

control, spent more money than participants who had not engaged in prior acts of self-control. Research on social exclusion has shown that when people are socially excluded they engage in behavior indicative of low self-control (Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Twenge 2005). For example, they eat more cookies, drink less of a healthy but unpleasant-tasting drink, and give up on difficult tasks sooner than participants who were not socially excluded. Thus, socially excluded people are less able to implement a more desirable response than participants who are not socially excluded. Taken together, these results suggest that social exclusion should lead to increased impulsive spending via reduced self-control. One laboratory study supports this hypothesis.

Social exclusion was manipulated using a procedure developed by Baumeister and colleagues (2005). After arriving to the experiment, participants completed the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). The experimenter scored their questionnaire; based on random assignment, the experimenter gave the participant bogus feedback regarding their personality score. Participants in the *future belong condition* were told they would have rewarding relationships throughout life, a long and stable marriage, and lasting friendships. Participants in the *future alone condition* were told they would end up alone later in life; their current friends and relationships would fade away, their (several) marriages would all dissolve, and they would essentially be alone later in life. Participants in the *misfortune control condition* were told they would be accident prone later in life. This condition served as a negative feedback control, allowing us to attribute increases in spending to the specificity of negative feedback regarding social relationships, not negative feedback in general. After the feedback, we checked for differences in affect by administering the Brief Mood Introspection Scale (BMIS; Mayer and Gaschke 1988).

Next, we measured amount willingness to spend, using a Feinberg (1986) method adapted by Vohs and Faber (in press). Participants were given a binder, which contained 15 glossy pictures of various mid to high end products (watch, car, fridge, sofa, jewelry, etc.). Participants were asked to indicate the maximum price they would be willing to pay for each product. Independent raters classified the products according to three categories: 1) Products one purchases for the self (e.g., Widescreen Flat-Panel TV) 2) Products one purchases to indicate status or resources, that is, conspicuous consumption products (e.g., Audi, Rolex) and 3) Products one buys for practical purposes (e.g., table, sofa).

We summed amount willing to pay for all 15 products as an overall index of willingness to spend. An ANOVA with condition as the predictor showed that participants in the *future alone condition* were willing to pay significantly more than the *future belonging condition* and the *misfortune control condition*. Willingness to pay was not significantly different between the *future alone condition* and the *misfortune control condition*.

We also summed amount willing to pay for the three categories of items: Conspicuous consumption items, items for the self, and practical items. Three separate ANOVAs using condition as the predictor showed that participants in the *future alone condition* were willing to pay significantly more for conspicuous consumption items and items purchased for the self than participants in the *future belonging condition* and *misfortune control condition*; however, there was no difference between the three groups in willingness to pay for practical items.

Our experimental design precludes the possibility that obtained results are attributable to receiving negative feedback. Participants in the *misfortune control condition* also received negative feedback; however, they were willing to pay less than participants in the *future alone condition*. The increase in willingness to spend seems more specific to the negative feedback of social exclusion.

No differences in emotion, measured by the BMIS (Mayer and Gaschke 1988), were found as a result of the feedback. This is consistent with previous laboratory social exclusion manipulations (e.g., Baumeister et al., 2005). Furthermore, correlations between amount willing to pay and emotion indicated there were no significant relations between our dependent measures and emotion.

In sum, this study provides evidence that social exclusion leads to increased willingness to spend. Participants who have been socially excluded indicated they would pay more for products that demonstrate status and resources, as well as for products one purchases for the self, relative to participants who were not socially excluded. Social exclusion did not, however, lead to an increased willingness to pay for practical items.

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It's About Time: Sex Differences in Estimating Time for Shopping in Five Contexts

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Traditional sex roles hold that women not only spend more time shopping than men, but also enjoy shopping far more than men do. Indeed, there seems to be as much pride among men when they announce how much they "hate" shopping as among women who proclaim their prowess (Dennis & McCall, 2005). If retailers and researchers wish to alter males' perceptions of shopping, we require a better

understanding of the processes that maintain those sex differences. To help fill this gap, this research will test the hypothesis that sex differences in shopping behavior are reflected in, and influenced by, the amount of time women and men estimate in advance for shopping tasks, and more fundamentally, in how they arrive at these estimates. Men, more so than women, may be falling into a form of planning fallacy (Kruger & Evans, 2003) where time estimates become unrealistic, leading to unpleasant experiences.

Time estimation and shopping enjoyment are linked in a close, reciprocal relationship that can have dramatic effects on the retail environment (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcolyn & Nesdale, 1994). Previous research shows that enjoyment of a task may lead to an underestimation of time elapsing as the task unfolds, as when people lose track of time doing something they enjoy (see Chaston & Kingstone, 2004). Conversely, underestimating time in advance of an activity will tend to create a sense of time pressure that can interfere with the task and reduce enjoyment. Time pressure has been identified as a significant source of shopping stress (Aylott & Mitchell, 1999; Fram, 1991, 1992; Fram & Axelrod, 1990; Suján, Suján, Bettman, & Verhallen, 1999). Time pressure is an important variable for marketers to understand because it affects attitude towards shopping (Mowen, 1993) and consumer behavior (Van Kenhove & De Wulf, 2000). The amount of time allotted for shopping, and the way in which shopping time is estimated, can either exacerbate or relieve time pressure. For this reason, time estimation holds the potential to be a lynchpin in understanding the psychological differences between men and women shoppers; there is little previous research in this area.

To test the hypotheses underlying this study, we required a diversity of shopping contexts experienced by both sexes and a relatively homogeneous sample of shoppers. We selected a sample of men and women enrolled full-time in the Business program at Cape Breton University. This allowed for with the added benefit of a “member check” (Maxwell, 2005) of our interpretations of the results with a subgroup of 30 study participants. After pilot testing, we asked the main sample of 203 respondents to estimate the time required to perform specific shopping tasks with which they had experience. The self-report questionnaire had several elements, but our focus in this paper is on the time estimation data.

Shopping is a contextualized act (Buttle, 1992). Therefore, we asked respondents to imagine shopping in 5 different contexts commonly experienced by both men and women. In each context we presented respondents with a product acquisition motive. The specific contexts were shopping for (1) a gift, (2) a computer, (3) a leisure product such as sporting goods, a book, or music, (4) clothing (specifically jeans or casual pants) and (5) a short list of grocery items. We tested the hypothesis that men and women estimate time differently within each of the contexts (MacNeil, 2006).

In analyzing the time estimates provided by men and women in the five shopping contexts, significant main effects were found for both sex ($F(1,162)=17.2, p<.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=.096$) and shopping context ($F(4,648)=28.9, p<.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=.151$), and the interaction was significant ($F(4,680)=5.91, p<.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=.035$). The main effect for sex indicates that women and men differ significantly in their estimates of shopping time, and the significant interaction indicates that sex differences in time estimation depend on shopping contexts.

Results showed that in all contexts women estimated longer amounts of time than did men, but sex differences were statistically significant ($p<.05$) in only three of the five shopping contexts: gift, computer, and clothes. In two contexts, gift and computer, women estimated it would take almost 50% more time than did the men. In the clothing context, women’s estimates were almost twice as high as those given by men. The estimates of time were very similar and not significantly different for leisure product and grocery shopping.

To better understand why men and women are providing different estimates of time, we examined sex differences in the methods by which those estimates were generated. In three of the shopping contexts, we asked respondents to indicate the method of time estimation by selecting one of four options (ballpark, desired time, recall, and subtasks). Using 2 x 4 cross-tabulations and the chi-square statistic we found significant differences in both the gift and leisure product contexts, where men preferred the cursory “ballpark” estimation method, and women preferred to estimate by recalling a previous shopping trip. No significant differences were found in the method of estimating the time required to purchase a computer.

The major results of this study both support and qualify the hypotheses we had in approaching the research project. We found that women tend to allocate more time to shopping than men, but the difference depends on context. We also found that men tend to use more cursory methods of time estimation, though again the shopping context has an impact. Finally, when asked to use the same time estimation procedure, breaking the task into subtasks and estimating the time allocated to each, men and women differ in one context (clothing) and not the other (grocery). The complexity of the results and their implications for retail environments suggest that time estimation for shopping will be fertile ground for future research.

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The Role of Prior Knowledge in Advertisement Evaluation

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Extended Abstract

As an important construct in consumer research, prior knowledge has garnered researchers' attention for more than two decades. Previous research traditionally focuses on prior knowledge's impact on consumers' information search, information processing and learning behaviors. Very few studies (e.g. Roehm and Sternthal 2001) have directly explored the role of prior knowledge in advertisement evaluation. The attempted contribution of this research is to broaden our understanding in this area by investigating the processes by which knowledge has its impact on consumers' evaluation of advertising messages.

The angle from which this study looks at prior knowledge is different from past research in which knowledge is often operationalized as a dichotomous variable (i.e. high vs. low or objective vs. subjective). This study distinguishes itself by focusing on knowledge accessibility and its applicability in judgment. Advertising messages are usually seen or heard by consumers for a very brief period of time. It is unlikely that consumers will mull over their stored knowledge before forming impressions of the ads. In these circumstances, the accessible knowledge ought to play a major role in making judgments. What remains unclear is the interaction between the accessible knowledge and the salient features of the messages to which they attend.

Higgins (1995) proposes that the relation between the stored knowledge and stimulus information depends on whether the perceivers have a priori expectancies or goals. When expectancies or goals are absent, only those salient features of the stimulus that match stored knowledge are relevant. When expectancies or goals are present, "both features that match and features mismatch stored knowledge are relevant" (p.137). Armed with the popular persuasion models such as Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty and Cacioppo 1986), I translate Higgins' proposition into the following research hypothesis: (1) when message processing motivation is low, consumers will give more positive evaluations to the advertisement whose salient feature matches their accessible knowledge about the advertised product; (2) when message processing motivation is high, consumers will not rely on their accessible knowledge to make judgments. There will be no significant difference between the evaluations of matched and mismatched advertisements.

A 2 (processing motivation: low vs. high) x 3 (knowledge accessibility: match vs. mismatch vs. control) between-subjects laboratory experiment was conducted to test the research hypothesis. In the experiment, student subjects' prior knowledge about a specific product feature was made accessible by a priming task. A no-prime control condition was also included. After the priming, subjects were presented with a print newsletter that contains the focal advertisement. Subjects' processing motivation was manipulated by instructing them either to produce a detailed evaluation (high motivation condition) or to provide reading time estimation (low motivation condition).

The results confirmed the hypothesis. Under the low processing motivation condition, matched ads received more favorable evaluations and the mismatched ads were judged worse than those in the no-prime control condition. Under the high processing motivation condition, no significant difference was found across all conditions.

A second study is proposed to test the external validity of the findings from the first study and to provide managerial implications of this research to marketing practitioners.

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I Self Gift Therefore I am: An Examination of Self-construal and Consumers Attitudes Towards Self-gifting

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Extended Abstract

Up until the last decade, gift giving theory and research had been primarily dyadic or interpersonal in nature (e.g. Belk, 1979). Nonetheless, it was acknowledged that people may sometimes give gifts to themselves, and suggested that the self-gift phenomenon may be widely occurring in American society (Mick and DeMoss, 1990a, 1990b).

More specifically, it appears that gifts to oneself are ubiquitous, at least in American society. (Mick and DeMoss, 1990b). Other research has substantiated the notion that self-gifts are a fairly common and important phenomenon particularly in western consumer

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