shelly Rathee, University of Utah, USA
Tamara Masters, Brigham Young University, USA
Fang Yu Buck, University of Utah, USA

Brand Transgressions: Measuring the Influence of
Relationship Marketing Strategies in Customer Forgiveness Behaviour ................................................................. 20
Shubhomoy Banerjee, O.P. Jindal Global University, India
Sunitha Ratnakaram, O.P. Jindal Global University, India
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myungjin Chung, University of Texas at Arlington, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ritesh Saini, University of Texas at Arlington, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Ambivalence, Dissonance, and Indifference – Apples, Oranges,</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Pears or Peas in the Same Pod?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piyush Sharma, Curtin University, Australia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheryl Leo, Murdoch University, Australia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vartika Srivastava, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do Number Endings Influence the Likelihood of Consumer Debt Repayment?</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathew Isaac, Seattle University, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yantao Wang, Microsoft Corporation, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert M. Schindler, Rutgers University, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of Base Service Tariff Structure on Purchase of Add-On Services</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aruna Tatavarthy, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sreelata Jonnalagedda, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farther You Are Happier I Am: The Role of Perceived Attribution and</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charitable Credit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makam Balaji, University of Nottingham, UK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gopal Das, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling Wealthy, Spending Less:</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Interplay of Perceived and Objective Wealth on Consumption</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silvia Bellezza, Columbia University, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joe Gladstone, University College London, UK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grateful Compliance or Proud Defiance?</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Distinct Effects of Pride and Gratitude on the Effectiveness of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-drinking Messages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felix Septianto, University of Auckland, New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Possessiveness Cues in Brand Names Impact Brand Evaluations</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mansur Khamitov, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marina Puzakova, Lehigh University, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Data Trigger Combinations on Effectiveness of Personalized</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banner Ads</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhya Narayanan, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richa Agrawal, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadat Reza, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance Given to Future Price</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitin Soni, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jagrook Dawra, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photographic Data Privacy: Sharing Sexually Explicit Imagery Online</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekant Veer, University of Canterbury, New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maja Golf-Papez, University of Canterbury, New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeing More in Less:</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Mindsets Influence the Process and Outcome of Product Customiza</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geetanjali Saluja, University of Technology Sydney, Australia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rashmi Adaval, University of Cincinnati, USA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should Consumers Be Better Informed About Commercial Initiatives in</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment Content?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fanny Fong Yee Chan, Hang Seng University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spillover Effect from the Marketplace Brand Under Conditions of Di</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stribution Exclusivity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ritika Sharma, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saravana Jaikumar, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, India</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Effect of Food in Motion Figure on the Perceived Healthiness of</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moty Amar, Ono Academic College, Israel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aner Tal, Ono Academic College, Israel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yaniv Gvili, Ono Academic College, Israel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effects of Competition on Conspicuous Consumption: The Mediating Role of Social Comparison
Chunduk Hwang, Dongguk University, South Korea
Joon Woo Park, Dongguk University, South Korea
Hyun Young Cho, Dongguk University, South Korea
Jin Suk Lee, Soongsil University, South Korea
Seungwoo Chun, Dongguk University, South Korea

The Impact of Activating Time Versus Money on Emotional Brand Attachment
Qingfeng Hou, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Hongyan Yu, Sun Yat-sen University, China

The Impact of Artificial Agents on Persuasion: A Construal Level Account
Tae Woo Kim, Indiana University, USA
Adam Duhachek, Indiana University, USA

The Influence of Vague and Precise Waiting Information on Perception of Wait Time: A Field Study in Healthcare Field
Shelly Rathee, University of Utah, USA
Arul Mishra, University of Utah, USA
Himanshu Mishra, University of Utah, USA

The Multiple Logics of Luxury Retail Experience
Julien Cayla, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
Jean-Baptiste Welte, University of Paris, France

The Taste of Colour: Examining the Influence of Package Colour on Consumer Perceptions and Buying Intention
Chi Pham, University of New South Wales, Australia
Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia

The Use of Mature Models in Advertisements and Its Contribution to the Spirituality of Older Consumers
Corinne Chevalier, Université Paris Sud, France
Gaëlle Marie Moal-Ulvoas, Brest Business School, France

To Attend or to Avoid? The Differential Effects of Interruptions and Distractions on Product Evaluation
Ankur Kapoor, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India
Neharika Vohra, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India
Arvind Sahay, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India

Toward a Science of Negative Critical Incidents: Bridging Brand Transgression Research and Service Failure-Recovery
Mansur Khamitov, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
Yany Grégoire, HEC Montréal, Canada
Anshu Suri, HEC Montréal, Canada

When Social Market Meets Monetary Market: Consumer Heterogeneity in Attitudes Toward Money-Effort Exchange in a Prosocial Context
Yun Jie, SolBridge International School of Business, South Korea

Why Is 1 Out of 20 Riskier Than 5%? Effect of Representing Unlikely Events as Frequency Versus Percentage on Risk Perceptions
Joydeep Srivastava, Temple University, USA
Nevena Koukova, Lehigh University, USA

Management of Dissonance by Deviant Religious Consumers
Arti Srivastava, Indian Institute of Management Udaipur, India

Guilt Trips: Modelling the Positive and Negative Effects of Guilt Appeals
Paolo Antonetti, NEOMA Business School, France
Paul Baines, University of Leicester, UK
Shailendra Pratap Jain, University of Washington, USA
Roundtable Summaries

Special Topics in Branding .......................................................... 71
Rajeev Batra, University of Michigan, USA
Silvia Bellezza, Columbia University, USA
Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia

Leveraging Corporate Responsibility and Sustainability to Drive Triple Bottom Line Value .......................................................... 71
CB Bhattacharya, University of Pittsburgh, USA
Sankar Sen, Baruch College, USA

Editors’ Roundtable ................................................................. 72
Blakeley McShane, Northwestern University, USA
Gita Johar, Columbia University, USA
Page Moreau, University of Wisconsin-Madison, USA
Anirban Mukhopadhyay, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong
Sankar Sen, Baruch College, USA

Political Marketing and Psychology ............................................. 72
Paul Baines, University of Leicester School of Business, UK

Consumer Culture Theory in the Asia-Pacific Region:
Accomplishments, Challenges, Opportunities ........................................ 72
Eric John Arnould, Aalto University School of Business, Finland
Søren Askegaard, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Julien Cayla, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Working Papers

Assorted Gifts Can’t Buy My Love:
The Effect of Intimacy on Anticipated Regret With Gifting Choice ......................... 73
Parvathy B., Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Awe, Fear or Mixed? The Curious Case of Threat Awe .................................. 73
Srinwanti H. Chaudhury, University of New South Wales, Australia
Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia
Zixi Jiang, University of New South Wales, Australia

Emotional Echo Chambers:
How Emojis Affect Consumers’ Emotions and Responses to Social Media Posts ...................... 73
Gopal Das, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Sarah Moore, University of Alberta, Canada
Anirban Mukhopadhyay, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong

Feeling Calm or Excited:
Measuring the Frequency of Shopping Using Mobile Shopping App ....................... 73
Priyanka Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India
Sanjeev Prashar, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India

Magical Thinking in Digital Spaces:
The Unconscious Influence of Evil Eye Belief on Visual Concealment ...................... 73
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Preeti Krishnan Lyndem, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
The Impact of Relationship Closeness on Hedonic Adaptation: Perceived Social Value as a Mediator
Chia-Jung Chang, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Szu-Chien Pan, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Rong Syuan Chang, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Shin Lu, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Chieh-Yu Lin, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan

The Point of No Return: Examining the Drivers and Consequences of Online Product Non-return
Aishwarya Ramasundaram, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Avinash Mulky, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Why Do We Hate Brands?
Jiaming Wu, Macau University of Science and Technology, China
Yao Qin, Macau University of Science and Technology, China

Improving the Effectiveness of Healthcare Communication: The Critical Role of Vividness
Nachiketas Nandakumar, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India
Bharadhwaj Sivakumaran, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India

Wei Li, Southwest Jiaotong University, China
Yu Ling Wang, Southwest Jiaotong University, China
Yu Shi Jiang, Southwest Jiaotong University, China

An Investigation of Mobile Social Networking Application Users’ Responses to In-App Advertisements
Shing-Wan Chang, Middlesex University, UK
Grigoris Loukidis, King’s College London, UK
Keith Drago, Middlesex University, UK

Blended Brand Names: It’s Just Not What You Know, It’s the Sound
Sunny Arora, S P Jain Institute of Management and Research, India
Arti D. Kalro, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Dinesh Sharma, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

Examining Attitude Functions’ Antecedents and Consequences in a Cross-National Setting.
Paurav Shukla, University of Essex, UK
Dina Khalifa, Glasgow Caledonian University, UK
Thomas Peschken, Glasgow Caledonian University, UK

Hear What’s Here: The Effect of Semantically Congruent Lyrics on Brand Perception.
Jose Mana M.A, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Gopal Das, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Role of Visual Elements in Brand Logo Design
Shruti Trehan, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Arti D. Kalro, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

Where East Meets West: Enriching Cultural Universals.
Malika Malika, Indian School of Business Hyderabad, India
Durairaj Maheswaran, New York University, USA
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA

Oh! It’s So Costly, It Must Be Green!
The Impact of Price on the Green Perception of Eco-Friendly Products
Amogh Kumbargeri, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India

Antibiotics Overuse and Self-Medication in India: A Social Marketing Framework
Vishakha Chauhan, Indian Institute of Technology Delhi, India
Mahim Sagar, Indian Institute of Technology Delhi, India
Do People Understand That a Small Payment Actually Hurts Motivation?
An Attempt to Reconcile Two Conflicting Findings
Yun Jie, SolBridge International School of Business, South Korea

Will “I” Pay More for “Our” Benefit?
Premium-Benefit Trade-Offs in Consumers’ Green Purchase
Dhrithi Mahadevan, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Are Chatbots Going to Replace Mobile Shopping Applications?
Understanding the Attitude and Intention to Use Chatbots for Shopping Using Smartphones
Dharun Lingam Kasilingam, Alliance University, India
Ajitha Soundararaj, SRM University, India

Ignorance Hurts but Silence Kills:
Can Social Media Address Taboos to Achieve Sustainable Health and Hygiene?
Ekta Srivastava, Indian Institute of Management Lucknow, India

Uncovering the Influence of Transitioning Consumption Practices on
Consumer Food-Choice Decision-Making Behavior
Meenal Sameer Rai, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand

A Model of Smart Technologies
Monic Sun, Boston University, USA
Yuxin Chen, New York University, China
Xinxin Li, University of Connecticut, USA

The Instagram Disorder Scale: World of Teens, Hash Tags, Followers and Likes
Anuj Pal Kapoor, University of Delhi, India

Management Response Strategies for
Varying Sentiments and Emotions in Online Consumer Reviews
Vartika Srivastava, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Arti D. Kalra, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

Consumer Incivility: A Control Restoration Mechanism.
Gurbir Singh, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India
Abhishek Mishra, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India
Sanjeev Tripathi, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India
Shruti Tewari, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India

Moty Amar, Ono Academic College, Israel

Applying the Geddesian Triad Theory of Town Planning to
Understand the Data Consumption Patterns at the Bottom of the Pyramid
Ayush Chaudhary, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India
Varisha Rehman, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India

Are Positive Firm Activities Equally Effective Across All Cultures?
A Country Level Analysis of Well-Being.
Siddharth P. K., Indian Institute of Management Udaipur, India

How Do Customers Derive Enjoyment From Their Experiences in
Online Brand Communities? The Role of Customer-to-Customer Interactions
Rong Liu, Nanchang University, China
Hongyan Yu, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Xiangyun Zhang, Sun Yat-sen University, China

Airbnb Influence on Community Living – A Case Study of Delhi
N Meenakshi, International Management Institute, India
Mrinmoy Majumder, International Management Institute, India
Parthasarathi Banerjee, International Management Institute, India

Believe It or Not! Antecedents and Consequences of False News in Marketing
Anubhav Mishra, Indian Institute of Management Ranchi, India
Sridhar Same, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India
Shameem S, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India
Study of an Open-to-Air Market in India – A System Modelling Approach
Ambika Prasad Nanda, S. P. Jain Institute of Management and Research, India
Ranjan Banerjee, S. P. Jain Institute of Management and Research, India

Relative Economic Position, Income Inequality and
Conspicuous Consumption in an Emerging Economy
Rashmi Kumari, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India
Saravanan Jaikumar, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, India

A Narrative Inquiry of Consumption
Sushant Kumar, Indian Institute of Management Shillong, India
Pradip H Sadarangani, Indian Institute of Management Shillong, India

Cozying Up to the Kardashians:
A Theory for Consumers' Affinity Towards Celebrity Gossip
Jayant Nasa, Indian School of Business Hyderabad, India
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA
Raj Raghunathan, University of Texas at Austin, USA

Seeking Pain for a Better Me:
Negative Experience as an Aid to Reaffirm Self-Views After Self-Control Failure
Gita Johar, Columbia University, USA
Xiuping Li, National University of Singapore, Singapore
Liang Song, Beijing International Studies University, China

To Sell or to Donate: Why Special Possessions Are Donated and Not Sold
Saurabh Rawal, University of Alberta, Canada
Robert Fisher, University of Alberta, Canada
Jennifer Argo, University of Alberta, Canada

Role of Authenticity in Village Tourism Consumption: A Netnographic Analysis
Jyotsna Prashant, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India
Upendra Kumar Maurya, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India

Understanding the Me in Facebook:
A Literature Review of Conspicuous Consumption in Social Media
R Rahul, Indian Institute of Management Kozhikode, India

How Service Interaction Drives Customer Value:
The Mediating Role of Customer – Environment Fit
Liang Hong, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Hongyan Yu, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Rong Liu, Nanchang University, China

Don’t Talk, Text: Modality in Consumer Interactions With Human Versus AI Agents
Claudia Iglesias, Wilfrid Laurier University, Canada
Grant Packard, Wilfrid Laurier University, Canada

When Might Better Services Lead to More Complaints?
Koji Matsushita, Chuo University, Japan
Haiyang Yang, Johns Hopkins University, USA
Kaichi Saito, Meiji Gakuin University, Japan
Haruko Tsuchihashi, Aoyama Gakuin University, Japan

Index

Author Index
INTRODUCTION
Extensive research in psychology and behavioural economics highlights that judgments and decisions regarding future events depend on temporal distance and thus on temporal framing from those events (Trope and Liberman 2003). Health risks only strike consumers in the remote perceived future and follow unhealthy behaviours, such as smoking, alcohol consumption or unhealthy eating. Companies and organizations (e.g., state, insurers, and health funds) interested in healthier consumers need possibilities to overcome the temporal distance of health risks and to persuade consumers to engage in healthier behaviours. Although past research highlighted the important relationship of health risk perception and health behaviour (Chandran and Menon 2004; Kees 2010; Heideker and Steul-Fischer 2015), only a small number of studies examined the effects of temporal framing and its antecedents on health risk perception.

The mechanisms of temporal framing in the public health arena are important to examine due to findings that may inform creators of health campaigns how to effectively promote healthier decisions (Kees 2011). Relatively few studies examined temporal framing effects, and the particular conditions of temporal framing to influence consumers are unclear (Kees 2011). This research highlights the role of future orientation as a particular condition and strives to evaluate conclusions regarding how temporal framing influences health risk perception.

Previous research emphasized the possibility of temporal framing to increase the persuasiveness of health information, comparing day and year framing (Chandran and Menon 2004; Churchill, Good and Pavey 2014; Kees 2011; Lo et al. 2012). It is not clear whether temporal framing effects are consistent despite different consumer levels of future orientation. Only the studies of Kees (2010; 2011) examine the role of future orientation and the effects of temporal framing on health risk perception, but do so only with a student sample and without considering benefit presentation. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first investigation with the addition of examining benefit presentation with a more heterogeneous sample.

Considering the individual’s future orientation, this paper’s objective is to answer the research question regarding how temporal framing and benefit presentation influence health risk perception and health behaviour intentions with a more diverse sample than student samples. During this study, which imposes future orientation, an attempt to analyze whether temporal framing (day vs. year) and benefit presentation (present vs. future vs. no) increase health risk perception, and health behaviour intentions are made. The study analyzes the health risk perception for physical inactivity as an essential risk factor for leading causes of global deaths in 2015; these causes include ischemic heart diseases or strokes (World Health Organization 2017). The results provide several contributions to the literature and include empirical insights for a deeper understanding of the influence of future orientation, temporal framing, health risk perception and behaviour intentions. This study derives different implications for research and management.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND
Future Orientation and Temporal Framing
The research on future orientation focuses on consumer differences in the perceptual orientation of time. Consumers’ time orientations range between a great emphasis on immediate (present-oriented) and delayed (future-oriented) consequences of their behaviour (Kees 2010). The results of Robbins and Bryan (2004) emphasize future orientation to predict health risk behaviour, and Kees (2010) found an impact of future orientation on temporal framing and risk perception. Robbins and Bryan (2004) assume that future orientation serves as a protective factor and they highlight that consumers with high future orientation tend to be less involved with several risk behaviours. Therefore, considering health risk perception as an upstream variable for health risk behaviour, higher future orientation should increase health risk perception.

Hypothesis 1 The higher consumers’ future orientation is, the higher their health risk perception is.

Temporal framing uses different temporal frames (e.g., every day and every year) that objectively refer to the same time period (e.g., the present) but subjectively appear different (Chandran and Menon 2004). The theoretical background of temporal framing is based on Construal Level Theory (Trope and Liberman 2003), which encourages consumers to use higher-level construal to represent information regarding either distant or near future events. Lo et al. (2012) state that temporal framing is a promising strategy to make health risks more proximal and specific. Different studies have examined the opportunities of temporal framing to increase the persuasiveness of health messages (Chandran and Menon 2004; Churchill, Good and Pavey 2014; Kees 2011; Lo et al. 2012). Empirical findings on this issue have partly inconsistent results; Chandran and Menon (2004) state that every day framing leads to higher self-risk perceptions, while Bonner and Newell (2008) find that the year format increases perceived risk. One explanation is provided through future orientation (Kees 2011; Kees, Burton and Tangari 2010) as the influencing factor of temporal framing on risk perception. Kees (2010) emphasizes that consumers who score high on future orientation report similar risk perceptions across temporal framing conditions. Participants with high future orientation should report similar health risk perception independent of temporal framing.

Hypothesis 2 For consumers with high future orientation, health risk information with day framing will not increase their health risk perception more than health risk information with year framing.

Benefit Presentation
Benefit presentation indicates different benefits (e.g., present benefit, future benefit or none) due to a healthier behaviour change or retention. Bergus et al. (2002) state that consumers should receive balanced presentations regarding risk and benefit to make informed decisions. Zhang et al. (2016) note that risk preference is a trade-off between perceived benefits and perceived risks. The researchers
observed a negative correlation between expected benefit and risk perception. The punctuation of benefits should temper a consumer’s health risk perception.

Hypothesis 3 Health risk information with benefit presentation decreases health risk perception more than health risk perception without benefit presentation does.

Health Behaviour Intentions

Menon, Raghurib, and Agrawal (2008) describe interest as one of the behavioural consequences of health risk perception. These authors propose health risk perception to be translated to a behavioural consequence. To these researchers, interest is able to lead consumers to follow-up on behaviour or to take preventive actions. Several researchers highlight the positive relationship between higher health risk perception and health behaviour intentions (Chandran and Menon 2004; Heideker and Steul-Fischer 2017; Kees 2010). Higher health risk perception should lead to higher interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity.

Hypothesis 4 The higher health risk perception is, the higher the interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity.

Chandran and Menon (2004) indicate that day framing results in more increased behaviour intentions than year framing. With interest as one specific health behaviour intention, day framing should increase the interest in negative health behaviour.

Hypothesis 5 Health information with day framing increases the interest in negative health behaviour (in terms of physical inactivity) more than health risk information with year framing does.

STUDY

Method

A total of 452 participants (62.4 % female; mean age = 35.6 years; 47.4 % employed and 42.5 % students; body-mass-index of participants: 4.6 % underweight, 62.2 % normal range, 23.2 % pre-obese, 6.6 % obese, and 3.3 % missing data) participated in the study with a 2 (temporal framing: day vs. year) x 3 (benefit presentation: present vs. future vs. none) between-subjects design. The sample included participants without previous illnesses due to physical inactivity. Health risk information was provided: “every day” (day framing) or “every year” (year framing), a significant number of people become sick due to the negative consequences of physical inactivity. In all six experimental conditions, the same health consequences were named, such as fatal heart disease, diabetes, breast and colon cancer, excessively high body fat percentage, unnatural spinal curvature, and worsened coordination ability. The text contained either “daily 1.38 hours” (present benefit presentation) or “yearly 21 days” (future benefit presentation) of a “healthy vacation” for their heart due to lower heart exposure if participants regularly engage in an endurance sport. In the no benefit condition, the text offered no information regarding “healthy vacation” to consumer hearts.

Measures: Participants’ perceived level of health risk perception was measured with the question “scenario is risky to your health” on a 10-point scale (1 = no risk to health, 10 = very high risk to health). Individuals’ future orientation was measured with the four items of the temporal focus scale of Shipp et al. (2009) (α = 0.89). In accordance with Menon, Raghurib, and Agrawal (2008), participants were requested to answer the question for “interest in negative consequences of physical inactivity” (1 = totally disagree, 7 = totally agree).

Results

The results of an ANOVA indicate a significant effect of future orientation (F(1,446) = 6.18, B = 0.26, p = 0.013) (H1) on health risk perception, and no direct influence of temporal framing (F(1,446) = 0.55, B = 0.19, p > .05) on health risk perception. As hypothesized (H2), health risk perception is not significantly different comparing day- and year-framing independent of the benefit presentation (present benefit: Mday = 6.10 vs. Myear = 6.16, p > .05; future benefit: Mday = 6.16, Myear = 5.63, p > .05; no benefit: Mday = 6.12, Myear = 5.89, p > .05). This finding is due to the high future orientation of all participants (present benefit: Mday = 4.62 vs. Myear = 4.35, p > .05; future benefit: Mday = 4.56, Myear = 4.34, p > .05; no benefit: Mday = 4.57, Myear = 4.59, p > .05). There is no significant influence of benefit presentation (F (1,446)= 0.23, B= 0.12, p > .05) (H3) on health risk perception.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Tab. 1</th>
<th>Means of Health Risk Perception (with Standard Deviation)</th>
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<td>Benefit Frame</td>
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<tr>
<td>Present Benefit</td>
<td>6.10 (2.60)</td>
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<td>Future Benefit</td>
<td>6.16 (2.91)</td>
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<tr>
<td>No Benefit</td>
<td>6.12 (2.63)</td>
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A MANOVA indicates a higher health behaviour intention by health risk perception: health risk perception has a significant influence on interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity (B = 0.19, t = 6.02, p = .000) (H4). There is a positive significant interaction between health risk perception and temporal framing on interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity (F(1,449) = 4.96, B = 0.05, p = .026, η²= .011) (H5).

Based on these analyses, future orientation has a significant influence on health risk perception. The higher the future orientation, the higher the health risk perception is (H1). This finding is in accordance with the arguments of Robbins and Bryan (2004) that future orientation predicts health risk behaviour; Kees (2010) highlights the impact of future orientation on health risk perception. Due to the high future orientation of participants, health information with day framing did not increase health risk perception compared to year framing (H2) and is in accordance with the findings of Kees (2010), who reports a similar risk perception for consumers who score high on future orientation. Contrary to the assumption of H3, participants reported no lower health risk perception when health information contained future or present benefits than health information without benefit. One explanation may be the presented benefit of “healthy heart vacation”. Although the benefit was obviously a future benefit and congruent with the future orientation of the participant, the possible meaninglessness of the benefit may not increase the health risk perception. The findings of Nan et al. (2015) emphasize that consumers with no reference to a certain health risk, such as nonsmokers simply ignoring health information such as warning labels due to low involvement. The same results may occur because of low involvement in case of no reference to the presented benefit, if the participants never had heart problems or do not anticipate the benefit of “healthy heart vacation”. Bergus et al. (2002) indicate that risks affect judgments more than benefits, as well. The positive relationship between higher health risk perception and health behaviour intention
is highlighted by the higher interest of participants in the negative consequences of physical inactivity due to their higher health risk perception (H4). The indicated effect of day framing to result in an increased behaviour intention (Chandran and Menon 2004) is replicated by the finding of increased interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity due to health information with day framing compared to health information with year framing (H5).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The findings have implications for theory and practice that are relevant to publishers of health information. The results reveal a positive impact of consumers’ higher future orientation to increase their health risk perception. In accordance with recent research, consumers with high future orientation report no difference in health risk perception due to day or year framing. Providers of health information should investigate the individual time orientation of their target groups to create target-oriented information. For consumers high in future orientation, other methods, such as other framing effects, may be more effective in increasing risk perception. This study extended current research with the addition of analyzing benefit presentation and examining a more heterogeneous sample. The utilized benefit presentation for the “healthy heart vacation” case provokes no differences in health risk perception. Further studies and providers of health information should use other, more intense health benefits to increase health risk perception. Higher health risk perception increases consumer interest in the negative consequences of physical inactivity, and day framing leads to higher interest in these negative consequences. In accordance with different studies, temporal framing is relevant for this behaviour intention.

This study has several limitations. Although the sample included more heterogeneous participants than the research by Kees (2011), the sample mainly contained participants high in future orientation and with higher educational levels, which is not representative for all health information target groups. Further studies should investigate different levels of time orientation and a possible interaction with temporal framing. Additional studies may prime consumers’ future orientation. Manipulating future orientation and controlling for covariates may enhance the results of this study. Also, future studies should consider measures of other behaviour intentions and should observe actual and future behaviour with long-term studies. Investigations into the different levels of consumers’ future orientation in combination with temporal framing and health risk perception could provide more insights if temporal framing is consistent, despite the different levels of consumers’ future orientation (Kees 2010). Further studies should take into account and control for confounding factors that may influence future orientation and which may also drive health risk perception. In addition, these investigations could expand the knowledge of providers and help them to procure more persuasive health information.

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The Influence of Shopping Goals on Consumers’ Sequential Choices
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ABSTRACT
The present study focused on shopping goals and analyzed sequential choice. The results demonstrated that if the shopping goals were the same for the choices made at the first point and the second point, the first choice affected the second choice more than if the goals were different. Additionally, the way this influence happens corresponds to the relationship of each choice.

INTRODUCTION
Sequential choice is the act of making one choice and then making another choice afterwards (Dholakia et al. 2005), and as consumers, we regularly do this at supermarkets and restaurants, so it is becoming an important research topic in consumer studies.

In research on sequential choices by consumers, studies that assume multiple conflicting goals have started to be actively conducted, starting with the study done by Dhar and Simonson (1999). A subsequent study that is particularly noteworthy is Fishbach and Dhar (2005). This study confirms that the results of subsequent choice differ depending on the amount of goal progress. Specifically, the study demonstrated the balance in sequential choices, whereby when it is perceived that sufficient progress has been made on a goal, consumers will subsequently make a choice that is intended to make progress on a different goal. It also demonstrated that when consumers do not think that sufficient progress has been made on a goal, they will make a subsequent choice that corresponds to that goal. Based on these findings, many studies have been conducted on sequential choices that assume conflict between several goals (e.g., Chandon and Wansink 2007; Finkelstein and Fishbach 2013; Laran and Janiszewski 2009; Lee et al. 2016; Nagpal et al. 2015; Novemsky and Dhar 2005). However, despite the fact that sequential choices are actively made in stores, there have been few studies that analyzed sequential choices assuming consumer behavior inside stores like supermarkets that consumers use regularly (Mukhopadhyay and Johar 2009).

While inside stores, consumers do their shopping with multiple shopping goals. In this case, choosing each product can be looked as a means of achieving their shopping goals (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999), and by referencing the content of the corresponding shopping goal, it is possible to understand the placement of the choices. In research on sequential choices, it is important to understand the placement of choices in relation to each other because this research analyzes how choices affect other choices. Nevertheless, the existing studies have mainly analyzed sequential choices by looking at conflicting goals like goals related to self-control, such as health goals or weight goals, and pleasure-seeking goals that conflict with them, and not enough discussions have focused on shopping goals. Therefore, the present study analyzes the effects of sequential choices by focusing on shopping goals corresponding to choices.

HYPOTHESES
If the shopping goals are the same for the first choice and the second choice, the first choice would probably have a larger impact than the second choice if the shopping goals are different for the two choices. The reason for this is because if the goals of each choice were the same, there would a closer relationship between the two choices. Below, the effects between choices will be considered assuming that shopping goals for each choice are the same.

The effects between the choices will be considered by citing the following two types of relationships between each of the choices: (1) a balancing relationship and (2) a reinforcing relationship. These two types of relationships both share the fact that they are attempting to promote shopping goals (Fishbach et al. 2006), but their methods are different. This is to say that in order to make progress on the shopping goals, the former (1) is a relationship that considers balancing the benefits (Fishbach and Dhar 2005; Huber et al. 2008), while the latter (2) is a relationship that considers reinforcing the benefits (Dhar and Simonson 1999; Zhang and Haung 2010).

By considering these sorts of relationships between choices, it is possible to set a hypothesis about the influence on sequential choices. If the shopping goal corresponding to each choice is the same (e.g., “shopping for dinner”) and each of the choices are in a balancing relationship (e.g. “main dish” and “side dish”), the second choice will probably be a choice that focuses on a different benefit (attribute) than the first choice because of the result of the first choice. This is to say that the second choice will be a choice intended to balance the benefits. People think that by supplementing multiple benefits with each choice, the shopping goals will be promoted through an interim goal.

On the contrary, if each of the choices are in a reinforcing relationship (e.g. “main dish” and “alcohol”), the second choice will

Figure 1: Hypothetical Framework
probably be a choice that focuses on the same benefit (attribute) as the first choice because of the results of the first choice. This is to say that the choices are intended to reinforce the benefits. The reason for this is that synergistically obtaining benefits through these sequential choices is thought to further promote shopping goals.

Based on the above-mentioned points, it seems that if the shopping goals are the same for the first choice and the second choice, the second choice will correspond to the relationship between each of the choices. Therefore, the below hypotheses can be made.

Hypothesis 1 When the shopping goals are the same for the first choice and second choice and there is a balancing relationship between each of the choices, the choice made second will intend to balance benefits more so than when the shopping goals are different.

Hypothesis 2 When the shopping goals are the same for the first choice and the second choice and there is a reinforcing relationship between each of the choices, the second choice will intend to reinforce benefits more so than when the shopping goals are different.

METHODS

The analyses were conducted by dividing the situations into two cases, where each of the choices were in a balancing relationship (Study 1: “main dishes” and “side dishes”) and cases where each of the choices were in a reinforcing relationship (Study 2: “main dishes” and “alcohol”).

The experimental conditions were 2 (results of the first choice: pleasure/health) x 2 (shopping goal for the second choice: same/different from the first choice), and all conditions were manipulated among the participants. Under these conditions, the participants gave responses about the intention of their second decision.

Study 1: Procedure

First, participants were presented with the following scenario: “Please imagine that on one of your days off, you are eating dinner at home by yourself. You are walking to a nearby supermarket to pick up what you will eat for dinner.” Next, two scenarios were presented separately with regards to the results of the first choice (“choosing a fried breaded pork cutlet (pleasure-oriented)” “choosing fried breaded tofu (health-oriented).” After this, the scenario of choosing a salad was presented as the second choice, and at this time, the participants were further classified into “the group that is choosing it as something to eat with the product they chose first (same shopping goal as the first)” and “the group that is choosing it as something to eat for a late-night snack (different shopping goal as the first).”

The options for the second choice that were presented were a ham and potato salad (pleasure-oriented) and a green salad (health-oriented), and the responses were given using a 7-point scale from “I definitely want to eat the green salad” (1) to “I definitely want to eat the ham and potato salad” (7).

Study 2: Procedure

The same scenario as Study 1 was presented until the results of the first choices were completed, and after that point, the procedure was different. For the second choice, the scenario of picking up alcohol was presented, and the participants were classified into “the group that is choosing it as something to drink with the product they chose first (same shopping goal as the first)” and “the group that is choosing it as something to drink after a bath (different shopping goal as the first).”

The options for the second choices that were presented were premium alcohol (pleasure-oriented) and low-sugar, low-calorie alcohol (health-oriented), and the responses were given using a 7-point scale from “I definitely want to drink the low-sugar, low-calorie alcohol” (1) to “I definitely want to drink the premium alcohol” (7).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Study 1: Results

The results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) found a main effect for the results of the first choice ($F(1,171) = 2.88, p < .1$), but no main effect was found for whether or not the shopping goals were the same for the first and second choices ($F(1,171) = .20, p = .65$). Then, because interactions were identified ($F(1,171) = 5.70, p < .05$), an analysis of a simple main effect was also performed.

When the results of the first choice were pleasure-oriented, respondents reported the intention to make health-oriented second choices more in instance when the shopping goals were the same for the first and second choices than in instances when they were different ($M_{\text{same}} = 3.48, M_{\text{different}} = 4.36, t = −2.02, p < .05$). When the results of the first choice were health-oriented, there was no difference observed for whether the shopping goals were the same or different ($M_{\text{same}} = 4.74, M_{\text{different}} = 4.14, t = 1.36, p > .1$). When the shopping goals were the same for the first and second choices, there was a trend for the second choice to be pleasure-oriented more in cases when the result of the first choice was health-oriented than when it was pleasure-oriented ($M_{\text{pleasure}} = 3.48, M_{\text{health}} = 4.74, t = −3.03, p < .01$). When the shopping goals were different for the first and second choices, there was no difference in the intention in the second choice due to the results of the first choice ($M_{\text{pleasure}} = 4.36, M_{\text{health}} = 4.14, t = .47, p > .1$).

In addition to this, a sampling of only health-conscious people was conducted, and an additional analysis was performed. The results of the ANOVA demonstrated interactions ($F(1,116) = 7.72, p < .01$). The results of a simple main effect demonstrated that in cases where the results of the first choice were health-oriented, respondents made choices that were inclined to be more frequently pleasure-oriented in cases they had the same shopping goals for the two choices than in cases when they had different shopping goals ($M_{\text{same}} = 5.04, M_{\text{different}} = 4.11, t = 1.68, p < .1$). Other than this, the results were the same as those of the overall sample.

Study 1: Discussion

In cases when results of the first decisions were pleasure-oriented, respondents chose health-oriented options more frequently in cases when they had the same shopping goals for the two choices than in cases when they had different shopping goals. Thus, the tendency for making choices that were intended to balance health and pleasure could be reported.

Furthermore, even in the case when the sample was health-conscious, when the result of the first choice was health-oriented, respondents demonstrated the tendency to make decisions inclined toward balance more frequently when the shopping goals were the same. It seems that health-conscious people thought they had accomplished their health goal that they are normally conscious of in their first choice, so they were able to make their second choice in a way that was balanced.

Finally, in cases when the shopping goals were the same for both the first and second choices, respondents' second choices were
The Influence of Shopping Goals on Consumers’ Sequential Choices

Inclined to be for health-oriented options more frequently in cases when the first choice was pleasure-oriented than in cases when it was health-oriented. This also shows that when the first choice is health-oriented, the second choice is more pleasure-oriented.

Based on the above-mentioned findings, the trend of making a second choice inclined toward balance was verified in cases where the shopping goals were the same for the first choice and second choice. Thus, these findings supported H1.

However, it is possible that the content of the first choice regulates the effects on sequential choices, and this point will be an issue in future research, including its relationship with the consumer characteristic of health awareness.

Study 2: Results

The results of the ANOVA demonstrated interactions \(F(1,273) = 3.78, p < .1\), so an analysis of a simple main effect was also performed.

In cases where the results of the first choice were health-oriented, the second choice tended to be inclined toward health-oriented options more frequently in cases when the shopping goals were the same for the two choices than in cases when they were different \( (M_{same} = 3.65, M_{different} = 4.13, t = -1.66, p < .1) \). On the other hand, when the results of the first choice were pleasure-oriented, no difference was observed in the second choice depending on whether the shopping goals were the same or different \( (M_{same} = 4.25, M_{different} = 4.13, t = 1.11, p > .27) \).

Moreover, when the shopping goals were the same for the first and second choices, the second choice tended to be a pleasure-oriented choice more frequently when the first choice was pleasure-oriented than when the first choice was health-oriented \( (M_{pleasure} = 3.66, M_{health} = 4.13, t = 2.08, p < .05) \). However, when the shopping goals were different for the first and second choices, there was no difference observed in the intention of the second choice due to the result of the first choice \( (M_{pleasure} = 3.91, M_{health} = 3.65, t = -1.71, p = .48) \).

An additional analysis was performed that targeted health-conscious people. The results of the ANOVA demonstrated interactions \(F(1,186) = 6.50, p < .05\). The results of a simple main effect demonstrated that in cases where the results of the first decision were pleasure-oriented, respondents made choices that were inclined to be pleasure-oriented more frequently in cases when they had the same shopping goals for the two choices than in cases when their shopping
goals were different ($M_{\text{same}} = 4.37$, $M_{\text{different}} = 3.66$, $t = 1.77$, $p < .1$). Other than this, the results were the same as the overall sample.

**Study 2: Discussion**

When shopping goals are the same for the first and second points in time, the second choice is inclined toward reinforcement, and this supports H2. Additionally, when respondents were health-conscious, even in cases where the result of the first choice was pleasure-oriented, there was the tendency for choices to be inclined toward reinforcement more frequently if the shopping goals were the same. Nevertheless, this trend is the result of an increased intention to make choices for health-oriented options for the second choice in an attempt to accomplish the health goal that was not accomplished for dinner using choices corresponding with other shopping goals. Referencing the content of the first choice is a topic for future investigation just as it was in Study 1.

**CONCLUSION**

The current research demonstrated trends consistent with H1 and H2, and it is apparent that this is even more obvious when only health-conscious people are targeted. Thus, when analyzing consumers’ sequential choices in stores, it is important to think about the shopping goal that corresponds to each choice.

**REFERENCES**


A Conceptual Framework of the Role of Shame During Violation of Trust in a Consumer-Brand Relationship

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Summary

The study of negative emotions in the consumer-brand relationship research paradigm focuses heavily on consumer negativity in times of product or service failures as against a context of transgressions of the brand as a relationship partner. Drawing on theories of cognitive-appraisal of self-conscious emotions (Tangney and Fischer 1995) and development of trust in a relationship (Lewicki 1995), we build a conceptual framework of the consumer’s experience of shame resulting from moral or ethical transgressions leading to violation of trust in a consumer-brand relationship dyad. We further outline the moderating effect of brand attachment (Whan Park et al. 2010) on the intensity of shame experienced. We conclude by listing possible affective and behavioural responses by the consumer experiencing shame in this relationship dyad.

Conceptualization

Development of Trust and a Shared Identity

Trust in a consumer-brand relationship develops initially at a transactional level, defined as Calculus-Based Trust by Lewicki (1995). Consistent fulfilment of basic expectations of consumer needs results in a Calculus-Based Trust in the exchange relationship. These repeated exchanges between the consumer and the brand then create a pattern of expected behaviour in the brand that the consumer begins to trust, strengthening the relationship dyad (Morgan and Hunt 1994). A form of trust based on cognitive evaluations develops in the consumer, defined by Lewicki (1995) as Knowledge-Based Trust.

Better understanding of partner needs, preferences and priorities through repeated exchanges over a longer period of time develops Knowledge-Based Trust in the relationship (Bhattacharya, Devinney, and Pillutla 1998). Consistency in brand personality and value propositions towards reassuring consumer expectations significantly increases the predictability of the brand’s behaviour, strengthening the trust in the brand (Keller 2008). Lewicki (1995) terms this level of trust, the third and highest level, as Identity-Based Trust. The consumer begins to believe that the brand could effectively serve as a substitution of the self in social transactions (Tanis and Postmes 2005). Such a substitution of portions of the consumer’s self-concept with the identity of the brand could be a result of using the brand to reflect, enhance or verify the self-concept of the consumer in various social transactions with real or imagined others (Aron, Aron, and Norman 2007; Fournier 1998; Swann, Stein-Seroussi, and Giesler 1992; Wood and Taylor 1991). Strongest at this stage, the stability of the relationship still rests on the expected behavioural outcomes of the brand, whose stakes are now high enough to affect the consumer’s identity in events of a transgression.

Transgression and Violation of Trust

Dutta and Pullig (2011) classified brand transgressions broadly into performance-related and values-related transgressions. We adopt these general definitions to describe the role of violation of trust resulting from values-related transgression on a consumer-brand relationship. Dutta and Pullig (2011) define the values-related transgression as one that “involves social or ethical issues surrounding the values espoused by the brand.” Based on cognitive-appraisal theories of self-conscious emotions, we posit that a moral or ethical violation of a brand in a consumer-brand relationship will result in negative self-evaluation of the behaviour of the consumer, thus resulting in shame (Babcock and Sabini 1990; Kaufman 1996; Tangney and Fischer 1995).

Self-evaluation and Shame

Shame is an emotion that arises as a result of a moral or ethical transgression to the perceived self-standards set to a person’s core (Tangney, JP; Miller, RS; Flicker, L.; & Hall 2001; Verbeke and Bagozzi 2002). Experiencing shame in a transgression situation heightens the realization of failure to live up to one’s own standards of self-worth, and the standards of one’s social environment, leading to a sense of damage to the consumer’s self-esteem (Barrett 1995). The intensity of this experience of shame would be moderated by the level of brand attachment, conceptualized by Whan Park et al. (2010) as a combination of brand-self connection and brand prominence.

Affective and Behavioural Responses of Shame

Consumer experience of shame during a transgression could result in feelings of regret and a sense of inferior and diminished self, such as self-contempt and self-disgust (Babcock and Sabini 1990). Experiences of shame could also cause anger towards the brand, further resulting in anti-brand behavioural outcomes. The behavioural responses from the consumer would be to isolate from the brand, thereby restricting personal resources such as time, money, energy and reputation towards the brand (Crozier 1990; Park, Eisingerich, and Park 2013). This would consequently lead to the rupture of the consumer-brand dyad and because of the isolating nature of shame, it would be highly unlikely for brand managers to know why.

Conclusion and Implications for Theory and Practice

Drawing upon theories of development of trust and cognitive-appraisal theories of emotions, we have developed a framework of the experience of shame during times of violation of trust in the consumer-brand relationship dyad. A consumer experiences shame during a moral or ethical transgression by the brand as a result of negative self-evaluation and anticipation of negative responses from others on the behaviour of the shared identity created by the consumer with the brand, because of a strong brand attachment.

Understanding the nature of self-conscious emotions would strengthen the understanding of the dynamic nature of the consumer-
brand relationship dyad that draws largely from interpersonal relationship theories. Studying these emotions conceptually and empirically, under various scenarios, cultural vantages, as well as different relationship types would help further build upon the similarities and distinctions between interpersonal relationships and consumer-brand relationships. Practitioners would benefit from this research in creating stronger relationships with the consumer that mirrors interpersonal relationships, as well as to realise the potential impact such a relationship has on consumer well-being, especially in times of transgressions.

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**Across Space and Time: How Cultural and Institutional Differences Explain Consumer-Brand Relationships’ Differential Effects on Brand Loyalty**

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**EXTENDED ABSTRACT**

Researchers studying consumer-brand relationships have begun to empirically examine mechanisms behind the brand relationships—customer brand loyalty (e.g., impression management, feelings of security; Sen et al. 2015), but still little is known about the cultural and institutional settings that enable these links. In this study, we conduct a meta-analytic investigation of how seven country-level, cultural, and institutional variables moderate the relationship between consumer-brand relationships (CBR) and customer brand loyalty. Specifically, we investigate why different types of CBRs—namely brand attachment, brand love, self-brand connection, brand identification, and brand trust—drive loyalty better in some cultural and institutional contexts than others.

**Background**

Over the last four decades, cross-cultural and institutional research has advanced many constructs that capture country-level differences. Various marketing and consumer research meta-analyses have also used some of these constructs to underscore the general idea that context is important. For example, Chang and Taylor (2016) find that the benefits of customer participation on new product development performance are greater in emerging than in developed countries, while Albers et al. (2010) establish that personal selling elasticity estimates are higher from studies conducted in European countries than from those conducted in the United States. We develop a series of hypotheses relating to a subset of these cultural and institutional variables, described below.

Data collection involved two stages. First, we collected studies published between October 1995 and August 2015, which provided 304 brand relationship elasticities from 143 studies based on data from 179,395 respondents. Using these data, we conducted a meta-analysis of the average effects for each type of CBR on brand loyalty. Second, because these data were drawn from samples in 35 countries, we also collected information about the hypothesized moderators corresponding to the year and country of data collection.

We focused on seven cultural and institutional variables: indulgence versus restraint, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and power distance (Hofstede 2001); economic globalization (KOF Globalization Index; Gygli et al. 2018), voice and accountability (Worldwide Governance Indicators; Kaufmann and Kraay 2017); and level of urbanization (Urban Population data; World Bank 2017). Overall, we hypothesized that these seven variables moderate the results of the meta-analysis. To examine that possibility, we employed a multilevel modelling approach using a two-level hierarchical linear model (HLM) with the maximum likelihood estimation method.

**Results**

The indulgence versus restraint dimension was a significant moderator, such that the effect of all five different brand relationships on customer brand loyalty was significantly more positive in restrained cultures ($β_{trust} = -.35, p < .001$; $β_{love} = -.54, p < .001$; $β_{attachment} = -.42, p < .001$; $β_{identification} = -.66, p < .001$; $β_{self-brand connection} = -.55, p < .001$). Individualism versus collectivism was also significant, such that the impact of each of the five brand relationships on loyalty was more positive in collectivist cultures ($β_{trust} = -.46, p < .001$; $β_{love} = -.51, p < .001$; $β_{attachment} = -.47, p < .001$; $β_{identification} = -.56, p < .001$; $β_{self-brand connection} = -.60, p < .001$). In terms of masculinity versus femininity, we found that the link between brand trust and loyalty was significantly stronger in feminine societies ($β_{trust} = -.38, p < .001$). We examined the influence of identity-relevant CBRs (self-brand connection, identification) on customer brand loyalty in countries that were high versus low on power distance and found that in cultures higher on the power distance dimension, the positive effect of self-brand connection-based and identification-based relationship loyalty was stronger ($β_{self-brand connection} = .45, p < .002$; $β_{identification} = .30, p < .001$). Further, compared to countries that were high on economic globalization, countries that were comparably less economically globalized exhibited a stronger positive influence of brand identification on loyalty ($β_{identification} = -.17, p < .009$). Finally, countries that were lower on voice and accountability showed stronger brand identity-loyalty effects ($β_{identification} = -.41, p < .001$) as did less urbanized countries ($β_{identification} = -.25, p < .004$). However, similar moderating effects of voice and accountability, as well as the level of urbanization, did not emerge for the self-brand connection-loyalty link ($β_{self-brand connection} = -.19, p = .176$ and $β_{self-brand connection} = -.09, p = .490$).

**Discussion**

Our approach of tying meta-analysis to country-level factors is new to the consumer-brand relationship literature. We make several theoretical and practical contributions. Theoretically, this work helps identify what particular brand relationships drive loyalty most effectively under particular cultural and institutional settings (Eisingerich and Rubera 2010). In so doing, the present research also contributes to the literature by responding to a call by brand scholars for explicating how the broader context of influences brand connections (Fournier 2009; Goode et al. 2015), which this work does by examining the role of cultural and institutional contexts in influencing consumers’ brand evaluations. Second, we contribute to the work on cross-cultural consumer behaviour and cross-cultural research in general (Al Omoush et al. 2012; Hofstede and Bond 1984; Lam et al. 2009) by providing a more nuanced understanding of the differential influence of cultural dimensions in a branding context.

Practically, our findings suggest that it may be critical to approach selection and fostering of brand relationships differently based on the types of cultures and institutional contexts in which brand and market strategists operate. For example, investing in identification-based brand relationship is advisable in high power distance cultures, in societies with low levels of economic globalization, voice, and accountability, as well as countries with low urban population percentage. As a whole, brand loyalty building efforts may be optimized by adopting a refined approach whereby brand and market strategists match brand relationships to the specific cultural and institutional contexts in question. This also potentially speaks to segmentation and targeting efforts, for instance, by suggesting that it may be necessary for brand managers to communicate with rural consumers differently than their urban counterparts.
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All That Glitters Is Gold:  
Toward a Theory of Sensory Flamboyance and Subtlety in Consumption  
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA  
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“While driving back to the apartment, I looked into the rearview mirror. Mr. Ashok was wearing a t-shirt. It was like no t-shirt I would ever choose to buy at a store. The larger part of it was empty and white and there was a small design in the center. I would have bought something very colourful, with lots of words and designs on it.”

Balram Halwai, domestic helper and driver, observing the clothing preferences of his employer in the Man Booker Prize-winning novel “The White Tiger” by Aravind Adiga

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Marketers use a variety of sensory appeals to communicate about their brands to consumers (Krishna 2012), but these may not be equally efficacious across consumers. We investigate whether basic preferences for sensory flamboyance versus subtlety are structured sociologically and by early childhood experiences, rather than by individual dispositions. The opening quote depicts an Indian driver in a low status occupation, from a lower caste and economic background, who favours “louder,” more visually prominent product designs, such as flashier, gaudier clothing, compared to his employer who is higher in social status, caste and cultural capital (Holt 1998; Bourdieu 1984). The relationship between status, power and conspicuous consumption of branded products has been studied (Veblen 1899; Belk, Bahn and Meyer 2001; Rucker and Galinsky 2008; Han, Dreze and Nunes 2010), but what structures basic preferences for sensory flamboyance versus subtlety?

Varying levels of cultural capital (i.e. distinctive tastes, skills and knowledge) typically manifest in unique styles of taste and consumption among members of different classes (Bourdieu 1984; Holt 1998; Ustuner and Holt 2010). India’s deep rooted class and caste hierarchies suggest that consumption would reflect the assumed social hierarchies. Lower cultural capital (LCC) is associated with lower economic and lower symbolic capital (Bhattacharyya and Belk 2017; Belk and Ghoshal 2017). Could sensory flamboyance (versus subtlety) in tastes be a critical currency of cultural capital, and what might be the underlying reasons?

We interviewed 28 women from upper and lower socioeconomic classes in India to ascertain their cultural and symbolic capital resources and consumption preferences across sensory domains such as clothing, food, music, touch and smells. As evident through both LCC’s personal wardrobes and interactions with our prepared stimuli, clothing and accessories possessing elements of sheen, gloss, sequins, stones, glitter and light-reflecting mirror work were consistently preferred over the stimuli lacking these aesthetic elements. The women preferred big and bold gold-coloured costume jewellery adorned with rhinestones and gemstones over more subtle jewellery that lacked both size and flamboyant aesthetics (see also Fernandez, Veer and Lastovicka 2011; Vikas et al 2015). Real gold ownership was still a dream for many of our LCC informants, such as Vidya, who lamented that even her mangalsutra (necklace symbolic of marriage) was not made of gold, adding that gold would be a foremost investment should she come into extra money. We observed a parallel between the expectations for jewellery and the fascination for glitter in clothing. Isha (LCC) mentioned that for important daytime occasions such as weddings, she preferred traditional South Indian silk saris with borders crafted from golden thread embroidery because such saris were designed to naturally reflect sunlight and shimmer. She added, however, that for evening weddings, clothing with sequins, glitter, and extensive mirror-work was desirable because it would reflect artificial lights more, allowing the person wearing it to make more of an impression upon others. Just as in home décor, there appeared to be a consistent need to create an aura of light around oneself at important occasions, presumably to draw attention to one’s self and be noticed, making them feel bigger and more important—again, an empowering tactic. It is plausible that the penchant for glitter in clothing was also a result of a largely unfulfilled craving for the coveted and elusive yellow metal.

Voluminous, flared dresses were consistently preferred over straight-cut silhouettes for both women’s and girls’ clothing, and bright, accessorized patterns were strongly favoured over dull-coloured, plain designs. Just as Bruner and Goodman (1947) found that powerless people were drawn to larger monetary objects, bigger sizes of clothes appeared to be an empowering technique used by our LCCs. With big hopes and high aspirations for their children, most LCC informants preferred to dress them in clothing that they described as looking “grand” or “rich,” including brightly coloured, flared, printed dresses for girls. There seemed to be an overarching desire to dress their children in a manner that immediately announces their presence to others.

In stark contrast, our HCCs preferred clothing and accessories strictly devoid of the same flamboyant elements that drew the interest of our LCC informants. For HCCs, comfort and fit were the most important criteria in selecting clothing, as was reflected in their clothing and accessory wardrobes. Straight-cut designs were predominantly preferred for both women and children. HCCs frequently described their clothing preferences as being “sober” and “simple,” with a conscious effort to not attract attention due to over-styled aesthetics. They preferred a minimalist aesthetic that allowed their presence to be demonstrated through their personalities rather than their clothing, similar to their home décor. Their clothes should be “nice” but not speak for them. For HCC consumers, dressing was seen as being integrally associated with portraying their upbringing, education, and higher cultural capital.

Sensory flamboyance or subtlety is proposed to be a unique currency of cultural capital in India, used to negotiate community membership. Bigger, gaudier clothing, strong scents, loud music, and spicy food are interpreted as part of an empowering strategy employed by a class largely deprived of social power and economic independence. Sensory flamboyance may also be a tangible way of embellishing life experiences for the otherwise economically impoverished, while further serving as a surrogate for the coveted real gold that remains a chimera. Subtlety as adopted by the upper classes is perhaps recognized, but there is no desire to emulate it. Our findings have important implications for targeted product design and marketing communications.

REFERENCES


A Serial Mediation Effect of Immersive Virtual Reality on Purchase Intention in Real Estate and the Moderating Role of Psychological Distance

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Real estate continues to attract capital from overseas investors, and residential properties in cities such as Vancouver, Berlin, Los Angeles, and Shanghai are in great demand (PwC and Urban Land Institute report, 2018). In the real estate industry, getting a client into the space is the most important stage for closing a sale. However, for a homebuyer located overseas, scheduling multiple property viewings is very challenging. The real estate industry has started to adopt virtual reality (VR) technology to make the discovery and viewing of properties more effective.

The effect of VR in the context of real estate has not yet been investigated. Moreover, most of these studies compared the difference between VR and non-VR stimuli (e.g., pictures, video, real environment). Studies comparing the effect of different types of VR, to our knowledge, is non-existent. To fill this gap, we focused on the buyer’s intention to purchase a residential property (i.e., condominium) located in psychologically distant versus proximate areas. In this paper, we investigated how showing the property using immersive VR affects the purchase intention (PI) of buyers versus showing it with non-immersive VR. We found that using immersive VR (vs. non-immersive VR) to show the property enhanced PI through higher perceived task novelty and higher user satisfaction. We theorized, based on Construal Level Theory (CLT), that for real estate located far away geographically (vs. nearby), presenting the property through immersive VR (vs. non-immersive VR) technology has a positive effect on the consumer’s purchase intention through perceived task novelty and satisfaction.

Depending on the extent of immersion, VR-based experiences can be classified into non-immersive and immersive. In non-immersive VR, a user interacts with a virtual world displayed on a computer screen using a computer mouse, touchscreen, touchpad, or handheld controls. In non-immersive VR, the user interacts with a virtual world displayed on a computer screen using a computer mouse, touchscreen, touchpad, or handheld controls (Parong and Mayer, 2018). There is almost no sense of immersion in non-immersive VR (Kalawsky, 1996). The sense of immersion is higher in immersive VR (Kalawsky, 1996). The user is completely immersed in the virtual environment and does not feel any interaction with the real world (Witmer and Singer, 1998). Immersive VR typically includes a head-mounted display (HMD) controlled by a computer that allows a user to move through the 3D virtual environment (VE).

We believed that the novel experience of viewing a condominium through immersive VR using HMD (vs. through non-immersive VR using a mouse), and the ability to interact with the object in the mediated environment would result in users’ arousal from enjoyment. Additionally, since users are affectionately engaged in immersive VR, user engagement should be higher in comparison to non-immersive VR. User engagement and enjoyment are significant factors in user satisfaction (e.g., Jiang et. al., 2010). User satisfaction positively influences behavioural intentions (e.g., Brady et. al., 2001, Dunman et al., 2005). Accordingly, we hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1 Showing the condominium through immersive VR (vs. non-immersive VR) will increase the perceived novelty.

Hypothesis 2 Showing the condominium through VR (vs. non-immersive VR) will have a positive effect on purchase intention through perceived novelty and satisfaction sequentially.

Hypothesis 3 For the geographically close apartment, showing the apartment through immersive VR (vs. non-immersive VR) will have an effect on purchase intention through perceived novelty and satisfaction sequentially.

Overseas property (i.e., located far away geographically) is perceived as more psychologically distant, according to Construal Level Theory (CLT). In contrast, a local property (i.e., situated nearby geographically) is perceived as psychologically proximate. The use of immersive VR to directly view a psychologically distant property (i.e., a condominium situated overseas) should lead to an unexpected experience, which will result in novelty. Specifically, we hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3a For the geographically distant apartment, showing the apartment through immersive VR (vs. non-immersive VR) will have an effect on purchase intention through perceived novelty and satisfaction sequentially.

Hypothesis 3b For the geographically close apartment, the serial mediation model will not be valid.

We conducted an experiment and told participants that they were going to see a condominium from a real estate company. The condominium was located in Shenzhen (psychological proximity condition) or Sydney (psychological distance condition). They could check the condominium through an immersive or non-immersive VR system called Focus360.

Stimuli: Participants were shown a condominium through an immersive or non-immersive VR device.

Measures: We measured perceived novelty, satisfaction and purchase intention. The scale to measure perceived novelty was adopted from the study by Argo, Popa, and Smith (2010, a = .95). This scale contained five items rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and and 7=strongly agree). Satisfaction was assessed using a 6-item Likert scale extracted from the study by Chin, Diehl, and Norman (1988, a = .89). To measure purchase intention, participants rated two statements (a = .82). We controlled for participants’ personality traits, uncertainty avoidance, and risk aversion.


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because consumers’ response to the stimuli of immersive and non-immersive VR might be subject to optimum stimulation levels (OSL theory, Hebb, 1955). Uncertainty avoidance (a = .67) was measured using a four-item scale from House et al. (2004). Risk aversion (a = .80) was assessed by the scale developed by Sharma (2010).

Compared to non-immersive VR, our analyses found that immersive VR increased the perceived novelty, thereby enhancing user satisfaction and PI sequentially. However, the effect of immersive VR on novelty is moderated by psychological distance. Showing a condominium via immersive VR is more advantageous only when that condominium was located in a psychologically distant (vs. proximate) area.

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

When consumers are presented with a list of items, do they infer that the spatial presentation of the items conveys meaningful information about the items’ relative quality or performance? Although prior research has detected presentation order effects (i.e., primacy and recency effects), most of this work has explored how people recall stimuli. In contrast, the present research examines comparative evaluations of items presented simultaneously within a vertical list, when no recall is necessary.

Limited research has examined how consumers use spatial position to make evaluations or choices from a simultaneously presented set of items. This work has found evidence for “edge avoidance” (Rubinstein, Tversky, and Heller, 1997), “centrality preferences” (Shaw et al., 2000), “middle bias” (e.g., Attali and Bar-Hillel, 2003), and a “center-stage effect” (Valenzuela and Raghubir, 2009). The basic finding from past research is that options in the middle of an array are evaluated more favourably (and chosen more often) than those on the edges. Although different mechanisms have been proposed for this effect, it may result from greater perceptual attention being devoted to options in the center of a choice set.

In contrast to edge avoidance (which has not been studied in the domain of vertical lists), we suggest that consumers who encounter vertical lists tend to assume that the items are rank-ordered from best to worst. Because vertical lists are routinely ordered in this way, consumers may overgeneralize this normative tendency and infer that even unordered lists have been arranged from best to worst. In a series of seven experiments (four of which are described here), we provide evidence that consumers infer ordinality from verticality. In addition to identifying a number of boundary conditions for this inference, we show that the presumption of ordinality is so ingrained that the best-to-worst inference may persist even if the provider of a list explicitly communicates that order is non-diagnostic (e.g., that the list is alphabetized, randomized, etc.).

In Experiment 1, we asked 166 online participants to review a list of ten brands that were supposedly the names of popular websites in a foreign country but were actually letter sequences fabricated by a company versus the company that was listed ninth (again on a scale from -100 to +100). As predicted, the mean relative rating was higher when the two companies were apart in terms of vertical position (i.e., two versus nine) ($M = +12.25$) versus when they were adjacent (i.e., eight versus nine) ($M = +5.51$); $t(156) = 2.58$, $p = .01$.

Experiment 3 aimed to show that the best-to-worst inference arises because of consumers’ normative expectations about how vertical lists are arranged. A total of 226 participants were exposed to a series of best-to-worst lists (i.e., lists that go from 1 to 10) or to a series of worst-to-best lists (i.e., lists that go from 10 to 1). Following this task, which manipulated participants’ normative expectations, they were presented with the same unnumbered list as in Experiment 1 and estimated the relative popularity of the website that was listed second versus ninth. The mean relative popularity rating was higher after exposure to the best-to-worst lists ($M = +29.49$) versus the worst-to-best lists ($M = -2.85$); $t(224) = 7.60$, $p < .001$. However, whereas the mean rating was significantly higher than zero in the best-to-worst norm condition, this was not the case in the worst-to-best norm condition. This suggests that consumers’ propensity to make best-to-worst inferences when encountering a vertical list is driven by communication norms. More specifically, consumers generalize the tendency of lists to be ordered from best-to-worst and apply this heuristic to lists in which order has not been unspecified. However, when the best-to-worst norm is weakened (through repeated exposures to worst-to-best lists), the effect is attenuated.

Finally, in Experiment 4, we found that the best-to-worst inference is stronger for unordered vertical lists than for ordered horizontal lists. A total of 233 participants encountered an unnumbered list of ten websites, shown in “no particular order,” that were either arranged vertically or horizontally. They then provided a relative evaluation of the website that was listed second versus ninth (either from top-to-bottom, or left-to-right, depending on condition) on a 10-point scale (higher numbers indicating a best-to-worst inference). The mean relative rating was higher when the list was vertical ($M = 4.92$) versus when the list was horizontal ($M = 4.37$); $t(231) = 1.93$, $p = .05$.

In sum, this research extends our theoretical understanding of serial position effects by focusing on evaluations rather than recall and by demonstrating the dominance of “best-to-worst” inferences over edge avoidance in the domain of vertical lists.

REFERENCES


Bail Out on the Bundle? A Study of Factors Impacting Transaction Decoupling and Post Purchase Bundle Consumption
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
The effect of bundling of goods and services on consumer purchase decisions has been extensively studied. In contrast, the research on the impact of bundling on post-purchase consumption behaviour has been relatively limited. Is consumption of bundled components similar to consumption of individual components purchased separately? Soman and Gourville (2001) delineated this and established the phenomenon of transaction decoupling (TD). They showed that in a bundled transaction the costs and benefits associated have one to many relationships. As a result, bundling leads to ambiguity and decoupling of costs from benefits such that the costs incurred for the bundle become less relevant in comparison to an unbundled transaction. Consequently, there is decreased attention to sunk costs, and consumers are more willing to forgo consumption of individual benefits within the bundle. They concluded that consumer motivation and cost allocation difficulty constitute two primary causes of TD. Preliminary analysis suggests that post purchase bundle consumption may vary across consumers leading to differential extent of bundle consumption. However, there has been limited research on the factors impacting TD. Existing studies on TD fall short in explaining the difference in bundle consumption behaviour (partial or complete) across individuals, leading to a call for research that explores the impact of non-situational factors and individual differences on coupling-decoupling in order to better understand the causes of TD and incomplete bundle consumption (Kamleitner 2008; Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998; van Putten, Zeelenberg, & van Dijk, 2013). Given the significant effect an individual’s dispositional and personality characteristics can have on their judgement and decision-making (Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2007), we suggest that the observed difference in bundle consumption might be due to different motivational orientation, i.e., the regulatory focus (RF) of the individuals. We argue that the RF of individuals impacts the TD experienced by consumers and their bundle consumption, and this effect would be moderated by the characteristics of the bundle components (hedonic or utilitarian).

We build on the transaction decoupling and regulatory focus literature to hypothesize that post-purchase consumption of bundles will depend on the regulatory focus of an individual. Four experiments using scenarios with bundled four-day event passes demonstrated this to be the case. In Study 1, we showed that because prevention-focused people experience stronger sunk cost effects and are better at resolving information ambiguities inherent in bundles, they experienced lower TD and consumed more of the bundle than promotion-focused people. Study 2 verified and strengthened these findings by measuring chronic regulatory focus of individuals (using Higgins’ Regulatory Focus Questionnaire) as opposed to inducing regulatory focus, as was done in Study 1. Study 2 validated our findings from Study 1 and showed clear evidence of the impact of regulatory focus on transaction decoupling and bundle consumption. Study 3 explored the moderating effects of the nature of bundle components on the relationship between regulatory focus and TD and showed that individuals process information fitting their regulatory concerns. This resulted in prevention-focused people showing lower TD and higher consumption for utilitarian bundles, while promotion-focused people showed similar behaviour for hedonic bundles. While Study 3 investigated pure bundles (either hedonic or utilitarian), Study 4 looked at the impact of mixed bundles (both hedonic and utilitarian) on the relationship between regulatory focus and TD. Study 4 showed that both promotion- and prevention-focused individuals preferred hedonic goods over utilitarian goods in the case of mixed bundles. We found that when hedonic components were consumed first, TD was higher and consumption of the remaining bundle (utilitarian component) was lower for both prevention- and promotion-focused individuals, as compared to when utilitarian components were consumed first.

Together, these studies help us understand how transaction decoupling and bundle consumption varies for different individuals, and that dispositional factors of individuals help us explain this difference. This study contributes to the research on price bundling by answering the call for research on post-purchase consumption of bundles. We add to the regulatory focus literature by identifying how non-situational factors govern TD and bundle consumption. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first research that integrates personality characteristics such as regulatory focus and bundle consumption in the same context, thereby making a significant contribution to both these areas in consumer behaviour.

The findings from our research would help marketers make better decisions with reference to demand forecasts (and actual turnout), resource allocation for services, peripheral sales (e.g., parking), consumer satisfaction and consumer repurchase decisions. The findings of our study can help managers in positioning decisions. Based on the nature of bundle constituents, the bundle can be positioned and promoted in such a way that it appeals to and attracts customers with the right fit. Lastly, managers can anticipate actual demand or turnout based on the nature of the service and the motivational orientation to which the bundle appeals. This would help in better resource allocation based on anticipated demand and yield management by determining the percentage of oversell possible.

REFERENCES
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Whether you purchase a revolutionary new garden hose that explodes under pressure, or receive an upgrade that then makes your apps inoperable, there can be moments when customers feel the brand has not met expectations, or even transgressed them. A transgression leads to complaints, poor reviews, and taking business elsewhere. Therefore, forgiveness is an issue most firms will deal with at some time. Among all the ways a firm can work to alleviate the negative impact of a transgression, the brand name has not been investigated. In this research, we explored how a leet (a word with an alphabetic character changed to a numeric digit) brand name, compared to an alpha brand name, affects forgiveness. This research contributes to the literature on forgiveness, branding and inconsistency in a unique and novel way.

We propose that consumers find a leet brand name paired with a utilitarian product as inconsistent, since a leet brand name is perceived to be fun and playful and utilitarian products are primarily associated with instrumental and practical product benefits (Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000). Such inconsistency results in a concrete mindset, because when people are required to form impressions based on inconsistent attributes they tend to think and focus on alternative and concrete details (Cochran 1976; Trope and Liberman 2010). Further, a concrete mindset triggers less emotional arousal (Critcher and Ferguson 2011). In sum, when paired with a utilitarian product, a leet brand name would elicit concrete thinking and result in less emotional arousal than an alpha brand name. Given that forgiveness is an emotion-focused coping strategy that reduces negative emotions after experiencing a transgression (Worthington and Scherer 2004), we propose that after a brand transgression, less emotional arousal with a utilitarian product and leet brand name (vs. alpha) will generate greater willingness to forgive.

We conducted two pretests and four studies to explore these propositions. Pretest 1 employed a 2 (brand name: leet vs. alpha) between-subjects design. Participants in all the studies were randomly assigned to one of the conditions. Participants first saw a picture of a backpack, the brand name, and a product description to manipulate the utilitarian attribute. Next, participants answered questions about whether the brand name is associated with hedonic characteristic. The results confirmed and found that leet brand names triggered an association of being more playful and fun than alpha brand names (t(130) = 2.50).

Pretest 2 examined consistency and employed a 2 (brand name: leet vs. alpha) between-subjects design. Participants saw a picture of a backpack, the brand name, and a utilitarian product description and then answered questions about consistency. The results (t(198) = 3.46, p < .001) confirmed that consumers perceived a leet brand name paired with a utilitarian product as being more inconsistent than an alpha brand name paired with a utilitarian product.

Study 1 examined how a leet brand name with a utilitarian product leads to changes in concrete mindset and thus increases willingness to forgive. Participants saw a picture of a ballpoint pen, the brand name (leet vs. alpha), and the utilitarian product description. Participants then answered the mindset questions and questions about their willingness to forgive the brand in case the ballpoint pen leaked. The results confirmed the mediating role of mindset between brand name and forgiveness (β = –.12; 95% CI [–.293, –.027]).

Study 2 measured self-reported emotional arousal when a leet brand name is associated with a utilitarian product on forgiveness. Participants saw a picture of a pair of shoes, the brand name (leet vs. alpha), and the utilitarian product description and read a transgression story. They then answered questions of emotional arousal and forgiveness. The results showed that a leet brand name paired with a utilitarian product leads to lower emotional arousal than an alpha brand name paired with a utilitarian product, after brand transgressions (β = –.303; 95% CI [–.58, –.09]). Emotional arousal successfully mediated the relationship between brand name and forgiveness.

In Study 3, we provided a biometric measure of arousal. We measured implicit emotional response using eye tracker hardware with iMotions software. Participants read the brand name (leet versus alpha) for a pencil. Subsequently, they read a story about a brand transgression that the pencil was not biodegradable and did not sharpen well. The results confirmed that a leet brand evoked less negative emotional arousal than an alpha brand (F(1, 58) = 3.64).

Study 4 explored the impact of mindset and emotional arousal on forgiveness through serial mediation. We employed a 2 (brand name: leet vs. alpha) between-subjects study design. Participants saw a backpack, brand name, a utilitarian product description, and answered questions about mindset, emotional arousal, and forgiveness. We found that for a utilitarian brand, a leet brand name activated a concrete mindset which evoked less emotion arousal, thus leading to more forgiveness for the brand than an alpha brand name (β = −.06; 95% CI [−.13, −.007]).

Theoretically, our work contributes to the literature by extending our understanding of emotional arousal and its impact on forgiveness. This work also extends research in decision making by demonstrating the impact of inconsistency on concrete thinking and its effect on brand forgiveness. Specifically, for construal level, we replicate the impact of emotional arousal. Finally, regarding the theory of brands, we illustrate different types of processing in conjunction with utilitarian products and uniquely provide evidence of the impact of a specific type of brand name on the willingness to forgive. Our exposition of the effects of utilitarian names on forgiveness also adds to the literature in consumer cognitive psychology. Understanding how consumers interpret numbers in brand names (or not), and the resulting consumer decision to forgive may provide a new perspective on brand names and forgiveness. This research has far-reaching impact on transgressions that occur at some time for all brands.

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Bank frauds worth INR 18170 corenes have been reported in the fiscal year 2016-17 in India (Bandyopadhyay 2018; PTI 2018). These frauds often happen in active collusion of the bank employees (PWC 2015), and are also due to deviations from the standard operating procedures (Deloitte 2015), the latter being the cause of 22% of bank frauds (Deloitte 2015). Such frauds have been considered in service branding literature as brand transgressions (Ahn, Sung, and Drumwright 2016).

While transgressions may affect the strength of relationships between customers and service providers (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004; Paulssen and Bagozzi 2008), do continued efforts by banks to retain their customers play a role in customer forgiveness after a transgression? This is the main question which this research seeks to address. The research further examines whether customer forgiveness is affected by the extent to which customers perceive the banks’ active involvement in the fraud. The research was conducted in India, among 312 bank customers after an actual transgression.

Relationship marketing (RM) is an important strategy followed by banks in building long-term relationships with their customers (Mishra and Vaithianathan 2015), and such strategies show a positive relationship with the relationship strength between customers and banks or other service providers (Dalziel, Harris, and Laing 2011). The RM strategies also show positive relationships with customer satisfaction (Odekerken-Schröder, De Wulf, and Schumacher 2003), customer loyalty and positive word-of-mouth (Kinard and Capella 2006), and brand equity (Yoganathan, Jeharajakiruthy, and Thiachon 2015). They also show indirect positive effects on cross-buying (Padmavathy, Balaji, and Sivakumar 2012) and overall firm performance (Kwan and Carlson 2017; Sin et al. 2006). The strategy followed by banks with intentions to retain existing customers is known as Relationship Marketing Orientation (RMO) (Odekerken-Schröder et al. 2003; Sin et al. 2005); RMO has been found to contribute to the strengthening of brand names of banks (Yoganathan et al. 2015).

Conflicts among customers and service providers may manifest through transgressions (Ahn et al. 2016) which assume importance because inferences and conclusions about relational partners are often made with the occurrence of negative acts (Paulssen and Bagozzi 2008). They also have the potential to decrease overall customer satisfaction (Monga et al. 2012) and to affect the strength of customer-brand relationships (Aaker et al. 2004). In fact, the grudges which customers hold following brand transgressions may be long-lasting (Grégoire, Tripp, and Legoux 2009). Strong relational bonds among customers and service providers, however, act as buffers in times of service failures and brand transgressions (Sajtos, Brodie, and Whittome 2010), in addition to the discounting of negative brand information among committed customers (Ahlulwalia, Ummava, and Burnkrant 2001). Therefore, although transgressions may be potentially damaging for customer relationships, the perceived efforts by firms for continuing the relationships (Sajtos et al. 2010), and customers’ own beliefs regarding the relationships (Park and John 2018) may prevent customers from altogether exiting the relationship. In an environment of transgression there tends to be a certain amount of cognitive dissonance among customers (Sayin and Gürhan-Canli 2015). RMO may play an important role in decreasing the cognitive dissonance of customers (Sharifi and Esfidani 2014) and increase perceptions of the reliability of the service provider (De Wulf and Odekerken-Schröder 2003; Sharifi and Esfidani 2014).

The strength of commitment in these relationships lies in customers’ perceptions of banks’ efforts in customer retention (Bennett 1996). Further, in a transgression situation, customer forgiveness can take the form of an intention to continue the relationship with the service provider (Chung and Beverland 2006). This intention of continuance of the relationship is manifested in positive word-of-mouth (WOM) and buying other products offered by the banks (Padmavathy et al. 2012), and these consequences can also be the results of RMO (Sayil et al. 2016; Tam and Wong 2001) as well as the reliability of the customer on the service provider (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sayil et al. 2016). In the context of a transgression, this study therefore hypothesized that RMO is positively correlated with reliability, relationship commitment, positive WOM, and cross-buying (H1 to H4); that relationship commitment is positively correlated with positive WOM and cross-buying (H5 to H6); and that reliability is positively correlated with positive WOM and cross-buying (H7 to H8). We further hypothesized that that the extent of one’s belief in the banks’ complicity in the frauds will moderate the paths between RMO and relationship commitment, positive WOM, cross-buying (Folkes 1984).

Data were collected from 312 banking customers in India through a survey questionnaire sent in the mail. Various constructs were measured using reliable and valid scales from the literature. The hypothesized paths were tested using Structural Equation Modeling. The results suggested positive and significant effects between RMO and reliability, relationship commitment, positive WOM, and cross-buying; between relationship commitment and positive WOM, and relationship commitment and cross-buying, and reliability and positive WOM. The path between reliability and cross-buying was, however, found to be insignificant. Additionally, the strength of attribution was found to moderate the paths between RMO and relationship commitment, positive WOM, and cross-buying.

The study sought to establish the role of relationship marketing orientation (RMO) on bank customers’ forgiveness intentions after a transgression. In cases of brand transgression, though the customers may not immediately sever the relationship with the service provider, feelings of revenge may lead to toned down or minimum required interactions with the service provider. In this backdrop, this research suggests that the customer’s perception of efforts by the service providers in maintaining customer relationships may actually lead to increased reliability and forgiveness, even after a transgression. The forgiveness may, however, be dependent upon the customer’s perception of the active role of the bank in the transgression, as shown by the moderation results.

Because this study was conducted after an actual transgression, the future behavioural intentions of customers may be more robustly measured after a real-life transgression (Leunissen, De Cremer, and Folmer 2012).

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Both money and time are valued resources but their relative value may vary amongst different individuals and different contexts. Money is a familiar, fungible, and unambiguous resource. In contrast, time is difficult to account and more ambiguous (Soman 2001; Okada and Hoch 2004; Saini and Monga 2008). Given such difference between perceptions of temporal and monetary resources, we argue that spending time to save money can be viewed as a conservative investment where one is exchanging an ambiguous currency (time) for a relatively stable, fungible one (money). In contrast, spending money to buy additional time is a relatively audacious move because the returns on such an exchange are uncertain.

Power is defined as asymmetric control over valued resources in social relations (Rucker, Galinsky and Dubois 2012). Power has been associated with risk-taking capacity (Anderson and Galinsky 2006), increased approach- and action-tendencies (Smith and Bargh 2008), and involving optimism and confidence (Fast, Gruenfeld, Sivanathan, and Galinsky 2009). Therefore, social power, by making a person more risk tolerant and action-oriented, leads people to save time by spending money. In a series of studies we examined how and why the state of felt social power influences people’s decision to exchange money for time.

In Study 1a, participants (n = 150 undergraduates) made two hypothetical decisions involving trade-offs between time and money. The Sense of Power scale (Anderson and Galinsky 2006) was also administered. We averaged the responses to the time-saving option in the two scenarios. A linear regression with measured power as an independent variable revealed that greater willingness to spend money to save time was associated with a greater power of participants (b = 13.38, t = 3.15, p < .01). In Study 1b, participants (n = 155) read a scenario that involved time-money trade-offs and answered if they would buy a time-saving option. Participants’ chronic sense of power was measured using the same scale. Study 1b included a gender, age, subjective economic status questions, and frugality scale (Lastovicka et al 1999) to control for possible confounds. As predicted, a logistic regression revealed that participants with higher power chose time-saving option more (β = .37, χ² = 4.51, p < .05), and this relationship persisted even after controlling for all other measured variables (p = .2). In Study 2 (n = 160 undergraduates), participants were randomly assigned to either high-power or low-power conditions. We manipulated power using a recall task (Galinsky, Gruenfeld and Magee, 2003). Next, participants read three scenarios where they were asked to make time-money trades-offs (Whillans, Weidman and Dunn 2016). We summed the number of time-saving decisions that participants made in response to the three scenarios. Comparison across high- and low-power conditions revealed a main effect of power (β = 1.81, t = 2.15, p < .05). As predicted, participants who were primed to have high power chose to purchase more time-saving options.

Thus far we demonstrated that power leads people to prioritize time over money. However, there is one prominent context in which powerless people prioritize time over money. Bellezza, Paharia and Keinan (2016) demonstrated that displaying busyness and time scarcity can be status-enhancing. Rucker and Galinsky (2009) and several others have demonstrated that powerless people are highly motivated to convey positive social signals by engaging in conspicuous consumption. Therefore, we suggest that social visibility will encourage the powerless to exchange money for time. This would lead to a reversal of our core result that power leads to greater preference for time (vs. money).

In Study 3 (n = 310 mTurkers), participants were randomly assigned to high- or low-power conditions where social power was manipulated with a role-playing task (Rucker, et al., 2012). Participants were then assigned to one of four conditions in a 2 (power: low vs high) × 2 (social visibility: high vs low) design. Both high- (dinner with friends and picking up relatives) and low social visibility scenarios (doctor visit and post office) involved a binary choice decision between valet parking (time-saving option) and garage parking (money-saving option).

A logistic regression confirmed our hypothesis that the interaction effect of power and social visibility was significant (β = -1.147, χ² = 5.75, p < .05). In the low social visibility conditions, powerful consumers chose the time-saving option more often, replicating our previous results (Mhi-power = 38.0%; Mlo-power = 20.2%; χ²=25.51, p < .0001). In the high social visibility conditions, powerful and powerless consumers did not vary significantly in their time-buying tendency (Mhi-power = 40.0%; Mlo-power= 47.1%; Pearson’s χ² = 0.80, p > 0.30). More pertinent to our moderation hypothesis, while powerful consumers remained entirely uninfluenced by social visibility, powerless consumers were more likely to engage in time-buying in high-(vs. low-) social visibility conditions (Powerless: Mhi-visib = 47.1%; Mlo-visib = 20.2%; Pearson’s χ² = 12.06, p < 0.0001).

In multiple studies we amassed converging evidence that power leads people to prioritize time over money (Studies 1a, 1b and 2). However, powerless consumers’ stronger social signalling motives reverse this tendency (Study 3). Given our results, companies selling time-saving products and services should appeal to the consumer by showing them as more dominant and powerful entities. Alongside, low-power consumers can also be targeted to buy such time-saving products and services if their positive social signalling externalities are highlighted.

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Consumer Ambivalence, Dissonance, and Indifference – Peas in the Same Pod?

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Introduction

Prior research shows mixed results for the effects of attitudinal and situational ambivalence and ignores their relationships with indifference and dissonance. We address these gaps with an integrative conceptual framework and two experimental studies. We show that attitudinal and situational ambivalence do vary in their effects on consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian options, and consumer dissonance and indifference play important roles in this process. These findings extend current research on consumer ambivalence by distinguishing between the roles of the two types of ambivalence and the roles of consumer dissonance and indifference on the choice between hedonic and utilitarian options. Besides these conceptual contributions, our findings also have important managerial implications for marketers of hedonic versus utilitarian products and services.

Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

Attitudinal vs. Situational Ambivalence

Ambivalent attitudes are generally weaker and less predictive of behaviour (Conner et al. 2003) and less resistant to persuasion (Armitage and Conner 2000). Thus, ambivalent attitudes are less stable over time, less predictive of behaviour, more pliable, and have less impact on information processing, compared to univalent attitudes. However, others have distinguished between potential (attitudinal) versus felt (situational) ambivalence to show that attitudinal ambivalence may be related with mere cognitive inconsistency, whereas felt ambivalence would relate with actual experience of discomfort (Newby-Clark, McGregor, and Zanna 2002). Based on these, we argue that attitudinal ambivalence may be more likely to lead to indifference, whereas situational ambivalence is more likely to lead to dissonance. Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1 Attitudinal (situational) consumer ambivalence has a stronger positive effect on consumer indifference (dissonance).

Coping with Dissonance vs. Indifference

Researchers have also explored the ways consumers cope with ambivalence. For example, Van Harreveld, Van der Pligt, and Yael (2009) use their model of ambivalence-induced discomfort (MAID) to show that ambivalence is experienced as being particularly unpleasant when the ambivalent attitude holder is confronted with the necessity to make a choice between the ambivalent attitude object; then, incongruent evaluative components of the attitude become accessible, and feelings of uncertainty about the potential outcomes arise, which may involve the anticipation of aversive emotions. People deal with such unpleasant experience or discomfort induced by ambivalence using emotion- and problem-focused coping strategies. Based on this discussion, we argue that the consumer dissonance induced by situational ambivalence is likely to lead to greater uncertainty about the target object of the task on hand, compared to the indifference induced by attitudinal ambivalence. This in turn would lead to a significant difference in the effects of dissonance and indifference on the evaluation of the task by the consumers. Accordingly, we hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 2 Consumer dissonance has a stronger negative effect on task evaluation than consumer indifference.

Consumer Choice: Hedonic vs. Utilitarian

Consumers choose among different products and services based on two types of motivations; affective (hedonic) gratification from the sensory attributes, and cognitive (utilitarian) evaluation of functional attributes (Batra and Ahtola 1991; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Subsequent studies show that consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods is influenced by the nature of the decision task (Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000). Specifically, the relative salience of hedonic dimensions is greater when consumers decide which of several items to give up (forfeit choices) than when they decide which item to acquire (acquisition choices). We combine the above findings with the heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken, Liberman, and Eagly 1989) to argue that consumer indifference resulting from attitudinal ambivalence would lead to a more heuristic style of processing and result in a greater preference for hedonic (vs. utilitarian) choice. In contrast, consumer dissonance resulting from situational ambivalence would decrease the confidence in the attitudes toward behaviours involving the target object and lead to greater systematic processing of the relevant information, resulting a greater preference for the utilitarian (vs. hedonic) choice. Hence,

Hypothesis 3 Consumer indifference (dissonance) has a stronger positive effect on preference for the hedonic (utilitarian) choice.

Methodology

We used two lab experiment studies (n=120 each) to test the above hypotheses. In both studies, we manipulated situational ambivalence and consumer choice (hedonic vs. utilitarian) using imaginary scenarios related to the choice of an automobile in the first study, and the choice of a group member in the second study. Specifically, we first measured the attitudinal ambivalence of participants and then described the two options using a mix of hedonic and utilitarian attributes. After this we asked participants to choose one of the options. Finally, we recorded demographic information such as age, gender, occupation and income.

We found support for all three hypotheses. Specifically, attitudinal (vs. situational) ambivalence has a significantly stronger positive effect on indifference (Δβ = .26, p < .001 and .37, p < .001), situational (vs. attitudinal) ambivalence has a significant stronger positive effect on dissonance (Δβ = .32, p < .001 and .27, p < .001). Similarly, dissonance has a significantly stronger negative effect on task evaluation (Δβ = -.38, p < .001 and -.29, p < .001). Finally, indifference has a stronger positive effect on the preference for hedonic choice (Δβ = .21, p < .001 and .23, p < .001) whereas dissonance has a stronger effect on the preference for utilitarian choice (Δβ = .31, p < .001 and .34, p < .001).
Discussion
Our findings extend current research on consumer ambivalence by distinguishing between the roles of the two types of ambivalence and the roles of consumer dissonance and indifference on the choice between hedonic and utilitarian options. Besides these conceptual contributions, our findings also have important managerial implications for marketers of hedonic versus utilitarian products and services. For example, marketers of hedonic products and services could try to reduce the level of indifference by providing more hedonic cues in the shopping or service environment, such as attractive posters and displays, and attractive, well-dressed sales or service employees. In contrast, marketers of utilitarian products and services could reduce the dissonance and situational ambivalence by providing more utilitarian cues such as price labels, product information booklets, and serious, knowledgeable employees.

REFERENCES
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

It has long been known that retail prices are usually set at round numbers (i.e., 0- and 5-ending numbers) or 9-ending numbers. Although there has been considerable research on the causes of 9-ending prices, very little attention has been given to the causes of 0- and 5-ending prices. A causal explanation centered on the transactional ease of round-numbered coins and bills is insufficient to explain the phenomenon, given that round-number prices are highly favoured in online commerce where bills and coins are not involved. The tendency for sellers to use round-number prices to signal high quality suggests a possible explanation. An opportunity to test this explanation comes from payoff behaviour for consumer debts that typically accrue over multiple periods, or from multiple transactions, and often include various taxes and fees. Given these complexities, it is unlikely that the ending of the ultimate balance (price) is the result of a conscious signal provided by the seller. If consumers show an enhanced response to round numbers in such situations, then factors other than seller signalling must be involved.

In our view, a key factor is that round numbers serve as cognitive reference points: they are the numbers which other numbers are seen in relation to. For example, in Roman numerals, 0- and 5-ending numbers and their multiples have their own single symbols (V, X, L, C, D, M), and nearly all other numbers are expressed in terms of these symbols. When a mental entity is used as a reference point, it is used to express other things and is thus used very often. We review the extensive evidence that round numbers are indeed very often used and note that this leads to processing fluency, which makes them easier to recall and easier to use in planning. We hypothesize that this easier planning leads to people being more likely to initiate and remember (i.e., plan) the action of paying the debt when the debt is a round-number amount. Thus, round-number debts are likely to be paid faster than debt amounts that are not round (i.e., are ‘sharp’).

Study 1

The initial test of our hypothesis involved field data on the payment of library fines. The library of a mid-sized private university provided data on 7,996 fines assessed to 2,403 patrons over a three-year period. Almost all of these fines were under $10.00, and a pretest determined that, for numbers 10.00 or under, endings of .00 and .50 were considered rounder than other endings. Thus, we classified those library fines ending in $.50 and $.00 as round and all others as sharp.

Some fines were resolved immediately (i.e., on the same day the patron returned the overdue item), whereas other fines were resolved after a delay following the item’s return. Of the round-number fines, 30.4% were resolved immediately; of the sharp-number fines, only 21.2% were resolved immediately ($p < .001$). For the delayed-resolution fines, the delay was 56.4 days for round-number fines versus 77.5 days for sharp-number fines ($p < .001$). These round-sharp differences were confirmed in regression analyses that controlled for factors such as size of fine, heterogeneity among patrons, time trend, and seasonality. These results provide consistent evidence that round-number debts are paid off more quickly than sharp-number debts.

Study 2

The second test of our hypothesis involved field data on the payment of past-due utility bills. A large cable services company provided data on 25,190 accounts that had entered past-due status. The median size of these past-due balances was $82.50, and the pretest determined that, for numbers around 100.00, endings of 5.00 and 0.00 were considered rounder than other endings. Thus, we classified those whole-dollar past-due balances (i.e., cents digits of 00) that ended in 5 or 0 dollars as round and all others as sharp.

Our measure of payoff speed was whether the customer paid off the past-due balance within 30 days of receiving their past-due notice. There were higher payoff rates for round-dollar balances (i.e., with 0- and 5-dollar endings) compared both to sharp whole-dollar amounts ($2 (1) = 6.29; p < 0.02$) and to all non-whole dollar amounts ($2 (1) = 8.89; p < .01$). These differences were confirmed in regression analyses that controlled for size of the balance, tenure of the account, types of cable services purchased, and gender of the account holder. Thus, in a very different context from that of Study 1, this study replicated the finding that round-number debts are paid off faster than sharp-number debts, and showed that the effect generalizes to larger debt balances.

In this research, we provide evidence from two field studies that upward repayment rate spikes occur when debts end in round numbers (i.e., 0 and 5). This finding has compelling management implications. For example, although libraries are not usually for-profit entities, having patrons pay culminated fines (i.e., fines that have stopped accruing) sooner may be administratively efficient and could reduce library overhead. Our findings suggest that to accelerate repayment, a library may choose to proactively adjust its policy to ensure that most fines end with .50 or .00. In a for-profit commercial setting, such as Study 2, early debt repayment can have huge revenue and implications and generate additional investment opportunities. If round-number balances lead consumers to make repayments 10% faster, as we find in Study 2, ensuring that most balances end with round numbers can have major ramifications for companies managing large numbers of delinquent accounts.

Further experimental results (not reported here due to space constraints) contrast potential mechanisms underlying the field data of Studies 1 and 2.
Effect of Base Service Tariff Structure on Purchase of Add-On Services
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
How does the tariff structure for a core product/service influence the sequential purchase decisions (viz., upgrades, add-ons etc.)? In this paper, we investigate effects of a) base service tariff structure, b) degree of complementarity, and c) launch timing on the add-on purchase likelihood for access-based services.

Introduction
Product enhancements have become ubiquitous in categories spanning durable goods to services (Shugan 2018). How do consumers value these enhancements, and how can firms effectively price their base and enhancement product/services? Past research suggests that degree of complementarity between the core and the enhancement product influences the willingness to pay (WTP). For durable goods such as printers, the likelihood of purchasing an add-on (high quality ink cartridge) is highest when the product is new, and decreases as the usage increases with time (Erat and Bhaskaran 2012). We rely on insights from mental accounting to propose how the past-usage (of core services) impacts the sequential decisions (purchases of service enhancements).

Relevant Literature
Consumers’ preference for pricing structures: Scholars from both consumer behaviour as well as from industrial organization have examined reasons for the existence of different tariff structures for products and services (Hess and Gerstner 1987; Cohen and Whang 1997; Bertini, Ofek and Ariely 2003; Chakravarti, Krish, Paul and Srivastava 2008). Firms offer a menu of tariff-plans to price discriminate among consumers who not only differ in their actual usage, but also on other behavioural dimensions such as risk-avoidance, tolerance for payment hassle etc., (Lambrecht and Tucker 2012).

(Un)-bundling add-on products and services: Firms choose to offer product enhancements (add-ons, upgrades, exclusive privileges, etc.) either as part of the core offering or as an un-bundled component (Guiltnian 1987, Yadav 1994). Depending on the nature of the core product/service, sometimes the enhancements are available only to consumers who have already purchased the core product (e.g., upgrades) or to anyone (e.g., accessories) (Shugan 2018). Consumers’ valuations of such product enhancements vary with product characteristics, price-framing effects, as well as individual characteristics (Janiszewski and Cunha Jr. 2004).

Although some prior research has treated all types of product or service enhancements as equivalent from the firm’s strategic point of view (Johnson and Myatt 2003), there is evidence to treat them differently from consumers’ valuation point of view.

Mental accounting and sequential purchases: Insights from mental accounting have been applied to explain consumers’ durable goods purchases and consumption decisions (Erat and Bhaskaran 2012). Broadly, individuals track the post-purchase usage of the base product and assess the residual book value (net of price paid and the cumulative consumption benefits) to gauge the worthiness of purchasing an add-on that enhances the consumption benefits of the base product.

Consequently, we propose that individuals track the post-purchase usage of services, and the tariff structure they chose to purchase the service influences the mental accounting rules and perceptions of loss vs. gain (under-usage vs. over-usage). These perceptions of post-purchase usage eventually impact their willingness to pay for an add-on service.

Empirical Analysis
Study 1A: Effect of timing of add-on launch on purchase likelihood
Objective: Study 1A was designed to empirically verify the effect of base service tariff levels on preferences about add-on purchases.

Design, Stimuli and Procedure: A total of 346 respondents who participated in the study were randomly assigned to one of 3 (add-on launch timing) between-subjects conditions. Each participant was presented with scenarios corresponding to 2 (within-subjects contexts) texts: i) smartphone (add-on: a puzzle gaming app) and ii) swimming pool (add-on: sauna access). The add-on launch timing was modified to suit the base product or service being consumed (smartphone: 3/6/9 months of usage; swimming: 5th/10th/15th visit).

Measures: We measured the following variables related to add-ons on a 7-point scale: purchase likelihood and extent of displeasure on being presented with the add-on, and the intention to recommend the product/service to friends and family on a 5-point scale. We also gathered open-ended responses on reasons for the stated choices.

Analysis & Results: The preference towards the add-on varied significantly with the timing of its launch in both conditions (Purchase Likelihood of i) sauna voucher: M5th = 3.50, M15th = 4.43, p = .031; and ii) gaming app: M3M = 5.31, M6M = 6.11, p = .000). Overall, consumers perceived add-on services to be a mix of complementary enhancement to the base service or as an independent offering whose consumption is agnostic to the time elapsed after consuming the base service.

Study 1B: Effect of complementarity, tariff structure on add-on purchases

Design: We designed a 2 (high vs. low complementarity) X 2 (pricing plan: monthly vs. semi-annual) X 2 (add-on launch timing: 2 vs. 6 months) between-subjects study where participants (N = 175) were presented with a scenario for evaluating an access-based service (co-working space) and the add-on facilities (meeting room with video conferencing facility: high complementarity; access to spa services: low complementarity).

Measures: The add-on purchase likelihood was measured on a 7-point scale. Additional measures included individuals’ perceptions of having payments aligned with usage (PaySync), need for justification of the base service usage (UsageJustify), perceived hassle of the tariff structure (Hassle) and sensitivity to the timing of the add-on launch (AddOnTiming).

Analysis & Results: Results of the manipulation checks provided evidence for the proposition that respondents treated the two tariff plans differently in terms of the hassle (MHigh,2M = 3.7; MHigh,6M = 4.8, p = .000). As expected, purchase likelihood was higher when the degree of complementarity between the base and the add-on was higher (Mhigh = 4.5) than when it was lower (Mlow = 4.5, p = .005).

Discussion: The empirical analysis provided evidence for the effect of service characteristics (complementarity), the offer characteristics (time of launch), and the tariff structure on add-on purchases. In order to suggest optimal pricing strategies, we adopt a theoretical model with assumptions based on this empirical analysis.
Conclusion
In this paper, we empirically uncover the effect of base service tariff structure on add-on purchase decisions.

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Imagine that a cyclone hit your neighbouring town, destroying homes and businesses and leaving many injured and displaced. You could either help by donating to your friend or to a person whom you do not know personally who is affected by the cyclone. While either of the charitable acts towards close or distant recipients will provide valuable resources to the affected individuals, when are people most likely to feel happiest? Why do some people donate to strangers, while others give to close ones? The current study sheds light on these questions. Based on attribution theory, we propose a sequential mediation where donations to socially distant (close) recipients are attributed to society-serving (self-serving) benefits, which, in turn, make the donors perceive higher (lower) credit for their donations. This perception of increased charitable credit attributed to society-serving motives increases the donor’s feeling of happiness. Four experiments were conducted.

Study 1

Study 1 tested how donors assess the attributions for donations directed towards recipients who vary on social distance. We recruited 95 students enrolled in a large Indian university (51% female; Mage = 26 years) to one of the two social distance conditions (advertising appeals about donating to cancer research for saving friends or someone’s life, adapted from Brunel & Nelson, 2000). Planned contrast showed that participants rated higher society-serving attribution for the donations that were directed towards socially distant others (saving someone’s life; M = 5.21) than socially close others (save your friend’s life; M = 4.60), t = 1.96, p < 0.05.

Study 2

The aim of this study was to test the sequential mediation of donation intent and charitable credit. 152 Indian university students were randomly assigned to one of six conditions (needed money to pay for medical expenses) in a between-subjects design. Participants were instructed to imagine donating to people who were ranked 1st, 5th, 10th, 25th, 50th, and 100th on the list of people close to them (Jones & Rachlin, 2006). Results of PROCESS (model 6) supported the sequential mediation, as social distance had an impact on society-serving motives (β = 0.51, p < 0.01, LCI = 0.14, UCI = 0.89), which, in turn, had a significant positive effect on charitable credit (β = 0.14, p < 0.05, LCI = 0.01, UCI = 0.29). Charitable credit had a significant positive effect on donors’ perceived happiness (β = 0.46, p < 0.01, LCI = 0.24, UCI = 0.67).

Study 3

Study 3 aimed to offer external validity by replicating Study 2 results with a non-student sample from a diverse cultural context (UK) and examining whether expected impact and trait warmth could offer an alternative explanation. 192 participants participated in a between-subjects design similar to Study 1. Consistent with Study 2, recipients’ social distance had a positive significant effect on society-serving motives (β = 0.73, p < 0.01, LCI = 0.35, UCI = 1.11), which, in turn, had a significant positive effect on charitable credit (β = 0.22, p < 0.01, LCI = 0.12, UCI = 0.32). Regarding perceived happiness, charitable credit had a significant positive effect (β = 0.57, p < 0.01, LCI = 0.42, UCI = 0.72). Further results showed that expected impact did not affect the relationship between social distance and happiness. Also, low warmth donors perceived greater society-serving motives and thus high charitable credit when donating to distant rather than close recipients.

Study 4

This study built on and extended Study 3 by investigating the form of donation (monetary vs. non-monetary). The results of the 2 x 2 between-subjects study supported sequential mediation; additional analysis showed that perceived regret (pain of payment) did not explain donation to socially distant others. This provides generalizability of the serial mediation and rules out alternative explanations.

Conclusion

Across four studies, we offer support for the notion that donations directed to socially distant recipients rather than close ones result in high levels of perceived happiness. More specifically, we show that people view donations to distant recipients as motivated by society-serving and selflessness intentions, which grants them higher charitable credit. On the contrary, donations to socially close individuals are perceived as motivated by self-gain and selfishness, in that donors believe that the recipients of their donations would help them in the future. This suggests that perceived happiness is not associated with the benefit of the donation per se, but the degree to which such donation is associated with society-serving versus self-serving intentions and the credit granted for the donations.

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Feeling Wealthy, Spending Less:
The Interplay of Perceived and Objective Wealth on Consumption
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
How does perceived wealth influence consumers’ spending? Perceived wealth is the subjective assessment of one’s financial situation. Objective wealth (e.g., income, savings, and investments) and perceived wealth are not the same. While there is a positive association between actual wealth and its perception (Wilhelm, Varcoe, and Fridrich 1993), this relationship is often weak (Gasiorowska 2014). Two people with the same wealth are likely to have different perceptions about their objective financial situations. This may be due to their different consumption values and habits, different needs and wants, different aspiration levels, and different social comparison processes (Clark and Oswald. 1996). In this research, we seek to understand the influence of subjective wealth on consumption across different levels of objective wealth.

We argue that while objective wealth will have a positive relationship with spending, above a certain level feeling wealthy will, in fact, have a negative relationship with spending. This is because perceiving oneself to be wealthy provides a buffer against the social pressures associated with consumption. In other words, a consumer who feels rich is also more likely to feel autonomous in their spending, being less susceptible to interpersonal influences from others (Bearden, Netemeyer, and Teel 1989). This feeling of autonomy will lead them to lower spending.

Through a series of studies, we investigate the interaction between perceived wealth and objective wealth on spending. Studies 1 and 2 model these relationships using field data from a large retail bank and from a money management app. Study 3 tests the implied mechanism in a controlled lab experiment. Finally, studies 4 and 5 demonstrate that our effects hold longitudinally and across cultures, using two large public surveys from the USA and China.

Study 1: Money Management App Dataset
The dataset was collected in collaboration with a money management app. The dataset contained more than two million individual transaction records in total from participants (N = 2,232) over a 12-month period. We asked users for their subjective views on how wealthy they felt in a survey (e.g., “I feel wealthy right now”) and paired these responses with their account data.

We then tested whether respondents who felt wealthier spent more, and compared this across their income, as measured from money entering their bank accounts. As predicted, we found a significant interaction between objective and subjective wealth (b = -.12, p < .001) on total spending. Among objectively wealthy people, those who viewed themselves as wealthier spent less than people who felt subjectively poorer.

Study 2: Bank Transaction Dataset
The goal of Study 2 was to replicate the effect found in Study 1 with several improvements, including a wider range of demographics. We analysed customer account data from a large UK retail bank (N = 716 customers; 12 months). As predicted, there was a significant interaction between objective and subjective wealth (b = -.05, p < .001) on total spending. Again, we found that those who felt wealthy spent less compared to those who felt poorer among those with higher incomes.

Study 3: Manipulated Subjective Wealth and Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence
In this study, we aimed at replicating our previous findings in a more controlled experiment manipulating subjective wealth and testing the hypothesized process of susceptibility to interpersonal influence. Participants (N = 980; online) imagined a society in which wealth is measured in alpha coins and were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: feeling-rich versus feeling-poor. Next, we measured propensity to consume, the dependent variable, and susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Koschate-Fisher and Hoyer, 2012). As expected, the analysis revealed a significant interaction (b = 19.44, t(976) = 2.73, p = .006). Respondents in the feeling-rich condition wanted to spend fewer alpha coins (MRich = 566.6) than respondents in the feeling-poor condition (MPoor = 609.3, t(979) = 2.91, p = .004). Moreover, the effect of feeling relatively wealthy on reduced spending was particularly strong for respondents who were not susceptible to others (b = -44.2, t(976) = 4.39, p < .001).

Study 4: Longitudinal Data
In Study 4, we used data from a large-scale national survey of older people to investigate the relationship between spending, income, and subjective wealth over a four-year period. We use data from the Health and Retirement Study (HRS), a biannual longitudinal survey of adults ages 50 or above and their spouses of any age, living in the United States.

We first looked at results cross-sectionally at times 1 and 2. Consistent with previous findings, we found a significant interaction between subjective wealth and income (time 1: b = -.002, p < .001; time 2: b = -.003, p = .001). We next ran a series of models longitudinally, controlling for baseline spending. Including lagged dependent variables can be a solution to the omitted confounding factor (Angrist and Pischke 2009). We demonstrate that our findings are robust to this additional analysis (b = -.001, p = .012).

Study 5: Different Culture
Finally, we wanted to test our results in a different culture. The Rural Urban Migration in China (RUMiC) dataset used in the analysis relies on a survey in China conducted since 2008. Again, in this dataset we found the predicted interaction between subjective wealth and objective income (b = -.08, p < .001).

In conclusion, this research deepens our understanding about how perceived wealth influences actual spending among wealthy consumers. We demonstrated that the relationship between objective wealth and spending is moderated by perceived wealth: those who are objectively well-off but who feel poorer spend more.

REFERENCES

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Although social marketers in their anti-drinking campaigns have widely evoked negative emotions (e.g., fear), recent research has questioned this approach. Specifically, negative emotion appeals might lead to undesirable consequences such as inaction or avoidance behaviours (Brennan and Binney 2010; Previte et al. 2015). Recent studies have suggested that evoking positive emotions can be an effective alternative (Brennan and Binney 2010; Previte et al. 2015). However, these studies have typically examined positive emotion as a general, diffused construct. Emerging research in emotions has demonstrated how different, discrete positive emotions (e.g., pride, love) can differentially influence consumer judgment processes (Cavanaugh et al. 2015; Griskevicius et al. 2010). Hence, one important question that remains unanswered is whether discrete positive emotions are similarly effective in promoting responsible drinking behaviour. The current research aims to address this important issue by investigating the effects of pride and gratitude, and establishing the underlying mechanism driving these effects.

Pride creates a tendency to view the self in a positive way; this emotion can make individuals perceive themselves as being correct when making judgments (Agrawal et al. 2013) and show negative biases against others who have different opinions (Ashton-James and Tracy 2012). In contrast, gratitude facilitates individuals to strengthen their interpersonal relationships (Algoe 2012). This function of social bonding indicates that gratitude can enhance perspective-taking ability (Lazarus 1991; McCullough et al. 2001), increasing the tendency to associate with other people and mitigating the tendency to reject others (Shen 2011; Shen 2010). Building on these findings, we argue that individuals who feel grateful (vs. pride) are less likely to perceive an anti-drinking message as a threat to their freedom and more willing to comply with it, because gratitude helps individuals appreciate others’ opinions.

Study 1A aimed to provide initial evidence by exploring individuals’ trait emotions of pride and gratitude and their correlation with willingness to drink moderately. As expected, we found a significant positive correlation between dispositional gratitude and willingness to drink moderately. However, there was a non-significant correlation between dispositional pride and willingness to drink moderately. As predicted, these results show that dispositional gratitude (but not dispositional pride) predicts an increased willingness to drink moderately.

Study 1B aimed to provide a more internally valid test for our prediction by directly manipulating emotion states. As expected, the results of Study 1B showed that participants in the gratitude condition reported a higher willingness to drink moderately than those in the pride condition.

We propose that gratitude will be more effective than pride, because gratitude can potentially reduce psychological reactance. Further, we argue that the differences on psychological reactance between pride and gratitude emerge because of pride’s emphasis on self. That is, because pride has a higher level of self-responsibility appraisal than gratitude, pride heightens the primacy of self when making judgments (Agrawal et al. 2013; Ashton-James and Tracy 2012). Although recent research has showed that pride can lead to differential effects depending on the attributes of self-achievement (e.g., authentic, hubristic pride) (Huang et al. 2014; Tracy and Rob-
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Agrawal, Nidhi, DaHee Han, and Adam Duhachek (2013). Emotional agency appraisals influence responses to preference inconsistent information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 120 (1), 87-97.


How Possessiveness Cues in Brand Names Impact Brand Evaluations
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Marketers frequently rely on brand anthropomorphism (i.e., endowing brands with humanlike features; Puzakova and Kwak 2017) as an effective tactic that enhances affective reactions and product evaluations (Aggarwal and McGill 2012). One of the popular means that brand strategists employ to facilitate anthropomorphism is endowing a brand with a human name. For instance, Lily takes photos of consumers’ adventures, Dave assists customers with banking fees, and a cup of fresh coffee is served at Tim Horton’s.

Furthermore, a more nuanced analysis of these humanlike names points out subtle semantic variations in the way these brand names are formed. For example, marketers use a possessive form in Tim Horton’s and Trader Joe’s brand names, whereas a non-possessive version is used in the Lily and Dave brand names. Does this subtle difference matter, and if yes, in what way? In this regard, prior research in psychology and linguistics indicates that possessive forms have crucial affective consequences (Shi et al. 2011). Despite the widespread prevalence of humanlike brand names and theoretically important consequences of possessive semantic units, to the best of our knowledge, no prior studies have examined the effectiveness of using possessiveness as a linguistic cue in anthropomorphized brand names. In response, we attempt to fill this gap. Our key contribution lies in demonstrating an important role of brand name possessiveness in consumers’ anthropomorphized brand inferences and evaluations.

As a theoretical basis, we draw from both psychological ownership theory and linguistics research that demonstrate that perceptions of an individual’s ownership toward an object is easily formed by presenting people with possessive pronouns preceding the target of ownership (Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks 2003; Shi et al. 2011). Thus, we propose that the use of a possessive form in brand names can lead to greater consumer inferences that a brand is owned by a specific external entity (implied in the brand name).

Our second contribution lies in identifying a novel process for this effect. Psychologically owned items are seen as extensions of people who own them (Belk 1988) and can help people communicate important aspects of their identity to others (White and Argo 2011). Because people frequently experience feelings of psychological ownership and signal their identity through owned items to others (Pierce et al. 2003), we propose that individuals are also likely to view others’ owned items as signalling an owner’s identity. As such, consumers are likely to perceive that an inferred brand owner’s identity spills over to the brand, subsequently resulting in greater inferences of identity-relevant brand attributes. Importantly, we expect this effect to occur only for brand names that include an identity marker (i.e., a qualifier that provides consumers with information about an inferred owner’s identity). Because an identity marker provides unique information about an inferred brand owner’s identity, consumers will view a possessive (vs. non-possessive) brand name with an identity marker as performing better on identity-relevant brand attributes, thus, resulting in more favourable brand evaluations.

We tested these ideas in three studies. The results of Study 1 (n=117, students at a US East Coast university) revealed that a possessive brand name of a café (introduced via an advertisement) that included an identity marker (Sweet Tatiana’s) led to more favourable brand evaluations than a non-possessive brand name with an identity marker (Sweet Tatiana): $M_{\text{possessive}}=5.45$ vs. $M_{\text{non-possessive}}=5.02$; $F(1,115) = 3.690, p = .057$.

Next, Study 2 (n=186, MTurk participants) replicated the effect in a different service context (a hair-salon brand) and examined whether the positive effect of possessiveness held only for brand names with an identity marker (e.g., Elegant Charlie’s vs. Charlie’s). The results of this study revealed that when an identity marker was present, the possessive (vs. non-possessive) brand name led to more favourable brand evaluations ($M_{\text{possessive}} = 6.14$ vs. $M_{\text{non-possessive}} = 5.68$, $F(1,182) = 5.652, p = .018$). Conversely, in the absence of an identity marker, brand evaluations did not differ between the possessive and the non-possessive brand name conditions ($M_{\text{possessive}} = 5.88$ vs. $M_{\text{non-possessive}} = 5.78$, $p = .594$). Similar results were obtained for the word-of-mouth and purchase intentions. Overall, in line with our theorizing, the effect of brand name possessiveness was mitigated when no identity marker is present.

Study 3 (n=186, MTurk participants) further examined the mediating role of consumers’ attributions of identity-relevant brand attributes and considered potential alternative explanations for our results. We tested our effects with advertisements for a brand of catering: Artful Mark’s vs. Artful Mark. Replicating the results of Studies 1 and 2, the findings revealed that a possessive brand name of a catering business that included an identity marker (Artful Mark’s) led to more favourable brand evaluations than a non-possessive brand name with an identity marker (Artful Mark): $M_{\text{possessive}} = 6.03$ vs. $M_{\text{non-possessive}} = 5.74$, $F(1,184) = 4.405, p = .037$. Next, the results of the model testing the serial relationships (brand name possessiveness → perceived brand ownership → attributions of identity-relevant brand attributes → brand evaluations; model 6; Hayes et al. 2013) revealed a significant overall mediation effect ($B_{\text{branded evaluations}} = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .16]$). That is, a possessive (vs. non-possessive) form of a brand name led to greater inferences of brand ownership, which in turn enhanced participants’ attributions of identity-relevant brand attributes, thus resulting in more favourable brand evaluations. Finally, our results further ruled out several alternative accounts: responsibility for service outcomes and inferred service quality.

Overall, this research identifies important consequences of inferring others’ (or anthropomorphized brands’) ownership states. In particular, Studies 1 through 3 demonstrate that the use of a possessive (vs. non-possessive) form in anthropomorphized brand names with an identity marker leads to more favourable brand evaluations, word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions. Study 3 sheds light on the underlying process through greater attributions of identity-relevant brand attributes, while also ruling out alternative explanations.

Our results add a new dimension to research on anthropomorphism (Aggarwal and McGill 2012; Puzakova and Kwak 2017). Although the use of both possessive and non-possessive humanlike names is a widely popular tactic that increases brand anthropomorphism, scant work has systematically investigated nuances of this branding strategy. In response, our research underscores the impact of an important linguistic cue that marketers can rely on to enhance new customers’ brand perceptions.

REFERENCES


Impact of Data Trigger Combinations on Effectiveness of Personalized Banner Ads
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
With the escalating presence of banner ads in the web space, advertisers are finding it increasingly challenging to capture the attention of customers who, to begin with, are engrossed in their navigational goals and are oblivious to the banner ads. In an attempt to make the ads salient and relevant to the navigational goals of the customer, advertisers personalize banners, i.e., embed customer-specific data or data triggers (DT) in banners in order to catch customers’ attention. A literature review reveals that personalizing ads results in increased customer attention and click-through rates of ads, resulting in effective banner ads. However, evidence also exists suggesting that excessive personalization of ads results in heightened privacy concerns, ad avoidance and reduced click-through behaviour, essentially negating the leverage sought by advertisers in using personalized banner ads. Principally, this personalization-privacy paradox stems from the level of personalization of a given banner ad. Recent studies reveal that the level of personalization often depends on the type (name, browsing data etc.) and number (one or more than one) of DTs deployed in personalizing banner ads. Interestingly, as evidenced in extant literature, similar levels of personalization may result in different click intentions and behaviours (ad responses) for different advertised products. In this study, we explore this aspect and develop an understanding that the level of personalization, i.e., the type and number of DTs, causes differences in ad responses for different products due to the inherent differences in the ‘involvement’ and ‘privacy levels’ associated with the advertised product. We use the elaboration likelihood model and privacy calculus theory to develop a 2 (high vs. low involvement) x 2 (high vs. low privacy) matrix to propose personalization strategies—usage of type and number of DTs—for each of the four resulting product categories. We subsequently test the impact of the combination of DT type and numbers for a high involvement, less private HILP product in a series of randomized multi-group scenario-based experiments.

Our experimental enquiry revealed that for a HILP offering like travel and tourism, relevance enhancement (informative) DTs work best. DTs containing relevant information improve ad effectiveness, i.e., get customers’ attention, increase click intentions and CTB. We find that ‘weather’ as a DT has a significant positive effect on ad relevance, customers’ click intentions and conversion. Also, though customers look for budget-related information in ads, DT of ‘budget’ does not create any significant relevance or obtrusiveness. Our investigations also reveal that usage of self-identification DT such as ‘name’ makes customers feel that the ad is intrusive. However, they still find such ads to be relevant, which results in enhanced click behaviour and conversion. This study undertakes several things for the first time: 1) it proposes that customers’ responses to DTs differ across product involvement and privacy levels; 2) it develops a framework to classify products on the basis of product involvement and privacy levels; and 3) it tests the impact of relevance and privacy on ad effectiveness, customers click intentions, click behaviour and conversion. Study findings reveal that for personalized ads of HILP product category, the impact of customers’ perceived relevance of ads is greater than the impact of customers’ feelings of intrusiveness. Thus, personalizing ads with a combination of informative and non-informative DTs, especially containing informative DTs that would enhance the relevance of the ads, would result in superior customer responses. Thus, our results would help advertisers personalize ads for a high-involvement and low-privacy-concern products/services such as travel and tourism, fashion ecommerce, electronics, beauty products, etc., especially giving them insights in the usage of non-informative DTs, name, and two informative DTs, price vs non-price DTs.
Importance Given to Future Price
Nitin Soni, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India
Jagroop Dawra, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Consider the following scenario: Samsung Electronics Co., Ltd. recently launched the Galaxy S9+ in India for Rs. 68,200 (for the 128 GB variant). Samsung may reduce the price of the Galaxy S9+ in the future. A prospective buyer can purchase this mobile phone immediately at this price or buy it later. Their choice can depend on (1) the buyer’s prediction of future price; (2) the timing of future price change; (3) the value associated with expected future price; (4) numerous other factors that can impact his/her current utility from purchase.

In this research, we conceptualized, developed, and validated a scale to measure individuals’ perceived value associated with their future price expectations. Further, we identify the individual differences which influence the judgment of this perceived value. This perceived value is pertinent in the context of buyers’ behavioral response to price changes over time.

Conceptualization of Expected Future Price Value
Thaler (1983, 1985) developed the concepts of acquisition utility and transaction utility to explain consumers’ behavioral response to their perception of the financial terms of any deal. Monroe and Chapman (1987) and Grewal et al. (1998) translated these concepts into acquisition value and transaction value. Grewal et al. (1998) defined acquisition value as “the buyers’ net gain from acquiring a product or service considering both price and quality.” Grewal et al. (1998) defined transaction value as “the perception of psychological satisfaction obtained from taking advantage of the financial term of the price deal.” Further, they showed that there is a positive relationship between buyers’ internal reference price and their perceived transaction value.

The different internal reference price models on which the judgments of transaction value depend are based on past and present prices of the choice encountered. To understand the impact of future price expectations, we introduce a third component of value and call it ‘expected future price value.’ We define expected future price value as the perceived value derived from an anticipated price change in the future. The total value that consumers derive from any purchase is a summation of the three values.

Initial Generation of Items and Content Validity
We employed the paradigm given by Churchill Jr. (1979) to develop our scale. As an initial step, we conducted in-depth interviews to understand the impact of the anticipated future price of any product/service on current purchase. We asked participants to consider their last purchase and asked open-ended questions about their expectations of future price and the influence of this expectation on their current purchase decision. We used this data, our theoretical definition, and literature to develop an initial set of 25 items. Three faculty members judged the content validity of the items, and on their recommendation, we dropped seven items.

Purification of Scale
We constructed a 44-item questionnaire (7 points agree-disagree response format) to judge the total value that consumers derive from any purchase (Study 1). This questionnaire contained 16 items of perceived acquisition value and 10 items of perceived transaction value (adapted from Audrain-Pontevia et al. (2013); Grewal et al. (1998); Urbany et al. (1997), along with 18 items of expected future price value. Respondents were asked to consider their latest purchase that was worth a substantial amount of money and answer questions about their perceptions of the three components of value. We received 304 usable questionnaires.

Item Analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis
We deleted ten items exhibiting low corrected item-total subscale correlations. The remaining items were then subjected to exploratory factor analysis, and five factors were obtained. After inspection, twelve items of three components of value were deleted due to low factor loadings, high cross-loadings, or low communalities. The remaining 22 items were subjected to further exploratory factor analysis. A three-factor model with eight items of acquisition value, six items of transaction value and eight items of expected future price value was estimated. This factor structure exhibited a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.925 and accounted for 70% of the total variance. We estimated our 22-item, three-dimension confirmatory factor model using LISREL 8.8. This model exhibited an adequate fit with RMSEA= 0.067, NFI= 0.95, CFI= 0.97, IFI = 0.97, and SRMR = 0.045, and the measures exhibited convergent and discriminant validity.

Scale Validation
We validated our scale to replicate the confirmatory factor structure on an independent sample, to establish nomological validity (Study 2) and to determine the individual differences that influence the three components of value (Studies 3-6). We replicated our factor structure from Study 1, determined the convergent and discriminant validity, and found support for most of our hypotheses in all these studies. The results of these studies, along with the hypotheses, are enumerated in Table 1.

In Study 2, we investigated our three constructs including the focal construct of expected future value within a nomological network of related constructs: that is, temporal focus (Shipp et al. 2009), elaboration on potential outcomes (Nenkov et al. 2007), consideration of future consequences (Strathman et al. 1994), risk aversion (Zhou et al. 2002), and defensive pessimism (Norem & Cantor 1986).

In Study 3, we investigated our three constructs including the focal construct of expected future value within a nomological network of prevention and promotion focus (Higgins et al. 1997). In Study 4, we investigated the impact of eight dimensions of consumer decision making styles (Sproles & Kendall, 1986) on the three constructs of purchase value. In Study 5, we investigated the impact of five dimensions of consumer self-confidence (Bearden et al. 2001) on the three constructs of purchase value.

IMPLICATIONS
The literature of future price expectations has focused on their consequences and, to a limited extent, on their formation. We extend this literature by determining the factors which influence the importance of future price expectations. Hence, the results of this study can help firms in intertemporal price discrimination.
Table 1: Results of Scale Validation Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Acquisition Value</th>
<th>Transaction Value</th>
<th>Expected Future Price Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicted Relationship</td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Predicted Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Temporal focus</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>+ive</td>
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<td>Present</td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>+ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
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<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elaboration on Potential Outcomes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Generation/evaluation</td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>-ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive outcome focus</td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative outcome focus</td>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>+ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration of future consequences</td>
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<td>0.17</td>
<td>-ive</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Risk Aversion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>-ive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Defensive pessimism</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.14</td>
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<td><strong>Regulatory focus</strong></td>
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<td>Prevention focus</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer Decision making styles</strong></td>
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<td>Perfectionistic, high quality conscious</td>
<td>+ive</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>-ive</td>
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<td>0.40</td>
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<td>Price conscious, value for money</td>
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<td>-0.14</td>
<td>+ive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Impulsive, careless</td>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Habitual, brand loyal</td>
<td>+ive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Novelty, fashion conscious</td>
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<td>Recreational, hedonistic</td>
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<td><strong>Consumer Self-confidence</strong></td>
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<td>Marketplace Interfaces</td>
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Legends: N.S. = Not significant at p = .05

**REFERENCES**


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This research takes an exploratory examination of the creation and dissemination (both planned and unplanned) of sexually intimate imagery via digital technology and the effects of this dissemination of personally intimate data on its creator’s sense of self. We respond to the conference theme by exploring the impact that privacy breaches may have when one’s identity is made public to an unintended audience.

Although creation and sharing of sexually explicit material online has grown in prevalence over the last decade, with 1 in 7 teens engaged in sexting behaviour (Madigan et al. 2018), there has been little research regarding the exploration of way in which sexually intimate and explicit material is protected. This research does not focus on the professional porn industry and wider marketplace for professional porn; rather, we explore the way that everyday consumers are using technology as a means of sharing their sexual selves with a specific audience as a means of sharing their sexual selves, not as a means of generating a profit.

There are a number of ways in which sexually explicit material reaches unintended audiences. Most famously was the cloud yacking of female celebrities’ images in 2014, leading to a ‘leak’ of hundreds of intimate images online (Fox-Brewster 2016). This research seeks to understand how creators of sexually explicit personal imagery protect their offline selves when it is created and shared online. Secondly, we seek to examine what impact a data breach may have on the creator’s sense of self and behaviour regarding the creation of sexually explicit material after a significant data breach.

We take an interpretive approach to both the drivers associated with creating the imagery and the consumption behaviour associated with subsequent sharing of the intimate imagery. Interviews with female creators of sexually explicit material were gathered through text-based interviews using instant messenger platforms and digitally mediated video conference software (such as Skype). Data was analysed through a process-theorization lens (Giesler and Thompson 2016), with a specific focus on understanding the phenomena under investigation (that of creating and sharing explicit material and protecting one’s identity.

The findings show that many participants reported that the creation and sharing of intimate imagery in the confines of a committed relationship was simply an extension of a technology-mediated sexual encounter with one’s partner. Some participants saw it akin to any other sexual engagement they have, but with the added bonus of not being physically or temporally limiting. However, participants reported that when the imagery is shared beyond the intended or perceived private boundaries there is a heightened sense of vulnerability and loss of control, and an attack on one’s sense of self. What enabled the participants to lessen any felt impact on their offline selves was how identifiable they were in the images being shared with the unintended audience. When the creator’s identity was easily made public, the impact of a privacy breach was reported to be far greater.

This research contributes both to our understanding of human/computer interactions as well as the way that technology is used as a means of expressing one’s sexual self to others. Participants in the study saw the role of sexual self-expression online with an intended audience as a natural extension of their sexual selves; however, when they lost control of the privacy of their identity online, we saw a very different perception towards the sharing of sexual imagery online. Data breaches and the divergence of what is the intended and unintended consumption of their imagery is at the heart of the tension experienced in this research. Participants discussed the impact of a public release of their identity, for the most part, as the most egregious act. This research does not seek to determine whether sharing of intimate imagery should be encouraged; however, if one IS to share intimate imagery, then keeping one’s identity private mitigates the negative impact a privacy breach has on one’s offline self. We call for further research into these motivations for sharing sexually explicit material online and the subsequent effects to one’s offline self if a breach of a consumer’s data does occur, as the consequences of a data breach could have far-reaching consequences that are difficult to erase.

REFERENCES


Seeing More in Less:
How Mindsets Influence the Process and Outcome of Product Customization
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Recent years have witnessed a growth in mass customized products. For example, Pizza Hut has an online pizza builder that allows people to create their ideal pizza from an array of different options. Although consumers find customization desirable, providing greater variety of component ingredients has direct cost implications for marketers, particularly if consumers fail to appreciate the large variety of choices they have. Thus, marketers are left asking the question: will offering more options for customization necessarily increase consumer value (i.e., the amount they are willing to pay)? We suggest that the answer to this question might lie in the mindsets that consumers have available.

Wyer and Xu (2010) introduced the concept of behavioural mindsets as cognitive procedures that get activated while pursuing a goal. Once activated, they have an effect on judgments and decisions that are made in a later, quite different situation. Two mindsets that are particularly applicable to this paper are a connecting and separating mindset (Oyserman et al. 2009). In conceptualizing cultural differences in information processing, Oyserman and colleagues suggested that broad differences in individualism and collectivism give rise to different mindsets or information processing tendencies. Individualism leads to a tendency to think of oneself as separate from others, and this enables these individuals to separate or pull out from the context (a separating mindset). In contrast, collectivism fosters a tendency to think of how one is connected to others, giving rise to a tendency to make connections (a connecting mindset).

Oyserman and her colleagues (2009) showed how connecting and separating mindsets influence the way in which people process information. For example, those with a separating mindset were better able to separate out the best option in a GRE test, whereas those with a connecting mindset performed worse since they tended to notice more similarities and differences among the choices, thus hampering their ability to choose the best answer. Similarly, Mourey, Oyserman and Yoon (2013) showed that participants with a connecting (vs. separating) mindset were less (vs. more) likely to purchase a bundle if they were later told that one of the items in the bundle was unavailable, presumably because they had formed a connection between the items and therefore couldn’t consider them separately.

These information-processing strategies are likely to affect how people look at an array of options provided for customization. Suppose a consumer at a frozen yogurt shop is trying to decide which toppings (fruits, chocolate, candy etc.) they would like to add to their yogurt. Those with a connecting mindset, given their tendency to make connections, focus on how the various toppings relate to each other along different dimensions (are they sweet or sour, soft or crunchy, etc.). On the other hand, consumers primed with a separating mindset, given their tendency to parse out the key features, notice the more focal dimensions on which the toppings differ (e.g., fruit/chocolate, healthy/unhealthy). This difference can lead to a tendency to generally consider more dimensions versus less in categorizing the assortment.

The above difference in number of dimensions generated has implications for how these groups react to assortment size increases. Consumers with a connecting mindset are able to create many possible combinations, even with a small assortment, because of their tendency to generate more dimensions and combine them in different ways. When they make their final choice from a set of many possible combinations, they are willing to pay more for that option given that they have considered several attractive options and then picked one (Muthukrishnan and Wathieu 2007). Therefore, increasing assortment size for these consumers should not have any appreciable effect on value given the large number of combinations they can generate from both small and large assortments. In contrast, those primed with a separating mindset generate fewer dimensions and can generate only a limited number of combinations when the assortment is small. Consequently, the option they finally choose from the limited set appears to be of limited value. But when assortment size is increased, these consumers can generate more combinations. This increases the value they perceive from their final choice.

Since consumers primed with a connecting mindset are not expected to show any differences in the number of combinations generated based on assortment size, the number of combinations generated should not mediate the effect of assortment size on the consumer’s willingness to pay for their choice. However, for consumers with a separating mindset, differences in the number of combinations generated from small and large assortments should affect their perceptions of value and number of combinations generated should mediate the effect of assortment size on willingness to pay for their choice.

Study 1 tested the basic hypothesis that people primed with different mindsets differ in their tendency to generate more or less dimensions. Participants primed with a connecting mindset were able to come up with a higher number of dimensions for food toppings compared to those primed with a separating mindset. Study 2 showed that those with a connecting mindset made more combinations from both small and large assortments and thus did not differ in their willingness to pay for their chosen option across assortments. However, those with a separating mindset made more combinations and had a higher willingness to pay for their choice when they were given a large assortment. Furthermore, the number of combinations mediated the effect of mindsets and assortment size on willingness to pay.

Study 3 used eye-tracking data to show that mindsets only had an effect at the integration stage but not at the encoding stage. Finally, Study 4 showed that mindsets affected type but not depth of processing by looking at spatial and general memory for the encoded items.

This work makes a number of theoretical and substantive contributions. First, it provides a general framework for understanding the process of product customization. It also suggests that in a customization context, some consumers might perceive enough variety even with a small assortment, and increases in assortment size might not matter much in terms of their willingness to pay.

REFERENCES

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

It has been a long-debated subject whether commercial initiatives in entertainment content should be disclosed, and if so, to what extent. Consumer advocates and policymakers propose to have disclosures to mitigate the persuasive effect of product placement, while advertisers and broadcasters are concerned that disclosure may interfere with the viewing experience and put audiences off. Previous studies have examined the effect of disclosure on product placement effectiveness and reveal mixed results.

Inconsistent findings of the effect of disclosure on the recall of placed brands were revealed. Some studies have found that the presence of warnings may actually serve to direct audiences’ attention toward placed brands and foster brand memory (Bennett, Pecotich and Putrevu 1999; Boerman, Van Reijmersdal, and Neijens 2012; Boerman, Van Reijmersdal, and Neijens 2014). Priming theory proposes that information processing becomes easier if related concepts are presented in advance, which results in enhanced memory (Roskos-Ewoldsen, Roskos-Ewoldsen, and Carpenter 2009). However, Campbell, Mohr and Verlegh (2013) found that prior disclosure of placement results in significantly lowered brand recall. A recent study found no main effect of disclosure on brand recall (Van Reijmersdal, Lammers, Rozendaal, and Buijzen 2015).

Empirical studies of the effect of disclosures on attitudes toward placed brands also show inconsistent results. Wei, Fischer and Main (2008) found that alerting participants about the paying nature of placed brands resulted in more negative brand evaluations (see also Campbell, Mohr and Verlegh 2013; Van Reijmersdal, et al. 2015). Nevertheless, other studies found no effect of prior disclosure in activating critical attitudes toward the placed brands (Dekker and Van Reijmersdal 2013; Van Reijmersdal, Tutaj and Boerman 2013; Van Vaerenbergh 2017).

These inconsistent findings may be caused by the type of disclosures used, and frequent calls to examine its effect have been made (Van Reijmersdal, Tutaj and Boerman 2013; Boerman, Van Reijmersdal and Neijens 2015a). Drawing on persuasion and information processing theories, it is argued that different amounts of cognitive resources may be required and allocated during the processing of disclosures varying in explicitness, resulting in variations in processing fluency and brand perceptions. This research adopts a two-phase study to examine the role of disclosure in covert marketing communications by considering its level of explicitness. Most previous studies concerning disclosure effectiveness used student samples mainly. A public sample was used in this study to enhance the generalization of the findings.

A content analysis of eight weeks of prime-time television programs in Hong Kong was first conducted. Most brand appearances (60.1%) were not disclosed. For those that did disclose, the placed brands were acknowledged at the end of the programs with the majority (70.6%) having both the brand name and logo acknowledged. A 5-minute product placement scene was then extracted as the research stimulus and a web-based experimental study was administered to examine the effect of type of prior disclosure (low vs. moderate vs. high explicitness) on product placement effectiveness. Participants were recruited via the existing database of a professional market research agency and the final sample consisted of 1,100 participants with almost equal distribution in gender and age groups.

The results showed that explicitly disclosing the source and intent of a placed brand enhanced the recall of the disclosure and the placed brand. More explicit disclosures not only enhanced brand recall, but also improved attitudes toward the placed brand via the mediator of program liking. Participants were more positive toward programs with a more explicit disclosure of product placement, which in turn led to more favourable attitudes toward the placed brand. Participants appreciated the transparency of placement deals and the honesty of the advertisers and broadcasters. This positive feeling channeled into program liking, and further into favourable views toward the placed brand.

The study contributes to the theory and understanding of the effect of prior disclosure on the perceptions of product placement. It is the first study that attempts to distinguish prior disclosure with different levels of explicitness (i.e., low, moderate and high) and to empirically examine their effects in an Asian context. The results also provide valuable information to policymakers in formulating regulations and policies regarding product placement. If policymakers want to safeguard audiences from the influence of product placement, a single and simple announcement about the presence of product placement at the beginning of programs may be more appropriate. Marketers may also make references to the findings in developing more effective placement strategies. Disclosing placed brands more explicitly in fact helps to enhance attitudes toward a program and the brands placed in it, so there is no need for broadcasters and brand owners to keep placement deals under the radar. In contrast, they may try to disclose placement deals proactively and be more transparent about it.

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Brands offer their products through the popular e-commerce platforms such as Amazon, Snapdeal, and Flipkart as they provide them with access to a much wider consumer base along with space, time, and place utilities. Brands tie up with e-commerce websites to launch a new product, offer a new promotional deal, or special price discounts. Tech gadgets, especially new smartphones, are usually launched with an exclusive distribution deal with one particular e-commerce website; for example, the new model Redmi 5 of Xiaomi is being sold exclusively through Amazon (Business Today, 2018) and the smartphone brand One Plus was initially launched in India exclusively through Amazon.

There has been plenty of work on the effects of brand collaborations, alliances, and co-branding on the constituent brands (Ahluwalia, Ummara, & Burnkrant, 2001; Grossman, 1997; Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Washburn, Till, & Priluck, 2000). The theory of information integration and associated network have been employed to explain how a spillover of brand equity occurs from the parent brands to the child brand. However, under the context of exclusivity, no research has explored the transfer of equity from a marketplace brand to a product brand, or vice versa.

The present work aims to bridge the gap in the understanding of the relationship or the transfer of effects, if any, due to the association of online marketplace brand and the product brand, under varying degrees of exclusivity. We consider a new product with the marketplace brand instead of an already established/known product brand, because a familiar brand’s stimulus would have an unconditioned pre-exposure effect (Grossman, 1997). The literature has already established that exclusive deals are evaluated more positively by deal recipients for creating an advantageous inequity, and that exclusive distribution is considered more attractive by consumers (Barone & Roy, 2010; Loewenstein, Thompson, & Bazerman, 1989). We use the construct of distribution exclusivity to determine if it results in a spillover of brand equity from the marketplace brand to the new product brand.

This paper adds to the existing knowledge by contributing to what we know about the brand equity spillover effects that occur in brand alliances or co-branding situation, i.e., between two or more product brands, by determining how this transfer occurs between an electronic marketplace and a new product brand under varying conditions as well as levels of distribution exclusivity of the product brand. The goal of this research is to establish this transfer effect and isolate it to the presence or absence of exclusivity. This is accomplished using two studies.

The objective of the first experiment (Study 1) was to determine if there is any transfer of brand equity from the marketplace brand to the new product brand when the distribution of the new product is exclusive to one e-retailer, or is available on multiple channels. A 2 (marketplace brand: high brand equity-low brand equity) x 2 (exclusivity: exclusive to one e-retailer or available at all retailers) between-subjects design was conducted online using Qualtrics. The argument based on the associative network theory is that there should be a transfer of brand equity from the high/low brand equity marketplace brand to the new product brand when the distribution of the new brand is exclusive to the high/low marketplace brand. When the distribution is not exclusive, the strength of activation of association of the high/low marketplace brand would be low and hence, there would not be a (significant) transfer of brand equity from the high/low marketplace brand to the new product brand.

We used smartphones, the most common product category that is launched exclusively on e-commerce websites, and provided our respondents in each group with one version (out of 4) of pre-tested advertising copy indicating the marketplace brand as well as distribution strategy (exclusive or not exclusive).

Study 1 clearly indicated that there is a transfer of brand equity from the high/low equity marketplace brand when the product brand is distributed exclusively through the e-commerce platform. Based on this finding, we will conduct Study 2 with the objective of establishing the degree of transfer effects from a high/low equity marketplace brand to a new product brand, under different levels of exclusivity. Using TVs as the new product being launched, we will artificially create three levels of exclusivity: “Request for an invite,” “Pre-order, open to all,” and “Only limited stock available.” With these three different forms of exclusivity we will conduct a 2x3 between-subjects experiment; our participants will be students of a postgraduate institute.

The results of the Study 2 will further refine our understanding of the brand equity spillover from an electronic marketplace brand to a product brand, under different conditions of exclusivity, and help clarify if the transfer of effects gets stronger as the degree of exclusivity increases.

These results will have great significance for managers as well as academicians. Not only do they bridge the gap in our current understanding of exclusive deals on online marketplaces and refine the theory of exclusive distribution, they also have practical implications for managers of product brands in deciding how to strategize distribution of the product for launch in the market to get the best results.

A limitation of this research is that we have only used new product brands to study possible transfer effects from the online marketplace brand to the yet unknown product brand. If we include in our study an already existing product brand, there would be a two-way flow in the transfer of effects between the online marketplace brand and the product brand, under differing levels and conditions of exclusivity. Doing so could provide additional insights and provide a valid scope for future research.

As the studies are currently underway, the results could not be added to the abstract.

REFERENCES


The Effect of Food in Motion Figure on the Perceived Healthiness of Food
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
The use of health claims in food advertising over the past few decades is widespread and well-documented (e.g., Chandon & Wansink, 2007). Advertisements tend to employ direct health claims or use cues that have clear associations with health (e.g., Batra & Ray, 1986; Chowdhury, Olsen, & Pracejus, 2008; Edell & Burke, 1987; Olney, Holbrook, & Batra, 1991; Reichert, LaTour, & Kim, 2007; e.g., Snyder & DeBono, 1985).

Numerous studies have examined the effectiveness of marketing communication that directly argues product healthiness (Kozup, Creyer, & Burton, 2003; Lähteenmäki, 2013; Nocella & Kennedy, 2012), and suggest that such direct health claims effectively increase perceived product health (e.g., Dean et al., 2007; Lyly, Roininen, Honkapää, Poutanen, & Lähteenmäki, 2007).

In the current work we show that cues that do not directly tie to healthiness can also serve to communicate healthiness. Specifically, three studies reveal that presenting food in motion (which is widely depicted) in advertisements can improve the perceived healthiness of the food. In addition, the studies show that the effect is mediated by judgment of freshness, and does not constitute a halo effect.

In the first experiment, participants were presented with a print advertisement of a fish. Participants were randomly divided into two experimental conditions: motion and no motion. Both conditions were identical, except in the motion condition the visual image depicted the fish in motion, leaping out of the water, whereas in the motionless condition an identical fish was depicted still. After viewing the advertisement, participants were asked to evaluate the freshness of the fish. As predicted, results showed that participants rated the fish as fresher when presented in motion rather than motionless.

In the second experiment, participants were presented with a print advertisement of yogurt. Participants were randomly divided into two experimental conditions: motion and no motion. Both conditions were identical, except that the ad in the motionless condition included an image of a still yogurt, while the ad in the motion condition presented the very same image of a yogurt poured into a glass. After viewing the advertisement, participants were asked to evaluate the freshness of the yogurt shown in the advertisement. As predicted, results showed that participants rated the yogurt as healthier and fresher when presented in motion rather than motionless. In addition, mediation analysis indicated that perceived food freshness mediated the relationship between the motion condition and perceived food health.

In the third experiment, participants were randomly divided into two experimental conditions: motion and motionless. They were then presented with a newspaper that included an advertisement for fish. In the motion condition the visual ad depicted the fish in motion, leaping out of the water, whereas in the motionless condition an identical fish was depicted still. After viewing the advertisement, participants were asked to evaluate four properties of the fish in addition to its freshness and tastiness. Two measures of food attributes aside from taste and freshness were added to rule out halo effects. If the effect is unique to the inference of freshness (and consequently health), motion should be unrelated to participants’ judgment of other food properties. As predicted, the results of Experiment 3 showed a similar effect of motion in food advertisements as in Experiment 2. However, importantly, the results helped rule out halo effects by showing that the visual rhetoric effect of food in motion did not influence the judgment of any other favourable food attributes.

Altogether, the current research provides empirical evidence that the use of motion as visual rhetoric in advertisements increases evaluations of freshness and health. We suggest that this process takes place because consumers intuitively associate freshness with motion – an association that has been reinforced by the common practice employed by advertisers of displaying moving food products in advertisements.

Such display of moving food in advertising can and is exploited by advertisers as a form of visual rhetoric to promote positive product evaluation. The widespread use of the visual rhetoric of food in motion is supported by the significant effects of this technique on consumer judgments of these foods. Motion specifically appears to increase anticipated food healthiness, which may impact overall product evaluations and, consequently, choice.

Motion influences judgments of healthiness through its association with freshness, despite its ostensible irrelevance for judgments of product health. Such implicit messages may prove effective in enhancing product evaluations. Further, implicit cues of healthiness such as motion may avoid the negative relationship between healthiness and tastiness. This would allow advertisers to communicate both enhanced healthiness and taste together, despite the persistent and well-documented negative association between healthiness and tastiness.

REFERENCES


The Effects of Competition on Conspicuous Consumption: The Mediating Role of Social Comparison
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
The world is more competitive now than ever before, and South Korea is among the most competitive places in the world. Denny (2015) described the competitive atmosphere in South Korea as follows: “South Korea is an ultra-competitive place, where youth is raided by cram schools, night schools, and little sleep. The job market is no less competitive, where the more ‘specs,’ or academic and career qualifications, someone has the more likely they are to be hired. With fewer and fewer permanent positions available for new graduates…” The nature of this competition mostly appears to be zero-sum; in other words, winning for one actor means another actor must lose. Moreover, the “winner-takes-all” mentality, in which the best performer captures a disproportionately large share of rewards, is increasingly dominant throughout society (Frank and Cook 1995).

Although many well-established consumer societies like South Korea have embraced zero-sum, winner-takes-all competition, few consumer research studies have investigated how consumer perceptions of society as a competitive place influence their consumption behaviour. This study examined how consumer perceptions influence their engagement in conspicuous consumption.

Conspicuous consumption refers to purchasing goods to signal wealth and social status. Competition may motivate people to engage in conspicuous consumption because many believe wealth and competence to be highly correlated. Previous studies have reported that individuals engaged in competition exhibit higher levels of conspicuous consumption than those engaged in cooperative endeavours (Ordabayeva and Chandon 2010; Sundie et al. 2011; Zheng, Baskin, and Peng 2018). However, empirical studies of these issues in consumer research remain scarce. In particular, few studies have explored the effects of consumers’ perceptions of their society as competitive on conspicuous consumption. We investigated this phenomenon using three experimental studies.

People who regard their social environments as competitive tend to be more interested in their relative status in the society. This phenomenon seems to intensify when competition is characterized as zero-sum and the winner-takes-all (Frank and Cook 1995; Garcia, Tor, and Schiff 2013). Position gains may be salient among people living in such societies. Indeed, research has shown that position gains play a role in motivating people to engage in conspicuous consumption (Ordabayeva and Chandon 2011). In this study, we propose several hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 1** Consumers who perceive the world as a more (vs. less) competitive place are more likely to engage in conspicuous consumption.

**Hypothesis 2** Consumer engagement in social comparison will mediate the effects of perceived competition on conspicuous consumption. Consumers who perceive the world as a more (vs. less) competitive place are more likely to engage in social comparison, and this increased tendency toward social comparison will be positively associated with conspicuous consumption.

**Hypothesis 3** Engagement in social comparison will mediate the effects of competition on conspicuous consumption for highly materialistic consumers, but not for their less materialistic counterparts.

In Study 1, we tested whether consumers’ perceptions of the world as a competitive place influenced their conspicuous consumption. We recruited 129 participants (64 females) using an online panel provided by a market research firm in Korea. We primed participants to either a cooperative or a competitive social context and then asked them to choose between two products with varied brand logo sizes. As expected, the experimental condition (cooperation vs. competition) had a significant effect on conspicuous choices.

Study 2 extended the examination of the effects of consumers’ social perceptions on conspicuous consumption, testing the mediating role of social comparison. We recruited 122 undergraduates (57 females) at a Korean university and allocated them to one of the two conditions identical to those used in Study 1. Competition priming significantly affected conspicuous consumption choices, providing additional support for Hypothesis 1. We also confirmed that social comparison mediated the effects of competition on conspicuous consumption.

Study 3 was designed to test Hypothesis 3, using a 2 condition (world perception: competition vs. cooperation) × continuous (materialism) design with 101 college students (49 females). We used logo size as our dependent variable by modifying that of Rucker and Galinsky (2009). An ANOVA of logo size index revealed that participants assigned to the competition condition exhibited more engagement in conspicuous consumption than those assigned to the cooperation condition. Using PROCESS Macro (model 58), we confirmed that materialism moderated the effects of competition on social comparison as well as the relationship between social comparison and conspicuous consumption.

This study makes several contributions to existing literature. First, it shows that the perception that society is characterized by a state of zero-sum competition motivates consumers to engage in conspicuous consumption. Several studies reporting positive relationships between competition and conspicuous consumption (Ordabayeva and Chandon 2010; Sundie et al. 2011; Zheng et al. 2018) did not identify the perception of society as the source of competition. The results of this study accord with the finding that luxury markets continue to steadily grow even during periods of economic recession as the world becomes more competitive (Frank and Cook 1995; Kapferer 2012).

Second, this study provides empirical evidence to support Garcia’s et al. (2013)’s social comparison model of competition. The model proposed that the individual and situational factors that increase social comparison raise social comparison concerns and lead to competitive behaviours. This research demonstrated that, as a situ-
The Effects of Competition on Conspicuous Consumption: The Mediating Role of Social Comparison

Anational factor, competitive context increased consumer engagement in social comparison, thus promoting conspicuous consumption.

Third, we show that the effect of competition on conspicuous consumption disappears for non-materialistic consumers. We found materialism to be an important boundary condition strengthening or weakening the effects of consumer social perceptions on conspicuous consumption via social comparison. Previous studies reported that materialism is positively associated with public self-consciousness, social anxiety, impulsive behaviour, and self-monitoring (Browne and Kaldenberg 1997; Schroeder and Dugal 1995; Yoon and Kim 2016). Future studies should consider investigating the effect of perceived competition on consumers’ conspicuous consumption in combination with these variables.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This research investigates the influence of activating the concepts of time versus money on consumers' emotional attachment to brands. Although previous research has found that the concepts of "time" and "money" have different effects on interpersonal relationships, it is still unclear whether the relationship between consumers and brands is affected by these two concepts.

Research on the effects of time versus money has demonstrated that thinking about time activates emotional goals involving personal happiness, whereas thinking about money activates goals related to economic utility and suppresses emotional goals (Liu and Aaker 2008). In addition, Mogilner and Aaker (2009) demonstrated the "time vs. money effect" whereby activating time (vs. money) strengthens consumers' connection with the product. Therefore, we propose that activating the concept of time (vs. money) leads consumers to focus on the self-relevant affective meanings offered by a brand, which reduces the perceived distance between consumers and brands.

Previous research has found that exciting brand personalities are more closely associated with affective than cognitive brand characteristics (Sung and Kim 2010), and that people's mental representations are formed mainly from the affective rather than the cognitive features of episode stimuli (Bower and Forgas 2001). Moreover, when self-relevant memories about a brand are highly accessible, consumers' perceived self-brand distance is small (Park, Eisingerich, and Park 2013). Therefore, as reminders of time activate goals associated with emotional meanings, we propose that exciting brands that are more likely to elicit emotional responses may be perceived as closer to oneself when one is reminded of time (vs. money). In contrast, as sincere brand personalities relate more to cognitive than to emotional brand perceptions, activating time or money may not have significantly different effects on the perceived self-brand distance.

Recent findings have indicated that the intensity of felt affect is reduced by psychological distance but enhanced by closeness (Williams, Stein, and Galguera 2014). As affective perception plays a key role in consumers' emotional attachment to brands, emotional attachment to a brand is likely to decrease if one perceives the brand as far from (vs. near to) the self. In addition, we propose that when a brand is perceived to have an exciting personality, activating the concept of time (vs. money) leads to a much smaller self-brand distance and a stronger emotional attachment to the brand.

In Study 1, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire that measured their attitude toward time or money. Depending on the questions, participants were assigned to either the time-priming condition or the money-priming condition. Next, participants were asked to think about the iPhone brand and their relationship with the brand, and to rate their level of emotional attachment to the brand using the emotional attachment scale developed by Thomson et al. (2005). As predicted, emotional attachment to the brand was higher for participants in the time condition (M = 4.448), than in the money condition (M = 3.643; F(1,68) = 5.421, p < .05).

Study 2 was designed first to examine the mechanism driving the effect of activating time versus money, and second to test the robustness of this effect using a different manipulation of time and money priming. Participants were first given a scrambled-sentences task that exposed them to words associated with money, time, or neutral concepts (Mogilner and Aaker 2009). After completing the priming task, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire in which they rated their emotional attachment to the brand Coca-Cola. We modified the brand-self distance scale developed by Park et al. (2013) to measure participants' perception of their distance from the brand. As predicted, participants primed with time (M = 4.946) reported a greater emotional attachment to the brand than participants primed with money (M = 4.029; F(1,88) = 12.275, p < .001). The results also revealed that participants who thought about time felt closer (M = 4.345) to the brand than those who thought about money (M = 3.532; F(1,88) = 6.411, p < .05). Bootstrapping analysis confirmed that perceived self-distance mediated the effect of activating time versus money on emotional attachment, as indicated by a 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (.005, .328).

The goal of Study 3 was to identify specific boundary conditions for the time versus money effect. The focal category selected was athletic shoes. Through a two-step pretest process, Nike and Li-Ning were selected as representative of exciting brand and sincere brand, respectively. This study had a 2 (prime: time vs. money) × 2 (brand personality: exciting vs. sincere) between-subjects design. After completing the same priming task as that used in Study 2, participants were told to think about their relationships with either the exciting brand or the sincere brand and to rate their emotional attachment to the brands. Next, we measured the perceived self-brand distance. Pairwise comparisons showed that of participants considering an exciting brand, those reminded of time (M = 3.981) reported greater emotional attachment than those reminded of money (M = 3.658, F(1,143) = 4.195, p < .05). However, participants who thought about a sincere brand did not show significant differences between the time condition (M = 3.727) and the money condition (M = 3.864, F(1,143) = .753, p > .1). We found that a two-way interaction between prime and brand personality had a significant indirect effect of emotional brand attachment through perceived self-brand distance (95% confidence interval = (.122, .629)). Bootstrapping mediation analysis revealed a significant indirect path from the prime to emotional attachment through perceived self-brand distance for the exciting brand (95% confidence interval = (.105, .476)). However, this result did not hold for the sincere brand (95% confidence interval = (-.251, .066)).

Three studies demonstrate that activating the concept of time (vs. money) increases consumers' emotional attachment to brands. When primed with time, consumers feel closer to a brand, boosting their emotional attachment to the brand. However, this effect becomes insignificant when consumers consider their relationships with sincere (vs. exciting) brands.

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The Impact of Artificial Agents on Persuasion: A Construal Level Account

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Whereas more individuals are relying on information provided by non-human agents, such as artificial intelligence and robots, little research has examined how persuasion attempts made by non-human agents may differ from persuasion attempts made by human agents. Drawing on construal level theory, we posit that individuals will perceive artificial agents (AA hereafter) at a low-level construal, which directs individuals’ focus towards “how” these agents implement actions to serve humans. Further, we posit that interactions with such agents drive individuals to adopt a low-level construal mindset more generally. We show these construal-based differences impact compliance with persuasive messages made by AA such that these messages are more effective when the message represents low- (vs. high-) level construal features. We find these effects are moderated by the extent to which an AA can independently learn from its environment (i.e., machine learning), as learning defies people’s lay theories about AA.

In Study 1, 100 participants from M-Turk (female = 45%, Mage = 35.57) were instructed to imagine that the actions provided in the Behavioral Identification Form (BIF; Vallacher & Wegner, 1989) were conducted by either a human or an AA, depending upon condition. Then, participants chose the descriptions that they thought were more appropriate for the agent that they were assigned to. We summed the number of high-construal choices made by each participant to create an index of construal level. The index was submitted to a two-way (agent: human, AA) ANOVA. As predicted, the construal level score was significantly lower when participants imagined that the action was conducted by an AA (M = 4.04, SD = 5.51, 95% CI = [2.44, 5.64]) than when the action was conducted by a human (M = 11.28, SD = 5.88, 95% CI = [9.68, 12.88]). F(1, 98) = 40.36, p < .001, ηp2 = .29.

In Study 2, 324 participants from M-Turk (female = 54%, Mage = 37.30) were randomly assigned to one of the conditions in a 2 x 2 (agent: human, AA) x 2 (message: high-construal, low-construal) between-subjects design. Participants filled out a questionnaire that purported to measure their risk of skin cancer (e.g., age, gender, residential area, hours of daily sunlight exposure, skin cancer history in the family, etc.) and were told that personalized medical advice would be created based on their answers. In particular, participants in the human (AA) condition were told that they would receive medical advice from a human doctor (IBM’s artificial intelligence Watson) after assessing their answers. The medical advice message either highlighted high- or low-level construal prescriptive statements regarding sunscreen use. Intention to use sunscreen (e.g., “I intend to use sunscreen”; 1 = very unlikely and 7 = very likely) was measured and served as our dependent variable.

We submitted the intention to use sunscreen to a 2 x 2 (agent: human, AA) x 2 (message: high-construal, low-construal) ANOVA. The result only revealed an interaction between agent and message, F(1, 320) = 5.92, p = .016, ηp2 = .02. In particular, when the message was coming from an AA, the low-construal message (M = 4.98, SD = 1.48, 95% CI = [4.65, 5.31]) was more effective than the high-construal message (M = 4.30, SD = 1.72, 95% CI = [3.93, 4.68]) in persuading individuals to use sunscreen, F(1, 320) = 6.96, p = .009, ηp2 = .04. When the message was coming from a human, there was no significant difference between the low-construal message (M = 4.40, SD = 1.62, 95% CI = [4.05, 4.76]) and the high-construal message (M = 4.60, SD = 1.58, 95% CI = [4.26, 4.93]) in persuading individuals to use sunscreen, F(1, 320) = .61, p = .437, ηp2 < .1. These results show that AA are not only perceived as a low-construal agent (i.e., Study 1) but they also extend to the persuasion context such that AA’s persuasion is more effective when a low- (vs. high) construal message is used.

In Study 3, 192 undergraduate business students (female = 48%, Mage = 20.21) were randomly assigned to condition in a 2 (AA’s capability: fixed, learning) x 2 (message construal: high-construal, low-construal) between-subjects design. First, participants were instructed to read a description about Alexa, which depicted Alexa as an AA having fixed or experiential learning capability. Then, Alexa instructed participants to list products they purchased recently on their computer either a high- or low-construal message that advertised a gym, which they believed as an individualized message from Alexa. Next, participants indicated the extent to which they intended to visit the gym (1 = not at all likely, 7 = very likely), which was our dependent variable.

Intention to visit the gym was submitted to a 2 (AA’s capability: fixed, learning) x 2 (message: high-construal, low-construal) ANOVA and we only found an interaction between AA’s capability and message, F(1, 188) = 5.93, p = .016, ηp2 = .03. In particular, in the fixed capability condition, the low-construal message (M = 3.89, SD = 1.83, 95% CI = [3.38, 4.40]) was marginally more effective than the high-construal message (M = 3.27, SD = 1.73, 95% CI = [2.77, 3.77]). F(1, 188) = 3.01, p = .084, ηp2 = .03. In the learning capability condition, the high-construal message (M = 4.00, SD = 1.91, 95% CI = [3.48, 4.51]) was marginally more effective than the low-construal message (M = 3.38, SD = 1.63, 95% CI = [2.89, 3.88]), F(1, 188) = 2.93, p = .089, ηp2 = .03. Therefore, Study 3 showed that beliefs about AA’s learning capabilities were capable of overriding the fundamental linkage between low-construal and perceptions of AA, thereby impacting persuasive effectiveness.

Taken together, three studies showed that AA are not only perceived as a low-construal agent, but also that AA’s persuasion is more effective when the message highlighted low- (high-) construal features. However, such low-construal perception by default was attenuated when the AA was perceived as capable of learning from the environment.

REFERENCES

Three days after the visit, patients were contacted via phone to ask about their wait, patients responded to questions concerning wait time. Patients therefore tried to estimate their wait by focusing on pain and results in less pain perception and less time perception, resulting in higher satisfaction with the visit. We test our theoretical account.

Theoretical Background

We base our predictions on the theoretical premise that it is difficult to infer magnitude with an alphanumeric token (Kara, Gunasti, Ross 2015), which makes it difficult to infer one’s exact position in the queue. Patients spend resources in trying to figure how long they have to wait and pay more attention to the token. The more attention allocated in processing what the token means, a little less attention is paid to the pain and thus produces a lower pain perception. Waiting when one is focused on pain makes a wait time appear longer (Rey et al. 2017). The increased attention on the alphanumeric token reduces the focus on pain and results in less pain perception and less time perception, resulting in higher satisfaction with the visit. We test our predictions across two field studies and an eye-tracking study.

Data Analysis & Results

In order to test our propositions and the underlying mechanisms, we ran two field studies in a physician’s office (a general practitioner) in India, and an eye tracking study in a university in the US. At the entrance of the physician’s office, there was a waiting lobby. The doctor typically met patients without appointments and diagnosed patients on a first-come, first-served basis. Patients therefore tried to arrive early so that they could be placed earlier in the queue. During their wait, patients responded to questions concerning wait time. Three days after the visit, patients were contacted via phone to ask about their satisfaction levels.

Study 1

This study was conducted in a physician’s office. We used a 2 (token type: alphanumeric and numeric) cell between-participant design. We found evidence for the proposition that alphanumeric tokens lead to shorter perceived wait-time and higher satisfaction, whereas numeric tokens lead to longer perceived wait-time and lower satisfaction. In addition, we showed evidence of our theoretical mechanism by serial mediation of attention (self-reported measure), pain perception, and time-perception estimates. Further, we tested mediation of time perception on patient satisfaction.

Study 2

Our second study investigated time perception of patients for alphanumeric and numeric tokens in case of attention manipulation. This study was conducted in the same physician’s office as in Study 1. We manipulated attention by introducing delay in this study. Therefore, we used a 2 (token type: alphanumeric and numeric) x 2 (delay: yes and no) between-participants design. We found two key results: one, there was interaction between type of tokens x delay manipulation on time-perception and satisfaction. In the case of delay, there was no-difference in time and satisfaction between two tokens, while in the case of no-delay, patients perceived lower time and higher satisfaction with alphanumeric compared to numeric tokens. The findings of Study 2 showed mediated moderation of our theoretical account.

Study 3

This was an eye tracking study conducted in a university in US. The objectives of Study 3 were manifold. First, we measured implicit attention measure by using an eye tracking device to measure gaze duration and number of fixations. Second, we controlled the duration of time that each person waited because in the field study it was not possible to control the waiting-time for patients. Third, we specifically measured attention to target-token and to passage of tokens (sequence) to understand whether differences in the attention levels were not due to target-token but due to passage/sequences involved. Fourth, to improve the generalizability, conducting a study in the US took care of cultural differences in time perception, if any. The findings of Study 3 provided converging evidence for our proposed account. We tested our mechanism by serial mediation of number of fixations (implicit attention) on pain perception and on time-perception.

Conclusion

Wait times are sometimes unavoidable. Healthcare professionals can benefit from understanding how perception of wait-time can be reduced and overall satisfaction increased for patients in pain. In our research, across three experiments we showed that alphanumeric tokens lead to lower perceived wait-time than numeric tokens. In Study 1, we provided evidence that attention on tokens can influence pain perception, which subsequently influences time-perception. In Study 2, we manipulated attention to discover the influence of vague versus precise waiting-information. Last, we measured attention by eye tracking device and showed converging evidence for our mechanism.
REFERENCES
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Past scholarship describes luxury retail as an exclusive world where the logic of distinction prevails. From this perspective, luxury managers are class brokers who need to exclude consumers they deem undesirable. In contrast, our research suggests that beyond the logic of distinction, actors in high-end retail venues can also be influenced by other logics, including a hedonic logic, a commercial relationship logic, and a pragmatic logic.

Our paper’s contribution is grounded in an ethnography of luxury stores that focuses on the perspectives of consumers who patronize them. We draw on an extensive participant observation in various luxury stores located in key luxury markets (France; United States; China; Japan), as well as long interviews with regular clients of these stores. Through analyzing this data, addressing our research questions, and developing the implications of these findings, we offer two sets of contributions.

On a theoretical level, the paper augments our understanding of the nature and relevance of logic multiplicity for contemporary brand marketers. More specifically, it explores the relevance of logic multiplicity in servicescapes such as those of contemporary luxury stores. It further develops our understanding of how logics in addition to those enacted by marketers may be introduced by consumers who have the potential to become agents for the diffusion of logics into markets.

On a managerial level, the paper offers insights that may help those who manage luxury brands adapt to and profit from the increasing diversity among customers with the means and motivation to shop in luxury retail venues. It highlights how retail space can be put to the service of diverse logics. Further, it relays how sales staff in luxury stores may adapt to customers who appear to be influenced by logics other than the logic of distinction. We argue that while certain logics can be combined in informing a retailer’s strategy, other logics are incommensurate, and require differentiated responses.
The Taste of Colour: Examining the Influence of Package Colour on Consumer Perceptions and Buying Intention

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EXTEDNED ABSTRACT

Food choice behaviour is susceptible to contextual effects, as evidenced by past research examining various factors such as assortment variety (Kahn and Wansink 2004), food shape (Sevilla and Kahn 2014), portion size (Zlatevska, Dubelaar, and Holden 2014), labeling (Wansink and Chandon 2006), and package design (Orth and Malkewitz 2008). Colour is an important element of package design and is usually the first element that consumers notice and recognize when shopping in the grocery store. Package colour has also been used by many businesses as a tool of communication. Past research has supported this practice by illustrating how colours carry meanings that can have an important influence on people’s perception and behaviour (for a review, see Elliot and Maier 2014). Nevertheless, the majority of colour research to date has focused on three basic colours of red, blue and green, with little attention to the effect of dark versus bright package colours (Meier et al. 2004).

In this research, we examine the influence of dark versus bright package colour on consumers’ perceptions and intention to purchase food products. Based on the conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson 1980), we argue that colour’s ability to carry symbolic meanings can trigger associations with perceptions of tastiness and healthiness. In a series of six studies – lab studies and a field experiment – we demonstrate that food is perceived as tastier in a dark package and healthier in a bright package. Importantly, we find that consumers’ higher likelihood to purchase hedonic food in dark packages and healthy food in bright packages is mediated by the perceived congruency (dark-hedonic and bright-healthiness) between package colour and food type. We also tested the moderating effect of brand familiarity and health claim, as well as the role of actual taste on the colour-purchase intention relationship. Our research makes important contributions to research in food consumption while providing practical implications for how companies can utilize the power of colour in developing product packaging.

In Study 1, a field experiment was conducted using a one-factor, two-level (package colour: dark, bright) between-subjects design (n = 97). We found a significant effect of package colour on taste perception (F(1,95) = 5.31, p < .05), with potato chips in the dark package rated as tastier (Mdark = 4.88, Mbright = 4.16, p < .05). A marginal effect of package colour on buying intention emerged (F(1,95) = 2.84, p < .1) such that higher likelihood to purchase the chips was associated with the dark package (Mdark = 4.15, Mbright = 3.67, p < .1).

In Study 2A, a 2 (package colour: dark, bright) x 2 (food type: hedonic–ice cream, healthy–muesli) between-subjects design (n=158) was used. A main effect of package colour on perceived tastiness (F(1,154) = 10.15, p < .01) emerged with both foods rated as tastier in dark packages. We also found a significant main effect (F(1,154) = 4.02, p < .05) of colour on healthiness with both food products perceived as healthier in bright packages. Further, we found a significant two-way interaction effect on buying intention (F(1,153) = 10.96, p < .01). Participants indicated a higher likelihood to purchase hedonic food in a dark package (Mhedonic-dark = 4.72, Mhedonic-bright = 4.22, p = .08) and healthy food in a bright package (Mhealthy-dark = 4.04, Mhealthy-bright = 4.81, p < .01).

Study 2B replicated the findings of Study 2A, and further tested the mediating role of perceived congruency. Specially, we found a significant colour x food type interaction effect on perceived congruency (F(1,239) = 13.36, p < .001), indicating higher congruency for hedonic food in dark packaging and healthy food in bright packaging. Mediation analysis using PROCESS Model 5 (Hayes 2013) showed that the indirect effect of package colour was significant for both foods (hedonic food: β = -.2487, SE = .1257, 95% CI = [-.5371, -.0365]; healthy food: β = -.2487, SE = .1257, 95% CI = [-.5371, -.0365]).

In Study 3, we examined the effect of package colours in three stages: before tasting, immediately after tasting, and after three months. Study 3’s design, prior to tasting, was similar to Study 2, and findings replicated those from Studies 1 and 2, but when participants had an opportunity to taste, the package colour effect was attenuated. Interestingly however, perceptions of taste as well as buying intention were restored to the original levels after a three-month delay.

In Study 4, we employed a 2 (colour: dark, bright) x 2 (health claim (oven roasted): yes, no) between-subjects experimental design (n = 336). We found a main effect of health claim on buying intention (F(1,332) = 12.72, p < .001). Participants were more likely to purchase hedonic food products with the health claim (Mhealth-claim = 4.01, Mno-claim = 3.43, p < .001). Among the four conditions, people were most likely to purchase potato chips with a health claim in a dark package (M = 4.28, p < .05), which was also rated as tastiest.

In Studies 1-4, we focused on products without a brand name. Study 5 employed a one-factor, three-level (colour: dark, bright, original) between-subjects design (n = 229) using a well-known brand of potato chips. A colour x brand familiarity interaction effect emerged (F(2,223) = 3.45, p < .05), such that package colour effects were stronger under low (vs. high) brand familiarity. Consumers with low brand familiarity displayed a greater intention to buy potato chips in dark versus the original package (Mdark = 4.08, Moriginal = 2.81, p < .001), and marginally higher than the bright package (Mbright = 3.41, p = .1). For consumers who were familiar with the brand, intention to buy the dark package was similar to the original package (Moriginal = 4.60, Mdark = 4.43, p > .1) and marginally higher than the bright package (Mbright = 3.86, p = .07).

In this research, we proposed an unexplored effect of bright and dark colour in food packages. Our findings suggest that dark packages might benefit a hedonic food, while bright packages might benefit a healthy food. Actual tasting weakens the influence of package colour; however, this shift is not stable and the colour effect re-emerges after a time. In contrast, adding a health claim strengthens the influence of package colour, making hedonic food in dark packaging with a health-claim most attractive to consumers. Our findings have important implications for marketers, especially in the case of new products, as colour effect is most effective when the brand is unknown or less familiar. As dark and bright are culturally invariant (Madden et al. 2000), our findings are useful for companies with cross-cultural presence and applicable for product launches in different countries.

REFERENCES


The Use of Mature Models in Advertisements and Its Contribution to the Spirituality of Older Consumers
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Demographic ageing is a worldwide phenomenon associated with challenges and opportunities. One challenge lies in the ability of ageing societies to look after their elderly and help them age well. Ageing well stems from older adults’ abilities to give meaning to their ageing and to accept it. Meaning creation belongs to the field of spirituality, a salient characteristic of the older adult according to psychology and gerontology (Crowther et al., 2002; Fowler, 1981). The demographic and economic potential of this segment makes it attractive for brands, which can rely on advertising to communicate their offers to older consumers. At the crossroad of the above described challenges and opportunities, we respond to Moschis’ call (2012) to dedicate further attention to the spiritual dimension of older consumers and investigate the potential associated with the use of senior models in ads to respond to the spiritual needs of older adults.

Literature Review
Ageing comes with losses in health, memory and social roles. Older adults often think about death and can suffer from the negative reaction of their environment related to their ageing. Finding meaning in ageing, and appreciating the gains and accepting the losses associated with the ageing process leads to ageing well. According to Fowler (1981), old age is favourable to meaning-creation and spiritual development. The spiritual needs of older adults include restoring personal dignity and transcending the losses and handicaps of old age; reducing death anxiety; accepting that they will die, and preparing for death; finding the global meaning of one’s life; believing in the continuity of life and caring about future generations; establishing positive relationships with others; reducing guilt and reconciling; and establishing an intimate relationship with the sacred (Fry, 2000; McKinley, 2001).

Older adults are heavily exposed to advertising and influenced by it (Lewis and Reiley, 2014; Silvera et al., 2012). They are underrepresented in advertisements (Peterson and Ross, 1997; Riley, Kohlbacher and Hofmeister, 2012), as advertisers fear a negative impact on their brand image and rejection by younger customers. Their representation in ads is often stereotyped and seldom positive (Carrigan and Szmigin, 2000; Peterson and Ross, 1997).

Meanwhile, older consumers seek reference models in the media (Schewe and Balazs, 1992; Swayne and Greco, 1987) and their value system is impacted by the representation of ageing offered to them (Carrigan and Szmigin, 2000; Ylänne, 2015). The choice of models for advertising campaigns targeted at older adults is key, as adequate portrayals of older adults associated with the meaning-making potential of their media consumption (Harrington et al., 2014) can be used to echo their spiritual needs, make suggestions for how to answer them and act for that purpose, and to highlight the benefits of ageing, thus contributing to better ageing.

Findings
Our results reveal that ageing is difficult as older adults experience the decline of their capabilities, of their body image, and of their social status. The consciousness of their limited time perspective contributes to this feeling. On the positive side, they appreciate the gains associated with a life worth of experience. For them, ageing well comes with accepting the ageing process, giving meaning to it, and appreciating its benefits. The experience of ageing varies, depending on one’s ability to give meaning to one’s own ageing, thus making spirituality a parameter to be taken into account.

Respondents expressed spiritual needs. First comes the restoration of the older adult’s physical, psychological, and social integrity. Then comes the reduction of death anxiety, accepting the presence of death, and preparing for dying. Finding the meaning of their life comes third, which leads to the better acceptance of their upcoming ending. Older adults are concerned about the evolution and future of the world they live in. They need to have quiet time to meditate, connect to themselves and to the sacred.

The awareness of the spiritual nature of our respondents and the understanding of the meaning-making potential of their media consumption enables us to analyze their perception of ads involving older models under a new light.

First, their experience of ageing and the associated spiritual needs make older adults very sensitive to their representation in ads. They consider the use of mature models legitimate, and feel underrepresented. They find the representation of old people idealized or caricatured.

Second, the presence of older models in ads associated with an adequate representation of ageing can contribute to responding to their spiritual needs. First, as they need to restore their personal dignity, older adults are very sensitive to the place given to them in advertisements. Seeing older models who give a realistic yet respectful representation of ageing gives them the feeling that they have a valuable place in society. An adequate representation can also reduce the negative stereotypes associated with ageing, and contribute to improving the image that people have of the elderly. Then, using older models in ads contributes to reducing the anxiety and the negative feelings such as not being understood and feeling lonely. When the staging of older models is humorous yet respectful, it generates positive emotions that help take older adults’ minds away from worries. Third, ads which remind them of the important events of their lives and their accomplishments, such as having created and raised a family, help older adults associate the pieces of their life and find its global meaning. Our respondents dearly appreciated seeing multigenerational ads which depict happy families, love and friendship. Such ads suggest the benefits that can be derived from a focus on meaningful relationships. They also promote the fact that there is a lot to gain in living harmoniously with one another, and that each generation can bring something to the others. Finally, ads showing several generations interacting together contribute to responding to the need for continuity of life, transmission and care for other generations.

Method
This study relies on 40 semi-structured depth interviews with seniors ages 50 to 83. It is structured around three themes: experience of ageing, spirituality, and their relationship to older models used in advertising.
REFERENCES


To Attend or to Avoid?
The Differential Effects of Interruptions and Distractions on Product Evaluation
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT
With the integration of smartphones and wearable devices into our connected lifestyles, interferences, such as interruptions and distractions, have become pervasive. These interferences can influence a variety of consumption and non-consumption spheres of our lives (shopping, work, relationships, recreation etc.). However, consumer research has paid relatively little attention to the effects of such interferences (Biswas, Biswas, and Chatterjee 2009; Kupor and Tormala 2015; Xia and Sudarshan 2002). Importantly, most of the extant research has evaluated such interferences separately. This research attempts to contrast the differential effects of interruptions and distractions on product evaluation.

Interruptions (e.g., answering a phone call, pop-up message, etc.) lead to a break in focal task, with the user allocating full attention to the interruption, while distractions (e.g., side-banner ads, background noises, etc.) divert attention without breaking the focal task, and the user attempts to screen out the distractor from the focal task. We predict that such difference (between interruptions and distractions) in attentional load and stimuli-exposure should lead to differences in product evaluation. Through three studies, we find that distractions (interruptions) lead to a higher focus on general (specific) aspects of product information. Also, when such interferences carry affective meanings, interruptions produce stronger spillover effects than distractions.

We theorize the differential effects of interruptions and distractions using distraction-conflict theory (DCT, Baron 1986). DCT proposes that distractions lead to attentional conflict due to limited cognitive capacity. Attentional conflict arises due to paying attention to two conflicting stimuli, and this conflict leads to cognitive overload (Baron 1986; Biswas, Biswas, and Chatterjee 2009). Such conscious self-control required for ignoring the distractor (Clapp, Rubens, and Gazzaley 2009) can deplete cognitive resources. Further, it is also known that cognitive load leads to heuristic processing, and higher attention to abstract/general features than to concrete/specific features (Baumeister et al. 1998; Wan and Agrawal 2011). Thus, we argue that cognitive load generated by attentional conflict during distractions should lead to heuristic processing with a focus on the global components of the decision. In the case of interruptions, there is no conflict around paying simultaneous attention to two competing stimuli, as the user has no choice but to pay full attention to the interrupting stimuli. Thus, interruptions should provide relatively more cognitive resources and lead to systematic processing with a focus on specific components of the decision (as compared to distractions).

In Study 1 (N = 120), participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (interruptions/distractions/control). The evaluation task involved a sequential presentation of two smartphone profiles (superior on ratings and poor on attributes). When the second product appeared, a neutral message was displayed as a pop-up message (interruption) or moving lines (distraction). No message was displayed in the control condition. Lastly, participants provided dependent measures of evaluation. The results were in the expected direction (Minteruption = 5.69, Mdistraction = 3.76, t(74) = 4.02, p < .001). Importantly, the evaluation in the control condition (Mcontrol = 4.54) was in-between, and differed significantly from the evaluations in the interruption/distraction conditions. These results were consistent with our underlying theorization of distraction-conflict theory. However, one may argue that interruptions can induce a negative mood (as they are perceived as nagging/irritating), which may lead to poor evaluation of post-interruption product.

We posit that these effects were driven by variation in attention allocated to ratings/attributes. If ratings are poor and attributes are positive (i.e., opposite with respect to Study 1), then attentional-load caused by a distraction should lead to a higher focus on ratings, leading to an unfavourable evaluation, and interruption should lead to a higher focus on attributes, leading to a favourable evaluation. This reversal in evaluation should not be seen in the case of the mood transfer explanation. Additionally, if interruptions also produce cognitive load, then their effects should be similar to that of distractions.

In Study 2 (N = 115), participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (interruptions/distractions/interruptions-with-load). The study was identical to Study 1, except that the products shown were poor on ratings and superior on attributes. In the interruption-with-load condition, participants were asked to remember a 7-digit number (shown in interruption’s message). The results were in the expected direction (Minteruption = 6.41, Mdistraction = 5.81, t(81) = 1.49, p = .069). The interruption-with-load condition (Minterruption-with-load = 5.91) produced effects similar to the distraction condition (p = .40), but different from the interruption condition (p = .094). These results were consistent with our underlying theorization, and also helped address the alternate explanation of mood transfer.

So far, interruptions and distractions contained neutral content. However, in real life it is rare that such interruptions and distractions are neutral in nature. Based on the content of interruptions/distractions, they may be interpreted positively or negatively (Weick 1995). In Study 3, we explored whether interruptions and distractions differ in their effects when they are interpreted positively or negatively. We posit that interruptions should produce stronger effects than distractions on post-interference product. Interfering stimuli are processed to a far greater degree in case of interruptions, because the content is forced on the individual and there is no choice but to process the stimuli. For distractions, the stimuli are processed on the periphery, and so the degree of processing is less (relatively).

Participants (N = 159) were randomly assigned to one of the 2(interruption/distraction) x 2(valence of interference: positive/negative) conditions. Two laptop profiles were shown sequentially. After the first product, valenced information was presented as a pop-up message (interruption) or side-flashing message (distraction). The results were in the expected direction (Mpositive interference = 6.31, Mnegative interference = 4.61, t(71) = 3.89, p < .001, Cohen’s d = .90; Mpositive distraction = 5.72, Mnegative distraction = 5.11, t(84) = 1.26, p = .10, Cohen’s d = .27). The effect size of valenced interruptions was significantly higher than that of valenced distractions (p = .03), thus supporting our hypothesis that valenced interruptions would produce stronger effects than valenced distractions.

Through three studies, we show that distractions (interruptions) lead to a higher focus on general (specific) aspects of product information. Also, when such interferences carry affective meanings, interruptions produce stronger spillover effects than distractions. Differences in attentional-load and stimuli-exposure between interruptions/distractions explain these effects. This work is possibly the...
first to systematically contrast interruptions and distractions on both cognitive (attentional load) and affective (positive/negative meanings) dimensions. We hope that this work provides direction for more nuanced research about the effects of technology on our lives, and informs practitioners and consumers about thoughtful use/non-use of interferences.

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Toward a Science of Negative Critical Incidents: Bridging Brand Transgression Research and Service Failure-Recovery

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EXEMPLARY ABSTRACT

There has been a swell of interest in services as well as branding pertaining to the role of negative critical incidents and customers’ responses to such incidents. In services, the service failure-recovery stream (SFR hereafter) has emerged with researchers investigating various manners in which such failures manifest and how customers respond to both failure and recovery by service firms. A tradition among services scholars has been to explore service executions that fall below or disappoint the expectation of customers (Tax et al. 1998; Smith et al. 1999). Similarly, branding scholars investigated brands’ acts that violate norms endorsed by consumers (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004). Within branding, a sub-field of brand transgression (BT hereafter) has developed which explores the role of brands’ wrongdoings and how consumers react to them. These two streams appear to study the same phenomenon—that is, individual conflict between customers and firms/brands.

Despite their common focus, these two streams developed surprisingly independently, with limited reference to each other. This situation is unfortunate given that the streams appear to study a similar phenomenon while using rather diverging perspectives, theories, and methods. We argue that this strict division of labour is not only unjustified, but is also an obstacle to fostering major advancements. This is consistent with a recent notable call for cross-level integration (Fournier and Alvarez 2013), whereby scholars claim it is critical to “integrate and further articulate existing research under the science of negative relationships umbrella, including theory on BT and SFR.”

To generate our database, we searched all relevant literature that touched on SFR and BT phenomena. For inclusion in our systematic review, we retained articles and peer-reviewed book chapters which included an act interpretable as SFR and/or BT. Using studies from April 1998 through May 2018, our final database contains 189 publications over 21 years.

Our results suggest that SFR researchers have used a rather “macro”, managerial lens to understand the phenomenon. Most proposed theories have clear implications for managers. The choice of these theories seems primarily motivated by relevance and pursuit of external validity. As a way to move forward, this stream should consider using theoretical frameworks that offer a “micro” perspective, with a greater emphasis on mental processes and counterintuitive findings. For instance, SFR could go beyond the adoption of a B2B relationship paradigm (Hibbard et al. 2003) and explore theories from inter-personal relationships (Berscheid 1994). Turning to BT, the theories utilized naturally focus on internal validity, causality, and process evaluation. This stream is advised to integrate theories that could offer a “macro” perspective, with a greater focus on relevance, usefulness, and managerial implications. We encourage this stream to expand beyond psychological application so it becomes more useful for managers. This stream could dive deeper into justice theory and the notion of recovery (Smith et al. 1999).

Our findings also indicate an agreement between the two literatures about the basic cognitive foundations—i.e., external attributions, severity, and type of failure or transgression—used to understand a negative event. Importantly, we believe that the strong SFR focus on the notion of recovery may have become problematic, especially when researchers are interested in mapping a new phenomenon. Without a thorough understanding of the focal event, the design of any recovery becomes the equivalent of putting “the cart before the horse.” We encourage SFR researchers to actualize their view of an initial failure by using research in BT, which tends to focus on the initial act of transgression itself. In turn, BT keeps introducing novel theories with limited reference to the usual stages of a negative event (i.e., focal event, recovery, post-recovery). We believe BT would gain from having its theories organized according to this logical sequence. Building on SFR, some theories naturally fit certain stages—e.g., attribution theory best applies to the initial event, whereas justice maps well onto the recovery stage.

A reliable conclusion at the intersection of two streams is a moderate overlap with respect to examining negative emotions (anger) and some cognitions (perceived betrayal). However, while certain phenomena can be best captured by models with multiple simultaneous or serial mediators, it is important for both areas to thoroughly investigate conditions under which certain process mechanisms (forgiveness) hold over others (reconciliation), thus reconciling extant work on processes. Additionally, the predominant focus in both streams has been to investigate the negative emotions and cognitions mediating the effect of SFR and BT on consumer reactions; however, not all consumers respond bitterly to such negative incidents. Therefore, future research should pay more attention to process variables such as sympathy and forgiveness, and conditions under which they prevail over their negative counterparts.

Lastly, the results suggest BT researchers have traditionally emphasized individual differences and personality traits as focal moderators. This represents an area where BT can inspire SFR to gain a more in-depth understanding of how customers differentially respond to SFR as a function of their individual characteristics. SFR would benefit from exploring more deeply the role of a variety of individual differences and their moderating impact on customers’ responses to both failure and recovery. For instance, one avenue is to go beyond examination of consumers’ conflict style (Beverland et al. 2010) to explore the moderating influence of attachment (Paulsen and Bagozzi 2009), thinking (Lee et al. 2011), attribution styles (Um 2013), as well as concern for justice (Rotman, Khamitov, and Connors 2018).

This systematic review seeks to showcase how SFR in concert with BT can inform and enrich each other as well as our understanding of the broader topic of negative critical incidents. Such a synthesis has the potential to explain the origins, evolution, and current status of this whole field that focuses on an individual conflict between customers and firms/brands, as well as advance a series of insights, future avenues, and best practices. Additionally, this review facilitates a more impactful future research agenda in both theory and practice at the interface of BT and SFR from the perspective of advancing a science of negative critical incidents (Fournier and Alvarez 2013).

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Introduction

In Predictable Irrational, a book that made the New York Times bestseller list, Ariely (2008) stated that passersby would be happy to help with unloading a sofa if they were paid either nothing or a reasonable amount of money, but would walk away if offered only a small payment. This study tries to replicate in a prosocial context the claim that small payments are actually detrimental to motivation.

Standard economic theory posits that higher incentives lead to more effort and higher performance (Gneezy, Meier, & Rey-Biel, 2011). Empirical findings, however, show that using incentives can be worse than using no incentive (Heyman & Ariely, 2004). To explain this finding, Heyman and Ariely (2004) proposed the existence of two types of markets that can determine the relationships between effort and payment: monetary markets and social markets. In monetary markets, people apply monetary market norms, directly connecting performance to financial incentives; in social markets, people apply social market norms and instant payment is not required. Therefore, to motivate effort from other people, one can appeal either to the monetary market (by paying enough money) or the social market (by simply asking for a favour with no payment at all), whereas offering a low payment would backfire.

The present study is a replication of Experiment 1 in Heyman and Ariely (2004). In that experiment, participants were asked to rate the likelihood that the average student would help with moving a sofa in a hypothetical scenario if offered no payment, a low payment (50 cents), or a medium payment (five dollars). They correctly intuited a pattern consistent with the two-market theory. For this study, I adapted the original between-subjects design into a within-subject design. Each participant rated people’s willingness to help (WTH) for all three payment levels. If people actually apply the two-market concept in such joint evaluations (Hsee, 1996), we should observe the same pattern that Heyman and Ariely (2004) described.

Study 1 Quasi-Field Study

Design

The study adopted a 3 x 3 mixed design using three levels of real payment for taking the survey ($0, $0.50, $1) as the between-subjects factor, and a hypothetical scenario of helping to load groceries for three levels of payment ($0, $0.50, $5) as the within-subjects factor. Following Heyman and Ariely (2004), the survey asked participants, “Based on your intuition, if asked, how likely do you think it is that an average citizen would help a stranger to load groceries into a van if he or she is paid $0? (or $0.50 or $5)?” Participants answered each of the three questions on a seven-point scale from 1 (extremely unlikely) to 7 (extremely likely).

Results and Discussion

The experimenter collected a total of 176 surveys. The within-subjects pattern conformed to neither the two-market theory (which would predict a U-shaped pattern) nor standard economic theory (predicting an upward pattern). The dominant pattern of WTH for all treatment conditions was that people were equally likely to provide help when offered nothing or $0.50, and that their rating of WTH increased when the payment was increased to $5. The dominant pattern represented 42.6% of the total responses; the U-shaped pattern predicted by two-market theory and the upward pattern predicted by economic theory each represented 15.3% of all responses. The fourth common pattern was $0 = $0.50 = $5, indicating indifference to the payment amount.

Study 2 Online Survey

One hundred and forty-nine MTurk participants were asked three questions in a randomized order—“if asked, how likely do you think it is that an average American would be to help a stranger to load a sofa into a van if he or she is paid $0 (or $1 or $10)?” Participants answered each of the three questions on a seven-point scale from 1 (extremely unlikely) to 7 (extremely likely). Their age and gender were also collected after they answered the questions.

The results generally replicated those from Study 1. In Study 1, there were four major patterns—each of them accounted for more than ten percent of all the answers. Study 2 revealed the same order of the four major patterns: a dominant pattern, followed by a pattern supported by two-market theory, followed by a pattern supported by economic theory, followed by a pattern in which people indicated no difference among the three levels of payment.

General Discussion

According to the two-market theory, low payment is worse than no payment as a motivator of effort (Heyman & Ariely, 2004). Scholars have argued that one should “pay enough or don’t pay at all” (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000). In the present replication studies, when participants evaluated the payment options of no payment and low payment, most subjects were indifferent between them. This difference of between versus within-subjects thus becomes a boundary condition for the two-market theory. However, when we raised the payment from $0 to a medium payment, most participants rated medium payment as a more effective incentive than $0. Most likely there is a minimal threshold below which monetary compensation is ineffective. In Study 1, $5 was enough to surpass the threshold but $0.50 was not.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Consider two individuals contemplating the purchase of a new laptop computer. Both are interested in the same specific brand and model. While one individual comes across a product review stating that 5% of the brand’s laptops are expected to require repairs, the other individual reads a review reporting that 1 out of 20 of the brand’s laptops is expected to require repairs. Although the likelihood of failure is relatively low and objectively equivalent, the numeric representation of the probability information in the two reviews differs such that the expected performance information is provided in terms of percentage (5%) and frequency (1 out of 20) formats, respectively. Will the perceived risk associated with purchasing the laptop differ across the two individuals? Will one be more likely to buy the laptop? If so, which of the two individuals, and why? What if the product performance information is described positively such as function satisfactorily rather than negatively such as requiring repairs? Surprisingly, despite the relatively large literature examining the influence of probability format (e.g., Kirkpatrick and Epstein 1992; Slovic, Monahan and MacGregor 2000), as well as the framing of attributes and outcomes (Tversky and Kahneman 1981; Levin, Schneider and Gaeth 1998), the answers to these questions are not clear. Further, since different theoretical perspectives suggest competing predictions, the current research seeks to examine how the numeric representation of a relatively low probability in terms of a frequency versus percentage affects risk perceptions and provides insights into the underlying reasons for the effects.

Our results suggest that risk perceptions are higher and purchase intentions are lower when a probability in the negative frame is represented as a frequency (1 out of 20) than an equivalent percentage (5%; Study 1). Moreover, a consistent finding in the context of a relatively low probability (Studies 2a and 2b) is that a probability frame moderates the effects of probability format on risk perceptions such that while risk perceptions are higher in the frequency (vs. percentage) format in the negative frame (1 out of 20 vs. 5%), there is no difference in the positive frame (19 out of 20 vs. 95%). Study 3a attests to the robustness and generalizability of the findings by showing a similar pattern for a less extreme probability level (2 out of 20 vs. 10% and 18 out of 20 vs. 90%) and to a frequency that is not represented as “1 out of” some number. Further, although probability frame does not affect risk perceptions in the percentage format when the probability is extreme (5% vs. 95%), the effect of frame emerges when the probability is not as extreme (10% vs. 90% as well as for 20% vs. 80%). Thus, framing does not affect evaluations when the probability level represented as a percentage is at the extreme, but has an effect at less extreme levels. In contrast, frame affects risk perception even when the relatively extreme probability is represented as a frequency (1 out of 20 vs. 19 out of 20).

We also identify a boundary condition such that at a moderate probability level, risk perceptions do not vary across the frequency and percentage formats, even in the negative frame (4 out of 20 vs. 20%). Further, probability frame has a similar effect wherein risk perceptions are higher in the negative (vs. positive) frame for both frequency and percentage formats. Taken together, the pattern of findings across the studies suggests that the effects of probability format on risk perceptions are likely to manifest when the numerators are relatively small, thus facilitating individuals to identify with or imagine themselves in the situation.

We further provide insights into the underlying mechanism. Our finding that risk perceptions are higher when a probability in the negative frame is represented as a frequency (1 out of 20) than a percentage (5%) is in contrast with the idea that a specific probability of occurrence will be perceived as less likely and thus less risky when it is denoted by a ratio of 1 out of some number (Denes-Raj and Epstein 1994). Importantly, we generalize the finding to a frequency that is not represented as “1 out of” some large number (i.e., 2 out of 20 vs. 10%).

Instead, we find that probability information described as a frequency evokes greater negative affect than an equivalent percentage. Based on the premise that a probability described as a frequency is more concrete than an equivalent percentage because it is easier to process, understand, and is more aligned to how statistical information is experienced (Denes-Raj and Epstein 1994; Gigerenzer and Hoffrage 1995), we argue that the extent to which individuals can imagine themselves in or identify with the situation is likely to be higher with frequency than percentage format. A frequency format is thus likely to evoke greater negative affect, thereby increasing risk perceptions relative to an equivalent percentage, particularly when the probability is framed negatively. Study 3a specifically shows that a frequency (vs. percentage) format facilitates the extent to which individuals imagine themselves in the situation when the probability is in the negative frame.

Finally, Study 4 explicitly tests the extent to which individuals’ construal levels in terms of high-level, abstract and low-level concrete processing moderates the effects of probability format. Matching the probability format with construal level (i.e., pairing frequency with low-level construal and percentage with high-level construal) has a significant effect on extent of imagining, negative affect, and risk perceptions, but these effects attenuate when there is a mismatch (i.e., pairing frequency with high-level construal and percentage with low-level construal). Thus, it provides compelling evidence for the underlying reasoning for our findings.

In sum, this research addresses the questions raised in the introductory illustration and contributes to the literatures on probability judgments, affective decision making, and risk perceptions. We propose a conceptual framework that explains the differential effects of probability format based on how format information is processed, and suggest moderators for the effects.

REFERENCES


Management of Dissonance by Deviant Religious Consumers
Arti Srivastava, Indian Institute of Management Udaipur, India

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Dissonance can be experienced as a result of delinquent actions conflicting with internal values (Sykes and Matza 1957), or due to social consequences of the actions (Festinger and Carlsmith 1959). Religion defines the life priorities for people, and shapes their opinion about the societal rights and wrongs, and the personal dos and don'ts (Mokhlis, 2009). Any deviance from the prescribed norms of religion results in dissonance as a result of internal conflict as well as social hostility. Such deviance is not illegal, but unacceptable as it crosses the subjective deviance threshold (Dootson et al., 2017). According to the previous theories explaining deviance such as deterrence and rationalization, social learning, and social bond such deviance should discontinue unless: the severity of consequences is not very high, and not personal in nature for deviants. Second, they don’t have strong attachment, commitment, involvement or belief in the normative institution. Third, they have not had negative experiences in the past and are devoid of any positive differential association.

But in the context of religion we have examples of consumers who are practitioners of their religions, and yet deviate from the teachings of their religion with respect to certain consumption choices. In such cases, the religious deviants experience a dissonance, and according to Festinger (1962), people try to reduce dissonance.

To dive deeper into the dissonance experience of the deviants, four semi-structured interviews were conducted in person or over Skype. The recruitment of respondents was done through purposive sampling. Respondents self-reported themselves as religious, and religion to be of high importance in their life choices. The interviews started with grand tour questions, and follow up questions varied based on respondent’s answers and analysis of previous interviews (McCracken 1988). The interviews were coded to identify the themes, and after constant comparison and analysis, the themes were crystalized (Spiggle 1994). Four recurring dissonance reduction strategies were employed to curtail the intensity of experienced dissonance, or to preclude experiencing dissonance were identified.

Pan-ethnicization of Beliefs. The respondents maintain that their inherent beliefs (learned from the religion they practice), while creating a meta-repository of beliefs by updating their standards of rights and wrongs. This provides a justification to their actions, and prevents them from experiencing dissonance. “There will be times, when you will be like… oh my god, this is not what I thought, but this is what it is, and this is right and what you have brought up with was a wrong approach to a problem or to a solution.”

Camouflage. Resentment for forced compliance aggravates dissonance (Festinger and Carlsmith 1959). However, in the present context, the compliance is not forced upon the subject, instead they chose to temporarily adjust their behaviors to respect the sentiments of their immediate social circle. “Just in order to respect her preferences, we chose not to order, so it’s like you chose your consumption choice because someone else doesn’t like it, it’s not like… like both I and my father eat beef, but there, may be there, at that table, with my mom, and my… aunts sitting, we, out of, sort of respect, we don’t order, that’s about it.”

De-norming the institution. A clear distinction surfaced between the ‘ideology’ and ‘dogma’, and, the ‘ritual’ and the ‘values’ dimension of religion. This finding is consistent with prior studies establishing peoples’ attachment with spiritual, but not institutional aspect of religion (Davie 1994), but contradictory to previous understanding about effect of religiosity on life choices. “Religion teaches us humanity. My God would want me and his other followers to stay healthy and my children to be brought up well.. Whatever the religion says I respect that, but for me my religion is not just sticking to it word by word.” “I believe to be true to my identity of being a sardar I don’t need to have turban. I mean sardars are known for their kindness, bravery and jovial nature, before anything else.”

Rationalization of behaviour. Respondents portrayed rationalization of their actions based on the facts, justifying the consequences and intent of their deviance, which provided them with a moral cushion to reduce the dissonance. “We need to understand the consequences of it, I mean, the physical complexities and challenges that we have to face by not choosing it (contraception), the risk of poor health, both for mother and the child, resulting from repeated pregnancies…not only that, just think about the kind of upbringing you will be able to provide to your children...”

While, the not very religious consumers take the liberty of deviating by separating religion from their belief in God, those who value religion highly, experience dissonance resulting from internal value conflicts, as well as social hostility. In such cases, consumers manage the conflict of negating the values prescribed by their religion, by using pan-ethnicization of beliefs, camouflage, de-norming of institution, and rationalization strategies.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Extant guilt-appeal research measures effects immediately post-exposure. We develop a guilt-persuasion model integrating positive/negative appeal effects longitudinally. Persuasion occurs via transportation, mild appeals enhance positive guilt-appeal effects, and individual reactance/affective orientation influences guilt elicitation. Figure 1 illustrates the model, differentiating between the persuasive process at message delivery (Time 1) and the behavioural effect (at Time 2; Antonetti & Baines, 2015). Appeals aimed at eliciting guilt have two co-occurring effects. While eliciting guilt, they generate inferences of manipulative intent, driving negative source credibility perceptions. Transportation is a mediator of longitudinal effects of guilt appeal messaging. At Time 2, compliance is assessed via behavioural measures. The study tests 8 hypotheses concerning the ability of guilt appeals to elicit guilty feelings (in individuals with differing reactance levels), reinforce transportation into messages (for those with different affective orientation levels), and trigger manipulative intent (which may influence source credibility and message transportation ability). Message transportation may be enhanced by source credibility and transportation could lead to message compliance over time. Across three studies, reactions to different recycling behaviour promotional campaigns were assessed. All experiments comprised two stages. At Time 1, participants were exposed to a guilt appeal and completed scale sets regarding the message. After around three days (Time 2), participants completed scales/tasks to allow measurement of testable dependent variables and moderators. Study 1 examined positive guilt appeal effects and tested H1, H3 and H9. Study 2 tested research hypotheses including moderations at H2 and H4. Study 3 focused on impacts of assertive versus mild guilt appeals on positive (H1, H3, and H9) and negative (H5, H6, H7, and H8) effects. Study 1 results align with the hypotheses. There is a small positive effect for guilt appeals on recycling, mediated by elicited guilt and transportation. There is evidence of a negative effect from elicited guilt to recycling. In Study 2, negative effects associated with guilt elicitation are tested explicitly in H5, H6, H7 and H8. As per Study 1, the negative direct effect from elicited guilt to the dependent variables reoccurs. Second, guilt appeals create a manipulative perception reducing persuasiveness. Reactance, documented in past research (Cotte, Coulter & Moore, 2005; Coulter & Pinto, 1995), is present. Third, guilt is more persuasive for low reactance/AO participants. Guilt-based messaging effectiveness rests on audiences’ acceptance of others’ decision-influencing attempts and recognition of intentional emotional influence on their behaviour. Guilt elicitation and guilt’s ability to influence individual advertisement reactions depends on personal characteristics, e.g., active/skeptical readings of messages communicated (Cotte, Coulter & Pinto, 2005). How moderate versus explicit appeal levels affect elicitation and consumption longitudinally is unconsidered in extant literature. Study 3 compares the relative effectiveness of differing-level explicit guilt communication appeals longitudinally. The analysis differentiates between appeals inducing high and low freedom threats (Dillard & Shen, 2005). Less assertive appeals should yield positive delayed compliance effects. Study 3 results, consistent with Study 2, indicate guilt messaging has positive and negative longitudinal effects, observed via a time-spent-viewing-a-recycling-petition variable. The study indicated assertive appeals risk negative effects without increasing positive outcomes (see Table 1).

REFERENCES


Roundtable Summaries

ROUND TABLE
Special Topics in Branding

Participants:
Rajeev Batra, University of Michigan, USA
Silvia Bellezza, Columbia University, USA
Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia

Three papers were presented in this session. In the first paper, Silvia Bellezza (Columbia University) and Anat Keinan (Harvard Business School) presented their work on “How to Extend Exclusive Brands: A Brand Communities Account for Understanding the Impact of Brand Extensions.” They examine how exclusive brands are affected by offering downward brand extensions with varying levels of perceived closeness to the product category of the parent brand (i.e., close vs. distant downward brand extensions). Adding a novel brand communities perspective to the literature on brand extension, they propose that downward extensions in a product category that is perceived to be relatively distant from the parent brand’s core offering can have a more positive impact on the brand image than close extensions; this is because such extensions do not allow their users to claim membership to the brand community. In the second paper, “Does it Hurt or Protect? The Effect of Consumers’ Affective Commitment on (Un)Ethical Behavior toward Transgressing Brands,” Nitika Garg and Rahul Govind (University of New South Wales, Australia) ask: What effect does consumers’ affective commitment, defined as the emotional, psychological connect one might feel with a brand of preference, have on their relationship with transgressing brands? It is unclear is whether high affective commitment will protect the transgressing brand against consumer backlash or amplify it. In this research, the moderating roles of the agency responsible for the transgression (direct vs. indirect) and brand apology are examined along with the potential mediating mechanism. Finally, Rajeev Batra (University of Michigan), Caleb Warren (University of Arizona), Sandra Laureiro (University of Lisbon), and Richard Bagozzi (University of Michigan) presented an Update on their ongoing research on Brand Coolness. Marketers strive to create cool brands, but the literature does not offer a blueprint for what brand coolness means or what features characterize cool brands. Their research uses a mixed-methods approach, relying on focus groups, depth interviews, essays, surveys, and an experiment, to conceptualize brand coolness and identify a set of ten characteristics prototypically associated with cool brands. It also situates brand coolness within a nomological network of related constructs and shows that brand coolness influences important outcome variables, including consumers’ attitudes towards, satisfaction with, and willingness-to-pay for the brand.

Roundtable
Leveraging Corporate Responsibility and Sustainability to Drive Triple Bottom Line Value

Participants:
CB Bhattacharya, University of Pittsburgh, USA
Sankar Sen, Baruch College, USA

After a brief overview of the joint work done by the speakers in previous years exploring conditions under which “doing good” for environment and society leads to “doing well” for the business, this session featured research currently being done by Bhattacharya and Sen. The first presentation by Sankar Sen focused on consumers and how they react to CSR/sustainability communication and the second presentation by CB Bhattacharya focused on the conditions under which employees reward their companies by taking ownership of sustainability. Brief summaries of the two talks follow.

Communicating CSR. When marketers communicate, they speak increasingly in not just commercial voices but moral ones as well. Company engagement in CSR/sustainability is at an unprecedented high, and more and more firms are speaking out about their social responsibility stances. Yet, we know relatively little about the efficacy - in terms of positive consumer responses - of such CSR communication. This talk focuses on three different investigations of consumers reactions to CSR communication that, together, call into question the efficacy of certain conventional and pervasive communication tactics, such as humor, storytelling, and multiple appeals, in producing positive, pro-company responses from consumers. The findings thus far point to the uniqueness of marketer communication in the moral domain and underscore the challenges companies face in communicating successfully about their CSR/sustainability initiatives.

Business through the Sustainability Lens. While most companies talk the talk of sustainability, very few walk the walk. Unsurprisingly, carbon emissions by the world’s largest companies are increasing, and only one third of the 600 largest companies in the U.S. have any sustainability oversight at the Board level. Prof. Bhattacharya interviewed well over 100 CEO’s, C-suite, middle managers, and shop floor workers in 25+ companies across the world to understand what separates the best from the rest. In one word, the answer is ownership: companies that are winning the sustainability battle have created the conditions for their stakeholders to own sustainability. Psychological ownership is a powerful concept that refers to feelings of possessiveness and connection that we develop toward an appealing object such as a person, company, or even an idea, and this research shows how we can use the concept of ownership to drive sustainability through the organization. Based on the research, a three-phase model – incubate, launch and entrench – is presented, that shows how companies can move beyond rhetoric and take ownership of sustainability so that it’s someone else’s problem no more.
Roundtable
Editors’ Roundtable

Moderator:
Blakeley McShane, Northwestern University, USA

Participants:
Gita Johar, Columbia University, USA
Page Moreau, University of Wisconsin-Madison, USA
Anirban Mukhopadhyay, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong
Sankar Sen, Baruch College, USA

Political Marketing and Psychology

Participants:
Paul Baines, University of Leicester School of Business, UK

We examined the rise of political marketing both in praxis and as an academic discipline, showing that papers have been published in some of the world’s top journals including Journal of Marketing, Journal of Consumer Research, Journal of the American Statistical Association, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science and many others and that we have secured special editions on political marketing in many excellent journals including Psychology & Marketing, European Journal of Marketing, Marketing Theory, and the (UK) Journal of Marketing Management, among others. We also discussed the importance of political marketing campaigns, especially in close campaigns, a position which is diametrically opposed to the position of many political scientists who think the campaign does not matter, and that people’s votes are based on other less transient things. In the world of Trump, Macron and Brexit, we can however see the folly of assuming this universal logic that campaigns are unimportant. We went on to discuss the different areas of political marketing that scholars can work in, ranging from work in the area of public opinion, to strategy, fundraising, political advertising, voter attitudes and behavior, the marketing of terrorist groups, the marketing of social movements, lobbying and public affairs, political marketing ethics and many more important and contemporary topics. We also discussed Brexit briefly showing how the young were disengaged and didn’t vote as much as the general population in 2016 in the UK EU referendum and that older male voters from working class backgrounds were much more likely to vote to leave the EU (i.e. for Brexit). We wrapped up the discussion with a lively debate about the state of marketing in the world’s largest democracy, India, and what a curiosity it was that there was so little political marketing activity in Indian academe. Surely, we all agreed, that’s something that needs to change. If you are interested in working in the political marketing field, consider joining the global email distribution list for political marketers here: https://www.jiscmail.ac.uk/cgi-bin/webadmin?A0=AM-POLITICAL-MARKETING (This is the UK Academy of Marketing special interest group on political marketing). This email list provides important information on upcoming conferences, special editions, and other things of academic interest. We’d be delighted to welcome you to the community.

Roundtable
Consumer Culture Theory in the Asia-Pacific Region:
Accomplishments, Challenges, Opportunities

Participants:
Eric John Arnould, Aalto University School of Business, Finland
Søren Askegaard, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Julien Cayla, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Eric Arnould, Julien Cayla, Tanuka Ghoshal, Tanvi Gupta and Søren Askegaard participated in a panel discussion concerning the opportunities and challenges for scholars interested in Consumer Culture Theory in South Asia. Professor Arnould opened the session with a short review of the field of consumer culture theory research. Professor Ghoshal discussed her experiences transitioning from an experimental research to a scholar pursuing mixed methods. She pointed to the role of mentorship in this journey. Doctoral candidate Tanvi Gupta discussed her background in corporate market research that has shown her the interest in and need for competences in consumer culture theory in industry as well as in the academy. Professor Askegaard as incoming president of the organization, discussed the role of the Consumer Culture Theory Consortium in supporting the development of CCT research in South Asia. Professor Cayla briefly discussed his experiences in Singapore and invited interested scholars to join a Slack group he is creating for interested Asian scholars. Extensive Q&A with the audience addressed multiple challenges scholars face in accessing CCT methods and theories.
Assorted Gifts Can’t Buy My Love: 
The Effect of Intimacy on Anticipated Regret With Gifting Choice
Parvathy B., Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Uncertainty about the receiver’s preferences drives anticipated regret while choosing gifts. Although choosing an assorted gift hedges the giver from anticipated regret, it doesn’t hold true with intimate couples. Partners with low (high) levels of intimacy feel lesser (more) anticipated regret when they choose an assortment over a single variant.

Awe, Fear or Mixed? The Curious Case of Threat Awe
Srinwanti H. Chaudhury, University of New South Wales, Australia
Nitika Garg, University of New South Wales, Australia
Zixi Jiang, University of New South Wales, Australia

We examined the facets of awe (positive and negative) from a cognitive appraisal perspective and compared them with other emotions—pride, happiness, fear and neutral—across four studies. Our primary contribution is to posit negative awe as a mixed emotion, distinct from the emotions of positive awe and fear.

Emotional Echo Chambers:
How Emojis Affect Consumers’ Emotions and Responses to Social Media Posts
Gopal Das, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Sarah Moore, University of Alberta, Canada
Anirban Mukhopadhyay, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong

This research tests how consumers’ reactions to Facebook posts are influenced by the type and distribution of prior emoji responses to the post (e.g., sad vs. heart). Facebook data and five experiments show that consumers’ emotional—and emoji—responses to posts are predicted by others’ prior emoji responses (anchor emoji).

Feeling Calm or Excited:
Measuring the Frequency of Shopping Using Mobile Shopping App
Priyanka Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India
Sanjeev Prashar, Indian Institute of Management Raipur, India

This study is based on ABC (affect, behaviour and cognition) Theory and uses a mobile shopping app to determine the effect of consumer characteristics (personality) and app characteristics as stimuli on shopping frequency, with the mediating effect of happiness (excitement and calm) and a moderating effect of situational factors.

Magical Thinking in Digital Spaces:
The Unconscious Influence of Evil Eye Belief on Visual Concealment
Tanvi Gupta, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Preeti Krishnan Lyndem, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

Evil eye belief, a form of magical thinking, imparts envy the ability to travel both physical and digital spaces. We demonstrate that evil eye belief prevents consumers from sharing photographs of their enviable possessions on social media. This effect is magnified when evil eye belief is allowed to operate unconsciously.
The Impact of Relationship Closeness on Hedonic Adaptation: Perceived Social Value as a Mediator

Chia-Jung Chang, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Szu-Chien Pan, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Rong Syuan Chang, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Shin Lan, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan
Chieh-Yu Lin, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan

Two experiments were conducted to investigate the effects of perceived social value on hedonic escalation, with relationship closeness playing the role of moderator. Results of both experiments showed that people shopping with others in high relationship closeness have higher perceived social value and slower hedonic adaptation than those who shop with less close friends.

The Point of No Return: Examining the Drivers and Consequences of Online Product Non-return

Aishwarya Ramasundaram, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Avinash Mulky, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

This research examines the unique phenomenon of consumers who don’t return products purchased online in spite of the presence of favourable return policies. Using an interpretative qualitative approach and critical incident technique, we develop a conceptual framework which explains the causes of and outcomes for this phenomenon.

Why Do We Hate Brands?

Jiaming Wu, Macau University of Science and Technology, China
Yao Qin, Macau University of Science and Technology, China

This study investigates antecedents of brand hate. Specifically, we propose that negative past experience, negative word of mouth (WOM), ideological incompatibility, negative brand-self relationship, and negative social self-connection are the antecedents of brand hate. Further, brand distrust mediates the effects of negative past experience and negative WOM on brand hate.

Improving the Effectiveness of Healthcare Communication: The Critical Role of Vividness

Nachiketas Nandakumar, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India
Bharadhwaj Sivakumaran, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India

This article explores the literature on threat appeals and vividness and offers the health campaigner ways to operationalize the vividness construct under a threat appeals framework. We propose conditions under which vividness effects become significant, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of health risk communication. Contributions to theory and practice are discussed.


Wei Li, Southwest Jiaotong University, China
Yu Ling Wang, Southwest Jiaotong University, China
Yu Shi Jiang, Southwest Jiaotong University, China

Based on the Social Presence Theory, the Elaboration Likelihood Model, and the principle of Stimulus-Organism-Response, it was found that the vividness of anthropomorphic advertising has a positive effect on consumer product attitudes. Cognitive fluency, perceived trust, and perceived psychological distance mediated the effect of vividness of the anthropomorphic advertising on consumer product attitudes.
An Investigation of Mobile Social Networking Application
Users’ Responses to In-App Advertisements

Shing-Wan Chang, Middlesex University, UK
Grigoris Loukidis, King’s College London, UK
Keith Drago, Middlesex University, UK

This study sought a greater understanding of millennial consumers’ reactions to in-app advertisements on Snapchat, which lacks sufficient academic research. Two hundred sixty-four valid responses were collected in an online survey via Amazon Mechanical Turk, and analyzed by partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM) modeling. This study contributes to the existing literature.

Blended Brand Names: It’s Just Not What You Know, It’s the Sound

Sunny Arora, S P Jain Institute of Management and Research, India
Arti D. Kalro, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Dinesh Sharma, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

This study explores blended brand names, which are semantically meaningless names containing attribute associations. They are coined for dealing with trademark-related issues. Vowels can connote sound meaning through these names. Attribute associations may reflect products’ positioning, which a brand strategist can communicate through the brand name.

Examining Attitude Functions’ Antecedents and Consequences in a Cross-National Setting

Paurav Shukla, University of Essex, UK
Dina Khalifa, Glasgow Caledonian University, UK
Thomas Peschken, Glasgow Caledonian University, UK

We empirically examine consumers’ need for uniqueness (CNFU) dimensions as antecedents and behavioral intentions as consequences of attitude functions towards luxury brands. In examining the full-spectrum of attitude functions among American, French and Chinese luxury consumers, our results demonstrate the differential impact of CNFU on attitude functions and on behavioral intentions.

Hear What’s Here: The Effect of Semantically Congruent Lyrics on Brand Perception

Jose Manu M A, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India
Gopal Das, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

The congruency of background music characteristics changing customers’ attitudes has been studied by researchers; this study contributes to that literature by adding the concept of congruency of lyrics with the brand’s characteristics. Additionally, this paper empirically shows a mediation effect of perceived fit of lyrics on attitude towards the brand.

Role of Visual Elements in Brand Logo Design

Shruti Trehan, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Arti D. Kalro, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

This study collates a comprehensive list of visual elements of brand logos. We propose a one-stop shop for practitioners to design new logos. Two coders recorded the presence of such visual elements in the top 100 global brands, further divided in eleven product categories. Recommendations suggest the use of specific elements for different categories.
Where East Meets West: Enriching Cultural Universals

Malika Malika, Indian School of Business Hyderabad, India
Durairaj Maheswaran, New York University, USA
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA

This research highlights the importance of partial cultural universals of consumption symbols. We examined perceptual structures of brand personality in India and identified an isomorphic dimension with the West and the East, along with a culturally distinctive dimension. This research also documents idiosyncratic differences in the meanings associated with these isomorphic dimensions.

Oh! It’s So Costly, It Must Be Green!
The Impact of Price on the Green Perception of Eco-Friendly Products

Amogh Kumbargeri, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India

This research explores the influence of price-premium on the green perception of eco-friendly products. Drawing on theories of correlation-based inference and signalling, the results argue for the influence of price on green perception. The paper presents three studies which support the hypotheses. Theoretical and policy implications are discussed.

Antibiotics Overuse and Self-Medication in India: A Social Marketing Framework

Vishakha Chauhan, Indian Institute of Technology Delhi, India
Mahim Sagar, Indian Institute of Technology Delhi, India

The study intends to make a contribution to the pressing public health issue of antibiotic resistance and misuse in India through a social marketing approach. Social marketing principles can be leveraged not only in creating awareness, but also in bringing about behavior change of key stakeholders involved in the antibiotic overuse issue.

Do People Understand That a Small Payment Actually Hurts Motivation? An Attempt to Reconcile Two Conflicting Findings

Yun Jie, SolBridge International School of Business, South Korea

Literature shows that people both intuit (correctly) that a small payment is worse than no payment to incentivize pro-social behavior and choose (incorrectly) a small payment over no payment to incentivize pro-social behavior. These findings are reconciled through twelve studies exploring three factors.


Dhrithi Mahadevan, Indian Institute of Management Bangalore, India

The results of this study suggest that consumers’ willingness to pay a lower price premium for green products is greater for products having other benefit appeals. However, when the premium is high, consumers’ willingness to pay is greater for products having self-benefit appeals. Consumers’ perceived benefits acted as the psychological mechanism explaining this effect.

Are Chatbots Going to Replace Mobile Shopping Applications? Understanding the Attitude and Intention to Use Chatbots for Shopping Using Smartphones

Dharun Lingam Kasilingam, Alliance University, India
Ajitha Soundararaj, SRM University, India

Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived enjoyment, price consciousness, perceived risk and personal innovativeness significantly influence attitudes towards chatbots. Intention to use is directly influenced by trust, personal innovativeness, and attitude. Age, gender and prior experience using mobile shopping applications moderate certain relationships in the model.
Ignorance Hurts but Silence Kills: Can Social Media Address Taboos to Achieve Sustainable Health and Hygiene?
Ekta Srivastava, Indian Institute of Management Lucknow, India

This paper conceptualizes the relationship between social taboos and sustainability (particularly sustainable health and hygiene). It also proposes the role of social media in the adoption of sustainable solutions around taboo subjects. The research has implications for academicians, marketers, NGOs, and policy makers.

Uncovering the Influence of Transitioning Consumption Practices on Consumer Food-Choice Decision-Making Behavior
Meenal Sameer Rai, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand

Food consumption is transforming. Innovative foods promising convenience and health benefits compete with traditional concepts of food and food-provisioning, resulting in food-choice conflicts. Concepts from Practice Theory are applied to explore consumers’ motivational conflicts and ambivalence while making food decisions. Findings reveal the approach-avoidance strategies consumers use to mitigate food-choice paradoxes.

A Model of Smart Technologies
Monic Sun, Boston University, USA
Yuxin Chen, New York University, China
Xinxin Li, University of Connecticut, USA

We study the profit implications of smart technologies that can predict consumers’ real-time needs. Our results suggest that it is not always profitable to increase prediction accuracy as a firm’s inability to commit to low future prices may lead to lower overall profit in the presence of forward-looking consumers.

The Instagram Disorder Scale: World of Teens, Hash Tags, Followers and Likes
Anuj Pal Kapoor, University of Delhi, India

There exists no standard framework to examine a user’s addiction to Instagram. Based on the feed to an individual’s profile (likes, hashtags, etc.), the present study aims to develop a scale (Instagram Disorder Scale, #IDS) that identifies the level of addiction to Instagram usage among teenagers in India.

Management Response Strategies for Varying Sentiments and Emotions in Online Consumer Reviews
Vartika Srivastava, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India
Arti D. Kalro, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, India

This study establishes the importance of firms responding to all online reviews, as responses increase perceived helpfulness. In addition, the results show that firms provide ‘specific’ responses to mostly angry/disgruntled consumers, and follow a ‘generic’ response strategy for positive reviews, which is sub-optimal.
**Consumer Incivility: A Control Restoration Mechanism**

Gurbir Singh, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India  
Abhishek Mishra, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India  
Sanjeev Tripathi, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India  
Shruti Tewari, Indian Institute of Management Indore, India

Consumer incivility towards frontline employees is common. We argue that consumers engage in uncivil behavior when they lack control. Control-deprived consumers perceive more service failures and they react to such failures with incivility. Consumer incivility is a control restoration mechanism. Our initial experiment indicates support for our argument.

**The Effect of Country-of-Origin on Product Efficacy**

Moty Amar, Ono Academic College, Israel

Results from three experiments indicate that the perceived efficacy of products carrying reputable country-of-origin labels were better than the efficacy of the same products when carrying less reputable country-of-origin labels. Titanium frames were perceived as lighter, sunglasses helped see better when facing glaring light, and ear-muffs enabled better hearing despite strong background noise.

**Applying the Geddesian Triad Theory of Town Planning to Understand the Data Consumption Patterns at the Bottom of the Pyramid**

Ayush Chaudhary, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India  
Varisha Rehman, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India

The study was undertaken to understand the Internet consumption pattern at BoP, and contrary to common belief, it was found to be similar to Top of Pyramid. Usage pattern were studied based on Folk, Work, and Place from Geddesian Town Planning Theory in four contexts: urban slum, urban village, rural village, migrant.

**Are Positive Firm Activities Equally Effective Across All Cultures? A Country Level Analysis of Well-Being**

Siddharth P. K., Indian Institute of Management Udaipur, India

The present research investigates the moderating effects of firm activities on the relationship between cultural factors and well-being. Results show that ethical behavior is more favorable in individualistic countries, and customer orientation is less favorable in cultures with higher uncertainty-avoidance scores. Important implications for firms and policy makers are also discussed.

**How Do Customers Derive Enjoyment From Their Experiences in Online Brand Communities? The Role of Customer-to-Customer Interactions**

Rong Liu, Nanchang University, China  
Hongyan Yu, Sun Yat-sen University, China  
Xiangyun Zhang, Sun Yat-sen University, China

This paper explores how customer-to-customer interactions influence customers’ enjoyments of their experiences via objective and subjective data in China. Results show that (1) customer-to-customer interactions positively impact customers’ enjoyment of their experiences, (2) control and communities mediate this impact, and (3) theme fit moderates the mediated effects of control and communities.
Airbnb Influence on Community Living – A Case Study of Delhi

N Meenakshi, International Management Institute, India
Mrimoy Majumder, International Management Institute, India
Parthasarathi Banerjee, International Management Institute, India

The main objective of this research is to explore the influence of Airbnb on communal living in different areas of Delhi. This study also represents an attempt to understand the penetration of Airbnb into local neighbourhoods of Delhi, and the interplay among the community, family (host) and guests.

Believe It or Not! Antecedents and Consequences of False News in Marketing

Anubhav Mishra, Indian Institute of Management Ranchi, India
Sridhar Samu, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India
Shameem S, Great Lakes Institute of Management, India

Using a mixed-methods approach, this research investigates the motivations and consequences of sharing marketing related false news. Qualitative analysis reveals that people share messages to help others and help the (fake) victim to take revenge on brands. Empirical analysis shows that strong brands suffer more than weak brands.

Study of an Open-to-Air Market in India – A System Modelling Approach

Ambika Prasad Nanda, S. P. Jain Institute of Management and Research, India
Ranjan Banerjee, S. P. Jain Institute of Management and Research, India

The present research explores one informal market (the selling and buying of flowers) in India using ethnography and interviews. Relationships among multiple channel actors are mapped by Causal Loop Diagrams (CLD), an approach pioneered by system dynamics research. Two factors, market access and pricing realization, are essential for making better public policies.

Relative Economic Position, Income Inequality and Conspicuous Consumption in an Emerging Economy

Rashmi Kumari, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad, India
Saravana Jaikumar, Indian Institute of Management Calcutta, India

We examine the effect of relative economic position and income inequality on household conspicuous consumption. Lower income households spend more on conspicuous goods when income inequality is relatively higher. However, in regions of low income inequality, conspicuous spending is higher for relatively higher income households.

A Narrative Inquiry of Consumption

Sushant Kumar, Indian Institute of Management Shillong, India
Pradip H Sadarangani, Indian Institute of Management Shillong, India

This paper advocates the use of narrative in studying consumption in a liquid modern world. Researchers have acknowledged the impact of life history on future consumption; however, inadequacy of theoretical and methodological bases have limited the exploration. Narrative offers a richer way to explore consumption over the lifespan.

Cozying Up to the Kardashians: A Theory for Consumers’ Affinity Towards Celebrity Gossip

Jayant Nasa, Indian School of Business Hyderabad, India
Tanuka Ghoshal, Baruch College, USA
Raj Raghunathan, University of Texas at Austin, USA

Consumers facing a social exclusion threat exhibit an increased propensity to consume celebrity gossip. This effect is mediated by a desire to affiliate with close others triggered by the exclusion threat. Celebrity gossip provides a means of affiliating with celebrities, who are often perceived as “friends.”
-seeking pain for a better me:
negative experience as an aid to reaffirm self-views after self-control failure

Gita Johar, Columbia University, USA
Xiuping Li, National University of Singapore, Singapore
Liang Song, Beijing International Studies University, China

Compared to entity theorists, incremental theorists are more likely to engage in self-punishing behavior when a self-control failure is made salient. Such self-punishing behavior can be functional in restoring self-views and improving self-control in the threatened domain.

to sell or to donate: why special possessions are donated and not sold

Saurabh Rawal, University of Alberta, Canada
Robert Fisher, University of Alberta, Canada
Jennifer Argo, University of Alberta, Canada

Why do consumers donate rather than sell special possessions (SP)? Although it seems logical that consumers should seek financial compensation when disposing of SP, we find that SP are less likely to be sold (and more likely to be donated) than non-special possessions, because selling SP symbolically threatens the owners’ self-concepts.

role of authenticity in village tourism consumption: a netnographic analysis

Jyotsna Prashant, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India
Upendra Kumar Maurya, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, India

This paper explores the notion of authenticity of back stage experiences and presents netnographic analysis of village destinations to examine the role of authenticity and its indicators. We examine the importance of authenticity in tourism consumption, themes pertaining to authenticity of back stage experiences, implications, and future scope.

Understanding the Me in Facebook:
A Literature Review of Conspicuous Consumption in Social Media

R Rahul, Indian Institute of Management Kozhikode, India

This literature review organizes the fragmented literature on conspicuous consumption, probing the possibility of a grand theory of conspicuous consumption and further presents a compelling case by contrasting the social media behavior of status-seeking consumers against the traditional theories of conspicuous consumption.

How Service Interaction Drives Customer Value:
The Mediating Role of Customer – Environment Fit

Liang Hong, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Hongyan Yu, Sun Yat-sen University, China
Rong Liu, Nanchang University, China

From the perspective of individual-environment fit theory, we first propose the concept of customer-environment fit to explore how service interaction drives customer value. Empirical research results show that service interaction has a positive effect on both utilitarian value and hedonic value, and customer-environment fit plays a mediating role.

Don’t Talk, Text: Modality in Consumer Interactions With Human Versus AI Agents

Claudia Iglesias, Wilfrid Laurier University, Canada
Grant Packard, Wilfrid Laurier University, Canada

This research examines when and why consumers might trust their personal information to AI agents (e.g., Alexa, chatbots) more than human agents. We predict and find that while human agents are preferred in voice interactions, AI can be superior to humans in text-based interactions. Source credibility perceptions drive these effects.
When Might Better Services Lead to More Complaints?

Koji Matsushita, Chuo University, Japan
Haiyang Yang, Johns Hopkins University, USA
Kaichi Saito, Meiji Gakuin University, Japan
Haruko Tsuchihashi, Aoyama Gakuin University, Japan

When might better services lead to more complaints? We propose and show that in group-consumption contexts, complaint behaviors are driven by consumers’ individual consumption goals and their relationship goals. Getting services superior to other group members can hamper fulfillment of the latter goal, driving consumers who receive better services to complain more.
Author Index

A
A, Jose Manu M. .......................... 75
Adaval, Rashmi .......................... 41
Agrawal, Richa .......................... 36
Akamatsu, Naoki ........................ 4
Amar, Moty ................................ 47, 78
Antonetti, Paolo .......................... 70
Argo, Jennifer .............................. 80
Arnould, Eric John ......................... 71
Arora, Sunny ............................... 75

B
B., Parvathy ................................. 73, 78
Baines, Paul ................................. 70, 71
Balaji, Makam ............................... 77
Banerjee, Parthasarathi ................. 79
Banerjee, Ranjan ............................ 79
Banerjee, Shubhomoy ..................... 20
Batra, Rajeev ................................. 71
Belk, Russell ................................. 13
Bellezza, Silvia ............................... 30, 71
Bhattacharya, CB ............................ 71
Buck, Fang Yu ............................... 19

C
Cayla, Julien .................................. 56, 71
Chan, Fanny Fong Yee ..................... 43
Chang, Chia-Jung ........................... 74
Chang, Rong Syuan ........................ 74
Chang, Shing-Wan .......................... 75
Chaudhary, Ayush ........................... 78
Chaudhury, Shrinivani H .................. 73
Chauhan, Vishakha .......................... 76
Chen, Yvonne ............................... 77
Chevalier, Corrine ........................... 59
Cho, Hyun Young ............................ 49
Chun, Seungwoo ............................. 49
Chung, Myungjin ............................. 22

D
Das, Gopal ...................................... 29, 73, 75
Dawra, Jagrook .............................. 37
Drago, Keith ................................. 75
Duhachek, Adam ............................. 53

F
Fisher, Robert ............................... 80
Fukuda, Reo ................................... 4

G
Garg, Nitika .................................... 32, 57, 71, 73
Ghoshal, Tanuka ............................. 13, 71, 76, 79
Gladstone, Joe ............................... 30
Golf-Papez, Maja ............................ 40
Grégoire, Yaniv .............................. 63

H
Heideker, Silvia .............................. 1
Hong, Lai-Chi ................................. 80
Hou, Qingfeng ............................... 51
Hwang, Chunduk ............................. 49

I
Iglesias, Claudia .............................. 80
Isaac, Mathew ............................... 17, 26

J
Jaikumar, Saravana .......................... 45, 79
Jain, Shailendra Pratap ..................... 17, 70
Jiang, Yu Shi ................................. 74
Jiang, Xizi .................................... 73
Jie, Yun ........................................ 65, 76
Johar, Gita ..................................... 71, 80
Jonnalagedda, Sreelata ..................... 27

K
Kalro, Arti D. ................................ 75, 75, 77
Kapoor, Ankur ............................... 61
Kapoor, Anuj Pal ............................ 77
Kasingam, Dhurang Lingam .............. 76
Khalifa, Dina ................................ 75
Khamitov, Mansur .......................... 11, 34, 63
Kim, Tae Woo ............................... 53
Koukova, Nevena ............................ 67
Kumar, Sushant .............................. 79
Kumari, Rashmi .............................. 79
Kumbargeri, Amogh .......................... 76

L
Lan, Shin ....................................... 74
Lee, Jinh Suk ................................. 49
Leo, Cheryl .................................... 24
Li, Wei .......................................... 74
Li, Xinlin ...................................... 77
Li, Xiuping ................................... 80
Lin, Chieh-Yu ................................. 74
Liu, Rong ..................................... 78, 80
Loukidis, Grigoris ......................... 75
Lynden, Pree P. .............................. 73

M
Mahadevan, Dhriti ........................... 76
Maheswaran, Durairaj ........................ 76
Majumder, Minnayo .......................... 79
Malika, Malika ............................... 76
Masters, Tamara ............................. 19
Matsushima, Koji ............................. 81
Maurya, Upendra Kumar ................... 80
McShane, Blakeley .......................... 71
Meenakshi, N. ............................... 79
Mishra, Abhishek ............................ 78
Mishra, Anubhav ............................ 79
Mishra, Arul .................................. 54
Mishra, Himanshu ........................... 54
Moal-Ulvoas, Gaelle Marie ............... 59
Moore, Sarah ................................. 73
Moreau, Page ............................... 71
Mukhopadhyay, Anirban ................... 71, 73
Mulky, Avinash .............................. 74

N
Nanda, Ambika Prasad ........................ 79
Nandakumar, Nachiketas ................. 74
Narayanan, Sandhya ........................ 36
Nasa, Jayant ................................. 79

P
Packard, Grant .............................. 80
Pan, Nian-Chien ............................. 74
Pundey, Arpita ............................... 18
Park, Joon Woo ............................... 49
Peschken, Thomas ......................... 75
Pham, Chi ..................................... 57
Prashant, Jyotsna ............................ 80
Prashar, Sanjeev ............................. 73
Puzakova, Marina ........................... 34

Q
Qin, Yao ........................................ 74

R
Raghunathan, Raj ............................ 79
Rahul, R. ..................................... 80
Rai, Meenal Sameer ........................ 77
Ramasundaram, Aishwarya ............. 74
Ramteke, Shelly .............................. 19, 54
Ratnakaran, Sunitha ....................... 20
Rawal, Saurabh ............................... 80
Rehman, Varisha ............................. 9, 78
Reza, Sadaat ................................. 36

S
S, Shameem ................................. 79
Sadarangani, Pradip H ..................... 79
Sagar, Mahim ................................. 76
 Sahay, Arvind ............................... 61
Saini, Ritesh ................................. 22
Saito, Kazuhiro ............................... 81
Selvanayagam, Karthik ...................... 9
Sen, Sankar ................................. 71
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T</th>
<th>W</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tal, Aner</td>
<td>Wang, Xin (Shane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talukdar, Nabita</td>
<td>Wang, Yantao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tatavarthy, Aruna</td>
<td>Wang, Yu Ling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tewari, Shruti</td>
<td>Welte, Jean-Baptiste</td>
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<td>Thomson, Matthew</td>
<td>Wu, Jiaming</td>
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<td>Trehan, Shruti</td>
<td>Tsuchihashi, Haruko</td>
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