Preface

The third Latin American conference of the Association for Consumer Research was held from July 24-26, 2014 in Guadalajara, Mexico. We were privileged to have Tecnológico de Monterrey as the host of this conference.

In this occasion, the conference theme is “Understanding Consumers from an Emerging-Market Perspective”. The main purpose of this ACR Conference in Latin America was to increase academic research in consumer behavior from and for a Latin American perspective. And, the interest in the conference was demonstrated by the number of participants that submitted their work to the conference, as well as the support of volunteers that helped make our job of managing and completing the review process so much easier.

This proceeding contains abstracts and complete papers of presentations that were given in competitive paper sessions and poster sessions. We received 71 participants from 16 different countries. This diversity made possible the sharing of ideas and expertise from different points of view. Also this conference allowed the academic interaction between faculty (67% of participants), and doctoral students (33% of participants). We accepted 25 of 36 competitive paper submissions (70%) and 35 of 46 working papers (77%). We are deeply grateful to our International Program Committee, and our Competitive and Working paper reviewers.

This conference would not be possible without the tireless efforts of many dedicated, wonderful people, in particular Executive Director Rajiv Vaidyanathan, for his advice and encouragement during the process, and Co-chairs of various tracks, Maria de la Paz Toldos (Working Papers), Eduardo Esteva (Doctoral Pre-Conference), Maria Elena Vázquez (Journal Editors Review Board Members), and Silvia González (Special Sessions), for their tremendous support and hard work for this conference. And special thanks to our webmaster Alex Cherfas of ChilleeSys, Inc. for his patient and prompt management of the conference website.

It takes hard work to produce a conference such as the Latin American Conference, and there are many people who deserve additional thanks. We would like to thank our local committee, faculty members of the business school of Tecnológico de Monterrey, including Jorge Vega, Miguel López, Georgina Morales, Margarita Orozco, Mary Carmen López; and staff Gildardo Guzmán, Hector Aldrete, Juan Carlos Román, and Juan Vila, among others that made this event possible.

We thank our families for their support before and during the conference, which enabled us to have the time and enthusiasm to make possible the ACR Latin American Conference. Finally, we would like to thank the ACR Board, especially to Linda L. Price, President of ACR in 2014, who gave us the opportunity to host this ACR Latin American Conference in Mexico, at Tecnológico de Monterrey. We hope the experience was remarkable for all!

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Special Session Summary

Transformative Consumer Research in Latin America
Silvia González, Tecnológico de Monterrey
Patricia Pocovi-Leahy, ITESO

It has been a growing interest in incorporating research that focuses on social problems in different forums and conferences. For example, David Mick and others colleagues have been addressing the challenges that modern consumer society presents. In addition, in the call for papers of the 4th conference for TCR held last year in France was pointed out that “researches have a duty to use their knowledge and expertise to develop research and programs aimed at increasing societal welfare”. Meanwhile these efforts emerge in North America and Europe, in Latin America has been sparse work related to these topics from the consumer perspective so we also have this challenge to start working in this region.

During The 3rd ACR Latin America conference, it was held a session where was discussed some experiences related with topics as to generate knowledge about how consumer in need relate with the small producers and in which context these interactions occur. At the same time we can identify which tactics are used to influence consumption habits.

Transformative Consumer Research focuses on significant social problems and challenges presented by modern consumer society. It includes research on: materialism, poverty, subsistence markets, sustainability, at-risk consumers, role of technology, health and nutrition, children as consumers, ethical consumption, and fair trade, among others. During the session some of these topics were discussed.

As consequence of the session, some participants agreed to contribute with chapters on a book edited by Gonzalez and Pocovi.
If you Prick us do we not Bleed?

Humanoid Robots and Cyborgs as Consuming Subjects and Consumed Objects

Russell Belk, York University, Canada

INTRODUCTION

In Shakespeare’s The Merchant of Venice, after reminding the unsympathetic residents of Venice that the Jew has eyes, hands, organs, and senses like any other man, Shylock raises the rhetorical questions, “If you prick us do we not bleed? If you tickle us do we not laugh? If you poison us do we not die?” For robots, presumably, the answer to each of these questions would be “No!” Robots are not human. And yet, humanoid robots are getting close to becoming new household appliances. Unlike the decidedly non-humanoid self-propelled Roomba vacuums, it is predicted that in the next two decades we will see human-looking home robots.

We have long created robots in our own image. This makes them a very special type of consumption object. They seemingly have a “mind” of their own and potentially have certain intellectual and physical skills that exceed our own. No longer toys, the coming generation of household robots that are now in prototype stages will actually serve useful purposes like caring for children and elderly, defending us, cooking our meals, setting the table, and even serving as companions and sex objects. It is likely that with even the most rudimentary humanoid appearance, we will anthropomorphize these robots and interact with them as we have seen depicted in films and books. These humanoid robots raise a number of challenging and interesting issues for consumer research, with behavioral, social, moral, and legal implications.

Cyborgs, on the other hand, are augmented humans or organic robots. If we prick them they do bleed, even if their blood may be artificially synthesized. The phenomenon of the cyborg (cybernetic organism) involves the combination of humans and mechanical, pharmaceutical, or electronic augmentations. While both robots and cyborgs have long been depicted in science fiction novels and films, the issues differ. If the robot is an inhuman object, the cyborg is a quasi-human subject. Their humanity is thus more evident than the robot’s and they do not need to be anthropomorphized. They raise a different set of questions that are also behavioral, social, moral, and legal in nature.

Major inventions like the telephone and computer became metaphors for understanding our own behavior or emulating the invention’s functions (e.g., we are communicators or information processors), and robots are likely to be no exception (Hayles 1999). But until now modelling has been largely limited to the imitations of robotic street buskers and dance moves.

This paper outlines some of the issues that emerge from these developments and the consumer research questions they pose. It begins with a brief history of robots and cyborgs and the way they have been treated in folklore, myth, science fiction stories and films, advertising, and in the popular and academic press. I then present some of the basic issues raised by the coming of humanoid robots and cyborgs as consumer goods versus augmented humans, and call for consumer research on these issues.

Some of the differences between robots and cyborgs at the present time are highlighted by Benford and Malarte (2007):

Soon robots will be everywhere, performing surgery, exploring hazardous places, making rescues, fighting fires, handling heavy goods. After a decade or two they will be unremarkable as the computer screen is now...robots will increasingly blend in...The cyborgs will be less obvious. Many changes will be hidden from view. At first these additions to the human body will be interior, as rebuilt joints, elbows, and hearts are now. Then larger adjuncts will appear, perhaps on people’s heads or limbs. Soon we will cross the line between repair and augmentation, probably first in sports medicine and the military, then spreading to everyone who wants to make the body perform better (8).

At that point cyborgism and posthumanism begin to cross over into transhumanism, potentially allowing us to live indefinitely (Hughes 2004). Such developments, among other impacts, will force us to rethink what it means to be human. Boundaries like human/animal/machine, male/female, able-bodied/disabled, embodied/dis-embodied, and “real” self/avatars will all become blurred (Bernius 2012; Whitehead and Wesch 2012). Despite Benford and Malarte’s (2007) forecast of the normalization of robots, as these humanoid electronic machines become more like us, they too will help blur these boundaries and force us to rethink some of these definitions, shifting attention, for example, from human rights to robot rights.

A VERY BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ROBOT AND THE CYBORG

The term robot comes from Karel Čapek’s 1920 R.U.R. (R. U. R. sum’s Universal Robots) stage play first performed in 1921 in the Czech language. The term came from the Czech robota which means forced labor and deriving from rab meaning slave. Technically these creations were cyborgs or androids since they were imagined as organic creations. But our fascination with non-human beings with the appearance of being human goes back at least to the water-driven automata of Ctesibius in 270 BCE (Thordike 1958). Homer and Plato both wrote of statues coming to life and the Finnish Kareval folk tale about a woman of gold who came to live is even older. The Jewish legend of the clay Golem coming to life is contained in Talmudic writings of the 16th century. Following the Industrial Revolution a number of 19th century tales of robots and androids were written, the most famous of which is Mary Shelly’s Frankenstein.

Many science fiction stories in the 20th century helped to flesh out (so to speak) various images of robots. Isaac Asimov is one of the SF writers most concerned with robots. In his 1942 story “Run-around” he specified the “three laws of robots”: 1. a robot may not injure a human being or, through inaction, allow a human being to come to harm; 2. a robot must obey the orders given to it by human beings, except where such orders would conflict with the First Law; 3. a robot must protect its own existence as long as such protection does not conflict with the First or Second Law. A host of SF films, often based on SF novels, have also emerged since the early 20th century, beginning with the robot Maria in Fritz Lang’s Metropolis.

Other films and television series robots include The Terminator, The Stepford Wives, I, Robot, Data in Star trek: The Next Generation (although strictly speaking Data is an Android since he could ostensibly pass for human), Robbie the Robot in Forbidden Planet, Rosie in The Jetsons, Transformers, WALL-E, Astro Boy, the robots in Woody Allen’s Sleeper, and a host of robots in videogames and Japanese
manga and anime. Some of these images of robots are benevolent, while others are malevolent. They express both our hopes and fears about technology. Some like Ira Levin’s *The Stepford Wives* reveal a highly sexist idea of the perfect woman—obedient, ever-servile, beautiful, and without the will to demand anything for themselves (see also Campbell 2010).

Thomas Edison attempted to create an artificial woman in the early 20th century (Wood 2002). Jump ahead a century and there now at least 45 companies making robots ([http://www.robots.ru/robot-brands/](http://www.robots.ru/robot-brands/)). Honda’s ASIMO humanoid robot is one example ([http://asimo.honda.com/](http://asimo.honda.com/)). The 4-foot 3-inch robot looks like an astronaut with a backpack and can walk and climb stairs. It is a prototype for a future commercial robot intended to help care for and serve people within the home. Shaw-Garlock (2009) traces the particular Japanese embrace of humanoid robots to their legitimation of “Dutch Wives” (artificial sex dolls) for men without partners as well as Japan’s fond regard for robot manga and anime like Might Atom (Astro Boy). Orbaugh (2002) finds a long history of robots and sex in manga and detects a variety of additional dimensions including human-robot (or cyborg) interbreeding. Hornyak (2006) also notes that from the first modern humanoid robot made in Japan in 1928, they were regarded as not only human but as part of the extended family.

This differs from cyborgs which have received more mixed media treatments. Cyborgs also have a large representation in SF stories and films. We normally think of humans adding non-human enhancements to become cyborgs, but in Isaac Asimov’s “The Bicentennial Man” a robot begins to enhance itself with organic additions. *Blade Runner*’s replicants are ostensibly human clones, but have enhanced abilities. Human-machine hybrids are evident in *Johnny Mnemonic*, *Blade Runner*, *Star Wars*, *Ironman*, and *Phantom of the Opera*

Although some real life cyborgs like performance artist Stellarc have called attention to their experiments with third arms and ears, remote sensing of another’s feelings, and muscle and mind control of artificial appendages, it is primarily academic writings that discuss real world cyborgs of the present or future. As Lai (2012) notes emerging controversies cluster around technologies such as organ transplantation, xenotransplantation (artificially grown organs and organs from animals), stem cell therapy, DNA insemination to create transgenic animals, and cloning. Slightly less controversial cyborg developments include *Botox* (Giesler 2012), plastic surgery (Schouten 1991), and performance-enhancing drugs (Caitland and Murray 1996).

**CONSUMPTION AND SOCIAL ISSUES WITH ROBOTS**

While Haraway (1991) envisioned the sexually empowered female cyborg, the greater tendency with robots has been female objectification. From *Metropolis’s* Maria to Japanese manga and robots in contemporary advertising (Campbell 2010), most fictional female robots have been hypersexualized. This combines the ultimate male sexist fantasy of controlling women and machines at the same time (Campbell 2010). Moreover when eroticism and eroticism are combined, as Campbell finds in her analysis of SF images of female robots:  
... the metal is smooth and curved in an exaggerated manner at the breasts and buttocks. But while the metallic exterior serves to eroticize the futuristic female body, it simultaneously masks its erotic gaze by drawing attention to the technicity of the surface.

This inspires both the male gaze and the technological gaze—a double objectification. And robot skin never ages, wrinkles, shows stretch marks, varicose veins, or fat.

There are already companies selling sophisticated sex robots for $7000–$9000, almost exclusively female robots targeted at men (Yeoman and Mars 2011). Turkle (2011) recalls being interviewed by a journalist who asked her what she thought of humans marrying robots as lifelong companions who would satisfy all of their physical and emotional needs. When she responded that it was a terrible idea because robots can’t feel, the journalist accused her of being a bigot of the same sort as those who oppose inter-racial and gay marriages. But the question brings up deeper issues of whether as humanoid robots appear and act more like us as well as interact by reading our emotions and responding to us, a robot can substitute for a human. If so, this suggests that not only is the robot elevated but the human is demoted in significance.

It is little wonder that a conference was held in Amsterdam to envision a world in which the future of sex tourism was one of paying to have sex with robots. As Yeoman and Mars (2011) explain the result would be clean, free of sexually transmitted diseases, available in whatever permutation desired, with robots happy (if robots can be happy) to perform any sexual service imaginable, including those not humanly possible. Not that sexual robots would preclude patrons developing their own feelings toward them. In the *Star Trek Voyager* series there is an episode about falling in love with a robot and the recent film *Her* creates a plausible story of a man falling in love with his Siri-like helper on his smart phone.

A further issue raised by the more general elevation of the status of humanoid robots to something closer to humans, is what rights they may have. In an episode of *Star Trek: Next Generation* called “The Measure of a Man,” the android/robot Data is to be disassembled for parts. There is a trial to establish his humanness and human rights (Short 2011). He is saved not only by demonstrating his sentience, but also his emotions. The story highlights the issue of how humanoid robots may change the notion of what it means to be human. Already there are studies replicating Stanley Milgram’s experiments but in which subjects happily “shock” animatronic robots without mercy (Spiegel 2013). Just as we now decry spousal and child abuse, perhaps we may become concerned with robot abuse as a case of minority rights. It may be however that there are differences depending on how human a robot appears to be. As it appears more human we may treat it more humanely, at least to a point. Masharior Mori (1970) posited the “uncanny valley” whereby when a robot looks too human we may find it unsettling.

A further issue noted by Belk (2013) is the degree to which we may identify with our robots, in the same way that we identify with our avatars. With avatars we progressively feel that the representation is us as we spend more time with it and learn to control it better (Biocca 2006). Perhaps the same will happen with robots. We may come to feel the robot’s “pain” if it jumps into something, and see it as an intimate extension of our self (Belk 1988; 2013).

**CONSUMPTION AND SOCIAL ISSUES WITH CYBORGS**

We might distinguish the treatments of the cyborg from treatments of the posthuman, which de-emphasize the body (Campbell, et al. 2006; Giesler 2012; Giesler and Venkatesh 2005). As Hayles (1999) specifies, “. . . the posthuman view thinks of the body as the original prostheses we all learn to manipulate, so that extending or replacing the body with other prostheses becomes a continuation of a process that began before we were born” (3).

Rutsky (1999) argues that:  
The mutant posthuman status is not a matter of armoring the body, adding robotic prostheses, or technologically transferring consciousness from the body . . . It is rath-
er a matter of unsecuring the subject, of acknowledging the relations and mutational processes that constitute it. … It would involve opening the boundaries of individual and collective identity, changing the relations that have distinguished between subject and object, self and other, us and them (21-22).

Haraway (1991) also acknowledges this permeable boundary condition in the cyborg.

Regardless of whether we see this fusing with objects and others as cyborgian or posthuman, it marks a fundamental departure from the extended self as originally conceived (Belk 1988). For rather than metaphorically extending the self outward with the aid of prosthetic posses-sions and layers of others, it involves an opening inward and a fusing of the body with other people and things. This has the potential to invert the notion of extended self, transforming it into the incorporative self—something that almost defines the cyborg.

Lai’s (2012) consumer informants identified three concerns regarding medical augmentation of the human body. The first involved issues of perceived contamination of bodily purity. Unlike the traditional positive extended self, this is felt as a negative intrusion. However, many transplant recipients feel they have received positive traits from the donor, including an urge toward generosity (Belk 1990). More fearful for Lai’s informants was receiving an organ from a pig; they feared that they would acquire ursine qualities as a result. A Second fear expressed was that of becoming regarded as little more than a warehouse of organs, as envisioned in Robin Cook’s 1977 book Coma. While fiction at the time, the growing acceptance of “brain death” as a medical and legal death in North America has fostered something not too dissimilar (Sharp 2006), leading Younger (1996) to call this “normal cannibalism.” A third concern of Lai’s (2012) informants was that genetically cloned, engineered, or enhanced cyborgs might become half-bred second class citizens lacking the full rights of humans. In contrast to the concern that robots may gain human or superhuman rights, this is an opposite fear of cyborgs being relegated to subhuman rights.

This returns us to the issue of what it means to be human versus animal versus machine—issues as old as philosophy, but which are acquiring fuzzier boundaries in an era of humanoid robots and cyborgs. The underlying fear here involves our personhood. If we are little different from animals, we lose our illusion of human superiority; if we are little different from machines, we may be little more than replaceable commodities. And if we see ourselves as commodities, we may also begin to treat others as expendable commodities (Ramey 2005).

There is a reason that we have more mixed and negative reactions to cyborgs than we do to robots. Haraway (1991) notes that monsters have long defined the limit of “us” by specifying that which clearly is not us. But Schildrick (2002) argues that the monster is close enough that we can nevertheless see a feared image of our self in it. Rayner (1994) draws the link to cyborgs: “…monstrosity is seen as an ‘unnatural’ grafting of two different kinds or species of beings, not unlike the cyborg” (126). This grafting is seen in organ transplantation, grafting of artificial devices like heart stimulators into the body, and even Google glass as a self-prosthesis that others seem to find intrusive. Perhaps we will come to assimilate these bodily augmentations as we have eyeglasses, dentures, and our ever-close smartphones. Which cyborgian prosthetic devices we most readily incorporate into the self also remains an open question.

CONCLUSION

The robots are coming. Cyborgs are already among us. The human appearance of robots and the human basis of cyborgs should first cause us to ask how we think about robots and cyborgs. Are they humans, machines, hybrids, liaisons to technology, possessions, or some entirely new category of being? The issues differ between robots and cyborgs in areas such as “human” rights, self-extension, anthropomorphism, commodification, ownership, and the body. But both pose challenges to our own sense of identity and distinction. Questions we could not previously seriously contemplate may need to be entertained: Should I marry a robot? Is sex with a robot wrong? Do I trust a robot to care for my parents or children? Are drug-enhanced soldiers or athletes immoral? Should I choose my children’s intellect, hair and eye color, height, and so forth? Is laboratory grown meat as ethical as vegetarianism? Should a 70 year-old be able to purchase the youth and appearance of a 20 year-old? There are many such questions that are clearly consumer research questions with social, ethical, legal, and behavioral implications.

But we don’t yet have the conceptual frameworks for addressing such issues. Few, if any, of us are doing work with consumers interacting with robots. Only a few of are addressing issues of cyborg consumption. We need to begin addressing these topics now. Perhaps as the categories of humans, humanoid robots, and cyborgs increasingly blur, the answer to Shylock’s question will be one of the few remaining indicants of our humanity.

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If you Prick us do we not Bleed? Humanoid Robots and Cyborgs as Consuming Subjects and Consumed Objects


Go for it and Share it:
the Power of Facebook to Maintain Health Related Goals
Alicia de la Pena, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Claudia Quintanilla, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico

INTRODUCTION
It is January First and the list of resolutions for the New Year is a long one. Most of the lists begin with health-related goals: to lose weight, to exercise more, to quit smoking…. But how long do individuals stick to their New Year’s goals? Do such resolutions always end in new habits?

Despite individuals’ good intentions, most health-related goals go unfulfilled and the new bike remains in the garage, the low fat foods get stale in the pantry and the pounds keep adding on (Dalton and Spiller 2012). In fact, the correlations between intentions to change and goal accomplishment are modest: intentions account for only 20 to 30% of the variance in behavior (Gollwitzer 1999).

While the list of health resolutions remains hidden in a drawer, the obesity rates around the World keep growing. In 2008, overweight and obesity were estimated to afflict nearly 1.5 billion adults worldwide and at least 2.8 million adults die each year as a result of being overweight or obese, a situation that can be corrected with preventive measures such as a healthy diet and physical activity (Popkin, Adair and Wen Ng 2011; World Health Organization, 2012). Despite the well-established protective effects of a healthy diet and physical activity on all-cause mortality most people are physically inactive and eating unhealthy diets, therefore public institutions, civil organizations and private firms are making big efforts to promote healthy lifestyles and a change in behavior patterns (Ba and Wang 2013; Scammon et al. 2011).

One way to promote both, healthy lifestyles and change in behavior is the Internet. Previous research shows that is easier for consumers to share health-related information on line and build virtual communities to find information and support; or to join others in committing to a challenging goal such as losing weight or running a half-marathon (Ba and Wang 2013; Burke and Settles 2011); therefore the purpose of this research is to explore on whom or what motivates people to translate their good intentions into actions to reach their health goals and to shed light on how they obtain support from peers and friends on Social Network Sites (SNS). To explore these issues, our research includes locating user-generated content on Facebook regarding healthy eating and physical activity (Kozinetz 2010).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

From intentions to actions
Health compromising behaviors, such as lack of physical activity and bad dietary habits are hard to change (Schwarzer 2008), so how do we engage an individual to turn his intentions into specific plans to achieve his health goals? Successful goal attainment requires to get started and to be persistent until the goal is reached (Gollwitzer 1999), it sounds easy, but usually it is not that easy.

According to Ajzen’s (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) individuals have all the necessary resources, skills and abilities to perform the behavior at will. A central factor in the TBP is the individual’s intention to perform a given behavior. Intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence a behavior; they are indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior.

Thus, we suggest that individuals willing to change their health compromising behaviors and translate them into health enhancing behaviors (e.g. going on a diet, quit smoking, etc.) need motivation to initiate the change and to maintain the desired outcome (Moorman and Mutulich 1993); such motivation can come from supporting members of their community who at the same time can provide them with knowledge and tools to help them achieve the desired behavior (Ba and Wang 2013; Ballantine and Stephenson 2011; Burke and Settles 2011; Heinonen 2011).

Social Media and Social Support
Previous research shows that communities can be considered as intereners that facilitate physical activity and healthy lifestyles in accessible, easy and affordable ways to everyone by providing an environment that supports appropriate food choices and encourages healthy behaviour (Bors et al. 2009; Bowen and Hilliard 2006; Cheng, Kotler and Lee 2011). But do the same happen in virtual communities? Do individuals find an adequate environment and positive social support in the virtual world in order to attain their health goals easily?

Social network sites (SNS) have the potential to reach large populations at low cost to generate buzz that can lead to active participation in physical activities or to encourage people to monitor their food intake (Ba and Wang 2013; Fox 2008; Royne and Levy 2011; Turner-McGrievy and Tate 2013). Research related to SNS and health has addressed the role of SNS in providing social and emotional support; guidance; facilitating behavior change interventions; connecting individuals to resources and raising awareness about health-related issues (Buechel and Berger 2012; Liang and Scammon 2011; Woolley and Peterson 2012). One of the most successful SNS is Facebook, which accounts with at least 937.4 millions of users (Internet World Stats 2012). Facebook, allow users to leave their network friends private and public messages, share photos or videos and become members of a wide range of interest groups (Ballantine and Stephenson 2011; Oré and Sieber 2011). These communities become virtual social spaces where people come together to get and give information or support, to learn or to find company. They tend to be characterized according to the activity (e.g. support) or the people that they serve (e.g. breast cancer survivors), or the communication technology that supports them, (Hunt, Atkin and Krishnan 2012). By using online communities, individuals can chat on the website, blog about their health-related problems, and support each other with recommendations. In certain communities, members can update their health information and receive tailored suggestions such as daily calorie intake and customized exercise plans; as well as motivational messages and support from their friends (Ba and Wang 2013; Ballantine and Stephenson 2011; Burke and Settles 2011; Liang and Scammon 2011; Sarason et al. 1983).

Specifically two types of support can be transmitted through SNS: informational support in the form of advice or suggestions; and emotional support, such as comfort and encouragement (Heaney and Israel 2008). Through the interpersonal exchanges within a social network, individuals are influenced and supported in health behavior changes such as weight loss and smoking cessation (Ballantine and Stephenson 2011; Buechel and Berger 2012; Burke, Kraute and Marlow 2013; Heaney and Israel, 2008).
Based on how individuals communicate online two types of support are identified: active social support that occurs when participants interact with others in the SNS, by commenting on some other’s “wall”; or passive social support received by individuals who decide to read the posts on the walls, and not to contribute to the social interactions (Ballantine and Stephenson 2011). A passive member of the online community or lurker still receives social support by reading the weight loss testimonies of others (Hwang et al., 2013; Liang and Scammon 2011; Schlosser 2005). Thus, we suggest that a Facebook community can become the place where individuals find the social support that will provide them with the information, encouragement and motivation needed to reach their health goals.

METHODOLOGY

Netnography

A covert Netnography (Langer and Beckman 2005; Kozinets 2006, 2010; Swift and Tischler 2010) was conducted to explore Facebook users’ behavior regarding themes of health goals attainment, physical activity and healthy eating (Hackley 2003).

Data Collection

The data collection included random discussion published in four Facebook groups related with health, weight management and physical activity. The first Facebook page selected is Fooducate (https://www.facebook.com/#!/fooducate?fref=ts), a personal grocery advisor, designed to help people make healthy food choices for their families. The second one is Rapport (https://www.facebook.com/#!/groups/236730866367592/?fref=ts), a private company established in the north of Mexico which mission is to help people achieve physical and mental goals using neurolinguistic programming and physical activity training. The Weight Watchers (https://www.facebook.com/weightwatchers) constitutes the third group under study. Weight Watchers is a leading, global provider of weight management services committed to providing a comprehensive approach to weight loss in a sustainable way by helping individuals adopt a healthier lifestyle and a healthier relationship with food and activity. And the fourth Facebook page selected for the study is called Movement I love Me the Most (https://www.facebook.com/yomeamomas?fref=ts), a website dedicated to promote a healthy lifestyle using contests among fans; posting videos and texts regarding diet, exercise and well-being.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis and interpretation that this study undertakes includes 85 screen shots and 672 posts from the four Facebook communities that were coded and classified in terms of types of posts, specific themes and the social support they seek and/or provide. The analysis and interpretation of the texts was performed in line with those adopted by the mainstream methods (Boush and Kahle 2005; Liang and Scammon 2011).

FINDINGS

Our research suggests that Facebook provides three tools that can be used to demonstrate active and passive social support: one-click communications tools with the buttons “Like” and “Share”; and personalized communications with the button “Comment” that allows Facebook friends to comment on others’ posts. These tools allow individuals to receive immediate feedback and collaborations from other users. We suggest that there are different levels of support on Facebook. According to our observations a “Like” offers a weak support; while a “Comment” and “Share” denote a full and more active support from online friends who take the time to read the original post and provide an specific answer or observation for the support seeker.

“Like” can be understood as a virtual empathy tool that implicitly says: “I saw your post and somehow I agree with it, therefore I acknowledge your post by clicking on it”; while a comment can provide a reward or positive reinforcement (Bandura 1977) that demonstrates active support. A “Comment” means that the user not only saw/read the post but that he/she took the time to make a comment (either negative or positive) denoting that the post was seen and deserved an answer. A “Share” can even imply feeling proud of the achievements of the support seeker; and, as Liang and Scammon (2011) suggest, become at the same time a tool to provide informational and emotional support to others by re-posting or sharing an original thread, and a way to establish virtual relationships (Belk, 2013). The following conversation shows how support can be provided by Weight Watchers’ friends:

Xolisa: “I can’t wait to start...I’m currently pregnant.......can I do WW while pregnant???”

Suzanne: “Ur not supposed to lose weight when ur pregnant, so ww doesn’t let u participate in the program they do have a program for nursing moms”.

Jennifer: “No can’t do while pregnant you need the calories plus your doctor will keep you informed if he/she feels you need help they’ll refer you to a specialist. Congratulations and enjoy. WW after pregnant plus extra points in nursing”.

This thread demonstrates that with the help of the support providers, the support seeker has information to make a decision before undertaking a health compromising behavior, such as dieting while pregnant.

Are friends and family your worst enemies?

Although SNS make it easier to connect with both strong and weak ties (Wilcox and Stephen, 2013) it is hard to assess who provides the best support when trying to engage into a healthy behavior. In some posts loved ones provide the inspiration and motivation to be healthy, but in others family members do not seem to help:

“Support from family is great. Learning to resist the food that other people want to have in the house is difficult” (Alice, W.W.)

“WW is great if you have the will power and you take the time to plan what you eat. It is a bit hard when you have to cook for and feed a family” (Laura, W.W.).

“I did try to lose weight. But my family is not helping. They make nasty comments that make my self-esteem go low” (Sandra, Fooducate).

“It should be like that – family helping other members to lose weight- but, everybody in my house believes I run a restaurant. They want a buffet like meal all the time, including scrumptious desserts” (Hury, Fooducate).

“My fiancée and my family are essential to the process. They see my dedication and my success and support me 100 percent” (Rob, W.W.)

“Meet my fuel and engine: MY FAMILY! Thanks for being by my side” (Tencha, Rapport).

The findings suggest that people have an overwhelming need to share their emotional experiences; as well as their fears and doubts regarding health with others. The social sharing of emotion can provide immediate benefits, boosting well-being by increasing perceived social support (Buechel and Berger, 2012).
Making a commitment to reach a goal

According to social facilitation theory people perform better in the presence of others (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, making a goal public, increases commitment, in part because people do not want to appear inconsistent or irrational in front of others. By telling people about your goal, you feel social pressure to stick to the goal and comply with yourself and with others (Hollenbeck, Williams and Klein, 1989). The following comments express exactly that:

“Why do I use the app? It is simple. It is a matter of peer pressure. By making it public it compromises me with all my Facebook friends. And that way, I stay away from tobacco” (Guillermo, Rapport).

“I train for half marathons. Always have a goal and then tell everyone about it. Makes you motivated since everyone knows. And you get cheers along the way!” (Diana, Fooducate).

Sharing the goals and the achievements

By making self-disclosure convenient and less threatening, online social networks likely provide a perfect environment for those who fail to reach their goals and are seeking help to begin again in their task:

“I’ve been on WW several times. The last time I lost 40 and once again fell off the wagon. Need to get back on. The plan DOES work I just need to get motivated. Please help me!!!!” (Antoinette, W.W.)

“I am going to try the online W.W. and pray it works. I am a yooy for 20lbs.” (Tammie, W.W.)

“I am a confessed lapsed member. I need to get back on track. But I need motivation I am tired of being fat and UGLY! Such a struggle!!!!” (Kelly, W.W.)

Findings also suggest that members who take advantage of the social features (i.e. photo sharing, making comments, like, etc.) of Facebook perform better on their individual goals than those who do not. People who collaborate are more likely to make it all the way to the finish line. It may be that the tight connection with another goal-seeker increases persistence, or that the partner inspires new ideas, reducing the chances of failure as we can observe in the following posts:

“I lost 50 lbs. doing exercise. I look back at pictures and it motivates more than I can say” (Dave, Fooducate).

“My final ‘a-ha’ moment was when I saw pictures from my godson’s baptism. I thought, “Oh my god, I’m huge and I’m not going to get to see him grow up.” Around the same time I was prescribed drugs for high cholesterol and high blood pressure. My doctor said if I didn’t change something, I’d have a heart attack. Those two events combined gave me the final push I needed to do something about my weight once and for all.” (Alexis, W.W.)

“I publish photos of healthy food to show others the delight to eat a balanced meal instead of something fast at Carl’s Jr. or Starbucks. I use Instagram and it immediately uploads the photo to my Facebook profile” (Joorhe, Rapport).

The qualitative analysis also reveals that sharing physical activity information via smartphone apps impacts feelings of connectedness among members of certain Facebook communities; it also provides a tool that can be used to encourage others to change their current behavior and engage into a healthier one, as the following comment demonstrates:

“I use Nike + iPod and I am surprised with my own results. That’s why I share the information with my friends.

I want to let them know that I have changed, that I am a healthier person and that they too, can embrace new habits and get rid of alcohol and tobacco addictions. It is like my own positive advertising campaign” (Sergio, Rapport).

I use Points Plus Diary on my android phone and love it. It always works, keeps great track of points, activity and favorite foods, recipes, etc. and I can email the results to myself to keep a hard copy of my progress (Sterret, W.W.).

These findings about the tools and features provided by Facebook and the way users are taking advantage of them provide evidence for our research propositions. Supporting members of the community can provide with knowledge, motivation and tools to those interested in acquiring the same health enhancing behaviors; and at the same time the Internet makes it easy to track milestones and post or receive encouragement to attain the desired goals.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The four Facebook communities examined in this study offer an online social support network for individuals to give and/or receive support in achieving their health related goals. They provide an open space for posting, share their exercise experience, ask specific questions about diet, exercise or sport injuries, comment on others’ stories, and answer others’ questions.

The results of the Netnography highlight how a social network can provide informational and emotional support, as well as tangible assistance to help people in their daily live decisions and actions. Some SNS, like Weight Watchers enable individuals to monitor their goals; others, like Rapport and Movement provide with motivation to change their lifestyles. While Fooducate has become a useful tool to acquire nutritional knowledge, and demystify some foods and beverages, becoming an aid for individuals in their shopping decisions.

The current research helps shed light on why consumers seek social support in online social networking. Results suggest that Facebook communities like Fooducate and Weight Watchers not only provide virtual tools that enable people to track their own physical activity levels and calorie consumption, they also connect users to a community of like-minded people willing to share their success stories, and answer others’ questions.

The results of the Netnography highlight how a social network can provide informational and emotional support, as well as tangible assistance to help people in their daily live decisions and actions. Some SNS, like Weight Watchers enable individuals to monitor their goals; others, like Rapport and Movement provide with motivation to change their lifestyles. While Fooducate has become a useful tool to acquire nutritional knowledge, and demystify some foods and beverages, becoming an aid for individuals in their shopping decisions.

For policy makers and health marketers interested in understanding how individuals seek and receive social support to achieve their health-related goals, these Netnography provides rich and interesting first hand data that can be useful to design specific communication campaigns, and social network sites dedicated to the promotion of healthy behaviors.

Future research can be conducted to measure how individuals perceive such support demonstration and if the three different tools of Facebook: Like, Share, Comment, offer different levels of support in the process. What has more power? A simple Like or a thoughtful Comment? Do individuals who post their pictures and milestones, feel community support when they see that others share their photos; or is the support bigger when followers take the time to make a comment?

Although the Netnography provided rich and interesting first hand data regarding how individuals seek and receive social support to achieve their health-related goals a quantitative study can be conducted to measure specific elements of social support on SNS: number of comments received; Likes received; Messages received;
Wall posts received; Content friends saved on their wall; and Photos tagged in can indicate active social support. While measures like Profiles viewed; News feed stories clicked on; and Photos viewed can become indicators of passive social support. Given that social media allow individuals to stay connected with hundreds of virtual friends it will be also interesting to study if the perceived support is different when it comes from immediate friends (i.e. strong ties) who at the same time interact face to face with the individual, and also post comments on the individual’s personal Facebook page; or when the comments are from more distant friends (i.e. weak ties) that belong to a virtual community. This research can be helpful to extend our understanding on how the mixing of offline and online social support aids individuals to reach and maintain their health related goals.

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INTRODUCTION

The world is older than it has ever been before and, further, much of it is aging at a more rapid pace. People are living longer and fewer babies are being born. Yet the consumer research literature has paid amazingly little attention to our elders and has maintained its focus on the “youth market” despite its relatively dwindling size. The dramatic global shift towards a greater percentage of elderly people has moved Gentry (2013) to identify the quality of life of the elderly as THE consumer research issue of the future.

The relatively limited academic literature in marketing on the elderly has done very little to prepare business for the vastly changing environment of the future. The 2013 JCR article by Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) is a marvelous first attempt to fill this vacuum. Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) attack the dominant stereotype of very old consumers as “solitary survivors” that has been generated by the extensive literature on the family life cycle; they make clear that the very old are not social isolates, but rather are members of consumption ensembles that include family and/or paid caregivers. Further, they challenge the chronological perspective of age by introducing the “old” and “not old” categories, with the latter including people who are seen to be much younger than their chronological age might indicate. We believe that this distinction will be very useful in determining whether a firm markets to the elderly themselves, or to their caregivers.

Responding to Barnhart and Penaloza’s (2013) call to move beyond chronological age as a measure of oldness, we investigate how perceptions of oldness relate to consumption behaviors. Previous consumer research in the area, using the chronological age perspective, has looked at cognitive decline (John and Cole 1986; Law et al. 1998; Yoon 1997), vulnerability (Lee and Geistfeld 1999), cognition and decision making (Cole et al. 2008; Nasco and Hale 2009; Williams and Drolet 2005), needs and wants when shopping (Myers and Lumbers 2008; Pettigrew et al. 2005), and brand choices and loyalty (Lambert-Pandraud and Laurent 2010). Further, none of these studies included respondents older than 80, limiting insights as to the old old. Similarly, we find some fault with much of the work by George Moschis, the first consumer researcher to focus on the elderly decades ago, which used 50 and over as the operational definition of elderly. Like Barnhart and Penaloza, we approach “old” not as an objective measure of time on earth, but as a social construction and identity that we assign to others and that we (if we are lucky) will one day claim. Approaching “old” in this manner makes it possible for us to consider not just how the elderly consumer’s “age” influences his/her consumption, but also how the perceptions of others influence it.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the framework generated in the Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) study in greater depth through a survey of older working adults’ perceptions of the Old and Not Old, and of the relationship between those perceptions and everyday consumer activities.

THE RAPIDLY AGING WORLD

For the first time in recorded history, there are more old people (>60) on the planet than there are young children (under 15). The world has never been so OLD. Moreover, the world is getting older rapidly. In the last six decades, the percentage of people in the world over 60 increased from 8% to 10%. In the next two decades, it will increase to 22%, seeing an increase from 800 million people over the age of 60 to two billion. Most systems, including marketing ones, are not prepared for old culture. Ashenburg (2011) noted that “old age is a largely unexplored and unmapped country obscured by prejudice and myth.”

Until the 20th century, the average life expectancy globally was 30 (Williams and Krakauer 2012). Over ten years ago, the Economist (2002) noted that, despite obvious aging and the role of Baby Boomers in the economy, business remained largely obsessed with youth. It does not appear that much has changed since then. Carstensen and Ford (2012) noted that the world is still immersed in cultures oriented to lives half as long as the ones people are living, and stated (p. 12) that “not only are cultures youth-oriented in the popular sense of favoring the young, but physical and social environments and institutions are quite literally built by and for young people.”

Hayes (2004) reported that Jane Bradley, the director of sales and marketing of the 50 Plus magazine, estimated that only 5% to 10% of media spending is directed at the 50-plus demographic, though its free-spending members represent nearly half of the North American population. Similarly, Milner, Van Norman, and Milner (2012) assert that 95% of ads target those 35 or younger. The cultural shock of dealing with a very old consumer market in most of the world (with exceptions such as India, the Middle East, and Sub-Saharan Africa) will require major adjustments. While some areas are younger now than most of the world, even those areas will see increasing numbers of people over 60, and changing family norms will present complex quality of life issues for the elderly. For example, while the median age of Africa today is less than 20, its number of people over 60 is projected (Aboderin 2012) to increase from 56 million in 2010 to 716 million by the end of the century.

BARNHART AND PENALOZA FRAMEWORK

In their study of older consumers (ages 82-90) and their adult children and paid caregivers, Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) distinguish chronological aging from “getting old;” that is, becoming a member of the old age group as it is socially constructed in contemporary American culture. From informants’ descriptions of “old people” and explanations of what it means to be old, Barnhart and Penaloza derived 13 meaning continua that are instrumental in distinguishing those who are Not Old from those who are Old: flexible to rigid, joyful to joyless, sharp to confused, aware to unaware, clean to dirty, productive to unproductive, active to inactive, engaged to disengaged, safe to at-risk, independence to dependence, integration to isolation, control to deference, and reciprocation to unilaterality. For each continuum, informants in the study associated the first meaning with being Not Old and the second, less culturally valued meaning with being Old.

Limiting their analysis to the context of consumption, Barnhart and Penaloza defined each of the meaning continua as follows. Flexible to rigid refers to how adaptable a person is to new situations, willingness to try new products and services, and flexibility in his/her daily routine. Joyful to joyless denotes finding joy in and happily engaging in consumption activities. Sharp to confused signifies having consistent preferences and understanding, remembering, and synthesizing information. Aware to unaware indicates one’s degree of awareness of her surroundings and the condition of her clothing.
Clean to dirty describes the cleanliness of the body, clothing, and home. Productive to unproductive concerns one’s degree of productivity and creativity expressed in consumption. Active to inactive refers to physical movement and is often associated with going outside the home. Engaged to disengaged denotes how engaged the older person is in consumption events as well as how well s/he keeps up with market innovations. Safe to at-risk signifies how physically and financially safe one is when she consumes. Independence to dependence concerns the degree of assistance one receives from others in consumption activities. Integration to isolation describes the degree of social contact one experiences in consumption. Control to deference represents the degree to which authority in a consumption event is exercised by the older person or yielded to others. Finally, reciprocation to unilateralism indicates the degree to which provision of assistance is reciprocated.

Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) further investigated informants’ production of these meanings in their everyday consumption activities, identifying ten categories of activities with which older informants received assistance or that informants anticipated the older consumers would need help with in the future. Categories included personal care such as bathing and dressing, driving, doctor visits, shopping, organizing and taking medications, preparing meals, housekeeping, home and yard maintenance, personal business such as responding to mail and paying bills, and travel. Barnhart and Penaloza found that the ways in which the elderly person consumes is influenced by his/her interpretation of whether he/she is old or not old. Furthermore, the ways in which the older person performs consumption activities influences others’ interpretation of whether or not she is old and how they treat him/her when assisting him/her with an activity. For instance, a daughter who believes that her father sometimes gets confused may accompany her father to a doctor’s appointment to discuss her father’s care plan with her doctor. In doing so, they may not provide her father much opportunity to participate in the conversation, thus treating him as if he is disengaged. In their talk and actions, the daughter and doctor reveal their perception of the father as an old person who is confused and disengaged. In addition, they treat him as if he is an old person, a categorization possibly inconsistent with his identity.

Barnhart and Penaloza’s study provides unique insight into the complexity of oldness in contemporary American society as experienced by older consumers, their family members, and their paid service providers. In the current research, we use Barnhart and Penaloza’s framework as a starting point for a quantitative investigation of perceptions of oldness commonly held by adults working in the United States. Specifically, we investigate these adults’ assessments of others whom they view as “young for their age” and “old for their age.”

**METHOD**

In this study, we quantify Barnhart and Penaloza’s (2013) framework to identify the strength and relative importance of the various characteristics they identified as indicative of ‘being Old and Not Old’, and we relate participants’ perceptions of these characteristics to their perceptions of the elderly person’s health and comfort with consumption tasks. To do this, we first operationalized Barnhart and Penaloza’s (2013) list of consumption activities and the thirteen pairs of opposing attributes they identify as meaning continua into a set of survey items.

Attribute pairs were turned into semantic differential items. Some attribute pairs were taken directly from the previous research (e.g. Flexible to rigid), while others had to be adapted to ensure that respondents would understand the meaning of the terms outside the context of the original research findings (e.g. “control/deference” was transformed to “In control, makes his/her own decisions/Defers, others make decisions for him/her.”). In addition, the meaning continuum “safe/at-risk” was separated into the two components of its definition, physical and financial safety (“physically safe/physically at risk” and “financially safe/financially at risk”) to avoid double-barreled questions.

Respondents were first asked to think of an older individual they knew personally, such as a family member or friend, who seemed young for their age. With this individual in mind, the respondent was asked to give his or her perceptions of the person’s health (poor to excellent), to provide assessments of this individual on the semantic differential scales of the Old and Not Old attributes, and to evaluate the individual’s comfort with various consumption tasks. Respondents were then asked to complete the same questions with regard to an older individual they knew who seemed old for their age. In addition, age and gender of the respondent and the gender of the referent individual were collected.

The sample selected for this study was senior faculty and staff at a large Midwestern university, a total of 424 individuals. The survey and its accompanying materials were created and administered online via Qualtrics. Individuals were emailed three invitations (one initial invitation and two reminders) including information regarding informed consent, and a unique survey link that prevented multiple entries. All responses were anonymous. No rewards were given to respondents in exchange for their participation. Of the 424 sampled individuals, 174 clicked the link in the email to reach the survey and 119 completed the survey, for a final AAPOR Response Rate of 28%. Though we cannot be certain that all respondents have been or are caregivers, we assert that the sample selection was conducted so that the respondents could be expected to have (or have had) aging parents.

**RESULTS**

The individuals selected as Old were rated significantly more negatively (positioned more towards the less culturally valued, Old characteristic on the semantic differential scales) on all 14 continua as well as on the overall health assessment at p<.001 in paired t-tests. Thus, respondents were able to see Old and Not Old to be very different constructs on the continua uncovered in Barnhart and Penaloza (2013).

When asked to identify the five characteristics most strongly associated with being Old, “Receives but doesn’t give help” was the characteristic most commonly selected (82%), followed by “needs assistance from others” (69%), “being at physical risk” (69%), “confused” (50%), and “inactive” (48%). On the other hand, the characteristics associated with being Not Old were “mentally sharp” (65%), “engaged” (58%), “in-control” (52%), “independent” (52%), “flexible” (52%), and “active” (50%). Thus, Old assessments is based primarily on the need for assistance (more physical than mental), while mental acuity is central to being Not Old, followed by activity.

Exploratory factor analyses were performed on the characteristics’ ratings for Old and Not Old, and the results are shown in Table 1. For the Old evaluations, the three factors generated appear to be “physically unable to do things independently,” “sociability,” and “financial awareness.” However, one of the authors of the Barnhart and Penaloza study noted that it appears that “financially unsafe” was interpreted by respondents to mean “poor,” as judged by its close linkage to “dirty.” In the Barnhart and Penaloza qualitative study, financially safe did not relate to being poor or wealthy, but rather to being vulnerable to fraud or making costly errors in managing one’s finances.
For the Not Old ratings, the factors appear to be “mental acuity,” “activity,” and “sociability.” Independence loads on the “physically unable to do things” factor in the Old findings, but on the “Activity” factor in the Not Old ratings. Thus, people may be perceived as Old when they start needing help from others because they are physically unable to do things by themselves. The Not Old retain the physical prowess to do things on their own.

Table 1: Factor Analyses of the Characteristics Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>OLD</th>
<th>NOT OLD</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flex</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyful</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prod</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FinSafe</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>-.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhySafe</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Cntl</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soc Int</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ind</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the Not Old ratings, the factors appear to be “mental acuity,” “activity,” and “sociability.” Independence loads on the “physically unable to do things” factor in the Old findings, but on the “Activity” factor in the Not Old ratings. Thus, people may be perceived as Old when they start needing help from others because they are physically unable to do things by themselves. The Not Old retain the physical prowess to do things on their own.

Driving a Car

Driving is one of the bigger worries that adult caregivers have about the elderly. For both the Old and the Not Old, being a male was seen to relate to driving, but much more significantly for the Not Old. Here too, experience would seem to be reflected in the male being seen as driving better, reflecting past gender norms. Independence, physically safe, and mentally sharp were linked more strongly to the Old driving than being male, with an $R^2$ of .56. For the Not Old, mental sharpness was also significantly related, with an $R^2$ of .32. Combined these findings would seem to reflect the complexity of driving as a physically and mentally challenging activity, as well as driving’s close relationship to the concept of individual independence in North American culture.

Preparing a Meal

Gender was the most significant predictor ($p<.001$) for both the Old and Not Old. For the Old, being productive and in control also related significantly to meal preparation, with an $R^2$ of .55. For the Not Old, awareness and independence were the other significant predictors, with an $R^2$ of .34.

Yardwork

The $R^2$ values were nearly equivalent (.43 for Old, .42 for Not Old). Activity was a very significant predictor for the Old, as well as for the Not Old, with other significant variables predicting Not Old yardwork comfort [independence, social integration (negatively), cleanliness (negatively), and being male]. It would appear that Not Old males are seen as preferring yardwork to social activity and not minding getting dirty. That gender did not relate to yardwork for the Old may be explained by the old having moved to homes without yards (e.g. condos or senior apartments) and/or their physical inability to do the work.

Personal Care

For the Old, being physically safe relates to personal care, followed by being female and awareness, with an $R^2$ of .50. For the Not Old, the $R^2$ was only .10, with independence and ability to help others being marginal predictors. These findings point to perceptions that the Old are uncomfortable performing personal care alone because they fear physical injury (such as breaking a hip by falling in the shower) and/or they are too unaware to know when such personal care is needed.

Shopping

The amount of variance explained is quite comparable (Old .51; Not Old .49). For the Old, independence, physically safe, and female predict comfort in shopping. Independence and physically safe predict shopping comfort for the Not Old, along with social integration, flexibility, and financially safe, but not gender. Apparently Not Old men are seen as shopping as comfortably as their female counterparts.

Summary

For the consumption activities investigated, respondents’ perceptions of various referent characteristics predicted respondents’ perceptions of the referents’ comfort performing the activity. Importantly, the significant predictors for referents who were seen as Not Old were often different from the significant predictors for those seen as Old. For people who respondents considered Old, physical safety and independence most commonly predicted comfort with consumption activities. In addition, seven other characteristics were found to be significant predictors. Likewise for referents who were viewed as Not Old, the list of significant predictors included six char-
characteristics that were specific to various activities. Thus, respondents were highly specific in relating their perceptions of comfort with particular consumption activities to particular characteristics related to being Old or Not Old.

In addition, respondents see more issues facing male Old people in areas such as preparing meals, housekeeping, personal care, and shopping, but see Old women as having more issues with driving. These findings point out an obvious observation: while gender norms have changed for younger segments of the population, the Old have lived through times of greater gender separation. Marketers need to take note of this, as it would appear that one’s own gender expectations may be inappropriate for those who have reached the Old stage.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

This investigation of caregivers’ perceptions of the elderly provides strong support for the framework generated by Barnhart and Penaloza (2013). Caregivers are clearly able to distinguish between the Old and Not Old on the continua uncovered through Barnhart and Penaloza’s depth interviews, indicating that the continua have rich potential in separating the Old from the Not Old.

For marketers, this research both highlights the challenges of and offers hope for making wise decisions about whether and how to market directly to the elderly or go through caregivers. Such decisions would seem to be both complex and extremely sensitive. Barnhart and Penaloza found that the elderly guard their independence would seem to be both complex and extremely sensitive to market directly to the elderly or go through caregivers. Such decisions may be inappropriate for those who have reached the Old stage.

For marketers, this research both highlights the challenges of and offers hope for making wise decisions about whether and how to market directly to the elderly or go through caregivers. Such decisions would seem to be both complex and extremely sensitive. Barnhart and Penaloza found that the elderly guard their independence very carefully, which is very understandable given their many decades of experience as responsible adults. The frequent correlation between independence and comfort performing consumption activities found in the current study would seem to indicate that acknowledging that one needs assistance with an activity is a substantial threat to that independence. Thus, blatant attempts to bypass the elderly and market to their caregivers may well insult those elderly who see themselves as independent. At some point in the lives of many elderly that independence may become illusory. Nonetheless, without consideration of how sensitive these issues are to the elderly, animosity toward firms’ offerings may prevent those offerings from fulfilling their potentially helpful usage. In identifying the specific characteristics related to comfortably performing various consumption activities for the Old and the Not Old, this research provides initial insights into how the independent performance of various consumption activities are either attributed to or seen as resulting in specific positive or negative characteristics. Marketers of products and services for the elderly should use such insights to ensure that their marketing strategies are sensitive to the close relationship between some activities and desirable or less desirable characteristics.

A limitation to this study is that we did not investigate issues from the perspective of the elderly consumers themselves. We hope to use the scale developed in this paper to investigate both the perspective of the individual elderly consumer and of his/her primary caregiver. We expect discrepancies in the perspectives and argue that the caregivers’ perspectives are likely to be more accurate. Heckhausen and Schulz (1995) note that the human need to have behavioral (primary) control is reshaped by cognitive (secondary) control processes as they age. For instance, one may value goals differently in later life or learn to interpret success and failure differently. Thus, as one’s mental and physical abilities decline, one attempts to maintain self-esteem through such secondary control processes. They note that older individuals see “the elderly” as having diminished abilities, but are slow to categorize themselves as “elderly.” Thus, they use contrasts with their stereotypes of “elderly” as a downward social comparison process to maintain self-esteem. Thus, their self-evaluations are likely to be more optimistic than those of their caregivers.

In addition, the findings from this study indicate that marketers need to be sensitive to the gender norms perceived by elderly. While gender norms have changed for younger segments of society, apparently they have not for many members of the elderly segment. That there are different role expectations for elderly males and elderly females than for their younger counterparts necessitates more emphasis on traditional positionings to the elderly market. That need will change over time, but apparently current politically correct social norms are not held by many elderly.

Marketing has not only paid insufficient attention to the transition between the Not Old and Old stages, but also needs to give greater attention to those who are firmly in the Old group and nearly the end of life. One skill that is not uncommon among marketers is creativity; that creativity needs to refocus on the lives of the elderly in general and on the end of their lives in particular. Facilitating death with dignity has received virtually no attention from marketers. Many alternatives have yet to be developed, in large part due to a lack of attention from the most creative minds in marketing. Yes, we are talking about a dying market, but it is going to become a HUGE dying market.

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT
This study addresses the research question of what and how Muslims living in America consume. Considering that religion and consumption are recognized as opposing forces in contemporary life. With specific reference to Muslim religious beliefs practiced within the American consumer context, the opposition is magnified and therefore offers a window of opportunity to study this phenomenon. Accordingly, this preliminary research entails an ethnographic approach where the ritualistic and routine consumer practices of Muslims living in America are investigated and documented. Released as preliminary findings, three emergent themes are reported: consumer awareness, modest decision making, and collaboration.

INTRODUCTION
Consumer behavior is a complex phenomenon because consumers are humans with beliefs that span contextual, symbolic, and experiential aspects of life and consumer culture (Arnould and Thompson 2005; Joy and Li 2012). As Arnould and Thompson (2005) consider, consumer identity is one of four research domains within the development of contemporary consumer culture theory. The other three domains identified by Arnould and Thompson (2005) include marketplace cultures, the socio-historical patterning of consumption, and mass-mediated marketplace ideologies and consumers’ interpretive strategies. While these three domains are noted as relevant and important to this research addressing Muslim consumers living in America, the primary consideration here is identity and how Muslim identity is indeed maintained while living in a non-Muslim country such as America.

There are an estimated 1.6 billion Muslims throughout the world population with approximately 3.5 million living in America (Desilver 2013). With this global presence, Islam is the second largest religious tradition after Christianity (Pew Research Center’s Forum on Religion & Public Life 2012). According to the Pew Research Center’s Forum on Religion & Public Life (2012), Muslims are united in their religious beliefs and bound together by ritualistic practices, yet Muslim beliefs and values vary in terms of how much religion matters in daily life activities, devotion as Muslim, and what are acceptable vs non-acceptable practices. In this work therefore, the focus is on consumer behavior of Muslims and specifically in the context of American society.

Central to the study of cultural identity via consumption is the acquisition, placement, and meaning of objects. Consumer identity has been shown as demonstrated through possessions (Belk 1988), objects (Ahuvia 2005), and brands (Schembri, Merrilees, and Kristensen 2010). More specifically, Belk (1988) argues that possessions are an extension of self, while Ahuvia (2005) demonstrates the role of loved objects and activities in structuring social relationships, and Schembri et al. (2010) shows how brands are used to construct the self. The symbolism of possessions, objects, and brands is a predominant theme in the identity project literature (Joy and Li 2012). As Levy (1959) writes, consumers are not entirely functionally oriented and choices are made based on meaning and symbolism as well as function. The ideology that consumers are free to choose an individual mode of self-presentation (Bastos and Levy 2012; Joy and Li 2012) is now widely accepted in marketing and consumer research as investigation of consumer identity.

THE STORIES OF CONSUMER IDENTITY
Everyday life entails an abundance of consumer choices, assumptions, and decisions where function alone may not be the priority (Levy 1959) and where symbolism and meaning are prioritized (Belk 1988). While conventional consumer behavior theory is based on rational decision making processes (Bettman 1974; Hoyer 1984), more contemporary work has demonstrated consumption to involve an evaluation of identity fit for consumers (Ahuvia 2005; Belk 1988). For goods or services to be considered appropriate in a particular consumption context, the product/brand needs to reinforce or enhance the self (Levy 1959). More specifically, Schembri et al. (2010) show how consumers use brands to construct a self-narrative. Similarly, Woodside, Sood, and Miller (2008) demonstrate how consumers use brands in the stories they tell to others about themselves. In this way, goods, services, products, and brands are part of the symbolic language and the story telling process that consumers construct to portray who they are in the world.

While consumer identity is a highly personalized and contextualized story, for some this story comprises religious dedication. While consumerism and religion are contradictory practices in many ways, consumer culture is a demonstration of beliefs (Miller and Miller 2005). The study of consumer culture therefore is a window to beliefs and life philosophy. What and how consumers interpret and use particular goods, services, products, and brands demonstrates who they are. Looking at food consumption for example, Levy (1981) shows how consumer stories and the assumed meanings within those stories hold a depth of insight. As Levy (1981) explains, these documented tales are descriptions of consumer experiences where the storyteller reveals embedded symbolism of the family as a social unit and where these stories are situational myths that organize consumer reality. However, while consumer behavior and storytelling may well demonstrate beliefs, ideologies, and family mythologies, not all of consumer thinking is explicit and conscious. Using a forced metaphor-elicitation technique, Woodside (2008) investigates unconscious thinking and implicit beliefs as framed in zoomorphism. In other words, Woodside (2008) looks at consumer self-view of behavior and reveals the animal (metaphor) within. Metaphors aside, Megehee and Woodside (2010) use visual art to decode consumer stories and brand stories. As a creative act, visual art is shown by Megehee and Woodside (2010) to enable and even deepen the sense making process of consumer stories and the implications of those stories. More than that, the creation of visual art is shown by Megehee and Woodside (2010) to reveal unconscious thinking of actors featured in the stories and the inherent archetypes reflected within the consumer and brand experiences. In this research therefore, the question of what and how Muslims living in America consume is seeking to identify and describe both explicit beliefs and ideologies as evident within consumer behavior and storytelling.

RESEARCH DESIGN
In seeking to identify and describe what and how Muslims living in America consume, this research comprises an ethnographic research design that combined fieldwork and participant observation. Only those consenting participants who abide by Muslim philosophy and currently reside in USA were considered as eligible participants in this work. Potential informants were sought beginning with the researchers’ inner circle and snowballed from there. However, the
priority was to begin a process of cultural immersion, where contacts would be made in the process. In taking on this challenge and as preliminary work, this paper reports on the findings garnered from the first three study participants.

During the cultural immersion process, the researchers were on site at particular events and activities, and various other locations such as the participant’s home. Interviewing occurred in situ with aide of a hand held camcorder for documentation purposes. As well as the visual documentation, comprehensive field notes were taken both during the fieldwork and after in reflective mode. The field interviews conducted were deliberately unstructured so as to allow and enable the participant comments, interpretations, and stories to direct the line of questioning. The visual, verbal, and written text was collated, transcribed, and analyzed as per Schembri and Boyle (2012).

The process of this analytical approach began with dissecting the evidence of what and how Muslim consumers consume in the American context. An example of what they consume is food and a corresponding example of how they consume is socially. However, the emphasis is on depth of analysis and therefore the goal of this analytical approach was to document the meaningful links between what and how Muslim consumers consume in the American context. In analyzing the text, in terms of what and how Muslim consumers consume and with an emphasis on depth of detail, emergent themes were identified. To arrive at these emergent themes and in line with Schembri and Boyle (2012), the researchers repeatedly reviewed the different forms of text, including visual text, to identify patterns of behavior. Similar to the treatment of written text, visual text is compared, contrasted, and sorted into categories until a particular aspect of the culture is identified (Schembri and Boyle 2012). In recognizing the patterns of behavior and specifically detailing what and how Muslim consumers consume, three emergent themes have been identified and are reported here. In collating the ethnographic knowledge generated about each of the three themes, a detailed description is enabled, demonstrating a depth of rigor in the work.

**FINDINGS**

This preliminary research effort reports on the findings of this ethnographic study on what and how Muslims in America consume. The work comprised a combination of fieldwork and participant observations for three consenting individuals. From this preliminary work, the thematic analysis has identified three emergent themes: consumer awareness, modest decision making, and collaboration. To begin, a short narrative is provided on each of the three participants who took part in this study and from there the discussion details each of the three emergent themes and provides ethnographic evidence to demonstrate the point.

The first participant is a 29 year old male who grew up in Saudi Arabia and Pakistan and considers himself a dedicated Muslim. At the time of writing, he has lived in America for less than one year and is working and studying as a university research assistant. Locally, he is somewhat isolated from other family members living in New Jersey and New York and this isolation has posed some problems in terms of finding his way around the community. This participant is referred to as Noor.

In contrast to Noor being a recent import to America, the second participant was born and raised in America, in Texas. His parents emigrated more than 30 years ago from Algeria. For him, growing up in the suburbs of Dallas has spurned an ambition and motivation to deliberately establish his life away from his family. This participant is referred to as Rahman and like Noor is in his late 20s.

The third participant is also very different from both Noor and Rahman, and is referred to as Khan. Khan is a merited entrepreneur operating across several states including Texas, New Jersey, and Chicago. Khan is originally from Zebar, a region between India and Pakistan. Married with four children, Khan has a strong work ethic and extensive entrepreneurial experience but is also a dedicated father and husband. He is well respected both within the Muslim community and the business community.

**CONSUMER AWARENESS**

With food as a popular topic of conversation, each of the three participants demonstrated that consumption choices were not made on price or function, but rather Halal certification. The Islam philosophy of Halal was voiced as the priority considered in food consumption choices because Halal food is treated and processed in accordance with Islamic practices. Consumption choices were therefore very deliberate. More specifically, this choice priority means that participants were willing to pay more, drive further, be loyal to a specific brand, or even go without. With this priority directing consumption choice, participants showed a high level of awareness as to where these specific products were available and how to identify them. Halal labelling notation for example, was considered very important and the participants where acutely aware as to which suppliers carry such goods and which providers are aware of Halal requirements. The participants discussed issues related to globalization and voiced praise to those suppliers and providers of Halal foods. Effectively, price sensitivity was low and brand loyalty high, but labelling notation the priority. Noor for example (see Figure 1), very proudly shows his food choices that included many products from his kitchen pantry with the Halal certification (see Figure 2).

**MODESTY**

Another experiential consideration found to be driving Muslim consumption choices in the American context is modesty. The participants demonstrated this point with simple examples such as cold weather requires a jacket and therefore a jacket will be purchased. However, while there chosen jacket will fulfill the required need of warmth, the choice of jacket is not based on brand or label or even price. For Muslim consumers, modesty is not just about function but rather other considerations such as the durability of the jacket are important. Therefore, while brand or label is not important, brand preferences may come into play in terms of durability and value, for example. Khan explains this line of thinking with a quote from the Prophet Mohammad that states, “not to waste water for ablution even if you live near a flowing river.” Further demonstration of this point is provided by Rahman who showed his room (see Figure 3a) and desk (see Figure 3b) as part of his modest consumption story

**COLLABORATION**

As part of Muslim ritualistic behavior, Muslims prefer to perform most of the Islamic activities collaboratively. Figure 44 shows one of the collaborative activities attended by the researchers. The two annual Holy ceremonies (Eids), for example, are not considered as Eid unless there is meeting and interaction with family, relatives, and friends. Similarly, Eid prayer cannot be done individually. With this fundamental approach to ritual and ceremony, collaboration and shared experience are also fundamental to the Muslim way of life. Hence ritualistic celebrations and ceremonies are collaborative occasions and the consumption practices within these celebrations and ceremonies are a group effort. The food that is brought to the celebrations and ceremonies that are outside the religious occasions are Halal of course but also home baked and handmade, or store bought and generously shared. This generosity aspect is described by Khan (the serial entrepreneur) with the statement, “I love it when we get
Figure 1: Noor proudly displays his Halal food choices

Figure 2: Halal labelling notation is very important

Figure 3a: Modest room by Rahman

Figure 3b: Modest desk by Rahman

Figure 4: Muslim collaboration and shared experience
increasing visibility of Muslims as consumers is intimately linked to modernization and secular modernity. This contradictory story is considered controversial and especially with respect to globalization (Izberk-Bilgin 2012; White and Kokotsaki 2004). In a society that, however falsely, often considers American and Muslim as diametric opposites, this research reports on the experience of people who are traversing this imagined line.

The documented experience of three Muslim consumers living in America has highlighted this controversial point but in a positive light. For example one of the participants, Noor (Figure 1), expressed his preference for PakiCola over Coke or Pepsi and also expressed his delight in being able to find the product locally. Noor also expressed an awareness and gratitude of market development and globalization as the driving force of this product availability. Similarly, Rahman expressed an appreciation of the “culturally oriented products” being available and his intention to search extensively to find other culturally appropriate products and suppliers.

Analogous to the cases of other non-mainstream consumer groups such as blacks and Hispanics in the USA, for example, the increasing visibility of Muslims as consumers is intimately linked with their purchasing power (Sandikci 2011). This power is articulated through the emergence of a Muslim middle class. Although geographically dispersed, the Muslim middle class are united in their interest in consumption and ability to afford branded products. More than that, Muslim consumers are keenly pursuing Islamic principles as well as capitalist aspirations (Adas, 2006). As a self-labelled entrepreneur, Khan is both business-minded and profit focused but his priority is cultural sensitivity and this cultural sensitivity is evident in his consumption choices. In other words, Khan demonstrates his cultural identity as Muslim through consumption and business activity. As per Levy (1959), price nor function, is the priority but rather identity. This finding is in line with Belk’s (1988) theory of possessions as the extended self and Levy’s (1959) assertion that products considered as appropriate are products that reinforce or enhance the self.

With consumer (Muslim) demand increasing throughout the world, including America, the global market is adapting accordingly with suppliers increasingly becoming culturally sensitive. The increased supply of Halal certification for example is evidence of this trend. Seemingly mundane consumption is not simply choices of particular goods and conditions but rather essential to a demonstration of Muslim identity. Choosing to shop at a specific store, choosing to deliberately drive out of the way, and taking the time to read small print labelling notation is evidence of Muslim identity being demonstrated in American society. However, the contradiction between Muslim cultural values and American cultural values is also evident in that Muslims in America seek to articulate a sense of self and their socioeconomic status, while also demonstrating their ability to modernize themselves. This contradictory story is considered through Muslims philosophy of modesty.

As shown in this research, one of the ways that Muslim consumers are seeking modernization is within decision making that involves a philosophy of modesty. Personal modesty is important for Muslims as part of their daily life including, but not limited to, consumption and resembles the main pillar to Islamic Sharia Laws that Muslims adhere to. Depicting consumer culture as wasteful, harmful and immoral, fostering individualism and hedonism, the proponents of Islamic economics instruct Muslims to live modest lives and refrain from conspicuous and excessive consumption (Kuran 2004). The cultural interpretation of this Islamic instruction is explained by the participants in this research by way of consumption demonstration; Rahman proudly shows his modest desk and bedroom arrangement (Figure 2). The Islamic myth of consumer culture as harmful and immoral is therefore quashed to some extent by Muslims consumers in America who somehow negotiate this contested space with the force of Islamic instruction itself. As these findings show, Muslims consume, yes but with a deliberate modest tendency; they live in America, yes but with modesty as the priority. Similar findings are reported by Sandikci and Ger (2010) who focus on the meanings and practices of a modest attire in Turkey, and documented how consumption and marketing of fashionable tesettur, a modernized Islamic-oriented Turkish custom for women, has contributed to the increasing visibility and growth of a new Islamic collectivity.

In this way, the rational decision making process of Bettman (1974) is challenged with this demonstrated cultural decision making process that holds modesty as the priority where even extensive search activity occurs for routine products for example. The story of Muslim identity and modest decision making is a story that entwines Islam and Americanism with a finesse that binds a community within a foreign society. This strong community orientation has been shown in the identification of collaboration and shared experience beyond the ritualistic Islamic practices.

As well as demonstrating Muslim identity and the Muslim philosophy of modesty, Muslim consumption choices and practices have also been shown to demonstrate collaboration and shared experience in the American context. Gatherings of family and friends are found to be moments of expressed generosity in effort and expense to give to others who may be in need. Just as Levy (1959) professed, the storyteller reveals the embedded symbolism of these gatherings where gesture is the value that is most appreciated. As Khan explains in the reported findings and Figure 4 shows captures to some extent, while the quality and quantity of the contribution to the gathering is noted, the generous gesture and collaborative effort is more the recognized value.

CONCLUSION

This research effort investigates what and how Muslim consumers living in America consume. This preliminary work entails ethnographic knowledge generated from three participants who abide by Muslims' beliefs and are currently residing in America. The findings include three emergent themes that shows Muslim consumers make consumption choices that demonstrate their cultural identity as Muslim; that demonstrate modest decision making; and that demonstrate the value of collaboration and shared experience. By choosing brands that identify as Halal certified for example, Muslim consumers are reinforcing their Muslim identity. Undertaking an extensive search even for routine products to acquire such products tells the story of who that consumer is and what their cultural values are. As well, collaborating together and sharing cultural experiences is a priority for Muslims in the American context. This is the American Muslim consumer story.
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Households’ Fresh Produce Consumption and Waste Management as an Indication of Their Knowledge and Concern about Climate Change
Nadene JMM Marx-Pienaar, University of Pretoria, South Africa
Alet C Erasmus, University of Pretoria, South Africa

ABSTRACT
This study aimed to investigate consumers’ explicit- as well as their tacit knowledge about sustainable buying and consumption practices of fresh produce as an indication of their knowledge of the pressing issue of climate change. The survey was performed in an urban context in South Africa and involved 560 adults of which 75.36% were female. Despite declaring that they planned their households’ fresh produce purchases in advance, evidence of household waste was excessive. The knowledge test indicated that consumers’ explicit knowledge about climate change was reasonable although >30% indicated that the average citizen can do little to curb climate change. Shortcomings with regard to consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable consumption practices may explain excessive household waste. Particularly concerning, was inadequate knowledge about sustainable retailing practices that may fuel unrealistic product demands. This needs to be addressed in popular media to enhance consumers’ commitment to take climate change seriously.

INTRODUCTION AND THEORETIC BACKGROUND
Climate change has in recent years captured the attention of environmentalists world-wide and has instigated fierce discussion in media, which has drawn together scholars who have tried to conceptualise and capture the extent of the dilemma (Kemp et al. 2010; Le Roux 2007; Nahman et al. 2012; WWF-Report 2012). Consumers are unfortunately not necessarily aware that their purchase and consumption decisions in one of the most basic product categories such as fresh produce might have dire consequences for our ecosystem (Hammett 2012; WWF-Report 2012). Neither are consumers always aware of the consequences of their product demands, for example that fresh produce are actually seasonal but nowadays have to be flown across contents because it has become the norm for retailers to supply everything, even exotic products, all year round. While consumers are not necessarily aware of the carbon footprint created in a lavish retailing process, excessive waste is created due to oversupply and improper handling of these highly perishables (Marshak 2012; News24 2013). Produce with slight imperfections that do not meet consumers’ quality standards, are mostly simply discarded although they are still edible (Nahman et al. 2012).

Despite being an emerging economy, South Africa is a notable contributor to the global crisis of climate change. In 1990, South Africa was responsible for about 1.2% of the total global warming effect, which placed it within the top ten contributing countries in the world (DEAT 2009). It is estimated that the carbon dioxide equivalent emission rate per person in South Africa (approximately ten tons of CO2 per person per year) exceeds the global average of seven tons per person per year. Although this is still much lower than the twenty tons per person per year of developed countries such as the United States (DEAT 2009; Letete, Guma, and Marquard 2010) South Africans should not be left to ‘continue business as usual’. Although carbon dioxide burned from fossil fuels is the primary problem associated with greenhouse gas emissions in South Africa, statistics indicate that methane produced from agricultural crop production and food waste are just as worrisome (Letele et al. 2010; Marshak 2012).

Recent figures indicate that the increase in waste production in South Africa exceeds the population growth rate by five per cent (Ntuli and Pilusa 2012; Odhiambo 2011). Waste generation in major metropolitan cities in the country is increasing at up to seven per cent per year (Marshak 2012) and therefore waste reduction has become one of the government’s national priorities. In general, it is estimated that wastage from food products contributes twelve per cent of the total waste that is deposited to the landfills in the country (Theobald 2011). In parts of sub-Saharan Africa, where more than 265 million people are starving due to a lack of food, more than a quarter of the food that is produced becomes unfit for consumption even before it reaches consumers due to poor harvesting- or storage techniques, weather conditions, disease and pests (Theobald 2011). This amounts to a loss of 1.3 billion tons of food per year contributing not only to a waste of resources, but also to the unfortunate production of greenhouse gases like methane (Gustavsson 2011; Theobald 2011). The problem is aggravated by the fact that nearly a third of the food that is actually purchased by consumers, is eventually also discarded (Refsgaard and Magnussen 2008; Wills 2008). On a global level, the 2011 International Climate Negotiations in Copenhagen confirmed that emissions produced from consumer waste have apparently reached a record high during the preceding year (Theobald 2011) indicating a bleak picture for the future.

RESEARCH AIMS AND THEORETIC PERSPECTIVE
This study which was performed in a South African context, aimed to investigate and describe consumers’ explicit and tacit knowledge about their sustainable buying and consumption practices of fresh produce for their households as an indication of their knowledge of, and concern about the pressing issue of climate change. The theoretic perspectives used to structure the investigation were Giddens’ structuration theory (Giddens 1984) and Spaargaren’s social practices model. Structuration theory acknowledges the dual contribution of consumers’ knowledge to make sense of, and to direct one’s daily activities (Kaspersen 2000) as well as the role of industry in terms of efforts to mitigate climate change. Structuration theory proposes that consumers routinely reflexively monitor their own behaviour in specific contexts in order to explain and revise their own behaviour (Shields et al. 1996), acknowledging greater society and the rules and regulations within which they operate daily. Consumers are therefore strongly influenced by social norms and values of the time, such as materialism, which may explain why social structures have had little success to date to promote change. Ideally consumers should become changing agents that instigate change and demonstrate pro-social behaviour rather than to focus on individual needs (Rose and Scheepers 2001; Spaargaren 1997).

Reflexive monitoring of one’s actions occurs at two levels of consciousness, namely practical consciousness (the how) which refers to one’s everyday knowledge about a phenomenon including everyday life skills, as well as discursive consciousness (the why), i.e. one’s ability to explain and rationalise your behaviour. Although both are relevant in consumers’ behaviour, discursive consciousness becomes the determinant in terms of mitigating unsustainable consumption behaviour (Kaspersen 2000).

Consumers’ knowledge and awareness of environmental change, specifically evidence of inadequacies in consumers’ tacit and explicit knowledge, is highly important in terms of informational campaigns and other efforts to successfully mitigate the degradation of the environment (Jackson 2005a). Explicit knowledge refers to
factual, theoretical information about environmental issues that may be difficult to grasp, but which determines one’s ability to recognize environmental problems, their causes and the consequences of such problems, i.e. acquaintance with all the relevant concepts required for complete understanding (Haron, Paim and Yahaya 2005, 429). Although some argue that factual information about issues such as climate change is insufficient to alter ingrained behaviour (Nickols 2010), a consumer’s explicit knowledge of a phenomenon such as climate change provides an understanding that might spur more sustainable practices and willingness to adapt unsustainable behavioural practices. Based on evidence of neglectful consumption of fresh produce, it is therefore proposed that:

**Hypothesis 1:** Consumers’ explicit knowledge of climate change is inadequate to demonstrate responsible purchasing and consumption practices of fresh produce in their households.

Tacit knowledge encompasses a consumer’s know-how and skills, for example how to curb unsustainable behaviour (Jones and Leonard 2009). Nickols (2010) explains that individuals often ‘know about’ an issue, but often do not ‘know how’ to address the problem. Consumers may therefore have explicit knowledge about an issue like fresh produce wastage and how it contributes to climate change, but may lack the tacit knowledge (skills) required to mitigate unsustainable consumption practices. It is therefore proposed that:

**Hypothesis 2:** Consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable fresh produce buying and consumption practices is inadequate to demonstrate responsible practices.

Social and cultural contexts often determine gender roles in society, which influence consumer demands and behaviour (Salazar, Oerlemans, and Stroe-Biezien 2013). Because females are generally, despite changing gender roles, still more involved in the procurement of food for their households, possess a strong nurturing instinct (O’Connor, Bord, and Fisher 1999), and are acknowledged as powerful agents of change based on their primary role as socializing agents in their households (Nelson 2011) this study proposed that:

**Hypothesis 3:** Females’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable fresh produce buying practices is significantly higher compared to their male counterparts.

**Hypothesis 4:** Females’ tacit knowledge concerning the sustainable consumption of fresh produce is significantly higher compared to their male counterparts.

Due to strong theoretic support that higher income and better educated consumers are better equipped to address issues about environmental change practically with respect to their consumption practices (Patchen 2006), it is proposed that:

**Hypothesis 5:** Older consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable consumption of fresh produce is significantly higher compared to younger consumers.

**Hypothesis 6:** Higher income consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable consumption of fresh produce is significantly higher compared to lower income consumers.

**Hypothesis 7:** Better educated consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning sustainable consumption of fresh produce is significantly higher compared to lower educated consumers.

**RESEARCH DESIGN**

A survey was done in a major urban area in South Africa, which involved the distribution of a structured questionnaire by trained field workers for self-completion on a drop–down-collect-later basis to 700 households across the city. The instrument incorporated self-developed scales as well as established scales that were slightly adapted to address the context of the study. Willing respondents between 21 and 65 years of age, irrespective of gender, who have had personal buying experience of fresh produce for their households during the preceding month were invited to participate. Sections in the questionnaire which were relevant to this investigation, were: Demographic characteristics; Consumers purchasing practices; Consumers’ fresh produce consumption behaviour (focussing on tacit knowledge); Consumers’ explicit knowledge of climate change which was investigated through 17 True/False questions extracted from existing scales, namely Antil and Bennett (1979): Social responsible consumption scale (2 items); Stone, Barnes and Montgomery (1995): Eco scale (8 items); Dos Santos (2011) (1 item), plus 6 self-designed items. An investigation of consumers’ tacit knowledge was done by means of a pool of 24 self-designed questions that reflected on possible skills and avenues that could be adopted to abide to the principles of sustainable consumption practices using a four point Likert-type agreement scale. Means >2.5 were considered as a positive reflection of respondents’ tacit knowledge regarding sustainable purchasing and consumption of fresh produce. Within one month 560 completed questionnaires were retrieved, and coded for data capturing.

**DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE**

The majority of the sample (N = 560) were females (n = 422/75.36%; male: n = 134/24.64%). The age distribution was: <30 years: n = 229/40.89%, 30 to 50 years: n = 219/39.11%; >50 years: n = 112/20%. The majority of the sample were in the middle- (n = 110/19.82%) to upper income categories (n = 203/36.08%). The median income of the geographical area at the time was estimated at R14 500 ZAR (COT 2011) while the median monthly income for South African households stood at R9 169 ZAR (BMR 2012; SAA-RF 2012) [Approximate exchange rate: 1 USD = 10.5ZAR].

**DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

Data analysis included descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, ANOVA, post hoc tests, T-tests and Spearman correlations (Mazzocchi 2008, 221). Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated to verify the internal consistency of the responses throughout.

**Consumers’ fresh produce purchases**

Despite 66.54% of the respondents (n = 372) indicating that they plan fresh produce purchases in advance, the majority (n = 390/69.64%) indicated that they preferred to purchase fresh produce in bulk packs which resulted in unnecessary wastage, along with other non-commendable practices such as over purchasing when products are cheap (n = 219/39.20%), being enticed by attractive displays (n = 184/33.77%), and over purchasing because they believe that fresh produce is healthy (43.10% / n = 268). Findings also confirmed ignorance about sustainable disposal of fresh produce waste. Less than 25% of the respondents used one of the recommended recycling procedures for household waste such as composting or optimising of waste as bird and animal feed.
Consumers’ explicit knowledge of climate change

The sample’s above average score (>60%) for the true/false explicit knowledge test on climate change concluded a partial acceptance of

**H1.** The majority of the sample answered the following statements in the explicit knowledge test excellently to satisfactorily, i.e.: An increase in the SA population will put further strain on our natural resources (91.2%); Saving electricity in our everyday life will contribute to saving the planet (90.2%); Environmental pollution taking place in China does not have any impact on SA (88.3%); Pollution is currently one of the most critical problems in terms of the sustainability of our country’s natural resources (87.7%); All locally produced products are environmentally friendly (81.7%); The economic growth of our country is not influenced by environmental problems (80.5%); The earth’s resources are infinite and should be used to the fullest to increase the standard of living of all SA citizens (75.1%); The amount of energy used by my household does not have a significant impact on the environment (74.9%); Global warming is mostly caused by the sun radiating more heat (72.6%); My current purchases decisions will have consequences for product availability of future generations (72.4%); The average citizen can do very little to reduce climate change (69.9%); Pollution does not affect me personally to the same extent that it affects fellow citizens in SA (68.2%); The USA is the biggest producer of gasses that contribute to air pollution (67.1%); Methane, which is largely responsible for the damage to the environment, is only emitted by industrial equipment and cars which are powered by fossil fuels (66.9%).

Consumers’ lack of explicit knowledge was evident, i.e. where <50% of the responses were correct, concerning highly theoretical issues such as causes of greenhouse gasses, causes of the hole in the ozone layer, and the relevance of greenhouse gasses in terms of climate change. Although methane gas can be captured to be used as a renewable source of energy, its global warming potential is estimated to be 23 times greater than the same amount of carbon dioxide if allowed to escape into the atmosphere (Marshak 2012). It is therefore important for consumers and retailers to reduce their waste of organic material such as fresh produce due to its contribution to alarmingly high methane levels in the atmosphere. These are intricate issues that need to be explained in uncomplicated terms to consumers to improve their understanding of the problem. It is disappointing that 69.9% of the respondents believed that the average citizen can do very little to reduce climate change and that pollution does not affect them to the same extent that it affects others (68.2%).

Consumers’ tacit knowledge

To summarize and reduce the items meant to investigate consumers tacit knowledge in terms of coherent constructs relating to their fresh produce purchasing and consumption behavior, exploratory factor analysis, specifically principal axis factoring was done, using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation and with Eigen values >1. Five factors emerged, which retained 21 scale items. Three items were omitted because of low communalities and because they did not load on any of the factors in a logical manner. The total variance explained of almost 51%, indicated a good fit (Mazzocchi 2008, 222). Only one factor produced a low Cronbach Alpha value (Factor 5: 0.452), which could not be resolved despite repeated efforts to improve the scenario. It was eventually retained as is because further rotations did not produce a better result. Another factor only contained two items, which is not ideal (Mazzocchi 2008, 224). A Pearson correlation was then used to determine whether the two items correlated well. A value of 1 confirmed a positive correlation.

Table 3 presents the findings and factor labels which were formulated based on their content, namely Factor 1: Sustainable buying behavior; Factor 2: Sustainable household behavior; Factor 3: Sustainable consumer demands; Factor 4: Awareness of unsustainable retailing practices; Factor 5: Awareness of sustainable waste management. ANOVA was subsequently used to identify significant differences within the age, level of education and income categories, while T-tests were performed to investigate the gender category. Post-hoc tests were used to specify the differences explicitly.

The factor means of all but one of the dimensions of consumers’ tacit knowledge, namely F1: Sustainable buying behaviour; F2: Sustainable household behaviour; F3: Sustainable consumer demands; and F5: Awareness of sustainable waste management, are above average (M >2.67 to 2.86), signifying reasonable knowledge. Therefore,

H2 is rejected for these dimensions of consumers’ tacit knowledge, but is accepted for tacit knowledge relating to consumers’ awareness of unsustainable retailing practices (M = 2.28) – one of the main reasons for escalating fresh produce waste (Gunders 2012; Gustavsson 2011).

Using ANOVA and T-tests to investigate possible differences within the age, level of education and income groups, statistically significant differences (p<0.05) were only confirmed with respect to gender for factors 1, 2 and 3; and education level for factor 2. Findings therefore support H3 with respect to factors 1, 2, 3 (MmF1 = 2.89; MmF2 = 2.77; p = 0.05/MmF3 = 2.86; MmF4 = 2.64; p = 0.0001/MmF5 = 2.69; MmF6 = 2.59; p = 0.044). Despite females’ superior knowledge, there is nevertheless much room for improvement in terms of their tacit knowledge (MMax = 4).

A post-hoc Bonferroni test indicated significant differences among different level of education groups’ tacit knowledge about sustainable buying and consumption of fresh produce (p = 0.044), concluding that the lowest level of education groups’ tacit knowledge (M≤f5 = 3.48) of sustainable household behaviour (factor 2) is significantly higher compared to higher educated consumers (M ≤f5 = 2.74–2.86; p<0.05). This contradicts findings of a USA study and results in a subsequent rejection of

H4 as well as H5, for all but one of the factors. The youngest consumers (<30 years of age) were significantly better informed (p = 0.034) than older consumers, which is encouraging, indicating that much could be done to empower future consumers further to make informed judgements.

Despite evidence to support H6, significant differences (p ≤0.05), could only be confirmed for one of the five factors, namely unsustainable retailing practices. Scores (M <2.3) are however too low to evoke excitement.

H7 is rejected with respect to factor 5, namely consumers’ knowledge of sustainable waste management (M = 2.73 – 2.83) as neither of the demographic characteristics seemed to significantly mediate consumers’ tacit knowledge.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The knowledge test indicated that consumers’ explicit knowledge, which represents factual knowledge about climate change, is reasonable (>60%). Consumers nevertheless seem ignorant about pertinent issues as >30% indicated that the average citizen can do very little to reduce climate change, which could be detrimental in terms of efforts to promote sustainable consumption behavior and pro-social behavior. Findings suggest that it is particularly crucial to communicate highly theoretical issues such as contributors towards the emission of green houses gasses, causes of the hole in the
NOTE.—*Maximum: 4

household behavior and consumption practices. Consumers seem fairly acquainted with sustainable buying behavior (M = 2.78) as well sustainable household behavior (M = 2.81), which means that occurring lavish purchasing and consumption practices are not entirely due to ignorance.

Although females are significantly more knowledgeable than men with respect to sustainable buying practices, consumer demands and household consumption behavior, relatively low means indicate that much could still be done to boost consumers’ competence and to empower all, irrespective of their demographic profile. Concerted effort should therefore be made to encourage a revisit of consumers’ demands in the future.

Evidence that the know-how of lower educated consumers concerning sustainable household consumption practices is relatively good (M = 3.48) and that they are significantly more competent than higher educated consumers (M = <2.75) is surprising, yet encouraging. This confirms that consumers, through consumer socialization, may learn to act responsibly although they might not yet possess the explicit knowledge to explain their behavior. Ideally actual behavior should be supported by theoretical foundation to increase consumers’ understanding of their behavior.

It is concerning that consumers’ tacit knowledge concerning the sustainability of retailing practices is inadequate. This limits comprehension of the implications of waste at retail level (M = 2.28) and such ignorance may fuel unrealistic product demands. Consumers should therefore be informed and empowered to make responsible and informed product demands and judgements.

Consumers across all demographic categories seemed fairly acquainted (M = 2.73 – 2.83) with sustainable waste management practices, although knowledge levels are not impressive. Neither of the demographic categories, i.e. gender, age, income level, edu-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factors</th>
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<td>Items</td>
<td>Factors</td>
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<tr>
<td>South African retailers should only sell fresh produce that is produced locally</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchasing imported produce has consequences that contribute to climate change</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchasing imported produce is negative for the economy of South Africa</td>
<td>.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchasing loose fruit without extra packaging signifies environmentally friendly behavior</td>
<td>.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We as consumers should not demand imported fresh produce in order to demonstrate that we care about the environment</td>
<td>.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retailers could make more effort to keep consumers informed about the environmental consequences of their purchases</td>
<td>.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers need to purchase locally produced fresh produce rather than imported fresh produce</td>
<td>.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If one is really concerned about the environment, one should buy locally produced fresh produce irrespective of the price</td>
<td>.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchasing pre-cut / pre-prepared fresh produce is recommended because it reduces waste in general</td>
<td>-.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growing a personal vegetable garden indicates that one is concerned about the environment</td>
<td>.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All consumers who have their own compost heaps are environmentally conscious</td>
<td>.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limiting my household’s fresh produce waste can make a noteworthy difference in saving our planet</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh produce wastage is a neglected topic in our country</td>
<td>.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We as consumers need to tolerate lower stock volumes in stores to limit fresh produce waste</td>
<td>.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We as consumers need to tolerate a smaller variety of fresh produce in stores to demonstrate that we care about our environment</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We as consumers need to tolerate fresh produce of a slightly lower quality to demonstrate that we care about the environment</td>
<td>.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The surplus fresh produce at retailers is incinerated</td>
<td>-.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The surplus fresh produce at retailers goes to landfills</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The surplus fresh produce at retailers is put to good use by distributing it to charity organisations</td>
<td>.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The surplus fresh produce at retailers is converted into useful compost</td>
<td>-.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh produce waste is not harmful to the environment</td>
<td>.008</td>
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<td>Mean*</td>
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<td>Standard Deviation</td>
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<tr>
<td>% Variance explained</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Pearson correlation coefficient</td>
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TABLE 1: Factorial dimensions of consumers’ tacit knowledge
tion level or population group seem to be significant predictors of consumers’ tacit knowledge in this context. Consumers in general therefore still need some guidance to understand and implement responsible waste management measures. While South Africa does not currently face any restrictions on emission of greenhouse gases per the Kyoto Protocol due to its status as both a developing and an emerging economy, the situation could change if emissions increase proportionally to an increase in consumer wealth (Spalding-Fecher et al. 2002). Expenditure of excessive sums of money to clean up pollution in South Africa could rather be spent on housing and education for the poor. Lack of sustainable waste management is a behavioural problem that is amplified by socio-economic problems (ARSCP 2011) that the country has not been able to deal with satisfactorily to date.

The mitigation of unsustainable purchasing and consumption practices among consumers which requires a discursive consciousness that encompasses an understanding of the dilemma to allow an objective reflexive monitoring of one’s behaviour is not a simple matter. It requires a concerted effort to involve the cooperation of various role players who are driven by dissimilar agenda at present. Based on empirical evidence, academics can probably make a major contribution to reconcile differences and to motivate role players to revisit their existing behavioural practices.

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Understanding Emerging Markets through Consumer Acculturation

Dulce Saldaña, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Carolina Rodríguez, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Alberto Ares, Universidad Pontificia Comillas, Spain
Carlos Ballesteros, Universidad Pontificia Comillas, Spain

ABSTRACT

The immigrant groups are emerging markets, they are beginning to impact the economic, social and political scene. Consumer acculturation is used to understand and describe the acquisition of skills and knowledge relevant to engaging in consumer behavior in one culture by members from another culture. This paper presents a review of three models of consumer acculturation to penetrate these emerging market.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Acculturation

The Social Science Research Council (1954) in Peñaloza (1989) defines acculturation as “Cultural change that is initiated by the conjunction of two or more autonomous cultural systems...it may be the consequences of direct cultural transmission; it may be derived from noncultural causes, such as ecological or demographic modifications induced by an impinging culture; it may be delayed, as with internal adjustments following the acceptance of alien traits or patterns, or it may be a reactive adaptation of traditional modes of life. Its dynamics can be seen as the selective adaptation of value systems, the processes of integration and differentiation, the generation of developmental sequences, and the operation of role determinants and personality factors.”

Berry’s perspective (1980) proposed acculturation as a process which necessarily implies a bidirectional gradual learning behaviors and values, understood as a process that affects both the individual and the social group in which it is immersed. Cabassa defines acculturation as a process that goes through the first stage of contact with the host society, then a stage of conflict which begins to observe and experience acquired differences and distinctions that allow adaptation finally live in that society (2003). Based on this process of acculturation proposes a framework based on the different ways through which people can acculturate, forming a structure with room for significant differences concerning the time, personal experiences, the social context from which, the context migratory movement or the context of the new place of settlement (Cabassa 2003) or cultural distance (Zlobina, Basabe, and Perez 2004).

Cultural identity is considered a subdimension and represents a subjective perception towards being part of an ethnic group, which may have different implications towards the attitude to adopting a new culture (Jun, Ball and Gentry 1993). O’Guinn and Faber (1985) separate the individual construct in two aspects: 1) where it is possible to identify changes in behavior oriented acculturation, and 2) attitudes oriented identification with a culture which evolves more slowly than behavioral change, which will always depend on individual background and personal experiences so. For example, there are people who can actively participate in the host society but still maintain a strong identification with their culture of origin, even if their behavior patterns, including of course their consumption activities, are the same as those of the host culture. People from this perspective is not considered acculturated. (June et al. 1994).

Consumer acculturation

In previous paragraphs the term consumer acculturation has appeared, this concept born within the discipline of consumer behavior and is applied to those persons who have experienced in their life a new culture. The consumer acculturation aims to understand the processes through which relevant knowledge and skills have been acquired from the consumer behavior vision.

Consumer acculturation seeks to describe a learning process and a selective cultural display of skills, knowledge and consumption behavior (Peñaloza 1989; Ogden, Ogden, and Schau 2004). Clearly this process is a complex multidimensional affecting the individual (at different levels) as well as their immediate environment, including the host society.

Askegaard, Kjeldgaard and Arnould (2010) describe that the processes of acculturation and multi-acculturation can lead towards processes of meta-acculturation, it means, an acculturation characterized by high levels of cultural reflexivity in which the consumer “meta-acculturated” would aware of various aspects of their cultural identity and try to lead or organize these aspects to build their own cultural identity. Basically, consumption of culture became a way to build by itself (Figueiredo and Cayla, 2011).

A REVIEW OF THREE MODELS OF CONSUMER ACCULTURATION

Peñaloza’s Model of consumer acculturation

Consumer culture, according Peñaloza (1989), is defined as a system composed of individuals who share specific values, skills, and knowledge relevant to engaging in consumer behavior. The author recognizes that individuals get a new culture by the way of consuming. Thereby the consumer turns into a core element at the moment to understand the acculturation process.

Peñaloza’s framework is deployed in four stages: 1) Differences or personal characteristics, such as demographic variables, the language skills, the length of stay in the United States, ethnicity and some environmental factors. 2) Agents of acculturation from both cultures Mexican and American. In both of them there are main actors as family, friends, media, and, commercial institutions educational institutions and religious institutions. 3) The processes of acculturation, that start with the movement from one country to another, followed by one “translation” or developing new capabilities exchange and finally an adaptation to new habits, and 4) The results of the process of acculturation through consumption show that some immigrants assimilate many goods and services associated with the dominant culture, other aspects of maintaining their Mexican culture, others who are resistant to change and, finally others who are physically segregated.

One of the advantages of the Peñaloza’s model is having a successful theoretical framework studying immigrants consumer behavior and the acculturation process into the host society. After Peñaloza’s contribution many researches refers to the author as a referent in the acculturation landscape (Sojka y Tansuhaj, 1995; Brewer, 2001; Arnould y Thompson, 2005; Merino, 2009; Figueiredo y Cayla, 2011; Dedeoglu y Ustundagli, 2011; Saldaña y Ballesteros, 2011; Ares 2013).

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**Saldaña and Ballesteros’ model consumer acculturation.**

Their model is based on three stages and visualize some factors in the Figure 1. The first stage has to do with a pre-union of the couples phase, taking into account the social, demographic, personal and family background, among others, called background by Peñaloza (1994). This stage incorporates other aspects such as the context of the society of origin and destination, elements such as the reasons that have prompted the migration, social networks, socioeconomic and cultural context of the host society and destination, (Cabassa, 2003).

The second stage called acculturation process (migration, translation skills and forms of adaptation based on Peñaloza, 1994), is conditioned by four vectors of influence: 1) constructs of acculturation, as cognitive style, use of language, personality, identity, attitude, and acculturative stress (Berry, 1980, 1990). 2) Tools of acculturation, such as observation and mouth to mouth communication (Assael, 1999). 3) Agents of acculturation, among which are family, friends, media and civil and religious institutions (Penaloza, 1994), and, 4) Cultural attributes among which are clothing, gastronomy, social celebrations, and traditions, language and forms of expression, and conduct norms (Basabe, Zlobina and Perez, 2004).

The third and final stage, is called modes of family acculturation and distinguishes five different modes as assimilation, integration or biculturalism, segregation or frustration, marginalization and antinomy. Both Penaloza (1994) and Saldaña and Ballesteros (2011) provide for the possibility that both the individual and the family live according to different modes of acculturation context.

The Saldaña and Ballesteros’s conceptual approach of family consumer acculturation has been used as a priori proposal to delve into the knowledge of the lifestyles of bicultural families (Mexican-Spanish), given a model of development of bicultural skills and attitudes that can generate a typology of bicultural families. To achieve the typology was developed a framework called Bicultural Skills and Attitudes Paradigm allowing even go deep into the processes of acculturation of bicultural families.

**Ares’ theoretical model of mixed integration**

This work addresses one of the strongest criticisms that the research on the acculturation issue had received. Those studies pragmatically deal with the change in one group, usually the weakest (Figueiredo and Cayla, 2011). This trend has occurred since the beginning of acculturation, with works related with colonialism where Western cultures and primitive cultures go into a relationship from a strong asymmetry of power.

Ares’ theoretical model of mixed integration is divided into three distinct phases Figure 1. The first one follows Peñaloza (1994) is called “history”, in this phase will take into account the demographic, personal, family, and social context of the individual.

The second stage is the process of integration, which Penaloza (1994) notes as migration, translation skills and ways to adapt. This process is modulated by four vectors of influence as Saldaña and Ballesteros (2011) suggest: Integration agents, integration tools, cultural attributes, and other dimensions of integration.

The third and final phase is the “mixed model of integration.” Remembering the masses and minorities framework by Segundo (1973), the humans have limited energy used to stimulate dimensions to add value to living. These behaviors are called minority behaviors, inspired by Castells (2000), the mixed model of integration has called project behaviors. Segundo (1973) describes the majority behaviors as those performed mechanically with not enough energy used.

**CONSUMER ACCULTURATION RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS IN EMERGING MARKETS**

In a globalized world where migratory phenomena are becoming increasingly important, the adaptation to the host culture without giving up starting identities is fundamental. Seems to open a wide field of research on these processes of acculturation through consumption, especially in regard to segments and/or emerging markets:

- The economic and financial crisis has influence, in different ways, changes in the flows and conditions into migration process. Many foreign families from Latin America staying in Spain and other European countries, are returning to their countries of origin. The research of re-acculturation or return acculturation opens interesting perspectives. In this sense could be used the Peñaloza’s model but in used in reverse (the initial background become the main determinant in the place of arrival).
- Similarly, second or third generations born in developed countries, had been living in the abundance of consumer societies and now, because the crisis have seen as their welfare go down
and now they are seeking opportunities in other countries including the origin country introducing interesting nuances in the study of acculturation. If until now the migration, have been perceived as a way to improve the socioeconomic status of people, opening opportunities for consumption and improving lifestyle, now the new processes could occur in the opposite direction, running away from the current situation, where the actual status is compromised.

• In addition, the rapid growth of emerging markets, especially in Africa, where processes are accelerated and developments are introduced even earlier than in traditional markets (eg Banking on mobile phones) may open new perspectives in the study of acculturative processes in the population, they are not necessarily immigrants and have seen as the technologies in their environments, customs and new businesses represent a major adaptive effort quickly implemented. Thompson and Arsel (2004) affirms that intersection of global brands and the local cultures produces a cultural heterogeneity. The global culture has been influencing the local cultures and at the same time has been a new form of domination.

Those refers to the framework acculturation to the global consumer culture (AGCC) proposed by Cleveland and Laroche (2007), the authors have mentioned the globalization is accelerating the process of acculturation among local consumers and moving them towards global consumer culture. Gupta (2013) list six different drivers that lead to consumer acculturation: 1) cosmopolitanism; 2) exposure to MNC’s marketing activities; 3) exposure to/use of English language; 4) social interaction with foreigners; 5) global/foreign mass media exposure; and 6) openness to emulate global consumer culture.

About AGCC framework, a research with Moroccan Consumers, were identified four relations modes with global consumer culture: 1) adoption that means de consumers do not question market mechanisms, they accept market rules; 2) market rejection, some inhabitants refuse to buy certain items in supermarkets or in contemporary shops; 3) negotiation mode as an oscillation between cultures; and 4) the best of both world mode, the consumers value the positive side of their traditional culture while enjoying the incoming global culture (Godefroit-Winkel et al 2012).

CONCLUSIONS

This research confirms the need to deep identify and examine specifically differences in the consumption values, learning processes, and behaviors of the different cultures, including native cultures in the less affluent world getting getting acculturation to a global consumer culture.

This paper supports three different frameworks as relevant ways to analyze life styles, consumer patterns as important elements to understand the integration process from immigrant communities. That framework help to understand the integration process through consumption. The three models presented confirm that, despite the different contexts, circumstances and populations, acculturation is no longer a single concept but a process that can be studied timely and that can be observed through daily behavior. Consumption patterns are, thus, good indicator for that.

Peñaloza (1994), Saldaña and Ballesteros (2010) and (Ares 2013) have been developed three methodologies to get information about immigrants groups and their process to get acculturation through their consumption patterns. These models can be seen as different stages of a common procedure as the most recent one (Ares, 2013) proposes a “mixed model of integration” taking as starting point the Peñaloza’s one and broad the scope of the second model: whether the Peñaloza’s model deals mainly with individuals, the other two goes further into a collective vision -families (Saldaña and Ballesteros) or communities (Ares)-. Common patterns and behaviors can be observed, although there are different modes of acculturation that includes assimilating the new culture, maintaining the old culture, rejecting elements of both cultures and creating an assimilating culture, and segregating from the new culture.

REFERENCES


Fire Prevention: Can Fear go up in Smoke?

Malaika Brengman, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium

INTRODUCTION

Domestic fire is an underestimated danger. In 2010, the US Fire administration reported 362,100 fires which caused 2,555 deaths, 13,275 injuries and a loss of over 6 million dollars in material damage (US Fire Administration 2011). The need to make people aware of the dangers of fire in order to drop these numbers and to make them conscious of the real threat and consequences of home fires is therefore called upon. Threat appeals can be used to do so. They are often used in social marketing campaigns to inform people about possible (health) risks and to convince them to end undesired behaviour and/or to adopt a different lifestyle (Henley and Donovan 2002; Roskos-Ewoldsen, Yu, and Rhodes 2004). By describing the negative consequences of certain risks social marketers aim to scare people into doing what the message prescribes (Witte 1992). According to the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM, Witte, 1992), which integrates Leventhal’s (1971) ‘Parallel Process Model’ and Rogers’ (1975) ‘Protection Motivation Theory’, two parallel message appraisals occur when someone is exposed to a threat appeal message: ‘threat appraisal’ and ‘efficacy appraisal’. ‘Threat appraisal’ involves the assessment of (i) the ‘severity’ of the threat (i.e., how severe are the negative consequences) and (ii) the ‘susceptibility’ to the threat (i.e., how vulnerable am I to this threat). Someone has to perceive the threat as severe and to be at risk in order for the threat appeal to produce the necessary fear to motivate action. ‘Efficacy appraisal’ or coping appraisal involves the assessment of (i) ‘response efficacy’ (i.e., the belief that the recommended behaviour is actually effective to avert the threat) and (ii) ‘self efficacy’ (i.e., the belief to be able to perform the recommended behaviour yourself). The EPPM (Witte, 1992, 1994) argues that threat appeals can have three different effects based on these two message appraisals: a null effect, an intended effect (i.e., danger control) or an unintended effect (i.e., fear control). When perceived threat is low, threat appeals are assumed to not lead to behavioural change. In this case people are not motivated to perform the recommended behaviour because they do not feel the health risk is serious or personally relevant. If the message fails to evoke at least some moderate threat, Witte (1994) argues that it will not even motivate people to move on to the efficacy appraisal. On the other hand, when perceived threat is high, the ultimate response to the threat appeal will depend on the assessment of efficacy. In case perceived efficacy is high, people will engage in danger control (i.e., attempting to control the threat by performing the recommended behaviour as intended by the sender of the message). In case perceived efficacy is low, people will try to manage their fear by engaging in an unintended maladaptive response: fear control (i.e., alleviating the fear by denial of the threat). Hence, as fear causes a negative emotional state, the person experiencing this emotion wants to neutralize this feeling by either coping with the risk and following the recommended behaviour (i.e., cognitive reaction/danger control) or by reacting defensively and denying the problem (i.e., emotional reaction/fear control) (Tanner, Hunt, and Eppright 1991). The danger has to be experienced as relevant and the recommendation will only reduce the threat if it is seen as effective (Das, de Wit, and Stroebe 2003).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

In the current study the focus lies on the concept of ‘fear control’, which will be examined in the case of a fire prevention campaign promoting the usage of a smoke detector. Different kinds of threat evoking elements (i.e., different types and levels of threat, the use of pictures and different threat occurrence levels) will be incorporated and combined in the message in order to induce varying amounts of threat. Our aim is to explore the impact of these threat cues on the threat appraisals (i.e., perceived severity and susceptibility). By doing so, we aim to better understand the process of fear control and to contribute to the threat appeal literature.

HYPOTHESES

The EPPM suggests that if a person does not find the presented danger seriously threatening, a confrontation with the threat appeal will not encourage following the recommended behaviour to avert that specific threat (Wong and Cappella 2009). Increasing the level of the presented threat should lead this person to find the threat more severe, which may make the message more effective. A meta-analysis conducted by Witte and Allen (2000) proved that stronger threat appeals have a moderate to large effect on perceived susceptibility.

Hypothesis 1: A threat appeal displaying more severe consequences of a house fire leads to (a) increased perceived severity and (b) increased perceived susceptibility in comparison to a threat appeal portraying less threatening consequences of a house fire.

Although threat appeals have a long research history, up until now no conclusive results can be drawn on the differences in effectiveness between different types of threat presented in the appeals. Every person evaluates the threat based on his/hers danger schemata and thereby evaluating how personally threatening the danger is (Mathews and Macleod 1985). Previous research has distinguished between ‘physical threat appeals’, where the threat is focused towards the physical wellbeing of a person and ‘social threat appeals’, in which social (non)-acceptance is used to motivate the respondents to alter their current behaviour (Brennan and Binney 2009). To our knowledge, no research has yet been conducted with regard to possible differences in effectiveness between the threat of getting physically hurt and the threat of losing material belongings. We expect that the threat of getting physically hurt will generally be perceived as more severe than losing possessions or property. We also expect that physical threat appeals may arouse more susceptibility, as a consequence of the higher message involvement induced by the perceived severity of the threat.

Hypothesis 2: A threat appeal displaying physical consequences of domestic fires leads to (a) higher perceived severity and (b) higher perceived susceptibility in comparison to a threat appeal portraying material consequences of a house fire.

Recent research regarding the effectiveness of threat appeals against smoking indicates that anti-smoking messages with pictures are rated as more effective than messages containing only text (Fong, Hammond, and Jiang 2010; Thrasher et al. 2012). The messages integrating a picture appear not only more effective in motivating young people to quit smoking, but also in persuading youngsters not to pick up smoking. Pictures that are graphic and vivid can be
more conveying and make the threat substantial (Witte 1993). Vivid information is known to be better remembered than less vivid (pallid) information and is more interesting, concrete, imagery provoking, and proximate (Nisbett and Ross 1980). Although the context investigated differs from ours, we expect to obtain similar results: We believe that adding a scary picture to the message may increase perceptions of severity and susceptibility. The EPPM suggests that the confrontation with a threat which may actually be perceived as severe will not result in following the recommended behaviour to avert the threat if the receiver of the message does not feel vulnerable to that specific threat (Wong and Cappella 2009).

Hypothesis 3: A threat appeal with a photo displaying the consequences of a domestic fire leads to (a) increased perceived severity and (b) increased perceived susceptibility in comparison to a threat appeal without a photo.

It could be that people do realize that residential fires propose a serious risk to both the physical wellbeing as well as to the retention of material belongings, but that they are convinced that the chances of actually experiencing such a domestic fire themselves are negligible. In that case no preventive measures, such as buying a smoke detector will be undertaken. Thus, if a person does not feel susceptible to the threat, trying to inflict susceptibility should lead this person to find the message more personally relevant, which should increase his/her perceived vulnerability. Therefore we expect that perceived susceptibility to the threat can be increased by altering the reference frame provided in the message (i.e., presenting a higher number of annual casualties of the threat portrayed in the message).

Hypothesis 4: A threat appeal mentioning a higher threat occurrence level leads to increased perceived susceptibility in comparison to a threat appeal displaying a lower threat occurrence level.

One of the goals of this article is to explore the impact of the general induced threat caused by the combined threat cues (i.e., level and type of threat, use of photo and threat occurrence level) on the threat appraisals. In our design, there are 16 possible threat cue combinations inducing varying amounts of threat (See Figure, panel 1). First of all, we need to measure which combinations evoke most feelings of fear (See Figure, panel 2). We expect an additive effect, thus combining threat cues with each other will lead towards more feelings of evoked fear. As it is difficult to predict which threat cues cause the most evoked fear, we approach this as a research question. We expect that, for instance, the combination of a high physical threat with a higher level of cued susceptibility and picture, is expected to evoke the most fear and thus more fear than the combination of a material threat with a low level of cued susceptibility without a picture. Combinations of low threat cues (e.g., no photo, low susceptibility, low level of threat) are expected to evoke less fear than combinations of high threat cues (e.g., photo, high susceptibility, high level of threat). We expect that when only one threat cue is high, a low level of evoked fear will occur (e.g., high level of threat, material threat, no photo and low displayed occurrence). When two threat cues are high, a medium level of evoked fear will occur (e.g., no photo, material threat, low occurrence and high level of threat) and when three or more threat cues are high, a high level of evoked fear will occur.

RQ1: Evoked fear will be higher when the general induced threat increases, which is achieved when a respondent is confronted with more and stronger threat cues in the message (e.g., a physical threat with picture is expected to induce more threat in general than a material threat without photo).

METHODOLOGY: EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN AND STIMULI

A full factorial 2x2x2x2 experimental design was constructed. Sixteen threat appeals (2 type of threat: material/physical x 2 level of threat: low/high x 2 use of photo: no/yes x 2 displayed threat occurrence level: high/low) were developed regarding the negative consequences of domestic fires (See Figure, panel 1). The baseline elements of the stimuli that were held constant in all conditions were a black background with white-typed text cueing in general the susceptibility to and consequences of residential fires and the message ‘With a smoke detector you can prevent this!’ at the bottom of the page. According to the level of threat and the specific level of cued susceptibility, the text at the top of the page and in the middle was altered. We differentiated between use of photo or no photo: eight of the sixteen threat appeals had an explicit picture of, for example a burning house, kitchen… in the middle of the page. For type of threat, we emphasized either the physical consequences of being in a domestic fire (e.g., a photo of a burned hand or a text about people getting maimed or who died from fires) or material damage due to fire (e.g., a photo of a burned down kitchen or a text about material fire damage). We also distinguished between levels of threat by using two levels of severity within each distinct kind of threat. Regarding the material consequences, we distinguished between limited material fire damage (less severe) and an entire house being burned down (more severe). Regarding physical consequences, we distinguished between getting maimed (less severe) and death (more severe). The last manipulation involved the displayed threat occurrence level. The low susceptibility cue mentioned only one fourth of the number of occurrences over the last year than the high susceptibility cue in case of the material threat. In case of the physical threat, the number of fire accidents in the low occurrence level condition was 1/20 of the number of the high level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Displayed occurrence level</th>
<th>Level of threat</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Physical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td><img src="image7.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td><img src="image8.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Panel 2: Expected evoked fear based on the different combinations of threat cues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Displayed occurrence level</th>
<th>Level of threat</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Level of threat</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Physical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel 3: Evoked fear (general inducted threat) based on the different combinations of threat cues. Green is low, orange is medium and red is high.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td>Combinatio n A</td>
<td>Combinatio n E</td>
<td>Combinatio n I</td>
<td>Combinatio n M</td>
<td>Combinatio n A</td>
<td>Combinatio n E</td>
<td>Combinatio n I</td>
<td>Combinatio n M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Combinatio n B</td>
<td>Combinatio n F</td>
<td>Combinatio n J</td>
<td>Combinatio n L</td>
<td>Combinatio n B</td>
<td>Combinatio n F</td>
<td>Combinatio n J</td>
<td>Combinatio n L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>No Photo</td>
<td>Combinatio n C</td>
<td>Combinatio n G</td>
<td>Combinatio n K</td>
<td>Combinatio n O</td>
<td>Combinatio n C</td>
<td>Combinatio n G</td>
<td>Combinatio n K</td>
<td>Combinatio n O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Combinatio n D</td>
<td>Combinatio n H</td>
<td>Combinatio n I</td>
<td>Combinatio n L</td>
<td>Combinatio n D</td>
<td>Combinatio n H</td>
<td>Combinatio n I</td>
<td>Combinatio n L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel 4: Amount of fear evoked by the different combinations of stimuli displayed visually.

![Evoked fear graph](image)

Table: Impact of (individual) threat cues on threat appraisals. MANCOVA results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>2559.414</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type threat</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td>14.913</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level threat</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>14.225</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use_of_photo</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>11.203</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level_of_sus</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>2.627</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owning a smoke detector</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>1.698</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>319.000</td>
<td>.185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects: Impact of (individual) threat cues on threat appraisals. MANCOVA results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Corrected Model</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived susceptibility</td>
<td>131.782</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26.756</td>
<td>17.627</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived severity</td>
<td>4914.751</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4914.751</td>
<td>3237.764</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type threat</td>
<td>7.039</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.039</td>
<td>7.354</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.022</td>
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Main effect: Level of threat

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Main effect: Use of photo

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Main effect: Level of susceptibility

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MEASURES

Different 7-point Likert scales are used in this experiment. All Cronbach alpha values of the scales appear acceptable up to excellent (George and Mallery 2003). Perceived severity was measured by means of three items (α=.779): ‘After seeing the advertisement, I’ve become aware of the severity of fire’, ‘…, I’ve become aware of the possible consequences of fire’ and ‘I find the consequences of fire displayed in this ad severe’. Perceived susceptibility consists of seven items (α=.708): ‘The advertisement is relevant for me’, ‘I feel strongly committed to this advertisement’, ‘I feel very vulnerable to the threat displayed in this advertisement’, ‘Fire seems to occur more in Belgium than I thought’, ‘I think that fire occurs relatively seldom’ (reversed question), ‘The odds that fire will break out in my home are small’ (reversed question) and ‘After seeing the advertisement, I’ve become aware of the odds of house fire’. To measure the amount of fear the advertisement evoked (evoked fear), we used the following three statements: ‘the advertisement is frightening’, ‘touching’ and ‘shocking’ (α=.766; based on Madden, Allen, and Twible 1988). As covariate we used whether or not they already have a smoke detector at home (own smoke detector).

PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

A convenience sample of 326 respondents (160 females), with a mean age of 42 years (min. 20, max. 82, SD= 14.6), participated in the paper and pencil study and was presented one of the different stimuli. Afterwards, respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire. Participants are evenly distributed over the conditions what gender and age is concerned: gender ($\chi^2(17, 326) = 6.197$, $p = .992$) and age ($\chi^2(952, 326) = 996.357, p = .115$).

RESULTS: GENERAL INDUCED THREAT

Contrast analyses were run to reveal which combinations of these variables induced most feelings of fear. Out of the 16 possible threat combinations (See Figure, panel 3), we could distinguish three clusters of general induced threat, evoking various levels of fear: a ‘low’ level of evoked fear (i.e., threat combinations involving low material threats), a ‘medium’ level of evoked fear (i.e., threat combinations involving high material threat or low/high physical threat without a photo) and a ‘high’ level of evoked fear (i.e., threat combinations involving high material threat or high/physical threat with a photo). Significant differences in evoked fear between these three clusters can be established (See Figure, panel 4): $M_{low\ general\ induced\ threat} = 3.57, SD = 1.50$ vs. $M_{medium\ general\ induced\ threat} = 4.28, SD = 1.23$ vs. $M_{high\ general\ induced\ threat} = 5.23, SD = 1.22$. A one-way analysis of variance revealed a significant main effect of general induced threat on the level of evoked fear, $F(2, 324) = 42.52, p < .001$. There was a significant trend in the data, $F(1, 325) = 80.86, p < .001$, with increases in induced threat (three levels) being accompanied by increases in feelings evoked fear, confirming RQ1. A remark should be made about the mean values of evoked fear. The mean values of some of the stimuli are below the midpoint of the scale, meaning that these stimuli with a threat manipulation are not able to evoke a lot of fear. In our research, only the low level of general induced threat is below the midpoint. Other research has also established that strong threat appeals do not evoke more than moderate feelings of fear (Witte & Allen 2000).

IMPACT OF (INDIVIDUAL) THREAT CUES ON THREAT APPRAISALS

The one-way MANCOVA (see Table for results) revealed a significant multivariate main effect for type of threat, Wilks’ $\lambda = .914$, $F(2,319) = 14.913, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .086. An other significant multivariate main effect was revealed for level of threat, Wilks’ $\lambda = .918$, $F(2,319) = 14.225, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .082, for use of photo, Wilks’ $\lambda = .934$, $F(2,319) = 11.203, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .066. For level of susceptibility the main effect was marginally significant, Wilks’ $\lambda = .984$, $F(2,319) = 2.627, p = .074$, partial eta squared = .016. A non significant effect was found for the covariate, owning a smoke detector $p = .185$. As expected, increasing the level of threat significantly enhanced perceived severity, $4.363_{low\ threat} vs. 5.071_{high\ threat}; F(1,319) = 26.879, p < .001$, confirming H1a. Only a marginal significant effect from level of threat on perceived susceptibility was found $4.337_{low\ threat} vs. 4.532_{high\ threat}; F(1,319) = 3.229, p = .073$, not fully confirming H1b. Regarding the type of threat, our findings confirm that a physical threat is experienced as more severe than a material one ($4.342_{material\ threat} vs. 5.092_{physical\ threat}; F(1,319) = 7.354, p < .007$); supporting H2a. For perceived susceptibility, the main effect of type of threat indicates that the susceptibility to a physical threat is judged significantly higher than the susceptibility to a material threat ($4.286_{material\ threat} vs. 4.583_{physical\ threat}; F(1,319) = 29.782, p < .001$), confirming H2b. As anticipated, using of a photo in the threat appeal increases perceived severity ($4.394_{no\ photo} vs. 5.040_{with\ photo}; F(1,319) = 8.427, p = .004$), confirming H4b. The occurrence level presented in the threat message (i.e.: cued susceptibility) impacts perceived susceptibility in an unanticipated negative way ($4.551_{low\ occ\ vs. 4.318_{high\ occ}}; F(1,319) = 4.616, p = .032$), disconfirming H4. Also unexpected, a marginal significant relation was found between the displayed occurrence level and perceived severity ($4.844_{low\ occ} vs. 4.590_{high\ occ}; F(1,319) = 3.472, p = .063$).

DISCUSSION

This article contributes towards enrolling the fear reactions after seeing a threat appeal. As a first step, we used different kinds of threat evoking elements (i.e., different types and levels of threat, the use of pictures and different susceptibility cues) in order to find out which combinations evoke the most feelings of fear. Contrast analysis showed three main groups of combinations, which evoke different amounts of fear. The most fear was evoked when the respondents were confronted with a high level material threat appeal or a low/high level physical threat appeal with a photo. A medium level of fear was elicited by a combination of a high material or low/high physical threat without a photo. The lowest level of fear was evoked after seeing one of the combinations displaying a low material threat. Next, the influence of the different threat cue combinations on receivers’ perceived susceptibility and severity was examined. As expected, we found that high-level threat appeals generated higher perceived severity. Also a marginal significant effect was found on perceived susceptibility, indicating that higher-level threat appeals also increased respondents’ vulnerability somewhat. These results are in line with the meta-analysis of Witte and Allen (2000). Whereas previous research regarding the impact of type of threat has always focused on possible differences between physical and social threat appeals (Brennan and Binney 2009; Schoenbachler and Whittler 1996), in the current study we differentiated between physical and material threats of domestic fires. The most perceived severity and susceptibility was elicited by the physical threat appeals, as could be predicted seeing that physical threats have also been found to generate more severity and susceptibility compared to social threats (Brennan and Binney 2009; Schoenbachler and Whittler 1996). As expected, and in line with previous literature, the most severity and
sustainability was perceived after seeing a threat appeal with a gruesome picture compared to seeing one without a picture (Witte 1993). We also differentiated between threat appeals with low and high displayed threat occurrence levels. Unsurprisingly however, we found that the low threat occurrence levels made respondents feel more vulnerable and found the threat (marginally) more severe than the high threat occurrence levels. We suspect that the higher threat occurrence levels may have been perceived to be less credible. Some further examination reveals that the higher threat occurrence levels were indeed rated as somewhat less realistic than the lower presented threat occurrence levels (5.296_{low occ} vs. 4.956_{high occ}, F(1,325)=3.105, p=0.079). More interesting was the difference in perceived realism of the ad and its occurrence level when there was no picture used. With a photo in the threat appeal, there was no significant differences found between the threat appeal with the low occurrence level and the high one regarding the perceived realism of the threat (t(166)=0.12, p=0.991, M=5.561_{low occ} vs. 5.558_{high occ}). But, when no picture was used in the threat appeal, the level of realism of the high occurrence threat was significantly lower than the perceived realism of the low occurrence threat (t(156)=2.516, p=0.013, M=5.025_{low occ} vs. 4.307_{high occ}). The appeal without photo was also found less credible (t(156)=-2.364, p=0.019, M=5.625_{low occ} vs. 5.141_{high occ}). No significant difference was found for the ad with a photo (p=0.419). When respondents saw a message without a photo (i.e., no “proof” that the threat is real) they felt the message to be exaggerated and lacking credibility and this lead towards feeling less susceptible to the threat presented. There was also a marginal significant impact of displayed threat occurrence level on perceived severity. Displaying a higher amount of annual domestic fires appeared to lead towards less perceived severity. Again, the lack of credibility towards the higher threat occurrence levels may have been responsible for this unanticipated result. Next to the lack of credibility of the threat with a high occurrence level, another possible explanation could be that often negative events with a high prevalence level are found less serious. For instance, Jemmott et al. (1986) found that the evaluation of the seriousness of a health disorder is influenced by the perceived prevalence, a lower prevalence of a disorder is seen as more serious than a disorder with a higher prevalence. This would be due to a defensive reaction; denial of the actual accuracy of the occurrence level and therefore undermining the threat (Jemmott III et al. 1986). This defensive/denial explanation of a threat with a high occurrence rate is in line with the fact that our threat appeals are found less credible when displaying a high occurrence rate.

**CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH**

The current study looked at the effectiveness of a fire prevention campaign promoting the usage of a smoke detector by means of threat appeals. We examined which combinations of threat cues in the message evoked most fear. The core social implication of this research is for people who are engaged in preventing fires and use awareness campaigns to reach that goal. Governments and anti-fire organizations can use this study to create effective threat appeals in order to augment the knowledge concerning the dangers of fire and to persuade people to install a smoke detector. Future research focusing on fear control should use other (more vivid) media, which have the capacity to evoke higher levels of fear as working with print ads appears not to be the best medium to evoke large enough amounts of fear in order to trigger actual fear control reactions. The current study has limitations. As the results indicate, credibility of the message plays an important role. The high threat occurrence levels displayed in the message were not found realistic and therefore the assumed effects could not be found. The lower displayed threat occurrence levels actually lead to feeling more vulnerable. The upfront involvement of the receiver and how important s/he finds the topic presented in the message may also play a determining role.

**REFERENCES**


INTRODUCTION

Domestic fire is an often-underestimated danger. In 2010, the US Fire administration reported 362,100 fires which caused 2,555 deaths, 13,275 injuries and a loss of over 6 million dollars in material damage (US Fire Administration 2011). In the Western European region where the data for the current study were collected, law does not yet impose having a smoke detector in a residential building. According to the Research and Information Centre of Consumer Organizations (OIVO), in that area only one in three households possess a smoke detector (OIVO 2006). Nevertheless, such a detector is an effective device to prevent serious harm in the event of a fire (Fire Marshal’s Public Fire Safety Council 2005). This low number of households who own a non obligatory smoke detector contrasts to the high number of owners in the US, where only 6% of the homes have no smoke alarm (US Fire Administration 2001).

The need to make people aware of the dangers of fire in order to drop this percentage and to make them conscious of the real threat and consequences of home fires is therefore called upon. Threat appeals can be used to do so. They are often used in social marketing campaigns to inform people about possible (health) risks and to convince them to end undesired behaviour and/or to adopt a different lifestyle (Henley and Donovan 2002; Roskos-Ewoldsen, Yu, and Rhodes 2004). By describing the negative consequences of certain risks or risk full actions (e.g., lung cancer for smokers, car accidents because of reckless driving, social disapproval caused by obesity) social marketers aim to scare people into doing what the message prescribes (Witte 1992).

According to the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM, Witte, 1992), which integrates Leventhal’s (1971) ‘Parallel Process Model’ and Rogers’ (1975) ‘Protection Motivation Theory’, two parallel message appraisals occur when someone is exposed to a threat appeal message: (1) ‘threat appraisal’ and (2) ‘efficacy appraisal’. ‘Threat appraisal’ involves the assessment of (i) the ‘severity’ of the threat (i.e., how severe are the negative consequences) and (ii) the ‘susceptibility’ to the threat (i.e., how vulnerable am I to this threat). Someone has to perceive the threat as severe and to be at risk in order for the threat appeal to produce the necessary fear to motivate action. ‘Efficacy appraisal’ or coping appraisal involves the assessment of (i) ‘response efficacy’ (i.e., the belief that the recommended behaviour is actually effective to avert the threat) and (ii) ‘self efficacy’ (i.e., the belief to be able to perform the recommended behaviour yourself). The EPPM (Witte, 1992, 1994) argues that threat appeals can have three different effects based on these two message appraisals: a null effect, an intended effect (i.e., danger control) or an unintended effect (i.e., fear control). When perceived threat is low, threat appeals are assumed to not lead to behavioural change. In this case people are not motivated to perform the recommended behaviour because they do not feel the (health) risk is serious or personally relevant. If the message fails to evoke at least some moderate threat, Witte (1994) argues that it will not even motivate people to move on to the efficacy appraisal.

On the other hand, when perceived threat is high, the ultimate response to the threat appeal will depend on the assessment of efficacy. In case perceived efficacy is high, people will engage in danger control (i.e., attempting to control the threat by performing the recommended behaviour as intended by the sender of the message). In case perceived efficacy is low, people will try to manage their fear by engaging in an unintended maladaptive response: fear control (i.e., alleviating the fear by denial of the threat). Hence, as fear causes a negative emotional state, the person experiencing this emotion wants to neutralize this feeling by either coping with the risk and following the recommended behaviour (i.e., cognitive reaction/danger control) or by reacting defensively and denying the potential problem (i.e., emotional reaction/fear control) (Tanner, Hunt, and Epplright 1991).

The proposed danger has to be experienced as relevant and the recommended behaviour will only reduce the threat if it is seen as effective (Das, de Wit, and Stroebe 2003). This is in line with Leventhal’s Parallel Process Model (1971) which states that when one considers the threat cognitively as relevant and the recommendation as effective he or she will take control of the danger. On the contrary, when one experiences fear, but does not find him- or herself able to behave as stipulated or does not consider the recommendation adequate, a process of fear control will set in motion and the person will react emotionally by denying the threat or by acting defensively.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

In the current study the focus lies on the concept of ‘fear control’, which will be examined in the case of a fire prevention campaign promoting the usage of a smoke detector. Different kinds of threat evoking elements (i.e., different types and levels of threat, the use of pictures and different threat occurrence levels) will be incorporated and combined in the threat appeal message in order to induce varying amounts of threat. We want to establish whether fear control occurs by investigating the relationship between the threat appraisals and evoked fear and subsequent behavioural intention. We are particularly interested in identifying whether increases in evoked fear lead to danger control or fear control responses. To this end, we will carefully examine the relation between evoked fear and the ultimate outcome variable (i.e., the behavioural intention towards protection against house fires). By doing so, we aim to better understand the process of fear control and to contribute to the threat appeal literature. More practically, we hope to discover how evoked fear influences the respondents’ behavioural intentions (i.e., fear control or danger control). This article is organized as follows. In the following section, the hypotheses are explained, followed by the methodology. Finally, the results are reported and discussed and limitations are provided, as well as some suggestions for future research.

HYPOTHESES

In line with the EPPM (Witte, 1992), we expect that the cognitive appraisals (i.e., perceived susceptibility, severity) elicited by the threat appeal will in turn affect evoked fear. We anticipate that perceiving the danger of fire as more severe will lead to feeling more fear. We also believe that increased susceptibility will increase feelings of fear.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived severity and perceived susceptibility will have positive relationships with evoked fear.

We expect that the larger the amount of fear evoked by the message, the stronger the intention to follow the recommendations (i.e., danger control). However, this is assumed to be true up to a certain ‘optimal’ level of fear. If too much fear were to be evoked, the receiver of the message could go into fear control (Witte and Allen...
used the following three statements: ‘the advertisement is frightening’, ‘touching’ and ‘shocking’ (α=.766; based on Madden, Allen, and Twible 1988). The dependent variable intention gauges the respondent’s personal intention to act on the message and consists of four items (α=.855; based on Keller and Block 1997): ‘After seeing the advertisement I will take precautions to prevent fire’, ‘..., I will buy a smoke detector (or I would buy one if I didn’t already have one)’, ‘..., I will, if necessary, ask an expert to help prevent fire’, ‘..., I will try to get more information on how to prevent fire’.

PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

A convenience sample of 326 respondents (160 females), with a mean age of 42 years (min. 20, max. 82, SD= 14.6), participated in the paper and pencil study and was presented one of the different stimuli. Afterwards, respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire. Participants are evenly distributed over the conditions what gender and age is concerned: gender (χ²(17, 326) = 6.197, p = .992) and age (χ²(952, 326) = 996.357, p = .115). Of the 326 respondents in our sample, 73 (22.4%) have already experienced fire in a home setting. 167 of the participants in this study (51.2%) are acquainted with someone who has already experienced a residential fire. Nonetheless, only 96 (29.4%) of our 326 respondents own a smoke detector. Quite remarkably, there seems to be no relationship between having experienced a domestic fire and owning a smoke detector (χ²(1, 326) = .190, p = .660). We also tested whether or not other measures (having a fire extinguisher, fire blanket…) were taken by people who have already experienced a domestic fire. Unlike for the smoke detector where no significant differences were found, we did find that people who had already been confronted with a domestic fire reported more often to own a fire blanket as compared to people who have not experienced a domestic fire yet (21.9% vs. 13.4%; χ²(1,326)= 3.137, p =.006). There also seemed to be a marginally

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Translated, full sized threat appeals are available upon request.
significant difference what owning a fire extinguisher is concerned (46.4% vs. 32.8%, $\chi^2 (1,326)= 4.668$, $p = .060$). These are two devices that can help to extinguish fires, once confronted with them. The smoke detector can inform you at an early stage that a fire has started. People may not see their usefulness straightaway and may have to be reminded that a smoke detector is a useful device.

**RESULTS**

In this article regarding the effectiveness of threat appeals against the dangers of domestic house fires, we investigate how the threat appraisals (i.e., perceived severity and susceptibility) influence evoked fear and how this evoked fear influences the outcome variable behavioural intention.

Firstly, we estimated which curve fitted best between the appraisal variables and evoked fear (see Table for results and Figure panel 2). The best-fitting curve for the relation between perceived susceptibility and evoked fear appears to be an s-curve; $y= e^{2.024-x}$. $R^2_{\text{adjusted}}=.205$. The relationship between perceived severity and evoked fear also seems to follow an s-curved pattern; $y= e^{1.883-1.866-x}$, $R^2_{\text{adjusted}}=.319$, $p < .001$. 

Next, we estimated which curve fitted best between the interaction term of the threat appraisals (i.e., perceived severity x perceived susceptibility) and evoked fear. We use the interaction term of both threat appraisals, as we need the effects of both appraisals to influence evoked fear. The interaction effect was not significant and it did not cause a significant F change. Therefore, we may conclude that
the two variables namely perceived severity and perceived susceptibility have an independent effect on feelings of evoked fear.

Examining the relationship between evoked fear and behavioural intention, reveals a quadratic relation, \( y = 1.255 + 0.830x - 0.058x^2 \), \( p < .001 \), \( R^2_{\text{adjusted}} = .125 \), confirming RQ1 (See Figure Panel 4).

**DISCUSSION**

This article aims to contribute towards further enfolding the concept of fear control reactions. In doing so, we conducted regression analyses to investigate whether fear control occurs by examining the relationship between the threat appraisals and evoked fear and between this evoked fear and the ultimate outcome variable, i.e., the behavioural intention towards protection against house fires. The results illustrate to some extent the inverted U shaped pattern in the curved relation between evoked fear and the intention towards protecting oneself against the threat. In line with our expectations the obtained curve indicates that a certain level of fear leads to the recommended change in behaviour. However, if the receiver of the risk message experiences too overwhelming fear emotions, defensive and avoidance reactions are assumed to take place (i.e., fear control instead of danger control) and no behavioural change will occur (Arthur and Quester 2004; Janis 1967). We observe however that we were not able to evoke such amounts of fear that they negatively affected the behavioural intention. The graph only illustrates a diminishing effect of increased fear on behavioural intention (See Figure Panel 4). We assume that we were not able to evoke fear levels high enough to illustrate this perverse effect because we worked with print ads. We expect that more vivid video ads may be more capable of evoking enough fear.

Interestingly, the other regressions illustrate a ceiling effect in the relations between the threat appraisals and evoked fear (See Figure Panel 2 and 3). Whereas we expected a simple linear relationship as the cognitive appraisals severity and susceptibility are generally known to elicit evoked fear (Witte, 1992), increasing feelings of susceptibility and/or severity did not always lead towards more evoked fear. The individual curves (i.e., not the interaction term of the threat appraisals) instead appeared to be s-shaped, meaning that the amount of evoked fear stabilized when a certain threshold level of severity and susceptibility was reached. This is an interesting observation, as it means that for threat appeals to be effective, there is no need to maximize the amount of perceived severity and susceptibility in order to create enough fear to persuade receivers to comply with the recommendations.

**CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Domestic fires can cause real dramas in case of deaths by suffocation or they can lead to disfigurements by burns and emotional traumas (Mondozzi and Harper 2001). Even though domestic fires are preventable, they still occur on a large scale (e.g., 362,100 fires were reported in the US in 2010) (US Fire Administration 2011). Our study reveals that nearly a quarter of our respondents have already experienced a residential fire themselves and that half of them have acquaintances that were exposed to this threat. A relatively cheap and effective way to take preventive measures is the placement of a smoke detector. Nevertheless, less than one third of our respondents appeared to own such a device.

The current study looked at the effectiveness of a fire prevention campaign promoting the usage of a smoke detector by means of threat appeals. The scientific focus was specifically on the concept of ‘fear control’. We examined the threat appraisals (i.e., severity and susceptibility) generated by the different threat cues. By testing how different levels of evoked fear affected the behavioural intentions of the respondents, we were able to find out whether they lead to danger control or fear control reactions.

Given the quadratic shape of the curvilinear relationship identified between evoked fear and behavioural intentions, we empirically found some proof of fear control reactions. However our print ad manipulations were not strong enough to evoke enough fear to actually also decrease the behavioural intention. Very interesting was the finding of a ceiling effect between the threat appraisals and evoked fear. Increasing perceived severity and susceptibility did only cause an increase in evoked fear up to a certain threshold level. From there on the amount of evoked fear appeared to stabilize. To our knowledge, this is the first time that this effect is found in threat appeal research. Future research should focus upon this relationship, as it could be of importance for social marketers.

The core social implication of this research is for people who are engaged in preventing fires and use awareness campaigns to reach that goal. Governments and anti-fire organizations can use this study to create effective threat appeals in order to augment the knowledge concerning the dangers of fire and to persuade people to install a smoke detector. People should be convinced of the advantages of a smoke detector (and other preventive measures e.g., fire blankets, etc.) because the detector needs regular maintenance (e.g., vacuuming and replacement of used batteries). Further research should focus on the best way to inform people about proper usage of the device, because a smoke detector placed in the wrong part of the home is not much safer than not having one at all. Future research should also aim to identify the threshold where fear control takes over from danger control and further specify the ceiling effect that occurs between the threat appraisals and evoked fear. Next to this, working with print ads appears not to be the best medium to evoke large enough amounts of fear in order to trigger actual fear control reactions. Future research focussing on fear control should therefore use other (more vivid) media, which have the capacity to evoke higher levels of fear.

**REFERENCES**


Individuals and businesses are increasingly interested in using online auction sites to buy or sell goods. A study investigated consumer experiences in the online auction environment (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2010). Hundreds of millions of consumers worldwide are registered members of online auction sites such as eBay. Many of these consumers are long-term users who visit their favoured site on a daily basis. The study aimed to understand the types of experiences people have with online auction sites.

The study involved a sampling of 17 users of the Trade Me online auction site in New Zealand. A semi-structured interview guide was used to conduct interviews with these users. The interviews sought to reveal individual consumers’ experiences, provide insight into the qualities of engagement with the online auction experience, and explore the relationships between online auction experiences, value, engagement, and plans for future use of the site. All participants had used the auction site in the previous 12 months to buy or sell at least one item, but were not conducting a business through the auction site. The purpose of the study was to understand the value consumers gain from their auction experiences.

The interviews were audio-recorded, fully transcribed, and analysed using thematic and phenomenological analysis methods. Analysis of the interview data revealed seven themes (see Table). Participants spoke at length about their online auction experiences, the outcomes of which were either positive or negative. Auction users gained diverse value from their auction experiences, including various forms of functional, emotional, social, and epistemic value. The nature of consumer engagement in the online auction environment was revealed. Phenomenological analysis of consumer statements reflecting engagement revealed seven potential dimensions to consumer engagement with the online auction experience: cognitive (i.e., interest, curiosity, absorption), affective (i.e., enthralled, hooked, passionate), reflecting self-image, control (i.e., mastery, in control), addictive, surprise and motivational (i.e., enthusiastic, motivated, dedicated). Each of these dimensions of consumer engagement likely varies in intensity. Insight was gained into the potential relationships between experiences, value, engagement, and ongoing use: there is evidence of the influence of experiences on value, and the influence of value on levels of consumer engagement; it appears likely that high levels of engagement lead to ongoing use of the auction site. Risk was a regular theme in participant’s conversations. Finally, some insight was gained into the consequences of a decline in engagement.

Based on the findings of the exploratory research, a conceptual framework of the antecedents and consequences of consumer engagement is presented. The framework proposes that some of the experiences a consumer has with an object of consumption provide various forms of value to the consumer (functional, emotional, social or epistemic value) (Sheth, Newman, and Gross 1991). Depending on the types and levels of value a consumer derives from their experiences, they are likely to exhibit higher or lower levels of consumer engagement. In this context, consumer engagement is defined as the level of enthusiasm a consumer has for ongoing participation in a consumption activity, arising as a result of perceived value derived from consumption experiences. Consumers who are highly engaged with the consumption experience are likely to interact with the object of consumption more frequently in the future. In the case of online auctions, the consumer is likely to buy and sell goods more often in the future. These new interactions with the object of consumption provide new experiences; thus the process continues in a loop. Consumer engagement with the object of consumption is likely to continue in this way, until such time as the level of value a consumer derives from their experiences falls below a minimal desired level.

The conceptual framework suggests several avenues for future research. Future research could develop a psychometric measure of consumer engagement with consumption experiences. The antecedents and consequences of consumer engagement as a motivational construct could be quantified and tested. The role of specific types and levels of consumption value in the genesis of consumer engagement warrants attention. In this regard, it is likely that the types and levels of consumption value, as antecedents to consumer engagement, vary from one consumption experience to another.
REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The rapid growth of internet communication has made consumers become more connected, and networked through various platforms. Consumers are able to create and share personal experiences through internet interfaces, so this communication has become Big Data. Big Data is usually defined as the term of describing large and complex data sets. Since this data set is a high-volume and cost-effective data set, and it has been used for consumers to obtain information and make a purchase decision (Beyer and Laney, 2012). The importance of Big Data on consumer behavior has increased, because of the characteristics of speed, wide ranges, and sources of large information. Therefore, application of this online data is necessary to understand consumer behavior. Despite the impact of Big Data, how to use or mine big data for the specific purpose of research is still in its early stage.

With the evolution of the mobile and social media technology, information on internet communication is becoming more extensive and pervasive. Numbers of consumers are using the internet to find product/service information and to purchase it via online. The internet has enabled consumers in generating and sharing personal opinions with both retailers and other consumers. Understanding consumer complaining behavior in social media has a significant importance on the nature of the third party complaints. In the past academic research, three dimensions of consumer complaining behavior were found including voice, private, and third party complaints (Singh, 1988). Among these dimensions, the third party channel is gaining importance, because it allows consumers to exchange complaints with other consumers due to the availability of the internet. Thus, retailers should be prepared to monitor and handle online complaints, because of their size and influence on other consumers.

This article analyzed the online complaints to examine different seasonal aspects of consumer complaining behavior and considers the implications for retail strategy. The seasonal demand involves predictable and uncontrollable variations over the year. In the retail industry, the seasonal pattern of demand is strongly affected by annual holidays and events. For example, the demand of holidays associated with Mother’s Day and Thanksgiving has annual patterns. The authors assume that this seasonal variation in demand results in the occurrence of online complaints. Consumer complaint behavior is important because of its implications for not only consumers but also for retailers. Therefore, the management of seasonal complaints is important for retailers to anticipate and handle the consumer dissatisfaction during “shopping seasons”. They can control seasonal promotion activities and maximize sales by decreasing possible consumer dissatisfaction. Based on the related literature, the research propositions of this study were formulated as follows:

Research proposition 1: There is a seasonal variation in online complaints occurrence.

Research proposition 2: There is a seasonal variation in the complaint theme.

The research used the text analysis and the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) to analyze data gathered from the third party website. A total of 1,799 online complaint data was collected from Complaints.com from August 2012 and July 2013. March, July, and November showed a higher number of complaints, whereas April has a lower number of complaints compared against other months. It may be suggested that since the seasonal events like starting school in March and Thanksgiving and Black Friday in November, may have motivated consumer consumption and complaining behavior.

Qualitative data were analyzed by the text analysis software, Wordstat. This approach identified seasonal differences of the online complaints, because Wordstat is a text analyzing software that searches for specific content patterns using word cluster. A total of 3,364 words was retained from the text analysis and categorized into 12 complaint themes which were suggested by Nasir (2004). Within the 12 dimensions, incidents related to billing and payment (14.6 percent) and website content and technology (14.0%), and company (13.9%) comprised the majority of keywords. Also pricing related incidents were found higher in October, and product and product support related complaints were higher in September. The findings of the text analysis showed the seasonal differences not only occurred but also complaint theme.

To evaluate the accuracy of the text-mining result, the study also conducted the critical incident technique (CIT). CIT is regarded as a method of specifically defining procedures to collect direct observations of specific human behavior and classify them as useful in solving practical problems (Flanagan, 1954). A total of 240 complaints from each month were randomly selected for CIT and categorized into 12 complaint themes. This research examined whether seasonal differences existed in the complaint theme. The results show significant differences in service failures by month. Billing and payment related incidents received high frequency in January, March, and September. Complaints related to the company often occurred in June, July, and December. Web site content and technology related complaints received high occurrences in November. This shows the frequency of complaints and complaint themes has seasonal differences.

While the practical information gained from this research will assist retailers to handle seasonal complaints more effectively, this research is not without limitations. This study applied categories to classify the different types of service failure themes based on consumer complaint text data collected from a third party website. Consumer demographic information such as gender, age, nationality is not collected. For future research, a larger sample size based on a random sampling from public sources would enhance the reliability. Furthermore a cross-cultural analysis could provide further valuable insights for the different holiday shopping behaviors.

REFERENCES


Engagement and Serious Leisure: The Case of an Online Consumption Community

Stefânia Almeida, PUCRS - Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil
João Fleck, PUCRS - Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil
Daiane Scaraboto, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Chile

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

We propose to extend current examinations of consumers’ engagement with online communities and examine it as serious leisure: “The systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge.” (Stebbins 1992, p.3). Brodie and colleagues (2013) noted that consumer engagement in a virtual brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand, and among community members. Their findings highlight that consumer engagement is a context-dependent, multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioral dimensions.

Our goal is to unveil the work-like aspects of the activity, including the efforts it requires; its costs; disappointments; its unfolding, career-like nature; and its ending. To achieve this goal, we ask the following research questions: What is the nature of consumers’ engagement with an online consumption community they created and manage? How does this engagement vary through time? We address these questions through a longitudinal qualitative study of a Brazilian-based, consumer-managed, online community of Xbox players.

Our involvement with this context is characterized by long-term immersion. Throughout eight years (2006-2013), apart from multiple interviews, using netnography (Kozinets 2010), we observed, participated in, and collected data from two large online communities dedicated to Xbox, one managed by consumers and one managed by Microsoft.

The online consumption community PXB is the third version of a previously existent community. Its evolution and renewals closely followed the history of Xbox. Three friends (Mr.Ax, DH, and Dicco), who met in the BrasilXbox community, felt the need to have a different online environment for discussion. That is how Portalxbox was born, aiming at being an online community more interactive that, instead of supporting piracy, encouraged gamers to buy original games, supporting the gaming industry in Brazil.

As this trajectory unfolded, the three consumer-founders left the role of brand fans to become brand community managers. Our findings report the trajectory of this evolving community as it intertwines with the history of these characters.

Although the growth of the community, and the relevance it gained in the game scenario (acknowledged by Microsoft) were felt as an added (and in many cases unwanted) responsibility by the ones who created Portalxbox, their decisions regarding what to do when facing these costs and challenges associated with the serious leisure varied.

For consumers who manage communities, gradual detachment seems not to be an option. Even when their engagement with the community is no longer pleasurable, some consumer-managers may feel the need to continue to dedicate to the activity. Although Portalxbox remained a priority for MrAx, after 2012, it was no longer a priority for his partner, Dicco, with whom, MrAx shared the bulk of the managing tasks. Dicco decided to quit. As MrAx believes the community did not belong to the managers, but to the 130,000 users, MrAx decided to keep the community alive, and counted on DH to help over this project.

In examining why MrAx remains strongly engaged with the community despite the increasing engagement costs, we uncovered deeper motivations, for which the engagement is instrumental. One of the reasons that motivated MrAx to start and continue his work is his belief that he can instill feelings of principal, moral and ethics on people through his management of an online consumption community.

Although PXB started with considerably fewer users than Portalxbox had, in a year the community already has 10,000 more users than Portalxbox in the beginning. Although the three consumer-entrepreneurs had never collected any income from PortalXbox – they spend averagely US$500 a month to maintain the community working – MrAx is confident that he, DH, and their team of supporters can make PXB self-sustainable. DH, however, sees it differently. He believes the majority of new Xbox gamers are youngsters who do not identify with their community and therefore it is difficult to attract new users with such an engagement. He reasons that previous users are in the same situation as himself and MrAx: people who have been playing throughout their lives, who grew up as gamers, but who now have other life interests. For DH, the community has always been work, but nowadays is just a stressful work.

In analyzing the trajectory of the consumers who are involved in the management on an online consumption community, we find evidence that consumer-managers develop a “culture of commitment” (Gillespie, Leffler, and Lerner 2005). The notion of a culture of commitment, initially developed by Tomlinson (1993), differs from the continuance commitment and value commitment to serious leisure as observed by Stebbins (1992). Tomlinson’s “culture of commitment” refers to “the attachment of individuals to groups and to what they can do for those groups, as opposed to what they can gain from the groups for themselves.” Between all managers involved in this study, MrAx is the one who has more deeply incorporated the culture of commitment. He is fully committed to the community, to its users, and to his ideal of leaving a legacy for the future generation of gamers. DH is also committed, but his commitment nowadays is much more related to MrAx and the friendship they built up rather than with the community itself, where members are no longer close friends among themselves, as they used to be at the origins of Portalxbox.

Disappointment, the hidden cost incurred by individuals who engage in serious leisure, and defined as “the absence of expected rewards and their manifestation...born in the failure of high hopes,” (Stebbins 1992, 100) has been neglected in studies of online consumption communities. Our study addresses those disappointments in the context of consumer-managed online communities, and shows how disappointments may have different implications to one’s serious leisure career.

Our findings are congruent with Stebbins (1992) suggestion of the application of the concept of “careers,” an essentially work-related term, to serious leisure. Our study is the first, which we are aware of, to investigate the fuzzy boundaries between leisure and work in consumer-managed online communities.
REFERENCES
When WOM Becomes Cynical
Bernardo Amezquita, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Claudia Quintanilla, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

“First they ignore you, then they laugh at you, then they fight you, then you win. Mahatma Gandhi” (VanessaAml).

This comment made by a poster on YouTube, rephrasing Gandhi words, express consumer’s need to be heard.

The US President Barack Obama has recognized how crucial it is for consumers to make the best choices based on clear and practical information (GSA 2012) especially before evidence demonstrating that business deceptive practices remain prevalent in markets around the world (Grazioli and Jarvenpaa 2003). As a consequence, consumers’ trust on marketing campaigns has decline over the years because of many factors, such as corporate malfeasance, preference for satisfying the business needs over the needs of the consumers, massive product recalls, pseudo consumer–company relationships, decreased service quality, and the burst of Internet (Lantieri and Chiagouris 2009; Strategic Direction 2009; Federal Bureau of Investigation 2010).

Perception that companies would not fulfill the promises they make lead consumers to believe that companies are violating an assumed and intangible contract. As social exchange theory posits, a psychological contract forms when one of the parties (e.g., the consumer) believes that other party (e.g., the brand) is obligated to perform certain actions (Rousseau, 1995). When the promises are not fulfilled, from the buyer’s stand point, a psychological contract violation occurs as the company is not delivering what the consumer expects based on the non-written contractual agreement (Robinson and Morrison 2000).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) campaigns are also target of distrust and skepticism. Bonini, McKillop and Mendonca (2007) conducted a survey in 2006 to explore consumers’ perceptions of the role of business in society. The received responses from China, Europe, India, Japan and United States demonstrate that consumers are not positively impressed with companies’ contribution to the public good. When consumers perceive a discrepancy between the CSR campaigns and the companies’ performance, they distrust the motives of the firms and believe that companies manipulate information for self-interest reasons (Chylinski and Chu 2010). Chylinski and Chu (2010) identified that the consumer may respond by making a complaint, seeking retribution, exiting or switching the company, and spreading negative WOM, reaching to cynical WOM behaviors when consumers deliberately exaggerate, lie or even defend condemnable actions.

To date, there is no research that assesses the cynical WOM on SNS’s generated by CSR campaigns. This research aims to shed some light on the subject by assessing consumer posts to a social advertising campaign about the obesity problem that an international brand of cola beverages released on YouTube. Findings extend the actual knowledge about negative WOM on SNS by identifying unique forms of harming consumer communication styles that we identify as cynical.

This research intends to prove the following propositions:

P1: Perceived inconsistency between the CSR communication in social media with the brand’s market actions leads to negative posts (i.e., WOM).

P2: A greater inconsistency of the CSR communication in social media with the brand’s market actions lead to stronger, more extreme negative posts by consumers that will look for a more radical change (i.e., cynical WOM).

As suggested by Berg (2009) and Kozinets (2002) for qualitative research on Internet, a netnography was conducted. For a 6-week period the YouTube video site was under assessment. 1173 posts were evaluated. Following Chylinski and Chu (2010) classification, posts were tagged by the researcher as positive, neutral, negative or cynical. For higher reliability, an external researcher, not familiar with the goals of this research was asked to classify each comment as well. Researcher was instructed to rate it as positive if the comment appraised the product, the commercial, the brand or the firm. Neutral if the post made no appraisal, accusation or referred to other theme. Negative if they blamed on the product, brand or corporation for obesity or any other malpractice. The post was marked as cynical if posters used irony and exaggeration to express their disagreement or if the negative comments were ironic and belligerent.

Findings support both propositions. Positive posters recognize that the corporation is making a remarking effort in fighting obesity and they express a good attitude toward the brand (8%). 28% expressed a neutral position and recognizes that the obesity problem is a battle that has to be fight with a common front between corporation and consumers. 37% expressed a negative comment against the ad, the brand, their products or the company. 17% of the posters were rated as cynical. Finally 10% of the posts were omitted by the agent controlling the site.

Negative and cynical comments reflected the perceived inconsistency between de CSR program about obesity and the firm’s sugared beverages. Three types of negative messages were identified: 1. skeptical WOM, where the consumers perceive incongruence that makes them express their doubts, 2. passive-aggressive WOM, a disguised cynicism were consumers admit they are fine with the brand despite they know the products harm, and 3. warrior WOM, where consumers openly question, criticize, and ironize the idea proposed in the CSR campaign. Two subgroups of warriors were identified: stealth busters, were consumers identify and expose posters that seem to be paid spokespersons in disguised, and brand busters, as the most extreme level of cynicism where posters lie and diffuse untrueful ideas with brand harm intentions.

Anonymity seems to be one of the reasons why people gain control over the social media and allow themselves to express negatively (Denegri-Knott 2006).

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This article illustrates that association of food products with political or ideological beliefs can influence the products’ taste. Where the political ideology conveyed by the firm conflicts with a person’s own values, it may arouse moral-disgust (e.g., Haidt, McCauley, & Rozin 1994). Moral-disgust is built on core-disgust, a primitive emotion linked often to stimuli rejection related to food (e.g., Rozin, Haidt, & McCauley 1993; Rozin, Haidt, and Fincher, 2009). However, over time the disgust reaction has generalized to broader stimuli rejection, such as the rejection of actions that are at discord with one’s values and beliefs (Haidt, Rozin, McCauley, Imada, 1997). Given the link between disgust and food rejection, evoking disgust can affect the taste of food (Eskine, Kacinik, and Webster, 2012; Skarlicki, Hoeff, Aquino, and Nadisic, 2013).

Across four experiments, we show that politically “tagged” food render food less tasty for those who hold contradicting political ideologies. This occurs because the political ideology to which one opposes would evoke moral-disgust, which in turn affects the taste of the product. In other words, moral-disgust mediates the effect.

In experiment 1 (N=62), online panel participants were asked to imagine they are tasting a cookie, and were shown a picture of the cookie. They were randomly assigned to either a Republican or Democratic donation condition, with each condition being told that they know the company producing the cookie has donated heavily to the Republican or Democratic Party, respectively. To ensure participants vividly imagined the scenario, they were told to imagine the company logo, using a company they know, and to reflect on how the donations would make them feel. Next, participants rated their agreement to two statements intended to measure their anticipated taste experience; and that moral-disgust mediates the relationship between the party to which the company donated and people’s political support (F(1, 59) = 4.53, p = .04).

In experiment 2 (N=180), we conducted a similar study as in experiment 1, but in a field setting with actual cookie tasting. Participants were presented with the same alternative scenarios as in Experiment 1, tasted an unmarked cookie, and rated its taste, as well as their political orientation (Democratic or Republican), using similar measures as in Experiment 1. We added a measure of participants’ involvement with politics. As in Experiment 1, we found an interaction between the party to which a company donated and peoples’ support for the Republican party, such that Democrats rated the cookies as less tasty if the cookies were produced by a company who donated to the Republican party (F(1, 59) = 4.53, p = .04).

In experiment 3 (N=41), broadens the conflict’s borders from political parties to general moral issues. Participants were presented with a picture of cupcakes decorated with ambiguous figures that can be identified either as ghosts or as Klansmen. Half of the participants was told that the cupcakes were prepared for Halloween gathering, while the other half was told it was prepared for a Ku Klux Klan (KKK) fundraising gathering. Next, participants were asked about their evaluation of the taste of the cupcakes using measures similar to those used in the previous experiment. They then rated the extent to which they are disgusted/repulsed by this food, their attitude toward the KKK, and whether they know what the KKK is.

Participants who were told that the cupcakes were KKK cupcakes rated the cupcakes as less tasty than did participants told the cupcakes were Halloween cupcakes (t(40) = 2.79, p = .05). Participants also rated their disgust and moral objection to the cookies as higher for the KKK cupcakes than for the Halloween cupcakes (t(40) = -7.88, p < .001). As predicted, mediation analysis reveals that moral disgust mediates the effect of the KKK cupcakes on food taste. A bootstrap analysis with 1,000 resamples revealed that the 95% confidence intervals for the significant indirect effect excluded zero (from -3.06 to -2.99, B = -1.67, p < .05).

The current study demonstrates that even the association of a food product with particular beliefs one finds morally objectionable, rather than with actual acts such as donations, can harm food experience; and that moral-disgust mediates the relationship between people’s conflicting socio-moral values and their taste perception.

Experiment 4 (N=62) examines the underlying mediating effect in the domain of political donations. It used the same procedure of Experiment 1 with additional questions regarding the extent of disgust subjects experience with the donating food company. As expected we found an interaction between the party to which the company donated and people’s political support (F(1, 59) = 5.93, p < .05). Since in previous experiments we found that the majority of the population from this online panel mostly objected to the Republican Party, we chose to examine disgust mediation in the Republican donation condition (N=30). The results show a significant effect of support for the Republican Party on taste ratings (F(1, 29) = 4.36, p < .05). Furthermore, in accordance with the results of Experiment 3, mediation analysis using bootstrap test reveals that moral-disgust mediates the effect of political donations on food taste. Specifically, a bootstrap analysis with 1,000 resamples revealed that the 95% confidence intervals for the significant indirect effect excluded zero (from .07 to .72, B = .30, p < .01).

Altogether, this paper illustrates that the association of food products with political or ideological beliefs influence taste, such that people expect and experience foods as tasting worse when the foods are associated with political positions or ideologies to which they oppose.

The results can offer several contributions to current literature. First, they demonstrate that moral-disgust can be aroused by beliefs and ideologies, rather than just actions. Second, they demonstrate that beliefs about elements associated with a product can affect its taste even when they are completely dissociated from product quality, contributing to our understanding of taste experience. Finally, they provide further evidence about the links between moral-disgust...
and taste, furthering our understanding of the relationship between moral and physical disgust.

This study also suggests some managerial implications. First, top management at food companies should carefully consider the political association of their firms and brands as this might hurt the actual taste experience of the food products they market. In fact, political donations may have such significant consequences that decisions regarding such donations should involve policy makers or shareholders. More generally, although not empirically supported in this study, the effect on food taste may be generalized to consumer experience in the contexts of other product categories, such as fashion and entertainment.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This research focuses on consumers’ ethicality perceptions of products. The first objective is to analyze the interplay of two factors influencing ethicality perceptions: the consumer perceived ethicality (CPE) of the company that manufactures the product (its corporate brand) and the presence/absence of an ethical label. This research aims at understanding when those labels contribute to improve the product’s perceived ethicality. The second objective is to analyze the role of gender on the consumer perceived ethicality of products. This research applies to branded house strategies where the corporate brand and the product brand have the same name. It follows a call to increase our understanding of consumer perceptions of ethicality (Brunk 2010; Cohn 2010; Shea 2010).

Brunk and Blümelhuber (2011, 134) define CPE as “consumers’ aggregate perception of a subject’s (i.e. company, brand, product, or service) morality”. Although their definition of CPE expands beyond companies and brands to products and services, there has been limited research on perceived product ethicality. Product or brand CPE are conceptually more complex than company CPE because a product does not make decisions or act in a way that can be judged (un)ethical. However, a product is a consequence of a set of actions and decisions and this consequence can be judged.

One of the major roles of a label is to reduce the information asymmetry between sellers and buyers (e.g. Aprile, Caputo, and Nayga Jr 2012). This is especially true when the product is characterized by credence attributes - i.e. product characteristics that cannot be evaluated by the consumer or at a very high cost - such as ethical attributes. Since a label is a brand, a product carrying a label reflects a co-branding situation and the label can interact with the product or corporate brand. For instance, Larceneux, Benoit-Moreau, and Renaudin (2012) show that organic labels increase the perceived taste and quality of the product when the brand equity is low but not when the brand equity is high. In the latter case, consumers already infer a high quality from the brand and thus, the label’s marginal effect on quality is smaller. Similarly, an ethical label should contribute little to the product CPE, when its corporate brand already has a positive ethicality perception because the possible marginal contribution of the label is limited. Also, the literature shows that women are stricter than men in forming ethical judgments, which should affect the way they perceive the ethicality of products depending on the presence of an ethical label and the corporate brand of the product.

The related hypotheses were tested through an online experiment on 335 participants coming from a selected area recruited through a social network. The experiment had a two (no ethical label vs. ethical label) by three (negative vs. neutral vs. positive brand CPE) by two (males vs. females) between subject factorial design. A pre-test checked the manipulations.

For men, the presence/absence of an ethical label does not interact with the corporate brand CPE. Both the label and the corporate brand CPE have a simple effect on the product CPE. For women, the presence/absence of an ethical label interacts with the corporate brand CPE. There is only one instance when the label affects product CPE significantly, which is when the corporate brand is neutrally perceived. When there is no label, the corporate brand CPE has a simple effect on product CPE. Also interesting to note for women is that a positively perceived brand does not improve the product CPE as compared to a neutrally perceived brand when the product has a label. An explanation could be that the positive signal sent by the label is redundant with a positive brand CPE, hence a minimal incremental effect. The experiment also shows that the label is useless on women when the company is negatively perceived, which could be explained by their stricter moral judgments (compared to men).

These results confirm the importance of two predictors of product CPE, that is the presence of an ethical label and the corporate brand CPE. The results also contribute to the literature on labels by explaining the influence of an ethical label on the ethicality perception of the product on which it is affixed. So far, most researches focused on the impact of labels on purchase intention, willingness to pay or product preference, but not on ethicality perception. This is important as companies increasingly develop ethical products that aim, amongst others, at improving ethicality perceptions of consumers. The results highlight interesting divergence in perceptions between males and females when the product information is conflicting (negative company information and positive ethical label associated with the product).

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Retailer Pricing Strategy and Consumer Choice under Price Uncertainty
Shai Danziger, Tel-Aviv University, Israel
Liat Hadar, The Interdisciplinary Center (IDC) Herzliya, Israel
Vicki Morwitz, New York University, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Assuming consumers’ average price perceptions guide their choice of retailer, previous research has examined how various retailer pricing strategies influence consumers’ average price perceptions. In these studies, participants viewed competing retailers’ product prices over many trials (simulating multiple shopping trips) and then retrospectively judged each retailer’s average price. We challenge the notion that consumers rely on average price perceptions in repeated retailer choice under price uncertainty, that is, in realistic situations where consumers choose among retailers without knowing current prices. Building on experience-based choice and descriptive choice literatures we predict a choice advantage for a retailer that offers many small discounts or a consistently low regular price (EDLP retailer) over a retailer that offers infrequent deep discounts (depth retailer). We propose the following four reasons for our predictions: (1) Under-sampling and/or underweighting of the depth retailer’s infrequent discounts. Research on experience-based choice indicates that small probability events may be under-sampled (when only partial feedback is provided) and/or underweighted. In the retailer choice context, a consumer should be less likely to choose the depth retailer if they experience the discounts it offers less frequently than it actually appears, and/or if they assign them less weight in choice than normatively warranted. (2) Loss aversion. We propose that when consumers choose a retailer they assess the chosen retailer’s price against that of the competing retailer (whether it is revealed or inferred based on previously experienced trials). Choosing the retailer that offered a lower price than the forgone retailer is perceived as a “gain” whereas choosing the retailer that offered a higher price than the forgone retailer is perceived as a “loss”. Therefore, consumers will deem a depth retailer less attractive than a frequency/EDLP retailer because it is associated with more “losses” (it is usually more expensive that the frequency/EDLP retailer) and fewer “gains” (it is rarely cheaper). (3) Diminishing sensitivity to outcomes. Due to the concavity of the value function for gains, and convexity for losses (payments), consumers gain more positive value from experiencing multiple small gains than from experiencing fewer yet larger gains, and should receive less negative value from experiencing fewer yet larger losses than from experiencing multiple small losses. In the context of repeated retailer choice, choosing the EDLP/ frequency retailer yields many smaller gains (frequent lower prices compared to the depth retailer) and fewer larger losses (missing out a large discount price offered by the depth retailer), while choosing the depth retailer yields few larger gains and many smaller losses. Building on the logic of segregating gains and integrating losses, the EDLP/ frequency retailers should be valued more positively than the depth retailer, and (4) Peoples’ tendency to predict future outcomes based on previously encountered outcomes. Humans tend to perceive patterns and correlations everywhere even if these lead to erroneous inferences (i.e., are not actually present). If people assume that past sequences are representative of future sequences they will be likely to look for patterns in previously experienced outcomes (whether such patterns exist or not), and to predict future outcomes based on these patterns. In the retailer choice context that we study, use of a prediction strategy should produce a choice pattern whereby a retailer’s choice share is proportional to the number of times the retailer provides the best outcome (probability matching), leading to a larger choice share for the frequency retailer.

In seven studies participants made 100 successive choices between frequency or EDLP retailers and depth retailers that offered the same average prices, under price uncertainty. Participants were asked to minimize overall spending and to estimate each retailer’s average price retrospectively.

Participants were more likely to choose the retailer that was cheaper more often, even when they judged this retailer to be more expensive on average, and when it actually was more expensive on average than the competing retailer. The majority of participants indicated using either a prediction strategy, where they chose the retailer they believed would be cheaper on each shopping occasion, or a frequency strategy, where they predominantly chose the retailer they believed was cheaper more often.

A tendency to choose the retailer that was cheaper more often was observed under conditions of dichotomous price distributions (a regular price and a single discounted price) with complete feedback (study 1), persisted when a prior indicated the frequency retailer was cheaper on average, but was attenuated when the prior indicated the depth retailer was cheaper on average (study 2), and was found for low and high discount discriminability conditions for more complex non-dichotomous distributions (study 3). Studies 4a and 4b illuminate why consumers prefer the frequency retailer. Contrasting depth and frequency retailers with a retailer that offered a constant price, these studies show that being cheaper more often, and not offering frequent discounts, drives choice. Study 5 demonstrated that the frequency retailer’s choice share advantage is influenced more by its frequency than by its discount magnitude, and that the frequency effect persists even when the depth retailer offers more savings overall. Study 6 extended our findings from a setting in which participants made multiple successive choices to a more realistic environment where they made one choice per day, over a 15 day period, and replicated the earlier findings. Finally, study 7 demonstrated that participant’s expectations of future prices but not their judgments of retailer’s past average prices predicted their subsequent retailer choice.

The superiority of offering frequently lower prices was demonstrated with different price distributions, product categories, different time lags between choices, across different participant populations (Americans adults and Israeli undergraduate students) and surveying methods (laboratory experiments and an online survey). The managerial implications are clear. Under price uncertainty, when consumers goal is to maximize savings, they will tend to choose the retailer they believe is cheaper more often.

REFERENCES


Pay What You Care? An Exploration of Conscious Pricing

Giana M. Eckhardt, Royal Holloway University of London, UK
Susan Dobscha, Bentley University, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Companies are looking for better ways to engage the community and be good corporate citizens. Panera Cares, a non-profit arm of Panera Bread, a US based café chain, capitalized on the current trend of ‘Pay What You Want’ (PWYW) by applying the PWYW strategy in a non-profit context. PWYW is defined as a pricing strategy that takes into account the “social preferences of customers...in lieu of a fixed price, a firm offers a good or service for whatever price customers want to pay (typically including $0)” (Gneezy et al 2010, 326). The assumption is that when given the chance, consumers will choose to act ethically and choose to pay the listed price or more to subsidize the food insecure people who will pay less or nothing for their meal.

We introduce a construct to encompass this marriage of PWYW and social responsibility: “conscious pricing.” We adopt this construct from Mackey and Sisodia’s (2013) concept of conscious capitalism, which is when an organization’s progressive values are embedded in all aspects of doing business, not just relegated to the CSR wing of the company, and is designed to result in win-win outcomes for all stakeholders. In the same vein, we define conscious pricing as the price consumers are willing to pay for a product plus some ethical component that (hopefully) compels them to pay an additional premium on top of what they consider the product to be worth. That is, consumers are being asked to value a social issue over and above any use, exchange, or identity value that they may gain from a product or service, and are asked to name that value themselves.

To examine how conscious pricing is enacted and consumed, we take a combined observational, interview and on-line based ethnographic approach to our data collection and analysis (Arnould and Wallendorf 1994). We immersed ourselves in the Panera Cares world for a period of six months, from both a managerial and consumer perspective, to see how the conscious pricing model was designed, and how it was received. We used an iterative, hermeneutic approach to analyze our data, which saw us going back and forth from the data and how it was received. We used an iterative, hermeneutic approach to analyze our data, which saw us going back and forth from the data to the literature to understand and critique the Panera Cares model (Spiggle 1994).

Panera Cares = enjoy the company of smelly, loud and obnoxious vagrants while you eat. That’s after you get past the overbearing employees explaining their new concept and hitting you up for extra money since you don’t look like you sleep on the street. Screw this place, I’ll never go to another Panera, ever. Set this crap up in a poor neighborhood. (Yelp review, Chicago, 7/31/12)

Consumer reviews and field notes show a sense of confusion and resentment when eating at a Panera Cares:

The last time I went, the lady in front of me ordered about $20 worth of food and did not make a donation of any kind. Another family had large meals and bread to-go bags, and they also made no donation. I made my round-up donation, but I felt taken advantage of and I haven’t been back since (Yelp review, Chicago, 1/13/13).

The pricing model also results in the inevitable interactions between food “secure” consumers and food “insecure” ones. Unfortunately, paying customers did not seem to feel empathy for these patrons and instead resented their presence:

More and more bums have been coming to the area. On a few occasions I noticed an officer manning the door. Who the hell wants to dine at a place that has an officer to protect them? Not me. If Panera really wanted to help they would donate to a soup kitchen and not try to make themselves look good in the media. Thanks for bringing down the neighborhood. (Yelp review, Chicago, 1/7/13)

The manager of the Boston Panera Cares highlights the fact that the environment is anonymous; no one has to know that you are food insecure or are paying less than the value of your meal; as he says, “it’s accessible and user friendly for somebody that normally wouldn’t ask for help” (Manager, Boston Panera Cares, 4/30/13). It appears from his description that the Panera Cares model seems more appropriate for people who are temporarily struggling, rather than the chronically hungry. Reactions from the CEO and local managers support this:

I remember one morning a guy comes in and says, ‘Listen, I was a tech writer. I lost my job six months ago. I don’t know where my kids are going to eat tonight. We used to love to come to Panera. Can we eat here tonight?’ That’s why this place is here, come on in. (Saich 2010)

I’ve had people say to me this is some communist agenda you have here. It’s like, no, no Panera is a corporation, this is a very republican idea of business stepping up and helping communities. (Manager, Boston Panera Cares, 4/30/13).

Essentially, Saich (2010) has a vision that the ‘food insecure’ who come to eat at Panera Care will be white collar workers temporarily down on their luck. The reality seems to be it is long term homeless people, and thus there is a tension between how sanitized both the customers and the consumers want Panera Cares to be, and the reality of having homeless people in the cafes. In sum, the conscious pricing model does not take into account the cultural, social or ethical underpinnings of consumer behavior, and thus does not seem poised to be a successful strategy to tackle social issues such as hunger and poverty.

DISCUSSION

Many of the assumptions behind the conscious pricing model belie a misguided understanding of how consumers behave in the marketplace; in particular, it is based on flawed assumptions given what we know about consumer ethics (Devinney, Auger and Eckhardt 2010). First, there is an assumption that consumers will always act on their ethical beliefs if given the opportunity. Second, Saich believes that a conscious pricing model will be effective because consumers naturally follow a moral imperative in consumption situations. Third, that this moral imperative or act of altruism will happen in the twenty seconds or so it takes consumers to enter the store and be told how it works.

Moreover, conscious pricing perpetuates the issues it hopes to address by allowing consumers an “easy out” of a guilty conscious that may arise from excessive consumption. Consumers purchase their food, pay no more – possibly less – than they normally would, and feel they have done their part for social good without having to devote any further, time, money or effort. This is an example of slacktivism, defined as “…williness to perform a relatively costless, token display of support for a social cause, with an accompanying lack of willingness to devote significant effort to enact meaningful change” (Kristofferson, White and Pelozza 2014, 1).
Conscious pricing and similar policies need to be scrutinized for potentially negative side effects or consequences. Arvidsson and Peitersen (2013) ask whether there can be such a thing as an ethical economy. They argue that to answer that question, it is much more complicated than trying to convince corporations to acquire a conscious, as advocated by Mackey and Sisodia (2013). They suggest, instead, that the responsibility for becoming ethical cannot be put on individual companies; that the solution is structural. We would add to this by saying the responsibility cannot be put on consumer’s shoulders either via methods such as conscious pricing. First, consumers will never utilize the conscious pricing model in the way in which its designers hope due to misguided assumptions about how ethical attitudes translate to behavior (Devinney, Auger and Eckhardt 2010) as well as the fact it encourages slactivism (Kristofferson, White and Peloza 2014). Second, concerns for social values such as hunger are incorporated into existing product lines, like Panera Cares’ foods, and are transformed into consumable lifestyle choices that have little to no impact on the productive economy at the structural level (Arvidsson and Peitersen 2013). Our initial look into conscious pricing spins a cautionary tale about its effectiveness.

REFERENCES
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Previous research finds a positive and significant impact of endorser attractiveness on attitudes toward the ad, brand attitudes, and purchase intentions (Amos, Holmes, and Strutton 2008; Kahle and Homer 1985; Liu, Huang, and Minghua 2007; Silvera and Astad 2004). However, we suggest that an analysis of celebrity endorser attractiveness remains incomplete without considering an important previous stage of information processing, visual attention directed towards the endorser. Although attention is a crucial first step in any positive consumer response (Aribarg, Pieters, and Wedel 2010; Milosavljevic and Cerf 2008), according to our best knowledge, no study so far has examined how visual attention to the endorser is related to endorser attractiveness and attitudes toward the ad.

Based on previous research (Silvera and Astad 2004; Kamins 1990; Amos et al. 2008), we hypothesize that evaluations of endorser attractiveness have a positive influence on attitude toward the ad. Further, when controlling for brand familiarity (Campbell and Keller 2003), we expect attitude toward the ad to fully mediate the relationship between perceived celebrity attractiveness and attitude toward the brand (Kahle and Homer 1985; Shimp 1981; Till and Busler 2000). Finally, based on previous research on visual attention (Armel, Beaumel, and Rangel 2008; Fang, Singh, and Ablawalia 2007; Grimes and Kitchen 2007; Maughan, Gutnikov, and Stevens 2007), we hypothesize that visual attention for the endorser has a positive influence on perceived celebrity attractiveness.

In order to test these relationships, we analyzed recordings from eye tracking (Patalano, Juhasz, and Dicke 2010; Wedel and Pieters 2000) and responses from a survey from 81 undergraduate students studying at a private university in Northern Mexico. Participants saw four print advertisements (two target and two filler ads) that we had scanned for the purpose of this study in the following order on the screen: Target ad 1 (L’Oreal), filler ad 1 (Nivea), filler ad 2 (Porsche), and target ad 2 (Baume & Mercier). After seeing each ad for 15 seconds, participants responded questions related to ad and brand attitudes (Campbell and Keller 2003), brand familiarity (Kent and Allen 1994; Machleit, Allen, and Madden 1993), and endorser attractiveness (Ohanian 1990).

We used PLS-SEM to analyze our data (Ringle, Wende, and Will 2005). Important psychometric properties of our scales, such as composite reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994), indicator reliability (Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2011), convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi 1988), and discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981) were overall satisfactory. Supporting our first hypothesis, the effect of endorser attractiveness on ad attitudes was positive and statistically significant for L’Oreal (β=.55, t=9.30, p<.001) and for Baume & Mercier (β=.65, t=8.18, p<.001). Endorser attractiveness explained 30 percent of the variance of the attitude toward the ad for L’Oreal and 46 percent for Baume & Mercier. Further, in support of predictive relevance, the cross-validated redundancy measures Q2 for attitude toward the brand from the SmartPLS blindfolding procedure were larger than zero (.22 for L’Oreal and .32 for Baume & Mercier).

A mediation analysis with bootstrapping (Preacher and Hayes 2008; Zhao, Lynch, and Chen 2010) showed that attitude toward the ad fully mediates the relationship between endorser attractiveness and attitude toward the brand for both the L’Oreal and the Baume & Mercier ad. Specifically, the indirect effect from endorser attractiveness to attitude toward the brand via the attitude toward the ad mediation was .33 for L’Oreal and .39 for Baume & Mercier. To estimate the significance of the indirect effects, we followed Hair et al. (2014) by calculating the standard deviations for the 5,000 estimations of the indirect effects from the bootstrapping procedure. The SD for the indirect effects were .057 for L’Oreal and .095 for Baume & Mercier, and the t-values were 5.77 (p<.001) and 4.12 (p<.001), respectively. Further, when including the mediator in the model, the previously significant influence of endorser attractiveness on attitude toward the brand became nonsignificant (ns).

The influence of visual attention on endorser attractiveness was positive and statistically significant for the L’Oreal ad (β=.25, t=2.68, p<.01), but not for the Baume & Mercier ad (β=.05, t=4.7, ns). Consequently, the R2 values for the endogenous variable, attitude toward the ad, were very small for Baume & Mercier (R2=.003) and slightly higher for L’Oreal (R2=.06). Further, the cross-validated redundancy measures Q2 from the blindfolding procedure were close to zero for Baume & Mercier (Q2=.005) and somewhat higher for L’Oreal (Q2=.04). Thus, visual attention explained a small part of the variance in endorser attractiveness for the L’Oreal ad, but not for the Baume & Mercier ad. However, although for the Baume & Mercier ad, visual attention did not have a statistically significant influence on endorser attractiveness, it did have a positive and statistically significant influence on attitude toward the ad (β=.17, t=2.11, p<.05). Our interpretation of these findings is that the relationship between visual attention on the one hand and endorser attractiveness and other, attitude-based variables on the other hand may depend on the specific characteristics of the endorser used in the advertising.

We acknowledge that due to time consuming and cost-intensive research procedures when using eye tracking methodology, an important limitation of this study is its relatively small sample size. Hair et al. (2014) suggest that in order to detect an R2 of .10 with a statistical power of 80% at the 5% significance level, a sample size of 110 is needed for PLS-SEM, which is clearly above our sample of 81 participants in this study. Further, a larger sample size would have allowed accounting for unobserved heterogeneity (Sarstedt and Ringle 2010) and the use of holdout samples to evaluate the robustness of the results (Hair et al. 2012).

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Overweight and obesity have become leading public health problems for emerging countries, such as Mexico. In Mexico, the combined prevalence of overweight and obesity in adults is 71.9% for women and 66.7% for men (Olaiz-Fernández et al. 2006). As a result, managing caloric intake has become the primary recommendation to prevent weight gain and loose excess weight (Centers for Disease Control 2011).

To effectively manage their calorie intake, consumers need to assess the calorie content of the foods they eat. However, caloric estimation is often complex and cognitively taxing, leading to systematic biases in caloric estimation. Recent research indicates that consumers tend to underestimate the caloric content a meal containing healthy and indulgent items (Chernev and Gal 2010). This bias occurs because consumers average—rather than add—calorie content of combinations of simultaneously presented healthy and indulgent foods. However, many foods require consumers to select foods presented sequentially (e.g., all-you-can-eat buffet or school cafeteria).

Consumer decision theory has established simultaneous and sequential evaluation and choice as distinct processes with different outcomes (e.g., Simonson 1990). In this research we ask: how do consumers evaluate the caloric content of a meal containing healthy and indulgent items presented sequentially. Drawing from order effects theory and anchoring and adjustment literature, we propose that when food items are presented sequentially, consumers anchor their estimates of the caloric content of the meal on the first item presented (primary effect; Haugtvedt, and Wegener 1994; Carlson, Meloy and Russo 2006), and then only partially adjust their estimates to account for subsequent foods (Epley and Gilovich 2006). We conducted two empirical studies—a field study in a real-life cafeteria, and a laboratory study—to explore the effect of the order of presentation of food items on caloric estimations.

In Study 1, we positioned a healthy or an indulgent dessert as the first or last item in a six food items sequence, and we asked 134 consumers at a university cafeteria to estimate the caloric content of their meal. Using a visual method we assessed the calories they actually had consumed from the remains on their tray (Adams, Pelletier, Zive, and Sallis 2005). Results showed that participants estimated their meals contained significantly more calories when the indulgent dessert was the first item of the sequence than when a healthy dessert was the first item (p < .05) after controlling for hunger rating. In the indulgent dessert first condition, calorie estimates were 86% higher than actual consumption (p < .001). In contrast, in the healthy dessert first condition participants underestimated by 28% the calories they consumed (p < .001). Further, consistent with the notion of a primacy effect in sequential presentations 60.3% and 63.1% of participants recalled dessert as the first item in the indulgent dessert first and the healthy dessert first conditions respectively compared to only 3.3% and 2.2% respectively in the indulgent dessert last and healthy dessert last conditions. These results, provides converging evidence that consumers anchor their caloric estimates on the first item of the sequence.

The results of these two studies show a bias in caloric estimation towards the first item in a food sequence. When food items are presented sequentially, consumers base caloric assessment of the meal on the first item, which leads them to caloric judgments that run counter to the actual caloric content of their meal. We attribute this bias to primacy effects and an incomplete anchoring and adjustment process.

Our findings have important implications for consumer welfare. Biased caloric content judgments can lead consumers to suboptimal dietary choices, exacerbating weight gain problems. Importantly, the results suggest a simple intervention or nudge (Thaler and Sustein 2008) to get consumers to eat less. Presenting an indulgent item first leads consumers to overestimate the caloric content of their meal, which may encourage them to take remedial action, such as restraining themselves from further eating or exercising more.

REFERENCES


EXTENDED ABSTRACT

We work on a link between knowledge of Marketing and knowledge of Anthropology, analyzing the consumer from the perspective of a group to which he belongs. The chosen viewpoint witnesses individuals as belonging to groups or tribes, organized around consumption. The tribe in question is made up of young people who share affinity for anime. Anime is the name used to refer to any animation product (or “animated cartoon”) produced in Japan. They are cultural productions that are available through various forms of media, such as television and the internet. Anime are considered to be derived from manga, which in short are Japanese comics. The tribe of young anime enthusiasts is well developed, which facilitates the creation of events on a large scale. Known as anime fairs or conventions, these events are frequented by young people from all over Brazil.

Considering this brief scenario, the aim of our study is to understand: what is the role of anime in the formation of tribes? This way, the general objective of the study is to analyze the influence of anime on the formation of tribes, as well as the influence of the tribes on the values, consumption patterns and habits of the individuals who belong to them. Thus, the study has the following specific objectives: to analyze the relationship between anime and the formation of the tribe; to analyze consumption patterns within the tribe; to analyze the values and habits of the tribe; and, to analyze its composition and structure.

The justification for this study is the consumption of products such as anime, and how this results in tribe formation. Tribes influence individuals, causing them to share the same habits, consumption patterns, values and to share a same symbolic cultural universe. The influence of consumption on the way in which people organize themselves within our society should not be ignored. It is important to remember that cultural references, as creators of tribes, are a growing phenomenon and ever more normal in our society. Studying the relation between anime and its tribe can bring advances in our current knowledge about this growing phenomenon.

Tribes that share certain patterns of action and that organize around means of communication deserve critical appreciation by marketing professionals. Concerning individual consumption habits within a tribe, Ostergaard and Jantzen, claim that “the individual is not considered as independent, attempting to gather more experiences. Rather than based on personal emotions, the individual that consumes is a member of a tribe in which the product’s symbolism creates a universe for the tribe (Ostergaard and Jantzen 2000, 18)”. This enables a different kind of understanding of them. Individual behaviours are substituted by the group. One observes that the actions of the tribe are stated by the group and not by each one of its members. Cova and Dalli call this desire of group action, “we-intention”. As participant observers become insiders over time, they are granted access to “backstage” areas allowing them to learn how consumption behaviors are rehearsed and performances are scripted (Arnould and Wallendorf 1994, 486)

The present research employed different levels of participation, being at times an “insider” in order to have “backstage access.” At other times, we attempted the researcher assume the posture of an outsider with the hope of reducing their own bias. Insiders are those that belong to the tribe and outsiders are those that do not. Both are related to the individual commitment to their culture and tribe. Despite the bias, there are also positive qualities to being an insider. As Arnould and Wallendorf state, “As participant observers become insiders over time, they are granted access to “backstage” areas allowing them to learn how consumption behaviors are rehearsed and performances are scripted (Arnould and Wallendorf 1994, 486)”. The ethnographic studies occurred at four anime events (anime fairs), which took place in the city of São Paulo. The first data collection trip to the field took place in July 2009, the second in January 2010, the third in July 2011 and the fourth in December 2013. The researcher’s first experience on the field took place at an event that lasted seven days; the other events each lasted four days.

It becomes clear that the formation of the tribe is only possible due to the existence of anime, which are present as a great support to the individuals belonging to the tribe, influencing their visual styles, habits, consumption patterns and providing the capacity to recognize elements and signifiers that are typical of the tribe amongst the other insiders.

This study proposes two levels of analysis when studying a tribe: the group level and the commitment level. If different groups are not noticed, some level of confusion is added to the tribe analysis, since the researcher will not understand the specific thematics and characteristics. This could result in a mistaken generalization of a group characteristic to the entire tribe. The commitment based analysis is useful to understand the position of a member inside the tribe. While analyzing a tribe you will search for critical data obtained from its members. If the hierarchic position of the member is ignored, the data can be obtained by the analysis of spectators and casual members, that are those that have less commitment to the tribe and that offer the worst quality information about the tribe. Better quality would be obtained by gathering data from hardcore and softcores who represent the central area of the tribe. They are the ones that contribute more to tribe identity and are taken as reference by the others, they are the essence of the tribe.

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Understanding Consumers by Integrating New Tools in Marketing Research
Giuliana Isabella, University of São Paulo (FEA/USP), Brazil
José Afonso Mazzon, University of São Paulo (FEA/USP), Brazil
Angelika Dimoka, Temple University (FOX/TEMPLE), USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Introduction
Interdisciplinary research is one of the most notable aspects of modern scientific endeavors (Huettel & Payne, 2009) established by scholars who strived to integrate different academic disciplines. An increasing number of marketing researches that integrate aspects of psychophysiology and neuroscience are being published in the top-tier marketing journals. However, how much impact does this type of marketing research have in Latin America (L.A.) journals? Our search criteria of searching in the top-tier ten L.A. journals only found two papers that integrated neurophysiological methods in their research. Given the growing number of marketing papers detailing studies that employ neuroscience methodologies abroad, the purpose of this paper is twofold. First, we will present each method. Second, we will discuss some of the reasons why L.A. has not yet benefited from this interdisciplinary approach; including some insights as to how such challenges could be overcome.

Neurophysiology Methods In Marketing
There are many neurophysiological measurements that the field of marketing could use. Heart rate measurement is a simple and traditionally used technique (Camerer, Loewenstein, & Prelec, 2005; Wu et al., 2012). According to Wang & Minor’s (2008) review, some studies have used heart rate to measure responses to pleasant or unpleasant experiences. Studies also showed how heart rate could be used to detect memory or cognitive attention mechanisms (Kenning & Linzmajer, 2011). The electrodermal activity measures the electrical conductance of the skin using a galvanometer (Wiles & Cornwell, 1991). This measures the amount of perspiration in response to a stimulus, which often indicates physiological arousal (Kenning & Linzmajer, 2011). In order to measure valence, researchers often use facial electromyography by attaching electrodes to the participant’s face muscles. The voice pitch analysis (VOPAN) measures the fluctuations generated by vocal cords in human speech. The recorded voice can be analyzed to interpret the attitude of the consumer in relation to some brand, or product, and the emotion in the speech (Nighswonger & Martin, 1981). The pupillary response consists of measuring the changes in the time of focus and the temporary dilatation of an individual’s pupil size in response to visual stimuli (Wang & Minor, 2008). With technological advancements, eye-tracking systems have been developed. Usually, researchers use this method to evaluate the effectiveness of advertisements, the valence or pleasure of some stimulus, attention, memory, and information processing (Wang & Minor, 2008). Although fMRI is fairly new compared to other methods, it is currently the most frequently used method (Kenning & Plassmann, 2005; Suomala, Palokangas, L., Leminen, Westerlund et al., 2012). Marketing researchers have been using fMRI to investigate products preferences, advertising effectiveness, brandy loyalty (Plassman, Kenning, & Ahlet, 2007), reward processing (Perrachione & Perrachione, 2008), and pleasure and displeasure (Suomala et al., 2012). Magnetoencephalography is a technique that collects electrical brain activity (Kenning & Linzmajer, 2011). “MEG is sensitive to changes of magnetic fields that are induced by the electrical brain activity” (Kenning & Plassmann, 2005 p. 344) capable of registering temporal sequence of different cortical processing stages. The electroencephalography measures the voltage fluctuations along the scalp (Morin, 2011), it detects the electrical potentials produced by neurons (Kenning & Linzmajer, 2011). This methodology has been used to analyze the consumer responses to different advertisements (Young, 2002) and to collect data from cognitive information processing (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007).

Empirical Study
In order to inquire opinions on why neurophysiological tools have not been used in L.A, we contacted 30 L.A. From the 16 email and phone responses, 13 researchers agreed to participate in this study.

Difficulties
To describe the difficulties with using neurophysiological tools, all of the participants answered the question related to the difficulties with using neurophysiological tools in marketing research in L.A. The main reasons were: limited number of trained professionals to operate those tools, professionals from medicine, biomedicine, or neuroscience were not interested enough in studying/collaborating with marketing researchers, marketing researchers in L.A. do not work together, there is a disinformation of the actual scope of these technologies in marketing research, it is difficult to get company partners because the market does not see the real importance of these tools, the marketing research culture is traditionally based on surveys and focus groups, L.A. researchers are reluctant to use new methods, there is a difficulty of finding available health subjects willing to participate in the study at a hospital, the data collection and analysis is expensive and the data collection process is challenging. Other less cited motives were commented.

Importance
According to the interviewees, neurophysiological tools can help marketing researchers investigate consumer or human behavior due to the impartiality of these tools. Even if the subjects are willing to cooperate during a questionnaire or interview, it is not possible to assert that their provided information is accurate. These tools help the researcher understand non-conscious reactions, such as physiological phenomena. To conclude, the majority of interviewees believe that using cognitive scope to answer a research questionnaire suffers emotional interference since both systems work together.

Overcoming Challenges
The interviewees also gave their opinions about the ways these challenges can be overcome. First, a network should be created with researchers from different fields, such as neuroscience, psychology, and physiology not only inside their countries. This network can be a simple partnership between neuroscience groups, doctors, or companies that are interested in knowing more about their consumers using these new methods. Researcher should start with low cost or medium cost neurophysiological tools, such as electromyography and eye tracking. In addition they believe that by studying this topic, a new pool of knowledge will be created in the southern hemisphere.

Final Considerations
Neuroscience techniques will not solve all marketing issues, as there is no “buy button” in the consumer’s brain (Suomala et al.,
However, these tools can bring a new perspective of how studies in consumer behavior can be done.

Acknowledgment

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Cultural Differences in Consumer Reactions to Social Exclusion and the Role of Communication Norms

Jaehoon Lee, Southern Illinois University – Carbondale, USA
L. J. Shrum, HEC Paris, France
Youjae Yi, Seoul National University, Korea

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Social Exclusion, Need-Threat, and Compensatory Reaction

People often encounter instances in which they are excluded from social interactions or groups. However, the responses to threats to belongingness are diverse, and at times inconsistent. For example, excluded people have been shown to respond in antisocial ways, such as giving more negative job evaluations (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001) and allocating more hot sauce to partners who dislike spicy food (Warburton, Williams, & Cairns, 2006). However, they have also been shown to respond in prosocial ways, such as conformity to others behavior (Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000) and reconnecting through affiliative spending (Mead, Baumeister, Stillman, Rawn, & Vohs, 2011).

In attempting to explain these contradictory findings, recent research provides evidence that the manner in which exclusion is communicated threatens different needs and thus produces qualitatively different compensatory responses (differential needs hypothesis; Lee & Shrum, 2012). Specifically, when social exclusion is communicated in an implicit manner (being ignored) that involves no direct feedback, people feel a threat to power and compensate for this self-threat through conspicuous consumption. In contrast, when social exclusion is communicated in an explicit manner (being rejected) that involves direct feedback, people feel a threat to self-esteem and compensate for this self-threat through charitable donation and helping behavior.

However, one ambiguity is why implicit versus explicit forms of exclusion threaten different needs. We propose that the manner in which self-threatening information is conveyed differs in terms of social appropriateness. People make judgments about others’ social appropriateness based on their expectations, which in turn are derived from social norms. When social exclusion is conveyed in a norm-congruent manner, it may be perceived to be socially acceptable and lead people to comply with the negative implications that they failed to gain the social approval of others. Consequently, social exclusion that is conveyed in a norm-congruent manner may primarily threaten relational needs (e.g., self-esteem).

In contrast, when social exclusion is conveyed in a norm-incongruent manner, it may be perceived to be socially inappropriate. In particular, when the violations are perceived to be unjust, people tend to show aggressive reactions, which are linked to a perceived loss of control and power (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Consequently, social exclusion that is conveyed in a norm-incongruent manner may primarily threaten efficacy needs (e.g., power).

Whether social exclusion should be communicated with either explicit signals or implicit signals may depend on cultural norms in communication. Norms are rules for social behavior that inform people about others’ or society’s expectations and differ across cultures (Geertz, 1973). Thus, what is perceived as a normative mode of communication in one culture may not be perceived as a normative mode in another culture.

In the present research, we provide evidence of cultural differences in consumer compensatory reactions to implicit versus explicit social exclusion, and show that these different responses are explained by cultural differences in communication norms. We provide further evidence that social exclusion that is communicated in a norm-congruent manner threatens relational needs, resulting in relationship-enhancing behaviors (charitable giving), whereas social exclusion that is communicated in a norm-incongruent manner threatens efficacy needs, resulting in attention-getting behavior (conspicuous consumption).

Culture and Communication Norms

One example of cultural differences in communication norms is the concept of high- versus low-context communication (Hall, 1976). Low-context cultures value social recognition. People in low-context cultures place a premium on self-needs and the expression of personal rights over relational communication constraints, and assume that the thoughts of each individual are unknowable in principle unless they are explicitly expressed in words. Consequently, they tend to express themselves in ways that are direct with no hidden meaning, and consistent with their feelings and interests (Hall, 1976).

Even criticism is communicated directly and recorded formally, and being silent on the issues that are in disagreement contradicts communication norms in low-context cultures (Kim, Pan, & Park, 1998). For example, Americans view talk or verbal communication as desirable and rewarded, and conversely view avoidance of communication or a lack of verbal assertiveness as a social deficiency. Americans also feel uncomfortable with long periods of silence, and generally avoid periods of silence in conversations. Communication norms are also evident in marketing communications.

In contrast, high-context cultures value social relationships. People in high-context cultures strive to avoid direct confrontation and repress self-feelings and interests to maintain social harmony and not lose face in relation to others (Kim et al., 1998). Consequently, they tend to express themselves in ambiguous ways or conceal their true intentions (Hall, 1976), and communicate through nonverbal factors such as facial expressions, body postures, and relationships with communication partners, especially on the issues that are in disagreement. For example, Koreans are confrontation-avoidant in conflict resolution. Similarly, Japanese often present silence, usually accompanied by facial expressions, to indicate “I disagree with you,” “I am angry with you,” or “I hate you”, because saying those words directly to individuals may cause a loss of face, which is an extreme insult.

Hypotheses

We propose that compensatory reactions to implicit and explicit communication of social exclusion differ across cultures as a function of communication norms: low-context cultures perceive an explicit way in communication as normative, whereas high-context cultures perceive an implicit way in communication as normative. To explain the link between types of exclusion and aspects of self-threats, we further argue that relational needs are more threatened when social exclusion is communicated in a norm-congruent manner, whereas efficacy needs are more threatened when it is communicated in a norm-incongruent manner.
To test these propositions, we extend the previous research that has focused on implicit versus explicit exclusion (Lee & Shrum, 2012), which was conducted with American participants (low-context culture). Because people from low-context cultures place an emphasis on direct communication, being rejected as an explicit, direct form of exclusion falls within their communication norms and is perceived as socially acceptable, as it sends direct signals that a rejected individual has failed to gain the approval of others. In line with this reasoning, being rejected produced threats to relational needs. In contrast, being ignored as an implicit, indirect form of social exclusion, falls beyond their communication norms and is perceived as socially inappropriate because it is ambiguous in nature and provides no control or power to express opinions unless attention is gained. In line with this reasoning, being ignored produced threats to efficacy needs (Lee & Shrum, 2012).

If communication norms can at least partially explain the different reactions to implicit versus explicit exclusion, then the pattern of results for those from high-context cultures should differ from those from low-context cultures. People from high-context cultures place an emphasis on social relations and harmony, attempt to avoid direct confrontation, and prefer indirect, implicit ways in conflict resolution. Thus, being ignored should fall within their communication norms because it is ambiguous, indirect, and often used as implicit exclusion or a means of expressing disagreement. If so, for those in high-context communication cultures, we expect that being ignored should threaten relational needs (self-esteem) rather than efficacy needs (power). In turn, when self-esteem is threatened, people attempt to gain the social approval and reconnect with others (Leary, Tambor, Terald, & Downs, 1995). One avenue to restore societal affiliation is through prosocial behaviors such as charitable donations.

In contrast, being rejected falls beyond the high-context communication norms because it is direct and provokes confrontation. Moreover, being rejected results in a loss of face in relation to others. The concept of face is closely related to social status and power, and a loss of face can lead to very serious consequences. Thus, for those in high-communication cultures, being rejected should threaten efficacy needs (power) rather than relational needs (self-esteem). In turn, when power is threatened, people tend to be self-focused and engage in conspicuous consumption (Rucker & Galinsky, 2009).

The general set of relations for low- and high-context cultures is shown in figure 1. The first key difference to note in figure 1 is that being ignored and rejected produce opposite outcomes for low-context and high-context communication cultures. The second key difference to note pertains to the underlying processes. In contrast to the findings of Lee and Shrum (2012), shown in the top portion of figure 1, we expect that being ignored will threaten self-esteem (but not power), whereas being rejected will threaten power (but not self-esteem). Finally, if communication norms (high- vs. low-context) can account for the differential results between cultures, then communication norms should mediate the cultural differences in response to social exclusion.

We tested these hypotheses in three experiments. In the first two experiments, we tested the effects of being ignored versus rejected with Korean (high-context) participants only, to determine whether they do in fact differ from those previously observed with U.S. (low-context) participants. Experiment 3 included both Korean and U.S. participants and fully crossed culture and types of social exclusion.

**Experiment 1**

Using a Korean sample, experiment 1 examines the effect of being rejected versus ignored on conspicuous consumption and helping.

**Method**

Korean participants wrote about experiences of either being ignored or rejected, or described their college campus (control). Next, participants expressed preferences for conspicuous logos (on a Calvin Klein T-shirt), and indicated their willingness to help others.

**Results**

Recall that in Lee and Shrum (2012), being ignored increased conspicuous consumption, whereas being rejected increased helping behavior. However, for Korean participants, the results were the opposite, consistent with our predictions. Being ignored increased willingness to help others (M = 6.02) relative to both the control (M = 5.44) and rejected (M = 5.33) conditions (both p’s < .05), whereas being rejected increased conspicuous consumption (M = 7.98) relative to both the control (M = 6.58) and ignored (M = 6.97) conditions (both p’s < .05).

**Experiment 2**

Experiment 2 tests whether the differential needs hypothesis that explains exclusion effects in Western cultures (Lee & Shrum, 2012) generalizes to Eastern cultures, but in opposite ways: For Koreans, being rejected should threaten efficacy needs, and thus result in an increase in conspicuous consumption, whereas being ignored should threaten relational needs, and result in a greater willingness to help others. This process hypothesis was tested using the moderation-of-process method (Spencer, Zanna, & Fong, 2005).

**Method**

Korean participants were randomly assigned to conditions in a 2 (rejected vs. ignored) × 3 (self-esteem boost vs. power boost vs. no boost) between-subjects design. Boosting conditions allowed us to determine which needs were threatened. If people feel threats to a certain need (e.g., power, self-esteem) and attempt to repair the need (e.g., through conspicuous consumption, helping others), providing a boost to that need should eliminate the need to repair, and thus eliminate the effect on the behavior (e.g., conspicuous consumption). The manipulations and dependent variables were the same as experiment 1.

**Results**

The predicted social exclusion × boost interaction was significant for helping (p < .05) and conspicuous consumption (p < .01). Under rejected conditions, participants in the power-boost condition reduced preferences for conspicuous consumption (M = 5.91), relative to those in the self-esteem boost (M = 7.71) and no-boost (M = 7.89) conditions. This indicates that being rejected threatened power but not self-esteem. However, under ignored conditions, participants in the self-esteem boost condition reduced preferences for helping (M = 5.50), relative to those in the power boost (M = 6.20) and no-boost (M = 6.03) conditions. Thus, being ignored threatened self-esteem but not power.

The results support the differential needs hypothesis in Korean cultures, but show that the same types of exclusion affect different needs in Korea and the U.S., which in turn causes opposite responses.

**Experiment 3**

We hypothesized that the same types of exclusion produce opposite responses between Koreans and Americans because of differing communication norms. These cultural differences in communication norms influence the directness or indirectness with which social exclusion should be communicated. Experiment 3 tests the prediction that the culturally opposite responses (culture × social exclusion) are mediated by differences in communication norms.
Method

The design was a 2 (Korean vs. American) × 2 (rejected vs. ignored) between-subjects factorial. For the conspicuous measure, participants chose among five different sizes of a Polo Ralph Lauren logo shirt. For helping, participants indicated how much money they would donate to a charity. They then completed a communication norms scale (14 items; Richardson and Smith 2007).

Results

The culture × exclusion interaction was significant for both conspicuous and helping preferences (p's < .05). Rejected Koreans preferred conspicuous logos (M = 2.42) more than did ignored Koreans (M = 1.92), but ignored Koreans were more willing to donate money (M = 2.63) than were rejected Koreans (M = 2.05), replicating experiments 1 and 2. The results were opposite for Americans. Ignored Americans preferred conspicuous logos (M = 2.07) more than did rejected Americans (M = 1.48), but rejected Americans were more willing to donate money (M = 4.56) than were ignored Americans (M = 3.34). (All predicted contrasts were significant.) This interaction was mediated by communication norms (95% CI = .0053 to .4394 for conspicuous consumption; 95% CI = .0057 to .6823 for helping).

Contribution

Our research makes three specific contributions. First, it demonstrates that consumer responses to social exclusion are culture-dependent, an important qualification to previous social exclusion research that has focused on explicit versus implicit exclusion. To our knowledge, little empirical research has investigated social exclusion effects cross-culturally, either for consumer behavior or more generally. This qualification has important implications for interpreting social exclusion effects across and within cultures, and reinforces the importance of testing the generalizability of findings beyond the dominant research culture (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). Second, our research focuses on the concept of cultural differences in communication norms, which to our knowledge is the first consumer research to directly do so. We demonstrate that cross-cultural differences in reactions to social exclusion are driven by communication norms. Finally, our research not only extends (and provides important qualifications for) previous research on social exclusion, but also provides a cross-cultural test of and support for the underlying explanation for social exclusion effects noted in this research: responses to social exclusion depend on which aspects of the self (needs) are threatened (differential needs hypothesis).

SUMMARY TABLE

- People often respond to self-threats through consumption. Research suggests that responses to implicit and explicit forms of social exclusion (being ignored vs. being rejected) produce different responses (attention-getting vs. affiliative), and these differences are a function of which aspects of the self (power vs. self-esteem) are threatened.
- The present research tests the proposition that these effects are culture-dependent and a function of communication norms. Three experiments provide evidence that Koreans and Americans respond in opposite ways to implicit versus explicit social exclusion. Implicit exclusion increases conspicuous consumption for Americans but increases prosocial behavior for Koreans, whereas explicit exclusion increases prosocial behavior for Americans but increases conspicuous consumption for Koreans.
- This moderating effect of culture is mediated by communication norms: Indirect, implicit communication is normative for Koreans (high-context culture), whereas direct, explicit communication is normative for Americans (low-context culture).
- Our research further indicates that norm-congruent communication of social exclusion threatens relational needs, resulting in relationship-enhancing behaviors such as prosocial behavior, whereas norm-incongruent social exclusion threatens efficacy needs, resulting in attention-getting behaviors such as conspicuous consumption.

REFERENCES


Factors for Success for Domestic Clothing Brands in Emerging Markets.
Miguel Angel López-Lomelí, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Campus Guadalajara, México
Joan Llonch Andreu, University Autonomous of Barcelona, Spain
Jorge E. Gómez-Villanueva, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Campus Guadalajara, México

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
On the phenomenon of global brands, certain local brands have successfully faced the global brand entries into their markets without damage to their businesses. In local markets, consumers can choose between their preferred local or global brands (Batra et al., 2000, Özsomer, 2012). International firms view this globalization as a critical advantage with expected benefits resulting from a high-quality offer via standardized products at lower prices (Levitt, 1983) or getting international recognition (Elinder, 1961, Alden et al., 1999). The competitive intensity defies international firms to develop successful marketing strategies choosing between standardization or adaptation (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011). However the international brands have different results in diverse local markets (Zhou et al., 2010).

Emerging markets (EMs) represent an important business opportunity. They have about 85% of the world’s population, they account for almost 75% of the global GDP growth. Global brands have recognized these markets as important expansion opportunities so local brands in emerging markets usually face a strong competition of foreign brands. This study analyzes key factors such as the brand attitude (BA), brand image (BI), brand as social signaling value (BSSV), susceptibility to normative influence (SNI), bias in favor of local brands (BFLB), in relation with the brand purchase likelihood that may influence the success of domestic clothing brands among consumers in emerging markets. Therefore the objectives of this research are twofold:

1. To identify some relevant factors that are related with domestic clothing brands purchase likelihood.
2. To provide local managers of domestic clothing brands, suggested factors that might be used by to develop effective marketing strategies for domestic brands in emerging markets.

The Hypotheses of this research argue that the brand attitude (H1), the brand image (H2), the brand as social signaling value (H3), the susceptibility to normative influence (H4) and the bias in favor of local brands (H5) are positively related with the brand purchase likelihood.

METHODOLOGY
Leading Mexican domestic clothing local brands were selected: Andrea, Zapatos Flexi, Atlética, and Squalo. The questionnaire of the survey as well as the measures were developed with items that were drawn from the literature. The dependent variable is “brand purchase likelihood” (LBPLC) and the independent ones were BA, BI, BSSV, BFLB, NIS. The questionnaire was administered to a convenience national representative sample (Sekaran, 1983). Consumers were asked to evaluate each brand on each of the before mentioned factors. The survey collected 679 responses. Two statistical techniques were used, factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM).

RESULTS
Results of the SEM analysis of the sample data, using the AMOS 21 software, suggest that all five factors are positively related with the local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL) given that all factors were statistically significant at 100%, P Label (***) Suggesting that, for H1: a positive BA, for H2: a positive BI; for H3: a strong BSSV for consumers who find the significance of the domestic brands, for H4: a positive SNI consumers of domestic brands looking or approval or status in front of others, and for H5: a positive BFLB in consumers attracted by the distinctiveness of the brands from their own country (Ger, 1999, Steenkamp et al., 2003, Zhou et al., 2010) will positively impact the LBPL in emerging markets.

CONCLUSIONS
Several key contributions and implications can be drawn from this research, from theoretical and practical perspectives. It is highly relevant to examine the factors that positively influence the LBPL in EMs contexts in order to extend Consumer Behavior Theory focused on these important markets. Our results demonstrated that for Domestic Brands these five factors: BA, BI, BSSV, SNI, and BFLB are positively related with the LBPL validating our theoretical model which contributes to broaden Consumer and Brand Theory.

This research provides insights to develop Local Brands’ marketing strategy by building on these factors. Local Brand Managers can enhance the LBPL with consumers in EMs to counteract the Foreign Brand Strategies into local markets (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011) via: better targeting local consumers through a stronger differentiation combining their localness effect with any of the factors, building a stronger brand attitude effect and a perception of higher value equation through their unique consumers sources of brand value (Steenkamp, 2014).

REFERENCES
A Meta-Analysis of Affect Induction Techniques: How do Induction Characteristics, Context, and Measurement Factors Influence the Strength of Affect Induced?

Scott Motyka, Babson College, USA
Nancy Puccinelli, Oxford University, UK
Dhruv Grewal, Babson College, USA
Susan Andrzejewski, Franklin and Marshall College, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Almost every aspect of the marketing environment evokes an affective response in consumers: retail atmospherics, employee behavior, advertising, product sampling, and even reading. The role of affect (i.e., mood and emotion) has been an important and growing topic evidenced by over 75 published papers by marketing researchers alone. Despite the large amount of research that has been conducted, a set of clear, standardized methods to induce affect has failed to emerge. This is evidenced by the variety of methods researchers employ with generally little to no defense or explanation for why a particular affect induction technique (AIT) was selected.

To help guide researchers in their choice of the best AIT to test their hypotheses, this meta-analysis focuses on understanding how induction characteristics (e.g., cover story, personal relevance, length) and contextual factors (e.g., culture, motivation) affect the strength of an affective state induced. Additionally, we also compare the three most popular induction methods (i.e., associational, autobiographical recall, and video—see table 1 for our summary of each technique), exploring their relative effectiveness at inducing positive and negative affect.

METHOD

Data Collection

Using meta-analytic techniques (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Grewal et al., 1997; Keller & Lehman, 2008; Palmatier et al., 2006) we synthesize 26 years of empirical marketing research (published and unpublished) on affect. Papers were identified based on an extensive literature search, in which we utilized journals, conference proceedings, and personal communications with scholars in the field. This technique produced over 75 papers.

Inclusion Criteria

The analysis draws on 75 papers that include 99 studies with a total of 12,939 participants reported in 53 articles. Given that some studies have multiple subsamples, we obtained 123 independent effect sizes. Papers were included if they experimentally manipulated one or more of the following affect contrasts: positive/negative, positive/neutral, or neutral/negative. Thus, studies were excluded if they manipulated only a single valence, only manipulated two types of affective/neutral, or neutral/negative. Thus, studies were excluded if they manipulated only a single valence, only manipulated two types of affect (i.e., mood and emotion) has been an important and growing topic evidenced by over 75 published papers by marketing researchers alone. Despite the large amount of research that has been conducted, a set of clear, standardized methods to induce affect has failed to emerge. This is evidenced by the variety of methods researchers employ with generally little to no defense or explanation for why a particular affect induction technique (AIT) was selected.

To help guide researchers in their choice of the best AIT to test their hypotheses, this meta-analysis focuses on understanding how induction characteristics (e.g., cover story, personal relevance, length) and contextual factors (e.g., culture, motivation) affect the strength of an affective state induced. Additionally, we also compare the three most popular induction methods (i.e., associational, autobiographical recall, and video—see table 1 for our summary of each technique), exploring their relative effectiveness at inducing positive and negative affect.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We present the mean effect size and related $Q$ statistics for each level of the moderators of the positive-negative contrast (other contrasts could not be presented due to limited power) and AIT analysis for all three contrasts.

Induction Characteristics

Our results indicate that disguised, relevant, and short manipulations that stimulate multiple sensory channels are most effective (see table 2). Studies employing a cover story are significantly more effective than those that do not (rNo Cover Story = .39, rCover Story = .68, $Q(1) = 171.27, p < .001$). Techniques that are personally relevant to the individuals (e.g., autobiographical recall; rNot Personally Relevant = .60, rPersonally Relevant = .66, $Q(1) = 17.63, p < .001$), and manipulations lasting less than five minutes (r5-10 Minutes = .82, r5+ Minutes = .61, $Q(1) = 99.46, p < .001$) add to the effectiveness of an induction technique. Finally, using a technique that uses a modality that activates multiple sensory channels (e.g., visual and auditory) is more effective than ones that only activate a single channel (rSingle = .60, rMultiple = .65, $Q(1) = 10.07, p < .001$).

Study Context

Beyond features of the induction technique, several study-level contextual attributes were also considered. Our results indicate that techniques are more effective in Western cultures and under low motivation conditions. Given research on display rules (Ekman, Sorenson, & Friesen, 1969), it is unsurprising that induction techniques appear to be more effective in Western cultures ($r$Eastern = .59, $r$Western = .66, $Q(1) = 22.50, p < .001$). Furthermore, motivation also seems to play a key role in the effectiveness of inductions. This is true regardless of whether one creates motivation as a result of the task ($r$Low = .61, $r$High = .74, $Q(1) = 36.36, p < .001$) or through the use of incentives ($r$No = .55, $r$Yes = .66, $Q(1) = 37.18, p < .001$).

Specific Techniques

Finally, when considering specific techniques, we compare the strength of effect sizes for each technique across all contrast types (positive/negative, positive/neutral, neutral/negative) to examine the differential effectiveness of each AIT at priming positive and negative affect. As table 3 and figure 1 illustrate, associational techniques, such as word association (Labroo & Mukhopadhyay, 2009), more effectively elicit positive affect, whereas autobiographical recall techniques (Pham & Avnet, 2009) more effectively elicit negative affect. Furthermore, procedures using video clips (Barone, 2005) are equally effective at eliciting both positive and negative affect.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the study of affect is an important and growing area of research in marketing. Our results provide clear guidelines that researchers can use to maximize the effectiveness of their affect induction methods and thereby provide the strongest test of their hypotheses. In general, we recommend disguised, personally relevant and short manipulations, avoid-
ing autobiographical recall when comparing positive to neutral affect, and associational priming techniques when comparing neutral to negative affect. Furthermore, researchers should be aware of the challenges in inducing affect in Eastern cultures. When choosing a specific technique, we would advise researchers to choose based on the type of affect they are studying. If looking at positive and negative affect simultaneously, a video-based induction would be best. For research on positive affect, associational techniques are a good option. Finally, for studies examining the effects of negative affect, autobiographical recall methods will best elicit the negative affect.

REFERENCES


Sharing is Caring – is this True or what else
Explains the Tremendous Growth of the Sharing Economy?

Verena Schoenmueller, University of Basel, Switzerland
Kristine Fritz, University of Basel, Switzerland
Manfred Bruhn, University of Basel, Switzerland

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The ‘sharing economy’ has become a widely discussed social trend in recent years. Various sharing offers continue to grow at an amazing pace: Airbnb has served a total of 9 million guests since its foundation, and worldwide memberships in car-sharing programs are expected to grow from 2.3 million in 2013 to more than 12 mil-lion by 2020. However, in the context of consumer behavior research, the motivations for sharing have so far not been investigated and the needs that are met by these sharing arrangements are scarcely understood at an individual level. A better understanding of these needs would help improve sharing offers and sustain the impressive growth that has taken place over the past years. In order to fill this research gap, the present study aims to identify and compile a comprehensive catalogue of the needs pursued with sharing.

As sharing offers differ substantially regarding various aspects such as the object shared or the level of interaction between the members, we first aim to identify the characteristics of sharing proposals in order to systematically categorize different forms of sharing. One major characteristic that distinguishes sharing proposals is the type of object that is shared. We therefore adopt “type of object” as our first criterion, and distinguish between the variants: tangibles (e.g., office-sharing) and intangibles (e.g., information sharing) (Belk 2013). In addition to the object that is shared, Belk differentiates two forms of sharing: “sharing-in” and “sharing-out”. Belk’s differentiation demonstrates that the degree of intimacy can vary considerably between different sharing proposals. Therefore, we introduce a second criterion to further distinguish between different forms of sharing: the level of social interaction; i.e., the intimacy between the participants of a sharing platform. Whereas car-sharing or rating services are mostly characterized by a very low level of intimacy between the parties involved; the level of intimacy between parties is very high for office-sharing and some flat-sharing platforms. Building on this categorization, the present study aims to identify a comprehensive set of needs and compare these within and between the four identified sharing categories.

We build on an intensive literature review and focus particularly on several psycho-logical theories in order to identify the basic needs that might explain the reasons why individuals participate in online sharing proposals. More specifically we review literature regarding Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci and Ryan, 2000), Epstein’s cognitive-experiential self-theory (1985), Maslow’s Theory of Personality (1954) and the Core Social Motive Theory (Fiske, 2010) to identify a comprehensive need catalogue regarding the different sharing offers. Additionally, we complement the review of major theories with research regarding human needs and motivations (e.g., Sheldon et al., 2001). In sum, we identify 14 potential needs in the context of an individual’s sharing behavior: autonomy, competence, relatedness, affiliation, achievement, power, self-esteem, pleasure (vs. pain), self-concept consistency, need for financial security, need for non-financial security, independence, social congruence, and control.

To verify our needs catalogue, developed within the literature review, and to identify further needs, we use a psychological means-end chain approach. Therefore, we conducted a semi-structured, in-depth interview, called the laddering technique. In accordance with various investigations (e.g., Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998), we use a modified paper-and-pencil version of the laddering technique, in which the respondents first specify three important perceived attributes of the corresponding sharing-platform and then state why these are important to them, whereby they can name up to three reasons.

We generate 85 data sets (47% females, 53% males, average age: 24.01). Two in-dependent judges analyze the content of the responses. The results demonstrate congruence between the identified need structures of the laddering interviews and the findings of the literature review, with one exception, namely, self-concept consistency. Although discussed in literature, this need is not mentioned by the respondents. Moreover, several other needs can be detected: altruism (i.e., seeking another person’s well-being as an objective) and reciprocity (i.e., seeking behavior on a mutual basis), which are identified as needs pursued on sharing-platforms characterized by the criteria of a low level of intimacy and intangible objects (e.g., rating services, open source initiatives), as well as collectivism in the sense of sustainability, quoted as a need in the context of sharing-platforms characterized by a high level of intimacy and tangible objects. Concerning the need pleasure (vs. pain), the analysis shows two different interpretations of minimizing pain and maximizing pleasure: on the one hand, pleasure (vs. pain) is determined by the need for entertainment and fun; on the other hand, the variable expresses a means to an end connection concerning the saving of money or time for other matters. The data demonstrate the importance of financial aspects (i.e., financial security, pleasure (vs. pain) [a means to an end]) for tangible sharing objects. As can be seen, for intangibles, the satisfaction of the needs competence, control, achievement and power seem to be more relevant. Interestingly, collectivism seems to be of greater importance as driver of sharing behavior for sharing tangible objects with a high level of social interaction. Finally, the social-oriented needs relatedness and affiliation are considerable for sharing-platforms characterized by a high level of intimacy.

Our results show, that consumer sharing behavior is determined by various needs discussed in social psychology as basic human needs (Pittman and Zeigler 2007). The further identified needs altruism, reciprocity, and collectivism are discussed in literature as one explanation for pro-social behavior (Batson et al. 2007). Various sharing-offerings imply other-oriented behavior. Therefore, the consideration of these needs seems to be a reasonable extension of our needs catalogue. Moreover, the variety of identified needs pursued via the different types of sharing confirms the relevance of establishing a typology of sharing-platforms. Our use of distinctions between different degrees of intimacy is confirmed by our data to be meaningful. Moreover, our results verify the distinction between tangible and intangible sharing platforms. To verify our results, a quantitative analysis of the needs that are pursued through sharing behavior is needed.
REFERENCES
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Word of mouth (WOM) is ubiquitous, and one of the most prominent naturally-occurring phenomena in the marketplace (Kozinets et al. 2010). Its formidable power wields considerable influence on consumers, and this must be understood by CB researchers. The extant CB literature, though strong in many areas, requires more WOM research, especially in the service context. Here, I contribute to the CB literature by developing and testing a service consumer-focused conceptual model. The service setting (vs. goods) is appropriate since: perceived risk is salient (due to intangibility), and consumers must content with low search (and high experience and credence) qualities; WOM is used by consumers to palliate these conditions.

While prior studies in WOM have examined various direct effects associated with aspects of WOM, few have examined interaction effects. To my knowledge, no other empirical studies have examined non-interpersonal (service purchase involvement) and personal (tie strength) concepts together by modeling their direct effects and interaction effect on the influence of WOM. Also, unique to this study is the conceptualization of risk, modeled as two separate factors: perceived risk (financial, overall performance, convenience); and psychosocial risk (psychological, social); measured by Gilly’s scale. Tie strength is defined as, “the strength of a tie is a combination (probably linear) of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimate (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie” (Granovetter 1973, p.1361; measured by Frenzen and Davis’ (1990) scale. Involvement is the consumer’s perceived relevance of an object, or purchase decision, based on their inherent needs, values, and interests (Zaichkowsky 1985); measured by Ratchford’s (1987) scale. I apply Peter and Tarpey’s (1975) two-dimensional approach to perceived risk: outcome risk (financial, overall performance, convenience); and psychosocial risk (psychological, social); measured using Murray and Schlacter’s (1990) items. Hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1 The greater the tie strength between the sender and the receiver, the greater the influence of the sender’s WOM on the receiver’s service purchase decision.

Hypothesis 2 The greater the receiver’s involvement with the service purchase, the greater the influence of the sender’s WOM (on the receiver’s service purchase decision).

Hypothesis 3 The stronger the tie strength (between the sender and receiver), the weaker the effect of involvement on the influence of WOM; and consequently, the weaker the tie strength (between the sender and receiver), the greater the effect of involvement on the influence of WOM.

Hypothesis 4 The higher the outcome risk associated with the service, the higher the level of involvement with the service purchase.

Hypothesis 5 The higher the psychosocial risk associated with the service, the higher the level of involvement with the service purchase.

METHOD AND DATA

Using survey methodology, I tested the model using a real-life (non-student) sample of participants. Participants (N = 165; Female 25.2%, M_age = 35.5 years, SD_age = 7.1) were newly posted military members and their dependents at a major army base in North America. Since military families usually move every two to three years, they must seek new service providers with each posting. WOM is the primary means by which service information is attained.

ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

A three-stage analytical process was used: (1) exploratory analyses including reliability and exploratory factor analyses (EFA) using SPSS; (2) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using Amos; and (3) hypothesized paths estimation (structural equation modeling). From EFAs, scales were refined as items that cross-loaded, and those that adversely impacted reliability were discarded. As anticipated, for the risk items, the two factors emerged; offering firm support for my formulation of risk. CFA was performed on retained scales together – all fit indices exceeded accepted minimal levels as the data fit was desirably non-significant [χ² = 54.81 (df = 55, p = .48), χ²/df = 1.00, AGFI = .92, RNI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, and RMSEA = .00]. Factor reliability, discriminant validity, and average variance extracted (AVE) were tested and found to be acceptable.

Findings demonstrated a strong interaction effect between involvement and tie strength; and that perceived risk (modeled as outcome risk and psychosocial risk) is an antecedent of involvement. Path coefficients and corresponding t-statistics were all significant confirming hypothesized relationships (H1, H5: p < .001; H2, H3: p < .01; H4: p < .05; all two-tailed tests). There was excellent data fit [χ² = 79.18 (df = 61, p = .06), χ²/df = 1.30, AGFI = .90, RNI = .97, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .04]; and R² = 17% (typical of similar studies). Additionally, the interaction effect was again examined in a post hoc regression analysis using median split data and found to be
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statistically significant \( F(3,153) = 9.88, p < 0.001 \). Thus, support for Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 was confirmed.

**CONCLUSIONS**

This study has made important and unique contributions to the CB WOM literature. By developing and testing a conceptual model with service consumer-focused constructs, I have expanded knowledge of WOM processes. Strong support was attained for the interaction effect between *involvement* and *tie strength*, both prominent constructs in CB. This significant interaction effect is a novel contribution to the CB WOM literature. Additionally, this study has reinforced the complexity of the perceived risk construct, suggesting that a multidimensional approach based on *outcome* and *psychosocial* aspects is appropriate.

**REFERENCES**


Working Papers

1. Perceived Security Risk on Consumer Purchase Behavior
   Enrique Becerra, Texas State University, USA
   Maria Cecilia Henriquez, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, Colombia
   Maria Clara Guzman, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, Colombia

   Since most consumer behavior studies are conducted in developed nations, little attention has been paid to the effects of perceived security risks on behavior. The current study explores via a qualitative analysis and an exploratory experiment, the effects of security risks on consumer purchasing behavior, including pre and post purchase.

2. Revisiting Tourist Behavior Models in Destination Choice.
   Oliver Cruz-Milán, University of Texas - Pan American, USA

   In the tourist behavior literature, Plog’s psychographic model and Butler’s tourism area life cycle (TALC) are assumed to be theoretically related. In order to better understand tourists’ destination choice, this research intends to revisit the two models, proposing that consumption needs might enhance the predictive power of Plog’s psychographics.

3. Self-Construal, Construal Level and Collaborative Consumption in Developed and Emerging Markets
   Alexander Davidson, Concordia University, Montreal, Canada
   Michel Laroche, Concordia University, Montreal, Canada

   A pilot study demonstrates that consumers are more socially motivated to participate in collaborative consumption when an independent (interdependent) self-construal is combined with a concrete (abstract) construal level mindset. It is proposed for these effects to be tested on American (more independent) and Latin American (more interdependent) consumers.

4. The Impact of Self-Construal on Materialism among Brazilian Teenagers
   Luciana de Araujo Gil, Universidad Mayor, Santiago, Chile
   Lester W. Johnson, Swinburne University of Technology and Charles Sturt University, Australia
   Gonzalo Doña, Universidad Mayor, Santiago, Chile

   Researchers have examined aspects of materialism among consumers, considering it among the most important variables in consumer studies. Self-construal (both independent and interdependent) can be argued to impact the degree of materialism exhibited by consumers. We empirically examine this using a sample from a survey of Brazilian teenagers.

5. I Don’t Believe it: the Role of Brand Credibility in Mediating the Effect of Endorsed Health Symbols on Food Evaluation and Choice
   Alicia de la Pena, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
   David Flores, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
   Salvador Trevino, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico

   Public policy makers have asked restaurant owners to provide nutrition information to assess consumers’ choices; but, do consumers understand the formats? Will an endorsed label be more effective? The objective of this paper is to propose an exploratory study to assess consumers’ perception of endorsed labels used as health clues.
6. Opinions and Preferences toward Green Marketing Communications: Mexico’s Case

Sara I. García López, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico

Green marketing communications has presented lack of credibility in much of consumers. However, many multinational and national companies in Mexico have persevered in communicating a pro-environmental image to get consumers’ preference. This article provides information about opinions and preferences toward green marketing communications in an emergent country.

7. Show Me the Money! What Consumers Prefer in a Discount Promotion

Eva M. González, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México
Eduardo Esteva, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México
Dhruv Grewal, Babson College, USA

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences between percentage-off and cents-off under high and low involvement processes. An experiment was conducted using the following parameters: 2 (high-low involvement) x 2 (cents-percentage). The results suggest that cents-off works better under high involvement, while low involvement revealed no significant difference.

8. Cross-Cultural Differences in the Regulation of Negative Specific Emotions

Hagar Tubis, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel
Hila Riemer, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel

Motivated to feel good, people tend to engage in behavior that may decrease or eliminate negative emotions (i.e., emotion regulation). We propose that individualists (vs. collectivists) are more likely to regulate ego-focused negative emotions (e.g., frustration) versus other-focused emotions (e.g., shame). One study demonstrates this effect. Additional studies are proposed.

9. The Effect of Mood on Ad Evaluation: A Cross-Cultural Examination

Lee Hasidim, Ben-Gurion University, Israel
Yaara Offir, Ben-Gurion University, Israel
Hagar Tubis, Ben-Gurion University, Israel
Hila Riemer, Ben-Gurion University, Israel

This research explores cultural differences between individualists and collectivists in the effect of mood on ad evaluation. Two theories – “affect-as-information” and “affect and the expression of culture” – propose distinct predictions. Our results reveal effects that are somewhat consistent with the former theory. Further studies will examine unresolved issues.

10. Service Recovery Influence on Satisfaction and Repurchase Intentions: Examining the Justice Theory Role in the Online Context

Khaled I Khasawneh, UTPA, TX, USA

This study examines if the existence of a fair online service recovery options can influence customers perceived risk and satisfaction levels within such context. The study’s addresses several questions that can help marketers to better understand customers fairness perceptions and their purchase intentions after service recovery process.

11. Thinking About Perceived Goal Progress in Consumer Choice: The Effects of Justification and Assortment Size

Moon-Yong Kim, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, South Korea

When consumers buy multiple items simultaneously, this research proposes that (1) consumers’ justification for choice will moderate the effect of their perceived goal progress on choice between vices and virtues; and (2) the effect of perceived goal progress on choice between vices and virtues will vary depending on assortment size.
12. The Influence of Active Goals on Evaluation of Hybrid Products
Moon-Yong Kim, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, South Korea

This research proposes that (1) consumer’s inferences of a hybrid product generating multiple-category inference can change if only one of the key focal goals attached to the hybrid product is activated; and (2) the active goal can lead to a higher evaluation of the hybrid product (i.e., the valuation effect).

13. Individualistic vs Collectivistic Culture: The Effect on Consumer-Brand Relationships
Sandra Nunez, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Salvador Trevino, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico

Consumer-brand relationships have been studied as independent from culture. However, previous research has demonstrated the need to validate consumer behavior theories in cross-cultural contexts. The conclusion of this article is that consumer-brand relationships will vary across cultures with different levels of individualism versus collectivism.

Yaara Offir, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel
Hila Riemer, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel

Integrating research on brand personality, self-brand-connection (SBC), and culture, we propose: collectivists (individualists) have stronger SBC with sincere (exciting) brands (H1). This leads to differences in stability of attitude toward various brands (H2). Study 1 partially supports H1; future studies will be conducted to further support H1 and test H2.

15. The Mediating Effect of Customer Satisfaction Between Shopping Centre Attractiveness and Mall Loyalty
Ma Margarita Orozco-Gómez, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Eva María González, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Mexico
Josep Rialp-Criado, Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona, Spain

This study was conducted at five shopping centres, and 1271 questionnaires were collected during customers’ shopping trip. Structural equations models results showed that shopping centre attractiveness has a positive impact on mall loyalty and, consumer satisfaction has a mediating effect between shopping centre attractiveness and mall loyalty.

16. Self-gifting as a Therapeutic Reward for Success
Jihye Park, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, South Korea

This study discussed a therapeutic reward of self-gifting in the context of success and examined a dynamic mechanism of motivational conflict in self-gifting from the cost-reward perspective. Sacrifice perceived from conflicts in achievement motivation and locus of achievement causality were critical indicators of predicting material self-rewarding intention.

17. Superordinate vs. Subordinate Hierarchical Choice in Self-bundling
Jihye Park, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, South Korea

A series of experiments showed that temporal distance increased superordinate/broader selection of multiple products in self-bundling. The effect of temporal distance on hierarchical selection criteria for subsequent choice was attenuated in the sequential choice condition when the core product choice was risky.
18. Developing Versus Maximizing Expertise: The Impact of Implicit Theories on Consumers’ Knowledge Preferences
Joshua J. Clarkson, University of Cincinnati, USA
Ruth E. Pogacar, University of Cincinnati, USA
Mary C. Murphy, Indiana University, USA

Two experiments document the differential knowledge preferences of incremental and entity theorists. Specifically, incremental theorists prefer knowledge breadth to develop their learning potential, whereas entity theorists prefer knowledge depth to maximize their performance potential. Implications for marketing strategies, including segmentation and positioning based on implicit theories, are discussed.

19. The Influence of Implicit Theories on Consumers’ Variety-Seeking Behavior
Ruth E. Pogacar, University of Cincinnati, USA
Joshua J. Clarkson, University of Cincinnati, USA
Mary C. Murphy, Indiana University, USA

Four studies explore the effects of implicit theories (beliefs about the changeability of personality) on variety-seeking. Those who believe people’s personalities are changeable (incremental theorists) more often seek variety in consumption experiences than those who believe personalities are fixed (entity theorists). These differences are driven by learning versus performance motivations.

20. The Production of Culture-Centric Consumer and Marketing Research in Brazil
Daiane Scaraboto, Escuela de Administración, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Chile
Márcia Christina Ferreira, Royal Holloway, University of London, U.K.
Bernardo Figueiredo, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Severino Pereira, Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

This study traces the recent scientific production of culture-centric studies of marketing and consumers in Brazil. We revisit published analyses, interview senior Marketing and Anthropology scholars, and reflect on our own experiences to build a comprehensive account of the field. We highlight relevant challenges and opportunities faced by Brazilian researchers.

21. Stay for National Brands or Move to Private Labels
Yating Tian, School of Management, Technische Universität München, Germany

This paper presents choice differences in consumers based on individual characteristics as well as alternative traits. It reveals customers’ probability of change in choosing private labels and national brands, their preferences and heterogeneity at the marketing and individual level, and appreciated unobserved heterogeneity across individuals in the effect of price.

22. What Type of Information is Most Commonly Posted on Social Networks?
Developing and Validating a Scale to Measure Content Generated on Facebook.
Maria de la Paz Toldos-Romero, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México
Nancy Maribel López-Bojórquez, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México

The purpose of this study was to design and examine the construct validity of a scale to measure the different types of content generated by Facebook users through qualitative and netnography techniques. Also, examined variable sociodemographic differences in the type of content generated. Results showed significant gender-based differences affecting content.

23. The Effect of the Type of Product and the Level of Involvement on Brand Personality
Maria de la Paz Toldos-Romero, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México

This study analyzed the relation between the type of product (utilitarian-hedonic) and the level of involvement (high-low) on brand personality. The brand personality dimensions were compared to study the differences among 12 brands. Feel-products with high-involvement were perceived as more hip/vivacious and sophisticated, think-products with high-involvement were considered the most professional.
24. Uniqueness of Fashion on Wearer’s Creativity: Roles of Self-Awareness and Extroversion
SanYoung Hwang, Hongik University, Korea
Nara Youn, Hongik University, Korea

Through three studies, we show that wearing unique clothing can alter individual’s creativity. This uniqueness of fashion and creativity relationship is moderated by extroversion. We also unveil the mediating role of self-awareness which explains the uniqueness of fashion and wearer’s creativity relationship.

25. Solitude Produces Creativity: The Role of Self-Reflection and Happiness as Mediators
Byungik Yoon, Hongik University, Korea
Nara Youn, Hongik University, Korea

This research investigates the relationship between solitude and creativity, tests the underlying processes that explain it, and examines the brand preference of the solitary. The findings indicate that solitude influences various outcomes of creativity. Self-reflection and happiness mediate the effect of solitude on creativity.

26. The Impact of Aesthetics on Consumer Creativity
Dong Hwy An, Hongik University, Korea
Nara Youn, Hongik University, Korea

Participants with open attitudes towards aesthetic experience are inspired and showed higher performance in creative search for solutions (Study 1). Appreciating art works elicited inspiration which enhanced creativity (Study 2). Experiencing beautiful products inspired customers and increased their creativity. Sensory innovativeness moderated the path (Study 3).

27. The Effect of Spirituality on Pro-social Behavior: Moderating Effect of Approach-Avoidance Motivation
Eun Young Chun, Hongik University, Korea
Nara Youn, Hongik University, Korea

In line with spiritual marketing, we demonstrated the effects of spirituality on pro-social behavior (studies 1a and 1b) using various measures and manipulation methods of spirituality. In addition, we verified the moderating effect of approach-avoidance motivation on the relationship between spirituality and pro-social behavior (study 2).
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