

A COMPARATIVE STUDY AMONG TURKISH AND  
AMERICAN CONSUMERS ON THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN CULTURAL DIMENSIONS AND THE TWO  
IMPORTANT OUTCOMES OF CONSUMER SOCIETY:  
CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION AND ONLINE  
COMPULSIVE BUYING BEHAVIOR

BERK BENLİ

B.S. Computer Technologies and Information Systems, Bilkent University,  
2009

M.S. Computing and Security, King's College London, 2010

Submitted to the Graduate School of Social Sciences in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Contemporary  
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BERK BENLİ

ONAYLAYANLAR:

Prof. Dr. Murat Ferman  
(Tez Danışmanı)

Beykent Üniversitesi



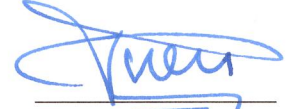
Doç. Dr. Serhat Koloğlugil  
(Jüri Üyesi)

Işık Üniversitesi



Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Pınar Falcıoğlu  
(Jüri Üyesi)

Işık Üniversitesi



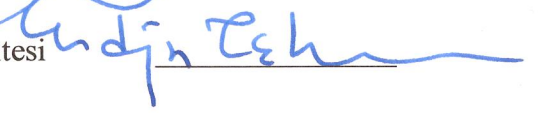
Prof. Dr. Emrah Cengiz  
(Jüri Üyesi)

İstanbul Üniversitesi



Prof. Dr. Erdoğan Taşkın  
(Jüri Üyesi)

Beykent Üniversitesi



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**A COMPARATIVE STUDY AMONG TURKISH AND AMERICAN  
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CONSUMER SOCIETY: CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION AND  
ONLINE COMPULSIVE BUYING BEHAVIOR**

**ABSTRACT**

Culture is considered to be one of the core mechanisms that drive people's behavioral patterns and the need for understanding consumer's cultural orientations and their effects on consumer behavior becomes even more crucial every day. This study was designed to address the gap in the literature and attempts to investigate the influence of cultural dimensions on the two important outcomes of today's consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. Also, another aspect of this research is to see if conspicuous consumption orientation has connections with online compulsive buying behavior. Lastly, it attempts to show whether conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior varies across cultures and the role of demographics.

In order to achieve these goals, the study employed two samples from two nations (Turkey and United States) that have distinct cultural orientations at the national level. Based on the models tested in two samples, the findings show that collectivism, power distance and masculinity had significant effect on conspicuous consumption orientation in both nations yet the most impactful cultural dimensions varied based on nation. Also, it has been discovered that collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance were in relation with online compulsive buying behavior in both nations yet masculinity was not. Finally, conspicuous consumption and online compulsive behavior were found to be correlated and the correlation was moderate and positive.

**KÜLTÜR BOYUTLARI İLE TÜKETİM TOPLUMUNUN İKİ ÖNEMLİ  
ÇIKTISI OLAN GÖSTERİŞ TÜKETİMİ VE ONLINE KOMPÜLSİF  
SATIN ALMA ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİYİ İNCELEMAYA YÖNELİK  
TÜRK VE AMERİKAN TÜKETİCİLER ÜZERİNDE  
KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA**

**ÖZET**

Kültür, insanların davranış biçimini belirleyen temel mekanizmalardan biridir ve tüketicilerin kültürel yönelimlerinin tüketici davranışları üzerindeki etkisinin araştırılması her geçen gün daha da önem arz etmektedir. Bu çalışma, literatürdeki boşluğu doldurmak üzere hazırlanmış ve kültür boyutları ile, günümüz tüketim toplumunun önemli çıktılarından olan gösteriş tüketimi ve online kompulsif satın alma arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Aynı zamanda bu araştırmanın bir başka amacı da, gösteriş tüketimi eğilimi ve online kompulsif satın alma arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Son olarak bu çalışma, gösteriş tüketimi eğilimi ve online kompulsif satın alma davranışı bakımından kültürler arası farklılıkları ve tüketim toplumunun çıktıları üzerinde demografik değişkenlerin rolünü ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır.

Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda araştırmada, ulusal kültür yönelimleri açısından birbirinden farklı iki ülkeden (Türkiye ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri) örnekleme gidilmiştir. Her iki örnekleme de test edilen modeller ışığında, kültürün toplulukçuluk, güç mesafesi ve erillik boyutları ile gösteriş tüketimi eğilimi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Her ülkede farklı değişkenler en kuvvetli etkiyi göstermiştir. Aynı zamanda, kültürün toplulukçuluk, güç mesafesi ve belirsizlikten kaçınma boyutları ile online kompulsif satın alma arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuş, ancak erillik boyutu ile arasında bağlantı bulunamamıştır. Son olarak, gösteriş tüketimi eğilimi ve online kompulsif satın alma arasında orta dereceli pozitif yönde korelasyon tespit edilmiştir.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

CBB	Compulsive Buying Behavior
CCO	Conspicuous Consumption Orientation
CDB	Compulsive Buying Disorder
COLL	Collectivism
CVSCALE	Cultural Value Scale
LTO	Long Term Orientation
MASC	Masculinity
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
OCBB	Online Compulsive Buying Behavior
OCBS	Online Compulsive Buying Scale
PD	Power Distance
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

Culture has been deemed a core mechanism that drives people's behavioral patterns and the need for understanding consumer's cultural orientations and their effects on consumer behavior becomes even more crucial every day. Conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior as the two important outcomes of today's consumer society are becoming more prominent and their relations with cultural dimensions are yet to be examined thoroughly. Conspicuous Consumption has been considered as an unnecessary consumption that serves no purpose but today it became one of the main acts of everyday consumer society as the middle-class all around the world became wealthier and the income distribution became more even. On the other hand, online compulsive buying behavior has been getting a lot of attention in clinical studies since online shopping was introduced as another tool for consumption, however; its' examination in marketing literature is lacking. Previous studies have focused only on one cultural dimension (individualism/collectivism) at the national level and lack the theoretical model that describes the relationship between each cultural dimension at the individual level and consumer's conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior. Also, compulsive buying behavior as a broader concept has been paid attention largely in psychological investigations and lacks the necessary focus in consumer behavior literature.

The main intention of this dissertation is to understand the impact of cultural dimensions on two important outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. Secondly, this study also

aims to fill the gap in compulsive buying behavior literature by examining the relation between conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior. Furthermore, the third purpose is to discover and compare the number of compulsive buyer among online consumers in Turkey and The United States. Lastly, the study examines whether cultural dimensions at the individual level, conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior varies across Turkish and American consumers and demonstrates if demographics such as gender, age, income and education have significance in consumer's conspicuousness and compulsiveness. This study provides valuable information for the academics and marketing professionals by filling the gap in the literature of cultural dimensions and its' relation with conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. The study also acts as the first cross-cultural comparison between two nations that encompasses culture, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior.

To understand and compare the relation between cultural dimensions at the individual level and two outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior in Turkey and the United States of America, samples from Istanbul and Washington D.C were collected.

For this study, more than 900 data were gathered for each country and after eliminations and data cleaning, 663 participants from Istanbul and 597 participants from Washington D.C were used in further analysis. Surveys were designed based on the extensive literature review conducted on each variable. Each item in each scale has been translated to Turkish by sworn translator and later, back-translated from Turkish to English using a second translator. The translations were examined and cleared from problems in meaning that could have possibly caused issues in later stages.

Both surveys had 6 sections and 51 questions each where the first section containing the consent form, second section containing the qualification questions such as citizenship, city and age. Third section had 11 questions measuring Conspicuous Consumption Orientation using 6-point Likert scale.



Fourth section had 7 questions that measure Online Compulsive Buying Behavior using 5-point Likert scale and fifth section had 20 questions to measure cultural dimension at the individual level using 5-point Likert scale. Lastly, sixth section was containing demographics questions such as gender, marital status, income, education.

Research questions are identified as follows;

- How do cultural dimensions at the individual level influence consumers' conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior?
- Does relationship between conspicuous consumption (consumer's desire to reflect social status, power and prestige, showcase their wealth, impress others or to convey their uniqueness and improve social visibility) and online compulsive buying behavior exist?
- Do conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior vary across Turkish and American consumers?
- Is demographics such as gender, age, income and education play a role in conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior?

A thorough literature review on conspicuous consumption, online compulsive buying behavior and cultural dimensions and their effects on consumer behavior are provided in the following chapters.

## CHAPTER 2

### CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION

#### 2.1 Definition and Evolution of Conspicuous Consumption

Conspicuous consumption is a phrase very often used by economists, marketers, sociologists and psychologists; however, this phrase is frequently applied in a not very clearly expressed sense in order to explain any type of non-utilitarian consumers' behavior, which is therefore valued as extravagant, luxurious, or wasteful (Campbell, 1995). However, the lack of appropriate and precise definition can be a result of lack of scientific empirical studies that examined conspicuous consumption and its correlates.

The word “conspicuous” is an adjective that is used to describe something that is catching to the eye. However, in the context of marketing and consumers' behavior, it has significantly different meaning. The term conspicuous consumption was first introduced by Veblen (1899), who wanted to describe consumer behavior of rich citizens of the United States from the end of the 19th century who very often engaged themselves into costly, unnecessary, and unproductive leisure expenditures.

A more precise definition of conspicuous consumption was given by Schiffman and Kanuk(2010) who defined it as the expenditure of luxury products that are advertised and promoted to a particular segment of the market or a consumer group (for example, a 160 000\$ diamond dash clock for a Bentley Continental car, advertised to rich people; Souiden, M'Saad, & Pons, 2011). Hence, we may conclude that conspicuous consumption (CC) occurs when someone buys

something expensive that one does not necessarily need, but the one wants to have it for some reason.

The introduction of conspicuous consumption into scientific literature in the 19th century tells us that it is not a recent phenomenon; however, conspicuous consumption and its origins go much further into the past. More precisely, it was present in everyday lives of people from ancient civilizations such as Old Greece and Roman Empire, and it changed and evolved in parallel with political and economic systems (Memushi, 2013). Specifically, throughout the history, our society and the ways of producing things changed, and so did the definition of luxury goods; hence, although the conspicuous consumption was the same in principle, its manifestation forms changed from one epoch to another (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006).

More specifically, in pre-capitalistic periods (Classical Antiquity, and The Middle Ages), for example in the Roman Empire, primary objects of conspicuous consumptions were slaves, women, and exotic food from the distant parts of the world. The consumption was reserved for rich nobility that wanted to enhance its military and political power, and was mainly motivated by personal vanity and pretentiousness (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006).

However, with the expansion of capitalistic production and values, the luxury goods became expensive products that were reserved for nobility and upper middle class. This group of products included diamonds, luxury cars, and other expensive and unique objects. The main drive for conspicuous consumption was still vanity and pretentiousness; however, its main goals were changed, and people engage in it to showcase their social power, status, and to stand out as unique in front of their reference group (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006). Finally, in post-modern times (the late 20th and 21st century), image and experience became luxury goods. With the rise of educational level of an average person and social wealth, conspicuous consumption became available to the middle class and great “masses” of the people. The main motives for conspicuous consumption became self-actualization, self-expression, and self-

image. However, the goal of conspicuous consumption became maybe somewhat self-contradictory. More precisely, as Chaudhuri and Majumdar 2006 pointed out, today many people engage in conspicuous consumption to comply with the social norm of proving one's own uniqueness to the world in order to prove them their value as a human being. On the other hand, some people do it because they do not want to be thought different and odd.

Some authors argued that conspicuous consumption is not only a form of consumers' behavior but a deeper part of human nature and personality. More specifically, Vohra (2016) argued that conspicuous consumption is a stable personality trait that is significantly influenced by globalization, consumer demographics, and culture. In addition, an average conspicuous consumer tends to fit a particular personality profile, which consists of high materialism with high expression of possessiveness, non-generosity, and envy (Chacko and Ramanathan, 2015).

Today, the most significant correlate of conspicuous consumption is social status display. More precisely, many people believe that social status influences and shapes one's self-image; consequently, people tend to display it in order to present better self-image in front of other people and leave positive impression on them (Souiden, M'Saad, & Pons, 2011). This behavior is culturally universal and can be detected in both eastern and western countries. However, surprisingly, conspicuous consumption appears more often in individualistic or western cultures than in collective or eastern ones, which is contradictory to the discovery that shows connection between social status display and self-image is significantly higher in collectivistic cultures (Souiden, et al., 2011). However, this contradiction can be explained with significant difference in socio-economic status between people from eastern and western countries. Specifically, conspicuous consumption is behavior that is in most of the cases displayed among the people from the middle class (Frank, 1999), and western countries are on average significantly richer than eastern countries; also the differences between the poor and the rich are lower in the western countries; hence, in terms of relative measures, a greater percentage of people in the

western countries falls into the middle class group. In addition, the middle class in western countries is significantly richer than the middle class in the eastern countries, which means that it has more disposable money for luxury and unnecessary goods.

Although conspicuous consumption is a cross-cultural phenomenon, the perception of its desirability and its motivation is influenced by and founded in cultural values (Gupta 2009). For example, Shukla, Shukla, & Sharma (2009) found that when engaged in conspicuous consumption, buyer from England tend to focus themselves on their self-concept whereas buyers from India place their attention to self-concept of other people.

Conspicuous consumption is also significantly correlated to identity stability. Specifically, people who have more consolidated and stable identity tend to engage themselves significantly less in conspicuous consumption when compared to people with more fluid and unstable identity. Consequently, adolescents tend to buy more conspicuous products than older people (O'Cass and McEwen, 2004).

Reasons and motivations for conspicuous consumption are not fully investigated. Consequently, there is no a theory that completely explains conspicuous consumers' behavior. However, there are three different perspectives that come from different scientific fields, which offer explanations of some of its aspects. More specifically, there are three dominant perspectives on the motivation of conspicuous consumption: 1) evolutionary perspective or sexual signaling theory, 2) psychosocial perspective or social signaling theory (emulation, conformity, and uniqueness), 3) hedonistic perspective or achievement and pleasure theory or auto signaling theory; (Memushi, 2013).

At the first glance, it seems that conspicuous consumption does not have anything to do with natural laws or survival. Specifically, by engaging themselves in conspicuous consumption, people tend to lose precious time that they can spend on survival behaviors such as acquisition of food, shelter, or

healthcare, and they tend to spend their resources on stuff that cannot help them in acquiring survival resources such as food, etc. However, some biologists believe that conspicuous consumption became an important trait for sexual selection at some point in time because our species used it as a signal for hidden traits of sexual and genetic fitness (more conspicuous items in possession- more capable and genetically superior partner; Memushi, 2013).

According to psychosocial perspective, three following motives fuel conspicuous consumption- emulation, uniqueness, and conformity. In order to understand the emulation motive we have to start from the top of social hierarchy. Specifically, since the beginning of written history there were many examples of rulers spending goods and energy on luxury and unnecessary things in order to demonstrate power, freedom, dominance, and superiority to ordinary people (Trigger, 1990). In a similar manner, people from the lower social classes started to imitate this behavior which was limited only by their own power and resources that were at their disposal. Hence, in order to reinforce their own power, people at each stratum started to emulate behaviors of a higher social class in order to be perceived as richer, more powerful. The emulation hypothesis explains why some members of all social strata (from the poorest to the richest) engage themselves in conspicuous consumption. Specifically, today, for every person it is not that hard to imitate someone who is just one social class above him, and because that makes them feel more powerful and better about themselves people tend to do it (Memushi, 2013).

The second social motive for conspicuous consumption is people's desire to be unique. More specifically, people want to distinguish themselves from the people in lesser social strata and conspicuous consumption is a very effective way to do that (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). Hence the main goal of conspicuous consumption, in this case, is creation of social distance from the class that person does not want to be identify with (Memushi, 2013).

Finally, the last motive for conspicuous consumption in psychosocial theory is conformity. Specifically, a majority of people see social norms, both the laws and unwritten cultural norms, as set of rules through which they define

themselves and according to which they modulate their behavior. Hence, when people identify with some social group, they want to demonstrate their membership in that group to other people, and they follow the rules and social norms of that group. Consequently, people tend to practice conspicuous consumption if that is a desirable behavior in their referent group. In addition, the way and the scale of conspicuous consumption that they practice are also guided by the norms of the same group (Memushi, 2013).

In contrast to the psychosocial perspective of conspicuous consumption that advocates that conspicuous consumption is oriented toward the society, auto signaling theory postulates that the main reason for conspicuous consumption is the person himself. Specifically, conspicuous consumption evokes positive feelings inside people and consequently they tend to practice those behaviors in order to feel better about themselves. These positive feelings include the sense of accomplishment, success, and joy (Memushi, 2013). In addition, auto signaling theory proposes that conspicuous consumption is a tool that marginal groups use in order to bridge social distance between them and the rest of the society. Hence, in this context, conspicuous consumption has a compensatory role- one feels more accepted by society and better about himself when he engages in conspicuous consumption (Memushi, 2013).

In conclusion, by engaging in conspicuous consumption people buy and display luxury and unnecessary things. Throughout the history, as the amount of wealth accumulated and our society changed, so did the definition of luxury goods and conspicuous consumption. Definition of luxury goods also varies from one social class to another, and purchasing some products in one social class can be luxurious and conspicuous while in another social class that can be a necessity (for example, buying a top-notch laptop for a professional designer who works at Google would not be conspicuous consumption; however, the same purchase would be conspicuous for a seven year old kid who wants to have the same laptop just that he could be perceived as cool in front of his friends and play the newest games). Conspicuous consumption can be motivated with different goals that are motivated by biological, social, and hedonistic mechanisms.

## **2.2 Distinguishing Conspicuous and Status Consumption**

At the first glance, conspicuous consumption today resembles social status consumption; however, it is much wider and complex construct than social status consumption. Specifically, conspicuous consumption can be motivated by social motives and social status (Memushi, 2013); however, the difference is that conspicuous consumption can also be used as a mean for acquiring sexual partners and practiced because it evokes positive feelings or pleasure in the subject that practice it (some people buy luxury and unnecessary things because they find them beautiful and because they like the feelings that mere possession of luxury things gives them; Memushi, 2013). In addition, motivation for conspicuous consumption changed from one historical period to another (political power, pure ostentation, social status, dominance; Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006), while motivation for social status consumption always stayed the same.

Interestingly today, it is much harder to distinguish conspicuous consumption from social status consumption for several reasons. First, conspicuous consumption today is available to the masses and majority of people really involve in it as a way of displaying particular social status (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004). Secondly, today in many modern democratic societies, one cannot use luxurious goods in order to achieve and maintain political power because people are much smarter and better informed than they were for example in The Middle Ages and the laws are stricter; hence, there are less legal purposes for conspicuous consumption when compared to the past. Third thing, in modern economy, majority of corporations practice marketing strategy that promotes their products as things that promote particular social status. Consequently, many products are promoted as luxurious with the goal to create a perception of luxuriousness (for example brands of clothes or sneakers) while at the same time they are not luxurious goods because more or less every person in the world from middle lower class to the richest people can afford them and they are actually goods that have their practical purpose (for example, protection from cold and rain).



On the other hand, many researchers expressed that those two constructs should not be treated as exchangeable (O’Cass & McEwen, 2004). A good example two illustrate the difference is consumption of branded underwear. They have the status consumption properties yet they are not considered conspicuously consumed goods. Another good example is “Audi” brand, where it was discovered that it has the status value yet lacking the consciousness compared to other brands competing in the category (Truong, Simmons, McColl, & Kitchen, 2008).

## **2.1 Conspicuous Consumption and Demographics**

Materialism is a hierarchically organized system of values and, according to this system, at the top of this pyramid are material possessions and their acquisition, while everything else is less important and is used as an instrument in acquiring material goods. In addition, people who practice materialism believe obtaining more products brings greater happiness (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012).

A couple of studies that examined gender differences in materialism suggest that males tend to have greater materialistic values than females (Eastman, Calvert, Campbell, & Fredenberger, 1997; Kamineni, 2005), and have greater self-monitoring skills compared to females (O’Cass, 2001). These differences represent importance because they have significant effect on consumption behavior and habits, thus they influence conspicuous consumption too (O’Cass, 2001).

In general, today, the population of young men is the one that engages in conspicuous consumption the most. However, women also tend to engage themselves in conspicuous consumption, but their motivation and the products that they purchase conspicuously are somewhat different when compared to men. First, in the act of conspicuous consumption, women tend to buy clothes significantly more than men and use them as status and identity items (O’Cass, 2001); however, men use conspicuously bought clothes to communicate power while women use it to communicate delicacy (McCracken, 1986). Second, men are more inclined to conspicuous consumption in an attempt to acquire not only

instrumental but also leisure items that will present them as independent and active (Dittmar et al., 1995), which is in concordance with the results that showed that men tend to buy cars for conspicuous purposes. Third, in an act of conspicuous purchase, women tend to buy products that are having qualities that are in concordance with their concept of beauty. In addition, they use these possessions in an attempt to showcase inner emotions.

As our society changed through the centuries, it influenced the relationship between gender, gender roles, and conspicuous consumption. Veblen's work from the end of the 19th century showed that, at that time, a majority of women were more focused on their role to enhance social status of their husbands. Specifically, men earned the money that they gave to their wives who engaged themselves in conspicuous consumption so that they can be later used for presentation of social status of their husbands (Gilman, 1999). Hence, according to Veblen (1899), women's consumption served as a mean to show wealth and social status. At that time, the items that women most frequently purchased for conspicuous purposes included household appliances, jewelry, perfumes, and clothes. In the USA specifically, these household items included marble bathtubs, artificial waterfalls in living rooms, and garden trees adorned with fake fruit (Mason, 1981). However, in the second part of the 20th century, the wealth accumulated, middle class males became richer, women more educated and emancipated; hence, males started to engage themselves more in conspicuous consumption because now they could afford items that they valued as good representation of their image such as sport cars and Rolex watches. They even started to engage themselves in plastic surgery in order to get the "correct look", which will represent their image more adequately (Andler, 1984). The trend of growing conspicuous plastic surgery started in the 1980s when the number of the surgeries in the USA skyrocketed, from a 1000 in the 1981 to 250 000 in the 1989 (Findlay, 1989).

In the 20th century, a majority of women started to use make up for conspicuous purposes. This trend was significantly influenced by marketing campaigns designed by large producers who created a model of commercial beauty. The

main postulate of this model that was advertised to women was the idea that every woman could achieve the level of beauty that she wants with the usage of the right treatment and products (Peiss, 1998).

#### **2.4 Measuring Conspicuous Consumption**

Conspicuous Consumption will be measured with Conspicuous Consumption Orientation Scale (CCO Scale) that was developed by Chaudhuri, Majumdar, & Ghoshal (2011). The initial item pool for the CCO Scale consisted of 60 items. Through factor analysis and reliability analysis the final version of the CCO Scale was reduced to 11 items. All items in the scale are six-point, Likert-type items, with one meaning completely disagree and six meaning completely agree. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale is .84 while the Guttman's split-half coefficient is .72. Hence, we may conclude that CCO Scale has high internal consistency reliability. In addition, the correlation between the scores acquired in two different points in time is .80 which indicates that CCO scores are stable in time and have high test-retest reliability (Chaudhuri, Majumdar, & Ghoshal, 2011).

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis showed that CCO Scale is one-dimensional. EFA showed that there was one significant principal component with Eigenvalue of 5.12, and that the component explained 52.36 % of the test score variance. CFA confirmed that one factor model fits the data best, with GFI = .93, AGFI = .90,  $\chi^2(239) = 203.54$ ,  $p > .05$ , CFI = .91, RFI = .93 and RMSEA = .04. Further analysis showed that the test scores are not significantly correlated to age and sex (Chaudhuri, et al., 2011).

Correlation analyses showed that CCO Scale has good convergent and discriminant validity. Specifically, the CCO Scale scores are in significant positive correlation with uniqueness, individualism, and social visibility ( $r = .72$ ,  $r = .42$ , and  $r = .61$  respectively). Finally, linear regression analysis showed that CCO Scale has very good predictive validity for prediction of self-esteem and materialism (Chaudhuri, et al., 2011).

## CHAPTER 3

### CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

#### 3.1 National and Individual Level Culture

According to anthropology, culture encompasses ways in which a larger group of people (e.g., a nation or a tribe) solves everyday problems in order to satisfy its biological and social needs, end ensure survival. Hence, according to this view, culture is an answer to the “How to survive?” question (Matsumoto, 2007). However, some scientists, criticized this perspective as too simplified, and they argued that culture is a more complex phenomenon that consists of complex social systems, institutions, beliefs, and ways of communicating knowledge inside one generation and between different generations of people. Furthermore, it includes psychological variables such as emotions, evaluations of different emotions, hierarchy of values, etc. (Triandis, 1995; Clark, 1990). Hence, in other words, culture is a meaningful explanation of psycho-social dynamics in one community, which can be measured and observed through different behaviors, rituals, traditions, and customs.

Culture operates on all levels in one society and its rules regulate social roles and communication from the individual point up to the business and state leadership. Because culture with its values, attitudes, and desirable behaviors determines the rules of communication, it can be used for prediction of mainstream tendencies regarding some social phenomena (e.g. moral issues, popularity of some type of music, dynamics of its politics, etc.). According to Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen (1992), one culture can be studied from the following perspectives: descriptive, historical, normative, psychological, structural, and from the perspective of genetics. The core of a culture consists

of four parts: customs, values, beliefs, and behavioral practices. However, Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, (2010) suggested that culture has onion layer structure that consists of two main parts: 1) values and 2) practices, while the latter consists of rituals, heroes and symbols. Symbols include words, gestures, pictures, and objects that have a specific meaning in one culture. More specifically, they include jargon, clothes, hairstyles, flags and status symbols. Symbols are easily changed and copied from one culture to another, they are the most changing part of a culture and that is why they are put in the outer layer (Hofstede, et al., 2010).

A culture's heroes are people who have traits and virtues that are highly desirable in that culture. These people can be alive, dead, real, or imaginary, and are usually described as positive models of behavior (e.g. Spiderman in the USA; Hofstede, et al., 2005).

Rituals are behaviors that are practiced by many members of a culture, they do not have a useful purpose regarding the main goal of the actor, but these behaviors are considered as very important for that culture. These rituals, for example, include the ways we are greeting each other (e.g. handshaking in the western world or bowing in the east; Hofstede, et al., 2005).

In one culture, all values can be roughly divided into two groups that are hierarchically organized: positive values and negative values. Through this classification, values define what behaviors, actions and evaluations are desirable and allowed and what is not desirable and forbidden. Cultural values are very important for an individual because they create a moral compass that easily contrasts good-evil and right-wrong, which makes one's life easier when deciding how to act in everyday situations (Williams, 1970). These values form a hierarchy, which then creates cultural dimensions (Hofstede, et al., 2005). Cultural dimensions are abstract constructs that define general tendencies and behaviors between two or more groups in one community as well as intra-individual tendencies (Matsumoto & Juang, 2004). These dimensions define the

rules in which abstract concepts are translated into explicit reactions, and can be used to explain similarities and differences among cultures.

Culture influences all levels of one society (e. g., nation, groups, and individuals); however, its roles are somewhat different on different levels. Up to this day, scientific studies investigated three cultural orientation levels. The first level was macro level, or investigation of cultures as collective phenomenon on levels of geographical areas and ethnic groups (Hofstede and Bond, 1984). Although this perspective gave insights into how lingual or religious similarities between cultures are formed, it could not explain some phenomena such as multilingual countries (Bouchet, 1995).

The second cultural orientation level that was investigated is the level of social groups (Parsons, 1977), and the studies that researched this level gave us insights into how social realities, lifestyles, and consumption patterns are formed. Finally, cultures were studied on micro or individual level, which gave us insights on how culture influences individual behavior. Specifically, these studies found how culture is represented in the minds of individuals, and how that shapes intra-psychological dynamics of people (Mennicken, 2000). In other words, they helped us determine the “background effect” of culture, and how culture unconsciously shapes cognitions, emotions, and behavior of its members (Kroeber-Riel, Weinberg, & Gröppel-Klein, 2009).

When we talk about culture and its influences on individual level, it is very important to make distinction between these influences and personality. One cannot negate the similarities between micro-level culture and personality (both are based on individual differences); however, micro-level culture consists of smaller number of traits, has more variations among different cultures, and is more homogenous in one culture. In addition, it is more stable across multiple generations than personality differences (Matsumoto & Juang, 2004). Furthermore, personality does not have a function of social labeling and commonality as the culture does. Finally, a significant portion of personality

traits' variance is inherited, while culture is completely learned and modified by personal experience (Hofstede et al., 2010; De Mooij, 2004).

According to Hofstede, et al., (2010), human culture can be observed as a part of a more broader and general construct which is called human nature. Specifically, human nature encompasses basic biological, physical, and psychological characteristics of human functioning and existence that is common for all people; it is completely inherited, and universal to all human beings. If we define culture as social programming, or mental software, in the same analogy, human nature would be the operating system. Hence, our ability to experience different emotions, communicate with others, observe the environment, is part of our human nature; however, what we do with all these experiences and how we express them is shaped by our culture. In contrast to human nature, culture is specific to a group or a category of people and is learned (Hofstede, et al., 2010).

### **3.2 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions**

Culture is a factor that significantly influence and shape how consumers process information (Schmitt & Pan, 1994). Among the others, some of the most important factors are national wealth and incomes (De Mooij, 2004); however, cultures also shape national economies because entrepreneurs adapt their business to the cultures in which they operate in order to maximize their efficacy and profitability. When one researches customers' behavior, one has to study cultural dimensions too because the way people behave and what motivates them is significantly determined and influenced by culture. Culture defines how people communicate with each other in buying process, it defines how people behave in critical points of decision making (e.g., do people prefer making decisions by themselves or they like to ask other important people or relevant associates when making business and consuming decisions). Furthermore, depending on their culture, people tend to make more or less emotional decisions regarding their purchases (De Mooij, 1998); hence, cultural dimensions at national level may influence consumers' behavior significantly

(Arnould, 1989; Dawar, Parker, & Price, 1996; Shim & Gehrt 1996; Sood & Nasu, 1995; Stewart, 1985).

### **3.2.1 Individualism and Collectivism**

Individualism and collectivism (IND and COLL) are cultural dimensions that are highly correlated to and significantly influence the self-concept of the members of that culture. In other words, how people experience and express their self-concept is highly determined by their culture (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). These two dimensions show us how a certain society solved a problem of finding desirable strength in the relationships between individual people and the groups with which people identify themselves. More specifically, these two dimensions show how a particular culture balances between the needs of individuals and groups and to which of these two it gives more importance (Matsumoto and Juang, 2004).

Hofstede et al. (2010) showed that individualism and collectivism are two different dimensions. This means that people can mark high or low on two, or mark opposite on each dimension; hence, according to Hofstede et al. (2010), when people's attributes are measured on individual level, IND and COLL should be measured as two different dimensions. However, it is important to emphasize that on a country level, or on a level of a national culture these two dimensions are merged into one that has two poles. On one pole is IND and on the other is COLL.

There are two constructs that are very important for investigation of individualism and collectivism on micro level. These constructs are called "in group" and "out group" (Park & Rothbat, 1982). A person's in group consists of people whose well-being is important to that person, with whom that person wants to cooperate, and from whom person does not like to be separated, because separation produces negative emotions (Triandis, 1995). Relationships inside an in group are familiar, intimate, and full of trust, while the relationships to out group members are almost completely opposite (Triandis, 1995). In



highly individualistic cultures, people do not expect that other members of their in groups take care of them, and an average person has more out groups in comparison to collectivistic cultures.

Furthermore, collectivistic cultures tend to be more exclusive, which means that they tend to evaluate other people based on their group membership. Consequently they tend to discriminate against out group members and reserve favors, and services for the members of their in group. In contrast, the main tendency in individualistic cultures is quite the opposite. Specifically, people are treated as individuals and more as more equal in these cultures, and in most of the cases their group membership is irrelevant for their evaluation (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Based on their place on individualism-collectivism dimension, cultures differ significantly in terms of their members' typical everyday behavior. Specifically, in highly collectivistic cultures, the relevance of personal opinion is very low, and opinion of the group is always more important and forced on the disagreeing members. In contrast, in individualistic cultures, everyone, even small children are encouraged to form and retain their own opinions because lack of personal opinion is evaluated as a lack of character (Hofstede et al., 2010). In addition, individualistic cultures stimulate behaviors that will make one's uniqueness prominent and stimulate one's autonomy, while collectivistic cultures tend to reward behaviors that will facilitate sense of belonging and group affiliation (Matsumoto & Juang, 2004). Furthermore, individual interests and interpersonal differences are downgraded and seen as a hurdle to a harmonic society, while consensus making, and conformity, are enforced by disobedience sanctioning.

Consequently, most of decisions in collectivistic cultures are made by in groups. In contrast, some scientists argue that this type of reliance on in group and lack of individuality is neither practical nor good for mental health (Hofstede et al., 2010). De Mooij (2011) points out that in cultures with this level of conformity, situational factors have greater impact on one's life which results in one's

lowered sense of control over his life. In addition, it produces significantly higher discrepancies between one's thoughts and behaviors, which results in high and chronic cognitive dissonance.

### **3.2.1.1 Individualism-Collectivism and Consumer Behavior**

Like all other behaviors, purchasing habits of all members of one culture are significantly influenced by this dimension. More precisely, all our behaviors are sparked with our thoughts and cognitions, which are internal, and they are also significantly shaped by culture to which we belong (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). For example, in individualistic cultures, people sometimes tend to buy things because that is a fun thing to do; hence, this construct of "fun shopping" is motivated by search for pleasure which is a highly valued and very frequent behavior in individualistic cultures. The study of Nicholls, Li, Mandokovic, Roslow, and Kranendonk (2000) noted that people from collectivistic cultures tend more often to plan their shopping in advance and for longer periods of time, while people from individualistic cultures tend to do more frequent, spontaneous, and recreational shopping.

This dimension also influences consumers' emotions, because emotional expression is something that is learned and culture specific (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). For instance, people in individualistic cultures are more self-focused emotions such as anger and pride while shopping. Contrarily, people in collectivistic cultures tend to express more other-focused emotions such as empathy or shame. Hence, purchasing decisions of people from these two types of cultures could be significantly different because they are influenced by different emotions (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011).

Other two, equally important, concepts from domain of consumers' behavior, face from collectivistic cultures and self-respect from individualistic cultures, are also influenced by this dimension (Hofstede et al., 2010). Face, is a construct that represents adequate and desirable relationship and interaction between consumers and their social environment. For people from collectivistic cultures,

maintaining face while shopping is very important. In contrast, in individualistic cultures, there is a counterpart construct to face which is called self-respect and which reflects the level of self-integrity that one displays while shopping in regards to who he is and what he wants (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Individualism-collectivism dimension also influences consumers' behavior through in group and out group dynamics. More precisely, in collectivistic cultures discrimination against out groups is more prominent, and interaction with in group members is more close and deeper, which results in higher conformism and lower evaluation of personal tastes and beliefs (De Mooij, 2004; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Oyserman, et al., 2002). Hence, in collectivistic cultures, when buying things, people think a lot more about what will other people think and say, and consequently, their brand choices are influenced by the brand choices of the majority of their in group. For example, in Japan, 33 % of women and 16.7 % of man have a Vuitton luxury product (Thomas 2002).

Individualism-collectivism dimension influences consumers' behavior indirectly through different lifestyles that it facilitates. More specifically, in individualistic cultures, majority of people live or tend to live a self-supporting lifestyle while in collectivistic cultures people tend to depend on others. Consequently, their purchasing habits, decisions, and products that they typically buy are significantly different (Hofstede et al., 2010).

De Mooij (2010), showed that the magnitude of influences of the in group members in consumers' decision making is in significant correlation to individualism-collectivism dimension. More precisely, people from individualistic cultures tend to make their purchasing decisions on their own or with very few consultations with other people; however, in collectivistic cultures, people tend to rely on opinions of many other in group members when making the same decisions.

One more construct that directly influences purchasing habits of consumers is their public self-consciousness. More specifically, according to Hofstede et al.,

(2010), public self-consciousness reflects how much attention one pays to what other people think about him and it is directly influenced by persons place on individualism-collectivism scale. Interestingly, in individualistic cultures, people worry about the opinions of people who they do not know or in other words about the opinions of people from the out group; in contrast, in collectivistic cultures people worry only about the opinions of in group members. Public self-consciousness has the greatest impact on the purchasing habits regarding luxury articles, clothes, drinks, or any other product which in that culture is seen as a status symbol. Consequently, people from collectivistic cultures are less interested in purchasing status-displaying items because they tend to focus on the opinions of the people close to them; therefore, their public self-consciousness is very little influenced by the appearance.

Individualism-collectivism dimension also plays a significant role in categorization systems of consumers. More precisely, people from individualistic cultures are more object-focused; hence, they expect other people to be sensitive to them, while in collectivistic cultures it is expected that people are situation-focused, which means that it is desirable that individuals are more sensitive to other people. This difference in attention focus requires different strategies and approaches in the processes of brand recalling and marketing communication (De Mooij, 2010).

Because individualism-collectivism dimension significantly shapes mental processes, it also influences the sequence of consumers' involvement. In collectivistic cultures, for example Japan or China, this sequence goes in the following order feeling, doing, learning (Miracle, 1987). While in the individualistic cultures this sequence depends on how important the product is for the consumer, and according to that criterion it can be- learning, feeling, doing (for high involvement products); or learning, doing, feeling (for low involvement products; De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). These differences are important for marketing experts, because they indicate that advertisements influence people from individualistic and collectivistic cultures differently.

This dimension also significantly influences the speed of decision making and consumers' impulsiveness. While highly individualistic people tend to impulsively purchase things just because it makes them feel good, in collectivistic cultures majority of people avoid doing that because behavioral and emotional control are highly valued there and impulsivity and lack of control are frowned upon (Kacen & Lee, 2002).

New product adoption is also influenced by individualism dimension. More precisely, people from individualistic cultures tend to switch to new products more easily than people from collectivistic cultures (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002).

Interestingly, purchasing habits are also influenced by coefficient of imitation that is typical for that culture. Collectivistic cultures have higher coefficient of imitation and imitation spreads faster because of high levels of conformity and high importance of the opinion of in group members (Takada and Jain, 1991). Finally, individualism-collectivism dimension influences brand loyalty, media behavior and consumers' attitudes and responses to sales promotion and advertising. More specifically, because of high conformity, people in collectivistic cultures tend to be more brand-loyal. In addition, buying famous and widely distributed brands will most probably be accepted by the other members of in group. In contrast, in individualistic cultures people are less brand-loyal because sensation seeking and trying new things are highly valued behaviors in these cultures (De Mooij, 2004). In addition, in individualistic cultures people are more aware what they want, and their own needs are more important to them; hence, when some new, to their needs more fitting product, appears they tend to change their purchasing habits (De Mooij, 2004).

Different media fit different cultures best. The most appealing media in collectivistic cultures is TV, while in individualistic cultures people are better targeted through print media such as newspaper and magazines (Voyiadzakis, 2001).

Finally, people in collectivistic cultures tend to have negative consumers' attitudes and responses regarding advertising. They tend to be too embarrassed to redeem coupons or to react to sales promotion. In most occasions, they will see coupons and discounts as something that is for people from lower social class; consequently they will tend to avoid purchasing benefits in order to maintain their "consumer's face" (Huff & Alden, 1998).

### **3.2.2 Masculinity-Femininity Dimension**

Masculinity and femininity are terms that were firstly introduced by anthropologists, and they defined them as a specific answer to the conception of self. More specifically, they argued that self could be conceptualized through two dimensions such as masculinity and femininity (Inkeles and Levinson, 1969). Although, this cultural dimension is very important, which will be demonstrated subsequently, many cross-cultural studies ignored it.

According to Hofstede et al. (2010) this probably happened because many people think that this dimension is offensive or because there is shortage of knowledge of its description, which causes many religious, social, and political misunderstandings. In addition, many argue that sticking an adjective masculine or feminine to one culture is politically incorrect. Other things that perhaps contributed to the lack of studies that examined masculinity and femininity are the fact that this dimension does not correlate with national wealth, economic variables, and does not create a line of difference between eastern and western countries. However, history has shown that the countries with similar historical circumstances tend to occupy similar positions on this dimension.

According to Hofstede et al. (2010), there are two types of cultures on this dimension: 1) predominantly masculine cultures where majority of men are strong and tough figures that earn money for them and their families and where majority of women tend to be warm, gentle, hurting, and highly preoccupied with quality of their lives and 2) predominantly feminine cultures, where both

male and females are self-effacing, warm, gentle and preoccupied with the quality of life.

Furthermore, in masculine societies, majority of members pay attention to their success, and tend to be inflexible and live a life guided by materialistic values. In contrast, in feminine societies, people are further focused on modesty, empathy, and non-materialistic values (De Mooij, 1998).

Interestingly, the definition of mental health significantly differs in these two types of cultures. More specifically, according to mental health model in masculine cultures it is normal and expected from people who are successful and happy to display their success through different items and behaviors. On the other hand, according to mental health model in feminine cultures, normal people are those who are liked and who are modest and do not show off in front of other people how successful they are (Hofstede, et al., 2010).

Consequently, masculine people tend to overestimate and think very highly of themselves, while they constantly try to demonstrate their outstanding abilities to others. In contrast, feminine individuals, tend to underestimate themselves, and to highly value modesty (Hofstede et al., 2010). This dimension determines how people evaluate success, competitiveness, and different ways of expressing them (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). In masculine cultures, individuals are evaluated according to their earnings, recognition, and success, while in the feminine ones people are more focused on the quality and number of relationships with other people. In addition, feminine cultures highly value security and desirability of the living environment.

To sum up, masculine and feminine cultures differ significantly in the following characteristics: 1) gaps and differences in important goals, interests, decisions and behaviors of the sexes, 2) variations in competitiveness and cooperativeness. In addition, in masculine cultures the difference between gender roles is more prominent and is based on biological sex- males and females (Hofstede et al., 2010). Moreover, in masculine cultures ambition is more important for both men and women (Best & Williams, 1998).

### **3.2.2.1 Masculinity-Femininity and Consumer Behavior**

The aspects of consumers' behavior that are most affected by this dimension are: 1) purchasing habits or luxury goods, 2) purchasing habits of goods that display social status, 3) independence in purchase-related decision-making process, 4) need for social classification, 5) new product adoption, 6) complaint behavior of consumers, 7) roles that males and females take in purchasing process, 8) the preference towards particular types of products or brands.

Although purchases of luxury and status-displaying products are highly influenced by person's income, people from masculine cultures, who buy things to show them, tend to buy these goods significantly more when compared to people from feminine cultures, who mostly buy things because they have a need to use them (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). The findings of Stockmann are, according to De Mooij (2004), in concordance with this hypothesis and they show that masculinity dimension is in positive correlation with purchases of luxury sports cars and brand loyalty.

Regarding consumers' behavior, people in masculine cultures are more independent in purchasing decisions contrary to people from feminine cultures (Hofstede et al., 2010; De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). More precisely, in masculine cultures when people make their decisions they are systematic, logical, fast, and determined. Hence, advertising tricks that are usually used in shopping malls today such as type of music that is played in the shops, illumination, how popular the shopping center is, and the place where the product is put, have very small or zero effect on their purchasing behavior.

Need for classification between self and others is more expressed in masculine cultures. Specifically, in masculine cultures people think that they are better than anybody else so they have the need to classify everything and everybody around them. On the other hand, the higher the femininity of one culture is, the lower is the need for classification (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). Hence, using



class-aimed advertising strategy is less efficient in feminine cultures than it is in masculine cultures.

Innovativeness or readiness to adopt new products is in direct correlation with one's ambition; hence, it is highly influenced by one's masculinity. More precisely, masculine cultures are more focused on success and achievement, which pull consumers to new experiences and products because people want to be seen as special and different from everybody else (Steenkamp et al., 1999). In concordance with this principle are the findings of Gilbert et al. (2003), who showed that more masculine cultures tend to purchase new technology products significantly more.

In masculine cultures people tend to fight for their rights significantly more. Consequently, in these cultures, consumers tend to complain more when their consumer rights are hurt. They are more ready and they more often reach to legal court proceedings in these situations. This is probably the case because masculine cultures assume that one needs to get the most of his life (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011).

Masculinity also influences the role that males and females assume in purchasing activities (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). Specifically, in masculine cultures, a man, usually a father or a grandfather, makes almost all decisions, while in feminine cultures participative decision making is the most dominant way of deciding. In feminine cultures, involvement of family members in purchasing decisions is significantly higher. In addition, masculinity is in direct correlation with the time that males spend in shopping behaviors (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011).

Type and variety of brands that people use are also significantly correlated to masculinity dimension. For example, this dimension influences which cars are the most appealing and wanted in one culture. Hence, in masculine cultures, where showing off and materialism are highly valued, big cars with powerful engines are significantly more popular, while in feminine cultures security and

environmental protection are the most considered attributes of a car (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011).

### **3.2.3 Uncertainty avoidance**

We reside in a world with some amount of uncertainty. This is something that one cannot avoid and must accept or, if opposite, it will become a great threat for his mental, and physical health. Hence, we do not know what tomorrow brings; however, we can face or avoid more or less uncertain situations. Based on how ambiguous and avoidant majority of people in one culture are in regards to uncertain situations, we can locate the place of that culture on uncertainty avoidance dimension.

The first study that researched uncertainty avoidance dimension was conducted by Inkeles and Levinson (1969), where they examined how people handle dilemmas and conflicts in terms of their ability to control aggression and their ability to display cognitive flexibility.

Uncertainty avoidance is a dimension that is completely subjective, cultural and learned. The way we handle it is not innate or hereditary, thus we are not born with it. There are great differences between cultures in this dimension. More precisely, in cultures which are highly positioned on the scale on uncertainty avoidance, a majority of people tend to strictly follow the rules, they like the structure, display lower levels of cognitive flexibility, they are more pessimistic, and less emotionally stable. The basic principle that guides majority of people from these cultures states that everything that is different is dangerous. In contrast, in cultures showing low UA, majority of people cognitively more flexible, dislike firm structure and strict rules, highly value differences, originality and relativism. Hence, people in these cultures tend to be guided by the principle that states that differences are curious and they need to be explored (Hofstede et al., 2010). Thus for this dimension three following core elements are important: 1) the importance of familiarity of things and situations, 2) fear and anxiety that arises in ambiguous situations, 3) avoidance of risk. However,

according to Hofstede et al. (2010), d'Iribarne (1989) argues that the need for rules is common in both types of cultures; however, he points out that what makes the difference is the nature of that need. Specifically, in uncertainty avoidant cultures, people have mainly emotional needs for rules and they feel anxious in situations where rules are ambiguous or missing. On the other hand, in cultures that score low on uncertainty avoidance, people see rules only as a necessity and highly dislike firm structure and strict, formal rules. Hence, it is really important to emphasize that uncertainty avoidance is significantly different from risk avoidance, because its probability cannot be estimated and it is not related to a particular object.

### **3.2.3.1 Uncertainty Avoidance and Consumers Behavior**

The same as the previous dimensions, uncertainty avoidance influences several aspects of consumers' behavior. More specifically, it influences: 1) preference for creativity, innovation and change, 2) decision making, 3) adoption rate of new products and brands, 4) brand loyalty, 5) information search, and 6) purchase of specific type or variety of products.

Preference for creativity, innovation, and change is significantly influenced by this dimension. More specifically, people from the cultures that have high UA like routine, rules, and old habits. Consequently, within these cultures innovativeness and openness to change are very low. In contrast, in cultures that score low on this dimension, people are highly innovative and creative in their purchasing behavior; hence they tend to buy new products more often.

When it comes to decision making, people with low uncertainty avoidance tend to have internal locus of control which means that low UA attribute management if their lives to themselves, and they see themselves as masters of their own lives and decisions. In contrast, people who have high UA, tend to have external locus of control, also consequently they tend to procrastinate when making purchasing decisions and prefer to think that somebody or something else makes or should make these decisions for them (De Mooij and

Hofstede, 2011). Hence, in population with high uncertainty avoidance behaviors such as variety seeking, switching, and impulsive purchasing is significantly reduced.

Shaping of adoption rate of new products and brands in different cultures is done through the interaction of two dimensions- uncertainty avoidance and individualism. People with high UA are reluctant, until they are fully informed about the characteristics of a new product; consequently, the dispersal of innovativeness is significantly slower (Rogers, 1995). On the other hand, people with low UA have increased curiousness and are trustful and they gravitate towards shifting and adopting new products significantly faster.

In a similar manner, this dimension influences brand loyalty. So, people who score high on uncertainty avoidance do not like insecurity and unpredictability, and they try to minimize it as much as they can; hence, while purchasing, they do that by lowering purchasing risks and choosing familiar brands and products. Contrarily, people with low uncertainty avoidance tend to take some risks because they are curious, and they find new experiences interesting, and challenging (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996; De Mooij, 2004).

Information search is one more aspect that is significantly shaped by this dimension. More precisely, according to Dawar et al. (1996), increase in UA lowers the proportion of consumers who look for product information from impersonal and objective resources. In other words, people who are highly uncertainty avoidant tend to seek information from trusted familiar sources, even if the probability of it being not reliable in some instances is high (Kotler, 2011).

Finally, this dimension is significantly correlated to purchase of specific type or variety of products. For example, the findings of De Mooij (1998) showed a significant relationship linking the purchase of a new car and not a second hand car and uncertainty avoidance. In addition, even more interesting finding from this study is that results confirmed that when uncertainty avoidance is

controlled, income does not play significant role in decision regarding previously mentioned car purchases.

### **3.2.4 Power Distance**

Power-distance (PD), measured like a cultural dimension, reflects what relationship members of one culture have towards authority (Inkeles and Levinson, 1969). More specifically, this dimension shows how people handle the problem of human inequality and how they think the problem should be handled.

Hofstede et al. (2010), argue that PD tells us the nature of relationships between individuals and people of power. When PD is small, individuals are very little dependent on power holders; hence, people prefer interdependence and consultations in all aspects of social functioning between all members of society regardless of whether individuals are in position of power or not. In contrast, when PD is large, people that are not in power positions are highly dependent on people who govern the country. In these societies a small number of people govern all relationships in the society among the people who have the benefit of power and other members. This principle is applied to all types of relationships (for example, financial, social, political, and scientific, etc.).

How much people accept inequality and how they handle it is one of the main indicators of this dimension. While in the cultures with large PD inequality is implicitly assumed, also at times even desired, in the cultures with small PD inequality considered as something that the majority of people fight against and try to minimize it (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Hofstede et al., (2010) showed that majority of members in one society share the same beliefs regarding PD, and the position that they hold in that culture does not influence that belief. In other words, it is not important whether they are leaders (power holders) or those that are led (subordinates). Paradoxically, collectivistic culture in which equality is the greatest ideal, are usually the

countries with the highest PD (Hofstede et al., 2010). These findings indicate that individualism-collectivism dimension is in significant correlation with PD.

#### **3.2.4.1 Power Distance and Consumers Behavior**

Power distance significantly influences the following aspects of consumer behavior: 1) decision making style 2) purchase dominance 3) brand-oriented purchases 4) status related purchasing 5) interest to purchase and use special groups of products, and 6) evaluation system.

When it comes to decision making, within nations with large PD, people like to rely on other people to make important decisions for them. In these cultures, people tend to have external locus of control, while in the cultures with small PD it is quite the opposite (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). In the context of consumer behavior, this means that in large PD cultures purchasing decisions are made almost always by the elders and superiors, while in the low PD cultures all consumers engage in the decision making process.

Purchase dominance is also influenced by PD. More precisely, in cultures with high PD, children and women are brought up and thought that they must follow certain standards and rules in purchasing situations and leave all decisions to the dominant members of the family, usually to the father or the grandfather (Rose et al., 2002).

In contrast, when PD is low, all family members are thought to express their own opinions and make decisions for themselves. Consequently, variety seeking, and brand orientation are significantly more frequent in these cultures (Rose et al., 2002).

The strategies that people apply in the process of product and brand purchasing depend highly on power distance dimension (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). Large PD is correlated to more brand-oriented consumption, while small level of PD is significantly correlated to more equal treatment of expensive brands.

The main reasons behind status purchases are demonstration of power and position; hence status purchases are more frequent in cultures with large PD. Furthermore, in these cultures, PD is used to explain importance of different people (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011); therefore, people believe that one should show his social status clearly and without disambiguation, because only then will other people show the respect that that person really deserves (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). In concordance with this principle are the results of a survey conducted in 2007 by European Media which showed that purchases of expensive perfumes and handbags are significantly correlated to PD (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011).

In similar pattern few studies demonstrated that PD influences interest to purchase and use special groups of products (De Mooij 2010; De Mooij 2011). More precisely, the studies have shown that consumption of cosmetics and personal care products is negatively correlated to PD. In addition, PD also influences type and variety of products that consumers tend to purchase from cosmetics. Moreover, regarding alcoholic drinks, the consumption of champagne, port wine, and vermouth is also highly dependent on PD.

Finally, evaluation system that a person uses while making purchasing decisions is significantly shaped by power distance (Hofstede et al., 2010) In cultures where power distance is large, power is a part of reality that is understood as the foundation and the main pillar of the good-evil balance (Hofstede et al., 2010 ).

Consequently, it is believed that, in these cultures, any variable related to presentation and advertising of a product or a brand that somehow can be associated with power can influence the sales of that product. Some of these variables are: the size of the product, the position that the product occupies on the shelf, the number of shops where the product can be bought, and when, where, and how much the product is advertised (Hofstede et al., 2010).

### **3.3 Comparing Turkey and United States in Cultural Dimensions**

On the power distance dimension, Turkey has a high score. This means that people in Turkish culture are highly dependent on the people of power. Furthermore, it indicates that their society is highly hierarchical where superiors can be reached very hard by ordinary people. Ideal boss, according to Turkish culture, is someone who is strict and who defines rules and gives orders, like a father figure. Consequently, employees score very low on creativity and initiative because they expect to be told what to do. People from higher hierarchical level exercise strict control on their subordinates, and in professional context a high level of formality and indirect communication is desirable (Hofstede et al., 2010).

On the individualism dimension Turkey scores very low which means that Turkish culture is actually a collectivistic one. This means that people from in-groups and their opinions are more important than people from out-groups. Furthermore, that indicates that conformity and loyalty are highly valued behaviors, while direct communication and conflicts are avoided and undesirable. Moreover, relationships in this culture are based on moral obligations, which have priority over task fulfillment. Finally, nepotism is very frequent in this culture, and indirect feedback is preferred in professional context (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Interestingly, Turkey belongs to a feminine culture, which means that majority of people are not focused on success and ambition, but on the quality of relationships with others, consensus, empathy, while showing sympathy for the poor and disabled is highly valued. Personal and private time is very important for Turkish people and they like to spend it with their families and other people close to them. Turks also like to display their status but not to demonstrate their success but to show their position in social hierarchy.

The score on uncertainty avoidance dimension is the highest when compared to all other cultural dimensions. This means that Turkish culture has a great need for strict rules and laws. Furthermore, Turkish people highly dislike



unpredictability, and in ambiguity they experience high levels of anxiety. In order to alleviate anxiety, they tend to practice rituals which may leave the strangers with the impression that Turks are highly religious people; however, the truth is that they are just traditionalists who use their traditions to ease the tension (Hofstede et al., 2010).

When it comes to the PD and individualism in the USA the situation is quite the opposite. More precisely, this culture scores low on the former and very high on the latter. Americans put great importance on equal rights for everybody in all aspects of society and all parts of the government. American culture also cherishes hierarchy but not because they think it is necessary but because it is convenient. Superiors are easily reachable and they prefer and are open for direct communication with their subordinates. In addition, Americans highly value participation and information sharing on every subject. In this culture people are thought that they need to look after oneself and their families and not to rely on others or the state to help them. However, because they are highly individualistic culture they tend to have problems and lack of capability of forming deep friendships (Hofstede et al., 2010). The USA is a big country and in professional contexts Americans need to communicate with many unknown people; consequently, they are not shy when talking to strangers and they do not restrain themselves when they try to get some information from a stranger. In addition, in business world they are very creative and self-reliant, and when they evaluate someone they tend to seek the facts and evidence for someone's deeds and they do not rely so much on personal opinions (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Personal success, ambition, and status, are very important to Americans because their culture scores high on masculinity. Hence, majority of Americans believe that people should strive to be the best they can and that winner takes it all. Consequently, they will like to show off with their successes and the things that they achieved and which they find important. In addition, Americans do not value success if it is not shown for the whole world to see it. For them, the main point of success is its display to others. Moreover, Americans believe that anything can be done if enough effort is invested, and no matter how good a job

is done, there is always room for improvement. They belong to the group of yes and can-do people and majority of them live to work. Their professional life is more important to them than their leisure time and they find their career as the best measure of how good they are. Finally they believe and facilitate constructive conflict. However, some argue that the economic gap between the social classes and too high individualism have already started some radical changes in their society which will push PD on a higher level and whole society towards lower individualism (Hofstede et al., 2010).

The US scores low on uncertainty avoidance, which indicates that Americans are very curious, open to new things, and they rather embrace unpredictability than to run away from it. Hence, they like new ideas, products and innovations. In addition, they highly value freedom of speech and are very tolerant of high variety of opinions and world views. They also dislike rules and are not very expressive people (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Regarding the long term orientation, Americans score significantly far below the average. More specifically, they are very analytic and practical. Because of that, they have very strong ideas about what is good and bad which is the main cause of all great polarizations in their cultures (for example, problems regarding abortion, use of drugs, euthanasia, weapons, etc.). Finally, the low score on this dimension also reflects itself in the professional world where Americans measure performance on very short-term basis (every four months; Hofstede et al., 2010).

### **3.4 Measuring Cultural Dimensions**

Cultural dimensions can be measured on national and on individual levels. Both of these have their characteristics, advantages, and flaws.

Measuring cultural dimensions on a national level is usually done by anthropologists, who measure these dimensions on a large group of people, where they weight measuring items according to the theoretical framework on which they based their research. In this process they usually compare 10 or more

countries and they base their comparison on the differences in mean scores and standard deviations. Weaknesses of this approach are: 1) ecological fallacy, 2) they are studies of a big scope and are very hard and seldom replicable and repeated, 3) the results are static representation of cultures, which are dynamic phenomena, 4) the data is usually gathered from indirect sources such as international organizations and not directly from people (Bathae, 2014). On the other hand, strengths of this approach are: 1) simplicity, 2) clear and simple methodology, 3) supported by many empirical findings, 4) they have practical value and are applicable in economics, politics, and sociology (Bathae, 2014). On the other hand, measuring cultural dimensions on individual level is usually done by psychologists who are more interested in how cultures shape personalities and they treat cultural dimensions as a source of individual differences. The weaknesses of this approach: 1) low or zero generalizability to nations or cultures, 2) researchers need to do standardization of every instrument that they use again and again for every new research 3) results must be interpreted with greater caution (Bathae, 2014). On the other hand, the strengths of this approach are: 1) results make the interpretation of cultural differences easier 2) results are highly applicable in the domain of marketing, especially consumer behavior 3) studies are easy to plan, and 4) the results are applicable on micro level especially for psychologists, managers, and sociologists (Bathae, 2014).

Therefore. Cultural Values Scale (CVSCALE) will be used in this study because it has good psychometric characteristics. CVSCALE measures five cultural dimensions (PD, UA, COLL, LTO, and MASC) at the individual level. CVSCALE has been used in many cross-cultural studies with success (Yoo et al., 2011). Confirmatory factor analysis has shown that the model is statistically significant  $\chi^2 = 496.27$ ,  $p < .001$ , RMSEA = .058, CFI = .91, and TLI = .94. Chronbach's Alpha for the subscales is: PD = .91, UA = .88, COLL = .85, LTO = .79, and MASC, = .84 (Yoo et al., 2011).

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **ONLINE COMPULSIVE BUYING BEHAVIOR**

#### **4.1 Describing Compulsive Buying Behavior**

Today, we live in a world that is more and better connected than ever before. Shopping malls are everywhere and products from all around the world are available to us all the time. Hence, today, compulsive buying is more easily triggered than ever before, and it can have very serious consequences on one's life and his social surroundings.

In its more extreme form, when a person completely loses control over his buying patterns, compulsive buying becomes a psychological disorder. Compulsive psychological disorder (CBD) which is part of a group of impulse control disorders, although its accurate position in the American and European classification of psychological disorders is still a matter of debate (Black, 2007). People diagnosed with CBD cannot control their buying behavior or their cognitions related to it, and because of that they are very distressed and display impaired functioning in other dimensions of their life such as social, and professional. In the US population, 5.8 % of the people are affected by this disorder. The prevalence of CBD is higher among females (Black, 2007). Some findings show that majority of compulsive buyers are women because they use different semantic frame for defining shopping. While, majority of men associate shopping with work, majority of women associate shopping with fun, socialization, and leisure time. In addition, shopping of men is usually goal oriented and they tend to do it with as little effort as possible (Campbell, 2000).

When it comes to age differences, the study of Neuner, Raab and Reisch (2005) showed that younger people are more affected by CBD than older people. This

can be related to the general lack of impulse control that adolescents display because their brain is still not fully developed. Of all compulsive buyers, 11 % are adolescents (Roberts & Manolis, 2000). First indications of compulsive buying start to emerge at the end of teenagers' day and in the beginning of adulthood (Black, 2007). Dittmar's (2005) findings are in concordance with these studies. More precisely, his results showed that almost a half of teenagers in Scotland display compulsive buying behavior (CBB). Dittmar concludes that this is the case because young people in Scotland have very low resilience against advertisements and social conformism.

The symptoms that people with CBD usually have are obsessive thoughts about shopping associated with extremely high tension and anxiety prior to an act of purchasing, which all are gone quickly after the purchase is done. CBD usually occurs together with other disorders such as bipolar disorder and anxiety disorders, substance abuse disorders, and eating disorders. CBD can also be caused by many different psychological states, of which some are clinical such as depression or non-clinical such as anxiety, lack of self-confidence or frustration (Roberts & Manolis, 2000; Scherhorn, 1990). In addition it can be also triggered by various types of advertisements (Lee & Workman, 2015). Interestingly, possession of credit cards is also positively correlated to compulsive buying, which was demonstrated by Roberts and Manolis, (2000), who showed that people who own one or more credit cards tend to engage themselves significantly more often in CBBs than people who do not own one.

People with CBD usually have a personality disorder, although the symptoms may vary and exact profile of compulsive-shopper personality is still not determined. Firstly, compulsive buyers do not have cognitive schemes to control their buying behavior (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). However, although there is no exact profile of compulsive buyer, low self-esteem is a common personality trait in this population (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts & Manolis, 2000). The products that are usually bought by compulsive buyers are clothing, jewelry, makeup, electronic equipment and collectible things (Black, 2007), and Faber, O'Guinn, and Krych, R. (1987) argue that these products are usually

bought by compulsive buyers because they boost their self-esteem by influencing their self-image positively.

Another common behavior for compulsive buyers is a tendency to escape from reality into their fantasy world. This behavior is nothing more but a manifestation of the dominant mechanism that they use in handling negative emotions which is called emotional suppression. By applying this mechanism they fantasize about their successes to requite their lacking self-esteem (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Roberts & Manolis, 2000). Consequently, this pattern of behavior does not solve their problem because in the real world they still have low self-esteem and are not accepted by their social environment, all of which makes them maintaining this behavior until a catastrophe hits their life (Orford, 1985).

Some findings indicate that genetics also play a significant role in CBD because studies have shown that it occurs more often in some families (Black, 2007). Unfortunately, so far, there are no medications or any form of a treatment specially designed to alleviate the symptoms in population affected with CBD; however, there are indications that the following counseling modalities can help: debtors anonymous, simplicity circles, bibliotherapy, financial counseling, and marital therapy (Black, 2007).

Many studies have performed explorations linking materialistic values and CBB; however, the results were rather contradicting. Specifically, Dittmar (2005) found that materialism is a significant predictor of and positively correlated to CBB. On the other hand, D'Astous (1990) showed that materialism is not significantly correlated to compulsive buying. Specifically, the study showed that the products that are acquired in the act of buying are not relevant to the buyer, and the only thing that is important for the buyer is the mere process of buying things. In addition, compulsive buyers do not attach to the products that they bought, and they do not care about them or use them after the buying act (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989).

CBD was first described at the beginning of the 20th century by Bleuler (1930) and Kraepelin (1915), when they described compulsive buyers as a group of people who are buying maniacs or oniomaniacs, and who compulsively, without any control, buy things and accumulate their debt until some catastrophe struck them. At that time, compulsive behavior was put into impulse disorder cluster together with kleptomania and pyromania. However, until the last decade of the 20th century CBD caught very little attention in scientific world. However, with the rise of Internet and global economy in the 1990s the number of affected people significantly grew in many countries from the western world such as US (Schlosser, Black, Repertinger, & Freet, 1994), Canada (Valence, d'Astous, & Fortier, 1988), England (Elliott, 1994), Germany (Scherhorn, Reisch, & Raab, 1990), France (Lejoyeux, Tassain, Solomon, & Adès, 1997), and Brazil (Bernik, Akerman, Amaral, & Braun, 1996), which caught the eye of behavioral scientists and awoke their interest for this phenomenon.

According to some scientists, compulsive buying is a compensatory behavior and a way to handle negative situations and mood states (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992; McElroy, Keck, Pope, Smith & Stakowski, 1994). Unfortunately, among majority of countries today, where marketing facilitates consumerism and presents materialism as a positive system of value, compulsive shopping and its consequences are very often ignored and compulsiveness promoted as desirable behavior and indicator of a free spirit and positive experience chasing. Even more disappointing is the fact that many lay people threat and see compulsive buyers as people who are just financially irresponsible, and not as a group with a serious psychological condition. However, compulsive buying has very destructive impacts on lives, and it can completely destroy their financial, social, and emotional well-being (McElroy, et al., 1994).

CBD is different from regular buying in the following aspects: 1) intrinsic value of the purchased good is totally irrelevant to the buyer, 2) the buyer negates all negative aspects of his compulsive purchases, 3) the buyer has a lack of the ability to control purchasing behaviors, 4) person has a constant urge to acquire things (Krueger 1988; O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Valence and colleagues.,

1988). Similarly to people with compulsive hoarding disorder, who accumulate useless things, for compulsive buyers, storing unneeded products and services acquired in shopping binges is very common. This led some scientists to the conclusion that compulsive buyers only buy things because of psychological effect that it has on them, or in other words, because of emotional and mental relief that the act of buying causes (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). In its extreme form CBD can have very serious consequences such as marital problems and divorce, accumulation of debt, misappropriation, and sometimes it may end with the suicide attempt of the affected person (Lejoyeux, Ades, Tassain, & Solomon, 1996).

Although it may seem to the marketers and economists that promotion of compulsive purchasing behavior and targeting of people vulnerable to CBD is a good strategy, in long term, the problem of CBD has great consequences on directs social environment of the people affected by this disorders and generally on global economy (Kerin, Hartley, & Rudelius, 2011). Specifically, CBB unfortunately leads to the accumulation of uncollectable debt because people with CBD irrationally buy things and usually fall out from their purchasing power limits several dozen times, which cannot later even be repaid by the members of their families (Bragg, 2009).

Unfortunately, although a body of literature collected a great amount of evidence showed that impulsive and compulsive human behavior has negative long term effects on humans and society in general, marketers today still promote “leap before you think” behavior, and put rational decision making and weighing of different alternatives in such context that it can be only seen as old fashioned, dull, and entrapping. In addition, they are only focused on short-term goals and guided by the premise that the best marketing strategy is the one that sells the most goods and makes the highest profit. Hence, many multinational corporations spend millions of dollars each year for campaigns that will promote irrational and repeated consumption without thinking about long-term consequences. Consequently, there are literary hundreds of studies that examined compulsive consumer behavior and its correlates (e.g., Edwards,



1992; Edwards 1993; Edwards 1994; Faber, O'Guinn, & Krych, 1987; Faber & O'Guinn, 1989; Hirschman, 1992; Natarajan & Goff, 1991; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Peter, 1991; Rook, 1987).

However, as expected and argued by Kerin et al. (2011) and Bragg (2009), this business strategy significantly contributed to the rise in bankruptcy filings. In addition, according to the data of the U.S. Department of Commerce, 2008 (<https://www.usa.gov/federal-agencies/u-s-department-of-commerce>) there is a growing number of people in the USA who practice purchases that are far beyond their purchasing power. Alarming, average US family owed more than eight thousand dollars in credit loans in 2008 (Bragg, 2009), which they could not repay later for several years.

#### **4.2 Theories in Compulsive Buying**

There are four theories of compulsive buying behavior in the scientific literature: "1) biological factors and disease theory, 2) sociocultural theory 3) affluenza, and 4) social learning theory" (Workman & Paper, 2010).

The biological factors and disease theory of compulsive buying comes from a medical model. According to this model, compulsive buying is a result of faulty genes and physiological abnormalities in functioning of our nervous system. Hence the presence of these abnormalities makes people vulnerable for developing CBD. According to Black (2007) CBB is partly inherited because this disorder is present in some families more frequently than in others. In addition, McElroy, Pope, Hudson, Keck, & White, (1991) showed that compulsive behavior is significantly correlated to serotonin levels in our central nervous system. More precisely, higher level of serotonin in the brain is correlated with better control of impulsive behavior and vice versa. In concordance with these findings are the results of clinical trials that showed that medications that increase serotonin levels in the brain help in lowering the symptoms of compulsive behavior (McElroy et al., 1991).

On the other hand, Faber (1992) argues that in the core of CBB is faulty neurotransmission where the brain connects maladaptive buying behavior with

rush and arousal. Hence, according to this perspective, compulsive buying is no different than any other addiction (e.g., alcoholism, smoking, etc.) In concordance with this perspective are the findings of Christensen et al. (1994) that showed that 83 % and 71 % of people with CBD, while buying, feel happy and powerful respectively. However, the same people also report that this feeling goes away very fast after the buying act. In addition, Black, Monahan, & Gabel, (1997) showed that fluvoxamine, a medication that is used for treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, helps compulsive buyers in controlling their behaviors regarding their purchases.

The sociocultural theory of CBB comes from psychological science. More specifically, this theory comes from cross-cultural studies that examined how people develop different addictions in relation to the customs and rituals from their cultures. According to Davison and Neale (1986), some cultures have more addictions regarding particular substance abuse and behaviors because that same substance and behaviors have significant roles in ceremonies and festive occasions in that culture, while at the same time the consequences of their abuse are minimized or ignored by a great majority of people from that culture.

In the same manner, compulsive buying can be facilitated and imposed to non-compulsive buyers by their close friends and family members who are compulsive buyers as a desirable behavior. At the same time, not engaging in compulsive consumption can attract social condemnation or disapproval of the same groups of people (Black, 2007). For example, compulsive shopping is a leisure time activity of many people in the USA. It is not done only for the thrill of shopping, but also as an opportunity to socialize with friends and do something together with them. Black (2007), argues that even normal buying in the USA, when compared with other cultures or when seen by the people from different cultures, is very often perceived as compulsive, especially in occasions such as holidays, birthdays, when one inherits wealth, or gets a large amount of money on a lottery.

Researchers also advocate that CBB is a sociocultural category which requires two conditions to be satisfied for it to occur on a massive scale (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992). These conditions are the following: 1) the culture must have a market-based economy which will facilitate buying in general; 2) the culture must have high disposable income (the society must be on the rich side). The findings of Elliot (1994) are in concordance with this perspective because they show that compulsive buying is almost nonexistent in Third world countries.

The affluenza theory of CBB emerged from sociocultural theory, and they are based on many common principles; however, they are significantly different in one aspect of compulsive buying. Specifically, while sociocultural theory advocates that CBB is an outcome of traditions and rituals that are deeply rooted in one culture, affluenza theory treats compulsive buying as social disease and puts it in a very negative context.

This theory was created by De Graff, Wann and Naylor (2005), who defined compulsive buying as a disease when they observed the ever growing debt in the USA that reached its peak at the beginning of 2000s. In the core of this social disease is cultural consumerism that is based on, according to them, negative values that more is always better and buying now is all right regardless of whether you can afford it. Like with the body when infected with a virus, an economy infected with affluenza is in a constant state of crisis, and if not treated, it can only become worse and eventually collapse, the same as an infected body will die if the infection is not treated. It was argued that the root of affluenza is irrational belief in American Dream, which postulates that unlimited economic growth is possible and a must no matter the price (De Graff et al., 2005). Consequently, many people who grew in this culture are conditioned to get rid of any form of anxiety and physical uneasiness through buying. In addition, people in many western countries live today in cultures where shopping is fueled by negative emotions that emerged in various negative life experiences. In other words, many people in these cultures think that shopping can alleviate all uneasiness and solve all life problems. Furthermore, De Graaf, Wann, and Naylor, (2005) specify seven main symptoms of affluenza: 1) constant focus on

shopping; 2) life in constant fear of bankruptcy; 3) congestion of space with unnecessary stuff; 4) materialism that reshapes even relationships with close friends, families and partners; 5) children are also targets of unethical marketers who try to engrave materialistic world view in them; 6) lack of will to do anything if that cannot be monetized regardless of the consequences; 7) lack of meaning because success and wealth become only significant motivators of human behavior.

According to the social learning theory, compulsive buying behaviors are learned from older and more experienced people. Specifically, many young children are born in the world where many people are compulsive buyers. During their maturation, these children observe compulsive buyers and use them as role models for modeling their behavior. Hence, according to this theory, compulsive buyers are products of a society where for many different reasons some people cannot identify themselves with non-compulsive buyers. In addition, the longer they identify themselves with compulsive buyers the lower is the probability that they will ever change their identity.

Findings of McElroy et al. (1994) and Black (2007) are in concordance with this perspective because they show that compulsive buyers have at least one close relative that has mood disorders, substance abuse disorder or compulsive buying disorder, who perhaps was used as behavioral model. In addition, Hirschman (1992) argues that substance abuse, emotional conflict and physical violence are significant correlates of compulsive buying behaviors.

### **4.3 Factors Affecting Compulsive Buying Behavior**

Empirical studies have shown that people who have problems with compulsive buying and CBD are generally inclined towards addiction. This hypothesis is confirmed multiple times in the studies that showed that people with CBD diagnosis usually have at least one other addiction or compulsion problem such as alcoholism (Glatt & Cook, 1987; Valence, D'Astous, & Fortier, 1988), kleptomania (McElroy et al., 1991; 1994), bulimia and shoplifting (Norton, Crisp, & Bhat, 1985; Mitchell, Hatsukami, Eckert, & Pyle, 1985; Williamson,

1990), drug abuse (Mitchell et al., 1985; Williamson, 1990), and binge eating disorder and bulimia nervosa (Faber, Christenson, De Zwaan, & Mitchell, 1995).

Lifestyle factors also influence compulsive buying habits. These factors include credit card usage, the significance that the excessive spending has on person's self-realization, and the role that recognition of in group people has on person's self-acknowledgment (Natarajan & Goff, 1991).

Many studies indicate that personality plays a significant role in CBD. Specifically, people who are highly emotionally unstable and score high on neuroticism tend to become compulsive buyers, and they are especially vulnerable if they have low self-esteem and are prone towards anxiety and depression (Mendelson & Mello, 1986). In addition, Mendelson and Mello (1986) also found that people who are non-conformist, independent, under controlled, and impulsive are more probable to develop addiction such as compulsive buying.

Furthermore, compulsive buyers tend to have low frustration tolerance and become stressed very fast if their intentions and goals cannot be realized immediately (Kolotkin, Revis, Kirkley, & Janick, 1987). In addition, compulsive buyers tend to have problems in establishing and maintaining deeper emotional connections with people from their immediate surroundings such as members of their family, friends, or colleagues. Hence, even when they are with their close ones they experience loneliness (Mendelson & Mello, 1986). As we can see, people who are compulsive buyers have a high inclination towards negative emotions; therefore, it is highly reasonable to assume that compulsive buying is their coping mechanism or compensatory behavior for overcoming these feelings (Jacobs 1986). Compulsive shopping in people with CBD can be triggered by different physical characteristics of products and surroundings in which the products are presented. These characteristics include attributes such as color, sounds, lighting, smells in shopping malls, and textures of products (Black, 1996). High sensitivity towards physical characteristics of

products is an indicator of how attention and deeper cognitive processes inside the mind of compulsive buyers function. It is probable that their cognitive system favors physical characteristics of products and environment, which renders them unable to see beyond these characteristics and make deeper analysis of their compulsions. In addition, this can also explain why they are not able to make and maintain deeper emotional connections with people from their surroundings.

Some scientists suggest that CBD is learned behavior, which is acquired through the mechanism of operant conditioning (Donegan, Rodin, O'Brien, & Soloman, 1983). Specifically, people who are prone towards negative feelings and who have low self-esteem engage themselves into compulsive buying, and then the buying makes them feel better. Shortly after the act of buying, they feel bad because the rush fades away very fast. Hence, they engage themselves in CBB once again. Therefore, in this behavioral loop we can see that person associates compulsive buying (unconditioned stimuli) with positive feelings that it produces (enforcer) which increases the probability that compulsive buying will be repeated (compulsive buying becomes conditioned behavior).

Interestingly, the literature indicates that compulsive buyers have very high capacity to fantasize, which allows them to temporarily escape negative feelings, low self-esteem, and acquire social acceptance. According to (Jacobs, 1986), compulsive buying is for people with CBD just a continuation of their fantasy and a mechanism through which they enhance their self-image (e.g., they buy expensive clothes, perfumes, and other items because, according to them, that is something that successful people do). In addition, Kaplan and Kaplan (1957) argue that fantasizing and compulsive buying are self-imposed distractions that have a role to redirect person's attention from real life problems that cannot be confronted because of the lack of cognitive and emotional capacities to cope with them.

Some studies such as Miller (1980) and Black (2007) indicate that compulsive buyers have chronically low basic level of arousal in CNS which makes them

prone to experiencing boredom, and anxiety. Consequently this makes them more vulnerable to compulsive buying because of the compensatory effect that it has on their CNS and subjective reality (e.g., it eliminates boredom and lowers anxiety). In addition, it is highly probable that people with CBD tend to practice compulsive buying because of the excitement that it produces (Schmitz, 2005). Materialism can also be a significant correlate of compulsive buying; however, the literature suggests that there are two different mechanisms of compulsive buying and according to one of them materialism cannot be a relevant factor. More specifically, materialism is a set of values that ranks possession of things and material success as the greatest achievements in one's life. According to Rindfleisch, Burroughs, and Denton (1997), people who are compulsive consumers usually score up in materialism scale and they compulsively buy things because they think that possessions reflect their success and because they live by the motto that more is always better. Specifically, their study showed that the amount of disposable income and endorsement of compulsive buying inside the immediate family are two most significant predictors of CBD. In concordance with this view are the findings of Richins and Dawson (1992), who found a significant positive correlation between materialism and low self-esteem (which is usual traits of compulsive buyers).

Contrary, according to the other perspective of compulsive buying, materialism is not a significant factor in this behavior. More specifically, to a materialist, or a person who scores high on materialism dimension, acquired material goods are very important. Also, people who score high on materialism tend to use the products that they bought and tend to show them to other significant people in order to attract their attention and gain social approval. However, some findings indicate that the value of the products and its' main purpose or the role that the products have in the presentation of self-image is totally irrelevant to compulsive buyers shortly following the behavior of compulsive buying is finished (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989).

Interestingly, some studies indicate that the age is the variable that can explain and reconcile the differences between the two perspectives about materialism's

function in compulsive buying. More specifically, younger compulsive buyers (e. g., adolescents and young adults) tend to practice this behavior because of materialistic goals. However, in older age, development of CBD is usually a result of lack of coping mechanisms for handling negative emotions and low self-esteem (Xu, 2008; Frost et al., 2007; Dittmar, 2005).

Looking at the demographics, sex is the most significant indicator that affects compulsive consumption. Since the beginning of the scientific examination of compulsive buying (Kraepelin, 1915; Bleuler, 1924) many studies have shown that a great majority (more than three quarters) of the buyers are women (Black, 1996; Christenson et al., 1994; D'Astous, 1990; McElroy et al. 1994; O'Guinn & Faber, 1992). A study that examined gender differences in compulsive buying in Turkish sample also showed that females in Turkey show significantly higher compulsiveness than males. It was concluded that the way Turkish culture functions is the main cause of the women's vulnerability to compulsive buying. More specifically, the authors specified that women in Turkey traditionally use shopping as a mean to lower boredom, stress, increase their self-esteem and lower depression symptoms (Akagun Ergin, 2010).

On the other hand, regarding disposable income, findings are somewhat contradicting. The findings of Faber et al. (1987) show that poorer people have greater inclination towards compulsive buying because they lack many material things in their life. Consequently, that makes their desire for more stuff significantly higher. However, the findings of Christenson et al. (1994) showed that compulsive consumers can be part of from any income level. Interestingly, same study explained that compulsive buyers exist in all social classes, it is just that poorer people are more often diagnosed with CBD because they significantly faster and more often accumulate debt that brings a catastrophe into their lives, while rich people have the means to finance their CBB for significantly longer periods of time. In other words, poorer people bankrupt significantly faster and they and their families realize earlier that they have a problem.



The same as with income, the findings about the link with age and CBB are ambiguous. Specifically, O'Guinn and Faber (1989) and Dittmar (2005) discovered that age plays an important role in compulsiveness, where younger people are more prone to this behavior than older people. On the other hand, Scherhorn, Reisch and Raab (1990), noted that there is no significant effect of age. In addition, McElroy et al. (1994) showed that the average age of a person who falls into first episode of clinical compulsive buying is 30. Moreover, Akagun Ergin (2010) demonstrated that younger Turkish consumers are more prone to compulsive buying than older ones. In contrast, Billieux, Rochat, Rebetz, & Van der Linden, (2008) found that the proportion of female and male compulsive buyers is approximately the same. In concordance with those findings are the results of Koran, Faber, Aboujaoude, Large, & Serpe (2006) who demonstrated on a large sample, which consisted of more than two and a half thousand people, that prevalence of compulsive buying is approximately the same across both sexes.

The level of economic development of one country plays an important role in CBB. This hypothesis is confirmed by the findings that showed that there are significantly more compulsive buyers in the western world and especially in America when compared to the Third World Countries.

Finally, socialization and culture also have significant roles in CBB. More precisely, families where women tend to do a majority of household purchases tend to have more female compulsive buyers. In addition, cultural norms define desirable and undesirable behaviors. Hence, if compulsive buying is a behavior that is positively regarded in one culture, that culture will have more compulsive buyers because of the following reasons: 1) many people will engage themselves in compulsive buying because they will see that as a way to gain social approval and acceptance; 2) young children will be exposed to a greater number of compulsive buyers who will model their behavior; 3) if a culture does not condemn compulsive buying everybody will see such a behavior as normal and nobody will see that as a problem; 4) by giving social approval for

compulsive buying, people from one culture reinforce it and increase the probability that the behavior will be repeated in the future (Damon, 1988).

At first sight, to the lay eye compulsions are behaviors that look completely random; however, studies that examined the assortment of products, which are the objects of compulsive purchases, showed that some products are compulsively bought more often than the others (Dittmar, Beattie, & Freise, 1998). The items that are most frequently bought during compulsive buying include: clothing, jewelry, makeup, collectibles, and electronic equipment. Faber et al., (1987) found that what makes a product the object of compulsive buying is its ability to boost the self-confidence of the buyer. Interestingly, the products that initiate longer and meaningful conversations with the salesperson are also bought very often in the act of compulsive buying. Faber et al., (1987), in the latter case, conclude that the main reason why these products are bought is the need to overcome isolation through the conversation with the seller.

Strength of emotions that compulsive buyers experience during the act of buying is also a significant factor that influences the frequency or the number of compulsive buying episodes (Moore, Harris, and Chen, 1995). Compulsive buyers, have significantly higher basic level of excitement when they shop. In addition, they are more sensitive to product characteristics and other communication stimuli such as general ambient in the shops, advertisements, and other types of commercials. Surprisingly, some compulsive buyers even report sexual arousal during the act of buying; hence, they can be more easily influenced by an attractive salesperson than non-compulsive buyers. Therefore, an aggressive sales approach is more effective in the population of compulsive buyers (Black 1996). In addition, the highly emotional states in which compulsive buyers find themselves during their purchases make them more vulnerable to very costly binge shopping (Workman & Paper, 2010). Specifically, the same as when one drink is offered to an alcoholic after which he starts to drink uncontrollably, the aggressive attitude of a salesperson, who manages to convince a compulsive buyer to buy one thing compulsively, can trigger a buying spree in which the buyer will spend several thousand dollars.

Finally, modern technologies that came with the internet allow compulsive buyers to buy stuff far away from other people's eyes, which can facilitate their binge shopping because electronic purchases do not attract social disapproval and do not require confrontation with other people (Workman & Paper, 2010). Impulse control, or maybe better to say, the lack of it, is also a significant factor of compulsive buying.

More specifically, Christensen et al. (1994) demonstrated that 21 % of people with CBD have very weak general impulse control, while on the other hand, in the nonclinical population, only four percent of people have the same problem. In addition, compulsive and non-compulsive buyers report different ways of thinking before and during purchases. In other words, they consider different norms while deciding on their current or next buying activity. More specifically, compulsive buyers plan when and where their next "fix" will be, without considering other situational factors. On the other hand, non-compulsive buyers, tend to use more factors in consideration such as costs, free time, and necessity for a particular purchase. In addition, compulsive buyers have a different view of what is normal and appropriate behavior during shopping when compared to non-compulsive buyers. Consequently, when they shop with their friends their behavior can very often trigger social disapproval, which explains why a majority of compulsive shoppers (three-thirds of them) prefer to shop alone (Black 1996).

When it comes to the usage of credit cards and general attitudes towards credits, previous studies have shown inconclusive results. Specifically, Faber and O'Guinn (1992) did not find more frequent usage of credit cards or more positive general attitudes towards credits among compulsive buyers. In addition, D'Astous (1990) also confirmed these findings. However it is discovered that compulsive consumers, on average, hold significantly higher number of credit cards compared to other consumers (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). In addition, they found important differences among credit card balances of two groups. Moreover, D'Astous (1990) argued that compulsive buyers use their credit cards more irrationally. Interestingly, compulsive buyers tend to return

bought products significantly more often when they face difficulties with their credit cards such as negative balance (Hassay & Smith, 1996).

According to Roberts (1998), the money attitude dimension that has the highest influence on compulsive buying is power. More specifically, he argues that compulsive buying is mainly driven by desire for power. The second highest influence on compulsive buying has distrust; hence people who are more worried about the prices of the products will less likely engage themselves into compulsive buying. Lastly, anxiety is negatively correlated to compulsive buying. Specifically, people who are prone to anxiety feeling are more inclined towards compulsive buying (Roberts 1998).

Fashion orientation is another factor that influences compulsive buying significantly. Fashion orientation reflects how much people are aware, bothered, and satisfied with their clothes. The same as money attitudes, there are four facets of fashion orientation: “fashion leadership; fashion interest; importance of being well-dressed; anti-fashion attitudes” (Gutman & Mills, 1982). However, the only facet that influences compulsive buying significantly is fashion interest (Park, & Davis Burns, 2005). In addition, fashion interest is a significant predictor of compulsive clothing buying (Trautmann-Attmann & Johnson, 2009).

Passion defined as a personality trait that is a significant factor in CBD. Passion is specified as a personal inclination to do some activities. This dimension is significantly correlated to compulsive buying. Extremely high scores on this dimension are classified as obsessions. Hence, people who are compulsive buyers have extreme passion for shopping. Consequently, because their passion for shopping is an obsession, they cannot voluntarily start or stop their shopping activities. Therefore, obsessive passion is in positive correlation to compulsive buying (Öztürk 2010).

To sum up, a demographic variable that has the strongest effect on compulsive buying is sex. Previous studies have unequivocally shown that females show

higher level of vulnerable to compulsive buying than males. When it comes to personality traits compulsive buyers tend to be people who have very low self-esteem and tend to fantasize a lot in order to compensate for the lack of it. Furthermore, they tend to have other psychological problems more often. These include: depression, anxiety, and substance abuse. Materialism is a significant driver of compulsive buying if materialistic values are introjected in early childhood under the pressure of the immediate family. Compulsive buying is related to the categories of products that can boost self-image of the buyer, and these categories include clothes, make-up, perfumes, and electronic devices. Compulsive buying has short term effects which are positive and they are reflected in reduced anxiety, increased self-esteem, and positive emotional feelings inside a compulsive buyer. However, in the long term, compulsive buying has negative effects on the person, person's social surroundings, and economy in general, because it leads to the accumulation of the debt that cannot be paid. Compulsive buying develops under the influence of multiple factors such as biological, social, and cultural, and it persists thanks to the mechanism of operant conditioning.

#### **4.4 Online Compulsive Buying Behavior**

The past studies have shown that online shoppers are more inclined to impulsive buying. In addition, they are more susceptible to online advertisements and direct marketing, when compared to people who do not practice online shopping or who do not prefer it (Donthu and Garcia, 1999).

However, the literatures still does not offer a complete explanation of this phenomenon. The findings regarding online compulsive buying are somewhat contradicting, and some indicate that online and off-line modality of CBD are the same thing. However, some studies, which will be presented in the following text, indicate that online CBD is significantly different in some aspects, such as personality traits of the buyers, the general scope of compulsive buying, and the buyers' vulnerability towards buying cues and marketing-produced psychological traps.

Larose (2001) was the first scientist who presented uncontrolled online buying as a continuum, on which impulsive, compulsive, and addictive buying could be put. To his view, the most extreme shape of uncontrolled online buying is addictive buying. Specifically, when affected by this condition, people totally lose control over their purchasing habits. By the seriousness of its symptoms, the next form of uncontrolled buying is compulsive buying that significantly disrupts everyday functioning; however, in this condition, people still display some control regarding their purchasing habits (e. g, they still can chose what, where, and when they will buy). Finally, impulsive buying is the least disruptive form of uncontrolled shopping; it disrupts some personal plans, but does not shake the life of impulsive buyers significantly; however, if practiced often, impulsive buying can at one point become compulsive buying (Larose, 2001). Interestingly, the development of compulsive buying habits is much faster in online shopping than in the real physical shopping because it can be done in secrecy without the presence of other significant people who can criticize and disapprove this type of behavior. Without the perspective that other people have on the purchasing behavior, an impulsive buyer loses control and slips down into addiction significantly faster. In addition, people who already have a problem with controlling their buying behavior do not stand a chance against popular online trading platforms that use every known psychological trap to lure people to buy more stuff (Larose, 2001). Moreover, online shopping is available to compulsive buyers all the time; hence, they can buy whatever they want whenever they have the urge to do so. The faster gratification that online shopping gives to compulsive buyers makes the enforcing mechanism even stronger because the time between the buying urge, the act of buying, and gratification is significantly shortened (Kukar, Ridgway & Monroe 2009). Finally, accessibility, attractive online displays, discounts, and very wide assortment of online shopping significantly contribute to increase in online compulsive buying (Eastin, 2002)

Some findings indicate that significant personality differences exist between on-line compulsive buyers and regular compulsive buyers. More specifically Donthu and Garcia (1999) found that the online buyers are more impulsive,

picky, less risk averse, and less price-conscious. Consequently, they stay connected to online shopping sites longer and more frequently, and spend much of their time on these sites (Lejoyeux, Mathieu, Embouazza, Huet & Lequen, 2007). Duroy, Gorse, and Lejoyeux, (2014), found that prevalence of online compulsive buying is 16.0%. Interestingly, they found that online compulsive buying is not significantly correlated to other addictive behaviors such as cyber dependence, alcohol or tobacco abuse, which was indicated by previous studies that researched the relationships between compulsive buying and other addictions in off-line compulsive buyers. In addition, they found that online compulsive buyers visited more often online sales websites than normal buyers (56.2% versus 30.5%; Duroy, Gorse, & Lejoyeux, 2014). Moreover, the participants reported the exhaustive online offer and instant gratification as the main reasons why they choose Internet for satisfying their compulsions. However, as it was expected, online compulsive buyers have some common traits with the off-line compulsive buyers such as loss of control and motivations, and overall financial and time-consuming impacts (Duroy, Gorse, & Lejoyeux, 2014).

Market surveys in the United States (Larose, 2001) found fairly large segments of consumers that accounted for disproportionately high stake of on-line buying transactions. More specifically, the survey indicated that at least 20 % of online shoppers are compulsive buyers; hence, when these results are compared with the findings that Faber and O'Guinn (1992) presented where they estimated that the upper limit in off-line compulsive buyers as eight percent, we may conclude that a greater proportion of online buyers has CBD.

According to the empirical survey conducted by Wang and Yang, (2008) passion operationalized as a personality trait, is an important factor in OCBB. More specifically, their studies indicate that people who score high on the harmonious passion and those who score high on obsessive passion shop online more frequently and develop online shopping addiction more often. However, there are significant differences between people in each passion dimension. Specifically, people with extreme scores on obsessive passion dimension tend

to be more dependent on online shopping than people who have extreme scores on harmonious passion (Wang & Yang, 2008). In addition, Wang and Yang (2008) showed that conscientiousness, a personality trait from the Big Five inventory, was negatively correlated to compulsive buying behavior regardless of the level of harmonious passion. Interestingly, in the group with extremely high obsessive passion, no correlation was present between conscientiousness and CBB (Wang & Yang, 2008).

Finally, the study found that agreeableness and openness to experience are positively correlated to online compulsive behavior. This finding probably occurred because people who score low on agreeableness are highly suspicious and they do not trust to whole concept of online trade because they estimate that the risk of a fraud is very high. On the other hand, people measuring more regarding openness to experience are more creative, and more curious, than others. Hence, they are excited by new experiences significantly more, which makes them more vulnerable to online compulsive buying (Wang & Yang, 2008).

In order to determine what motivates compulsive buyers to engage themselves in online compulsive buying, Chang, Lu, Lin, & Chang, (2011) used a structural equation modeling (SEM) and showed that vanity of appearance, emotional buying motives, and identity buying motives directly influence online compulsive buying. Furthermore, their findings indicate that identity buying is a mediator between physical view and compulsive buying and between physical concern and compulsive buying. Moreover, they showed that emotional motivation is a mediator between physical concern and compulsive buying. Finally, their findings indicate that by increasing the awareness of compulsive buying in young people during their education, critical stance toward materialistic values in educational institutions, and psychological counseling can prevent and lower the number of compulsive buyers in the future (Chang, Lu, Lin, & Chang, 2011).



Trotzke, Starcke, Müller, & Brand, (2015) tried to determine whether online compulsive buying behavior is special shape of Internet addiction They use SEM modeling to test their hypotheses. Their model was tested on a sample of 240 participants with a cue-reactivity paradigm. More specifically, the researchers conducted an experimental study in which they showed online shopping pictures to the participants in order to gather the data about the excitability from shopping. They measured participants' craving (before and after the cue-reactivity paradigm) and online shopping expectancies. Their experiment showed that the variable Internet use expectancies for online shopping is a mediator between individual's excitability from shopping and online pathological buying tendency. In addition, the study demonstrated that shopping craving and online pathological buying are in moderate positive correlation, while cue presentation increased cravings only in compulsive buyers. Hence, the authors concluded that online compulsive buying can be considered as a special form of internet addiction. In addition, the presence of cravings in compulsive buyers that was triggered by visual cues indicates that this behavior is a non-substance/behavioral addiction (Trotzke, Starcke, Müller, & Brand, 2015).

Rose and Dhandayudham (2014) researched correlates of online shopping addiction and found seven significant predictors of online compulsive buying. These predictors are: 1) low self-esteem; 2) low self-regulation; 3) negative emotional state; 4) enjoyment; 5) female gender; 6) social anonymity; 7) cognitive overload. As we can see from the presented results, with the exception of social anonymity, all other predictors of online compulsive buying are also the predictors of off-line compulsive buying.

In conclusion, we can see that empirical studies show that off-line and online compulsive buying are not completely the same conditions. Hence, the literature suggests and encourages that these two phenomena should be measured and treated as separate modalities of CBD.

#### **4.5 Measuring Online Compulsive Buying Behavior**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior (OCBB) will be measured with Online Compulsive Buying Scale (OCBS; Lee, & Park, 2008). The scale consists of seven Likert-type items. Every item represents a five-point scale with one representing “never” and five representing “very often”. The scale is very reliable and its Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is .85. The scale is one-dimensional and the total score is calculated by simple summation of the item scores. The higher score on the scale indicates higher compulsiveness in buying. All items on the scale are positively correlated to total score, which means that there are no reversely coded items. The score on the scale can range from 5 to 35 (Lee, & Park, 2008).

## **CHAPTER 5**

# **A COMPARATIVE STUDY AMONG TURKISH AND AMERICAN CONSUMERS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL DIMENSION AND TWO IMPORTANT OUTCOMES OF CONSUMER SOCIETY: CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION AND ONLINE COMPULSIVE BUYING BEHAVIOR**

### **5.1 Purpose and Importance of the Study**

Culture is considered to be one of the core mechanism that drives people's behavioral patterns and the need for understanding consumer's cultural orientations and their effects on consumer behavior has become even more crucial every day. Previous researchers have focused only on one cultural dimension (individualism/collectivism) and lack the theoretical model that describes the relationship between each cultural dimension at the individual level and consumer's consciousness and compulsiveness. Moreover, compulsive buying behavior as a whole has been paid attention in psychological investigations and lacks the attention in consumer behavior literature.

The main objective of this study is to understand the impact of cultural dimensions on two important outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior.

Secondly, this study also aims to fill the gap in compulsive buying behavior literature by showing that conspicuous consumption orientation is in relation with online compulsive buying behavior.

Furthermore, the third purpose is to discover and compare the number of compulsive buyer among consumers in Istanbul and Washington DC.

Lastly, the study examines whether cultural dimensions at the individual level, conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior varies across Turkish and American consumers and demonstrates if demographics such as gender, age, income and education have significance in consumer's conspicuousness and compulsiveness.

This study attempts to provide valuable information for the academia and marketing professionals by filling the gap in the literature of cultural dimensions and its' relation with conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. The study will also act as the first cross-cultural comparison between two nations that encompasses culture, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior.

## **5.2 Research Questions and the Scope**

The main scope of the study is to show the relationship between cultural dimensions (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity) at the individual level and two outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior.

Research questions are identified as follows;

- How do cultural dimensions at the individual level influence consumers' conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior?

- Does relationship between conspicuous consumption (consumer's desire to reflect social status, power and prestige, showcase their wealth, impress others or to convey their uniqueness and improve social visibility) and online compulsive buying behavior exist?
- Do conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior vary across Turkish and American consumers?
- Is demographics such as gender, age, income and education play a role in conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior?

### 5.3 Research Model and Hypotheses Development

Research Model that describes the relationships between variables are shown in Figure 1 below.

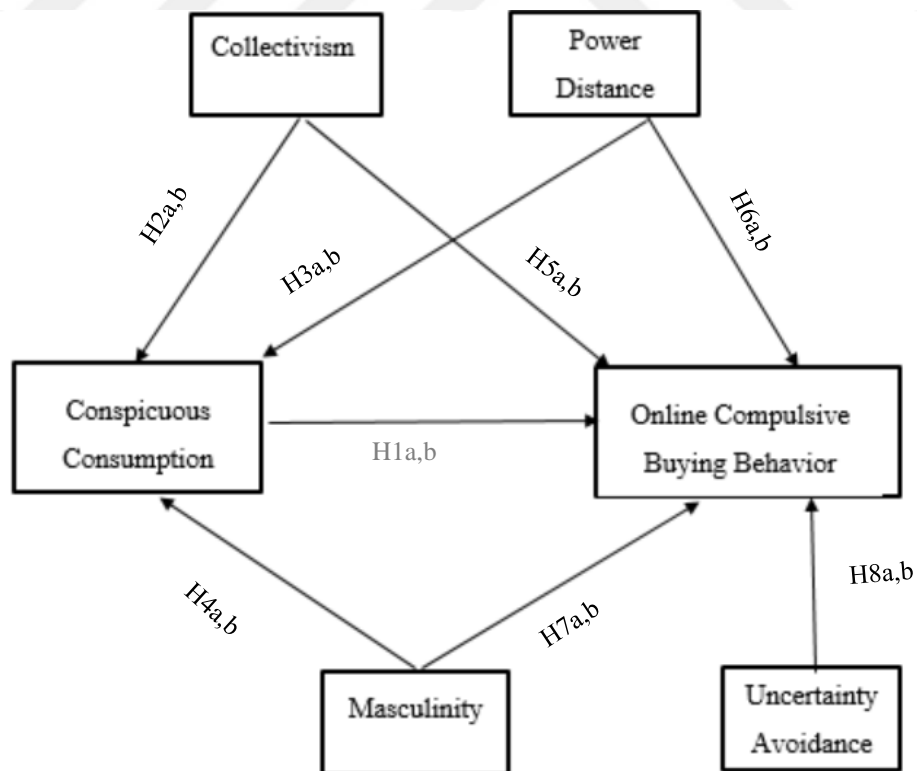


Figure 1 – Research Model

### ***Relationship between CCO and OCBB:***

According to, Chacko and Ramanathan, (2015), a majority of conspicuous buyers tend to have the following dispositions: 1) materialistic set of values that dominate the way they seek social approval; 2) high possessiveness; 3) selfishness; and 4) envy. Also, the need for highly precisely defined position in social hierarchy is positively correlated to materialistic set of values, while these values are correlated to conspicuous consumption (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994). Hence, people who have materialistic worldview are more inclined to purchase products and services that advance and sign social status which in turn make them more likely to engage themselves in conspicuous consumption (Richins 1994). This hypothesis was confirmed once more by Wand and Wallendorf (2006).

Based on the previous findings, it is logical to reason that materialism, as the system of values that is typical for conspicuous buyers is significantly correlated to compulsive buying. Precisely, materialism is a worldview that puts material success and possessions at the top of the hierarchy of important life achievements. Interestingly, some findings show that materialism is in significant positive correlation to compulsive buying because compulsive buyers presume that having more is better than having less (Rindfleisch, Burroughs, & Denton 1997). Moreover, those researchers demonstrated that compulsive buying is even more frequent if people had models inside their families who practiced and positively evaluated this type of behavior. These findings are supported by the results of Richins and Dawson (1992), which showed CBB has significant correlation with materialism and low self-esteem.

Moreover, Elliot (1994) showed that buyers who scored high on compulsive buying had self-esteem that is significantly below the average. Furthermore, that research discovered compulsive buyers are significantly more inclined towards purchasing products that will make them more socially visible. Likewise, Roberts (1998) showed a correlation between perceived social status of buying and CBB, while compulsive buyers are more interested in the status that is promoted by the shops where they buy and the products that they buy. In

the same manner, Robert and Manolis (2000) implied and found evidence that status consumption can become compulsive if people lose control over their purchasing habits.

In concordance with that position are Chaudhuri and Majumdar (2006), who advocated that the primary fuel for conspicuous consumption is vanity and pretentiousness, while its goals are display of social power, status, and uniqueness inside the referenced social group. Finally, Memushi (2013) also found that social status and other social motives are in the core of conspicuous consumption; hence, although status consumption and conspicuous consumption are two distinct variables, the correlation between the two cannot be negated.

In conclusion, with the firm support from the literature on materialism, self-esteem, status consumption, and their relation with CBB, it can be hypothesized that there should be a direct connection between conspicuous consumption and OCBB in both U.S and Turkey consumers.

H1a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.

H1b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between COLL and CCO:***

Cultural values shape the views on conspicuous consumption. There are several theoretical explanations of these variations across cultures. Materialism is dominant set of values in individualistic societies. Confirming this view, Belk (1988) and Browne and Kaldenberg (1997) specified that conspicuous consumption is positively correlated to materialism and self-enhancement in dominantly individualistic countries. In contrast, in collectivistic cultures, materialism is in negative correlation to cultural values (Burroughs and

Rindfleisch 2002). A cross-cultural study that encompassed samples from Mexico, China, and the USA showed that materialism is in positive correlation with consumption of brands that reflect social status (Eastman et. al., 1997). However, Souiden et al (2011) found that conspicuous consumption is higher in an individualistic culture (Canada) than in a collectivist one (Tunis), which they attributed to different levels of materialism in the two cultures.

Studies showed that individualistic cultures value materialism more so than collectivist cultures. Also, materialism and conspicuousness are in interrelationship, thus it would be reasonable to assume that individualistic cultures would be more inclined to conspicuous behavior than collectivist cultures.

Another significant variable that explains conspicuous consumption is desire for uniqueness. People who have more prominent desire for uniqueness tend to buy products that are rare and exclusive more often (Verhallen, 1982). Furthermore, achieving uniqueness is even more facilitated if the wanted brand is perceived as an expensive one (Verhallen & Robben, 1994). In addition, the desire for uniqueness is facilitated or prominent if it has real life or practical value (Snyder & Fromkin, 1977). What is more important is that the magnitude of desire for uniqueness significantly varies in relation to individualism-collectivism cultural dimension. More precisely, Teimourpour and Hanzae (2011) found that collectivism and desire for uniqueness are negatively correlated; hence, the opposite could also be correct that people who have individualistic tendencies would be more likely to purchase products or services that showcase their uniqueness.

Interestingly, some studies have shown that luxury goods that can be consumed in social situations are more likely to become an object of conspicuous purchases than the luxury products that can only be consumed in private setting (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Bezzaouia ,& Joanta, 2016), while others showed that collectivistic cultures are more prone to positive evaluations of publicly displayable goods when compared to consumers who are from individualist cultures (Wong & Ahuvia, 1998).



In conclusion, because there is no consensus among scientists regarding the role that cultural dimension individualism-collectivism has in determination of conspicuous consumption, one of the hypotheses that will be tested in this study states that conspicuous consumption is moderated by individualistic-collectivistic cultural dimension, and in that direction that it will make conspicuous consumption more frequent and more prominent in individualistic people.

H2a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption in American consumers.

H2b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between PD and CCO:***

Societies with a large power distance are more rigid and have lower flexibility in terms of social mobility. (Hofstede 2010; Usunier, Lee, & Lee 2005). The large PD in these societies may facilitate the role of self-importance in people's self-concept (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson 2003). This can be especially prominent in third world countries where people gravitate towards publicly showing their possessions in order to present themselves as more successful than others (Chaudhuri & Majumdar 2006).

More specifically, the middle class in these countries is the most inclined towards this behavior. It is highly probable that conspicuous consumption is a socially desirable way to converse affluence and social position in societies with a large PD (Piron, 2000). In the same manner, Moon and Chan (2005) demonstrated positive correlation between conspicuous consumption of branded items and PD. Hence, in those cultures, conspicuous consumption is a method of demonstration of one's class in society (Varman & Vikas 2005). Kim and Zhang (2014) noted that buyers who show high power-distance are more inclined to choose goods that showcase status when compared to people with

low level of power-distance belief. Hence, based on the presented findings the next hypotheses are developed.

H3a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption in American consumers.

H3b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between MASC and CCO:***

In cultures that have high masculinity, the most prized things are success, money, and material possessions, and that is because the main focus in masculine societies is on performance and achievement (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). Because of its main focus, in masculine societies, expensive, unique, and luxury goods are important means that one uses to show one's success (Bezzaouia ,& Joanta, 2016). Hofstede, (2001) argued that in high-masculinity cultures, money and material possessions are of top importance.

Thus, these cultures tend to be significantly more dominated by materialistic values than countries that score low on this dimension; hence, high masculinity creates more conspicuous consumption (Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015). Thus, this study will test the hypothesis below.

H4a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption in American consumers.

H4b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between COLL and OCBB:***

Caldwell-Harris and Aycicegi (2006) demonstrated that individualism is correlated to more personality pathology including obsessive-compulsive

disorders when compared to collectivism. Moreover, gambling is found to be more prevalent in individualistic cultures.

Furthermore, Ciarrocchi, Kirschner, & Fallik, 1991 noted that individualistic societies positively evaluate active risk taking, and are less retraining towards gambling, which has been identified as highly addictive and a form of compulsive behavior. Hence, based on these results, below hypotheses were developed.

H5a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.

H5b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between PD and OCBB:***

Power Distance is a cultural dimension which measures how much lives of people on lower positions in the social hierarchy are influenced and dependable on the people from the higher positions (Hofstede 2010). Looking at the relation between OCBB and PD, there is a lack in literature that showcased and explained the essence of this relationship on cultural level; however, there are findings that show a relationship between PD and impulse buying tendency (Ali and Sudan, 2018). Moreover, it has been found that consumer impulsiveness is in moderate correlation with compulsiveness (Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015). Hence, because previous studies indicate a sign of positive relationship between OCBB and PD, below hypothesis will be tested.

H6a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.

H6b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between MASC and OCBB:***

In nations with high masculinity, consumers more frequently display materialistic values than in low-masculinity nations (Hofstede 2010). Additionally, Mowen and Spears (1999) showed a positive correlation between materialism and compulsiveness.

Li, et al., 2009 suggested that males may be more inclined to engage in consumption of expensive, luxury goods which could trigger more compulsive buying. Hence, built upon that information, the following hypotheses were formed.

H7a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers

H7b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.

***Relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and OCBB:***

Hofstede (2010) defined this dimension as the way people handle unpredictability of everyday life. In addition, he argued that this dimension reflects dominant emotions that people experience in uncertain or unknown situations. Moreover, he postulated that high uncertainty avoidance requires a society with strict and highly formalized rules.

On individual level, men and women with high uncertainty avoidance levels, seem to feel anxious and stressed in unknown and unstructured situations (Ayoun & Moreo, 2008). Hence, in this case, it is reasonable to assume that buyers that has high UA would also lean towards avoiding risks (Hwa-Froelich & Vigil, 2004; Yildirim & Barutçu, 2016).

In addition, Park and Burns (2005) showed that pathological gambling, which is a compulsive behavior, is in negative correlation to uncertainty avoidance. In addition, previous studies showed that compulsive consumption is positively

correlated to risk-taking (Campbell 1976; Wallach & Kogan 1961). Supporting that view, Ozorio, Lam and Fong (2010) found that people who have low uncertainty avoidance are more risk-tolerant. Likewise, Demaree, DeDonno, Burns, Feldman & Everhart (2009) stated uncertainty avoidance lowers the negative effects of compulsive gambling-related risk taking.

On the other hand, people with high mark on uncertainty avoidance, are more inclined to have external locus of control; hence they would wait that someone or something else makes decisions for them and consequently they tend to be less impulsive (De Mooij, 2010). Also, Shoham et al, 2015 showed that trait of consumer impulsiveness has a positive relationship with consumers' compulsiveness. Hence, based on the presented findings it is expected that cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance and OCBB will be correlated negatively.

H8a: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.

H8b: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.

Research hypotheses that are developed based on the above research model are summarized in table 1 below.

**Table 1- Summary of Research Hypotheses**

<b>Conspicuous Consumption Orientation &amp; OCBB</b>
H1a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption Orientation and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.

H1b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption Orientation and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.
<b>Cultural Dimensions &amp; CCO</b>
H2a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.
H2b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.
H3a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.
H3b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.
H4a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.
H4b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.
<b>Cultural Dimensions &amp; OCBB</b>
H5a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.
H5b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.
H6a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.
H6b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.
H7a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers
H7b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.
H8a: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers

H8b: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers
<b>Demographics &amp; CCO</b>
H9a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers
H9b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on gender in Turkish consumers
H10a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers
H10b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers
H11a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers
H11b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers
H12a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers
H12b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers
<b>Demographics and OCBB</b>
H13a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers
H13b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on gender in Turkish consumers
H14a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers
H14b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers
H15a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers

H15b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers
H16a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers
H16b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers

#### 5.4 Survey Design and Measurement of Variables

Survey was designed based on the extensive literature review conducted on each variable. Each item in each scale has been translated to Turkish by sworn translator and later, back translated from Turkish to English using a second translator. The translations were examined and cleared from problems in meaning that could have possibly caused issues in later stages. Because of the time and budget limitations of the research, convenience sampling method was employed in this study.

Both surveys had 6 sections and 51 questions each where first section containing the consent form, second section containing qualification questions like citizenship, city and age. Third section had 11 questions measuring Conspicuous Consumption Orientation. Fourth section had 7 questions that measures Online Compulsive Buying Behavior and fifth section had 20 questions to measure cultural dimension at the individual level. Lastly, sixth section was containing demographics questions such as gender, marital status, income, education. Both surveys can be found in Appendix A.

Table 2 contains the measurement scales used for COLL, PD, MASC, UA, CCO and OCBB.

**Table 2 – Variables and Measurement Scales**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior	Lee and Park (2008) – Derived from Compulsive Buying Scale originally developed by Faber and O’Guinn (1992)
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Four Cultural Dimensions	Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz (2011)
Conspicuous Consumption Orientation	Chaudhuri et al. (2011)

### 5.5 Sampling

The three most important attributes of a sample in social sciences are its representativity, sampling technique, and size. Representativity of a sample is its ability to accurately reflect the population from which it is derived in all relevant aspects. The size is important because it directly influences representativity of the sample, statistical power of the future statistical analyses that will be done on the data collected in that sample, and because some parametric statistical techniques require specific ratio between the number of the participants in the sample and the number of measured variables (subject-item ratio). Sampling technique can also affect the representativity of a sample. The samples that are bigger in size represent the population better than the smaller ones. More specifically, when other relevant aspects of the sample are controlled, bigger samples will more probably “catch” the typical variance of the population, and thus become an accurate smaller version of the population (Goodhue, Lewis, & Thompson, 2006). On the other hand, sample size influences statistical power. Statistical power of a test is its ability to detect a significant difference between two or more groups when that difference really exists. The statistical analyses done on smaller samples have lower statistical power and have higher probability not to detect a real difference which can lead to faulty conclusions in scientific work (Goodhue, et al., 2006).

Another important subject to consider carefully is the subject-item ratio. This is especially important in cross-cultural studies because data will be collected from two different populations and factor analyses and reliability analyses will be employed for the questionnaires.

In order to do a reliable factor analysis, at least 5 participants per item is required (Gorsuch, 1983). There is a widely-cited rule of thumb from that the subject to item ratio for exploratory factor analysis should be at least 10:1 (Nunnally,

1978). However, it would be ideal if the subject-item ratio would be 20:1 (Costello and Osborne, 2005). The questionnaires that will be used in this research- CVSCALE (20 items), CCO (11 items), and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior questionnaire (7 items), have altogether 38 items. This means that each of our two samples (American and Turkish) need to have at least 190 subjects but following Nunnally(1978), each sample should have at least 380 (total of 760) subjects in this research.

To understand the relation between cultural dimensions at the individual level and two outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior in both Turkey and U.S, samples from Istanbul, Turkey and Washington D.C, United States were chosen.

Compulsive buyers have a continues and high desire of purchasing products and D'Astous, Maltais and Roberge (1990) suggested that it is worthy to study not only the extreme ends of compulsive buying but also regular buyers that have tendencies towards compulsiveness. Therefore, the study suggests that the phenomena be examined within the general public who engages in online consumption.

According to many market analysis in Turkey and in the United States, unsurprisingly more than 95% of the online shoppers are under age 80 and in some studies even under 75 (BKM data, 2015 and Vertico analytics – <https://www.vertoanalytics.com/chart-week-e-commerce-demographics-shops-online/>) For that reason, people who rarely shop online and cannot shop online by themselves (0-14 and 80+) were taken out from both populations.

According to (<http://rapor.tuik.gov.tr/reports>), population of Istanbul is 15.067.724 and approximately 30% of the population falls under the age 15 and over 80. Thus, this brings down our population to 10.543.406.

According to (<https://www.census.gov/data.html>), population of Washington D.C metropolitan area is 6.133.552 and approximately 26% of the population

falls under the age 15 and over 80. Thus, this brings down our population to 4.538.828.

According to the commonly used formula, to be able to provide 0.05 confidence level and 5 % margin of error, the study requires at least 385 samples from each country (Sekaran, 1992).

For this study, more than 900 data were gathered for each country and after subtracting the people who answered 'No' to disqualification questions, 663 participants from Istanbul and 597 participants from Washington D.C, United States were used in analysis.

## **5.6 Data Gathering**

Data were gathered through online surveys and because of the budget and time constraints, snowball convenience sampling method was chosen.

Snowball sampling also referred as chain-referral sampling was employed because the study aims to test the differences between two general populations that use internet for specific purposes. Snowball technique is a sampling method where new subjects are recruited by previous, already recruited subjects. This method is very practical because it can be applied on the internet and social networks and a great amount of data can be collected in very short time. Also, active users of Internet and who have active profiles on social networks very probably engage themselves in online consumption. Hence, a snowball sample will be good to employ in this situation.

In addition, samples collected on Internet, especially social media sites are very diverse with respect to gender, socioeconomic status, geographic region, and age. In addition, they generalize across different questionnaire presentation formats and are not significantly influenced by non-serious or repeat responders. Finally, the findings from the studies that collect their data through different internet platforms are consistent with findings acquired by traditional data-collecting methods (Baltar and Brunet, 2012).

## 5.7 Data Analysis

All data were processed in IBM's statistical software SPSS, version 25. Before the main analysis data screening for univariate and multivariate outliers and data cleaning were conducted. Univariate outliers were detected with inspection of standardized z-scores (values lower and higher than +/- 3.29 were classified as outliers and removed) and multivariate outliers were detected with Mahalanobis's distances (values significant at alpha level .001 were removed).

In American sample, 31 outliers were identified and taken away from additional analyses or 4.9 % of the data. There was 1.2 % of missing data in this matrix. These data were not imputed because they were not missing completely at random  $\chi^2(582) = 804.91, p < .001$ . All total score variables were normally distributed because they had skewness and kurtosis in -/+ 1 range except for online compulsive buying behavior. Because variable online compulsive buying significantly deviated from normal distribution in American sample, Spearman's  $\rho$  correlation was used for testing relationship between this variable and all others.

In Turkish sample, 28 outliers were identified and taken away from additional analyses or 4.17 % of the data. There was 0.2 % of missing data in this matrix. These data were not imputed because they were not missing completely at random  $\chi^2(582) = 804.91, p < .001$ . All total score variables were normally distributed because they had skewness and kurtosis in -/+ 1 range except for online compulsive buying behavior. Because variable online compulsive buying significantly deviated from normal distribution in American sample, Spearman's  $\rho$  correlation was used for testing relationship between this variable and all others.

Correlations between cultural dimensions (COLL, PD, MASC) and CCO were tested with Pearson's correlation test. Correlations between cultural dimensions (COLL, PD, MASC, UA) and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior were tested with Spearman's correlation test.

To be able to understand the predictive capability of each model, linear regression analysis was employed. To be able to analyze if dependent variables statistically significantly differ based on demographics, One-Way ANOVA analysis were employed. Lastly, to compare Turkish and American consumers in terms of all cultural variables, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior, MANOVA analysis were employed.



## CHAPTER 6

### RESULTS OF THE STUDY

#### 6.1 Factor and Reliability Analysis

In order to check construct validity and reliability of the scales exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were applied (Kim & Mueller, 1978; Bolarinwa, 2015).

##### 6.1.1 Factor and Reliability Analysis in Turkish sample

Factor and reliability analysis of each scale for Turkish sample is provided in this section. In order to check construct validity and reliability of the scales exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were applied (Kim & Mueller, 1978; Bolarinwa, 2015).

##### 6.1.1.1 Factor and Reliability Analyses of CCO Scale in Turkish sample

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .91 which is marvelous according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor analysis. Factor analysis of CCO Scale showed that the scale measures one factor with Eigenvalue 5.14 that explains 46.76 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in Table 3 below.

**Table 3 - Factor Analysis Result for CCO Scale in Turkish Sample**

Component	Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Sq. Load		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.143	46.756	46.756	5.143	46.756	46.756
2	.994	9.035	55.791			
3	.936	8.510	64.301			
4	.710	6.455	70.757			

<b>5</b>	.650	5.905	76.662			
<b>6</b>	.600	5.451	82.113			
<b>7</b>	.476	4.323	86.436			
<b>8</b>	.470	4.273	90.709			
<b>9</b>	.375	3.405	94.113			
<b>10</b>	.351	3.188	97.301			
<b>11</b>	.297	2.699	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factor are presented in Figure 2 and in Table 4.

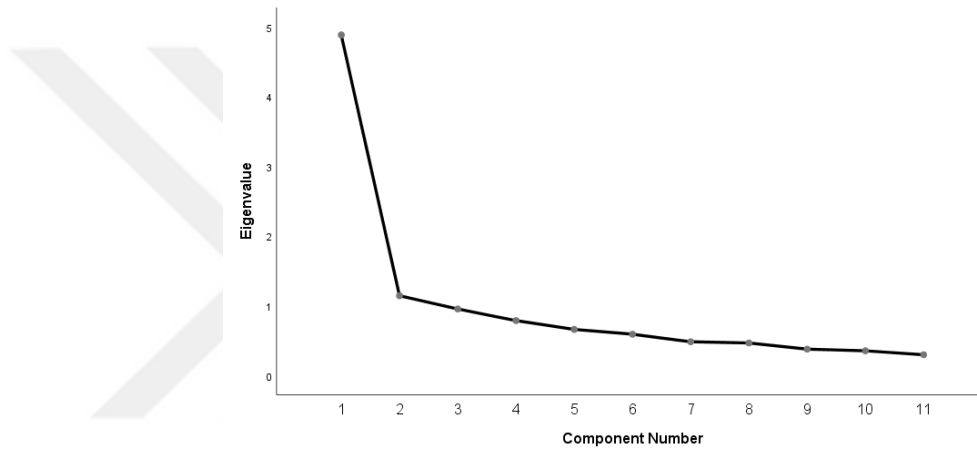


Figure 2 - Scree plot for Conspicuous Consumption Orientation scale in Turkish Sample

**Table 4 - CCO Scale - Correlations of the items with the factor in Turkish Sample**

<b>It says something to people around me when I buy a high priced brand</b>	<b>.57</b>
I buy some products because I want to show others that I am wealthy	.64
<b>I would be a member in a businessmen's posh club</b>	<b>.63</b>
Given a chance, I would hang a famous painter's art piece in my living room	.52
<b>I would buy an interesting and uncommon version of a product otherwise available with a plain design, to show others that I have an original taste</b>	<b>.75</b>
Others wish they could match my eyes for beauty and taste	.67
<b>By choosing a product having an exotic look and design, I show my friends that I am different</b>	<b>.82</b>

I choose products or brands to create my own style that everybody admires	.76
<b>I always buy top-of-the-line products</b>	<b>.52</b>
I often try to find a more interesting version of the run-of-the-mill products, because I want to show others that I enjoy being original	<b>.76</b>
<b>I show to others that I am sophisticated</b>	.79

The data presented in Table 4 shows that all items were significantly correlated to the factor and all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CCO Scale is one-dimensional, homogenous, scale that measures conspicuous consumption and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale has good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .88$

#### 6.1.1.2 Factor and Reliability Analyses of CVSCALE Scale in Turkish

##### Sample

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .85 which is meritorious according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor analysis. Factor analysis of CVScale showed that the scale measures four factors that explain 60 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in table 5 below.

**Table 5 - Factor Analysis Result for CVSCALE in Turkish Sample**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
<b>1</b>	4.626	23.128	23.128	4.626	23.128	23.128
<b>2</b>	3.504	17.520	40.648	3.504	17.520	40.648
<b>3</b>	2.158	10.788	51.436	2.158	10.788	51.436
<b>4</b>	1.755	8.775	60.211	1.755	8.775	60.211
<b>5</b>	.858	4.291	64.502			
<b>6</b>	.727	3.636	68.138			
<b>7</b>	.667	3.336	71.475			
<b>8</b>	.644	3.218	74.693			
<b>9</b>	.596	2.980	77.673			
<b>10</b>	.540	2.700	80.372			
<b>11</b>	.515	2.577	82.949			



<b>12</b>	.491	2.456	85.405			
<b>13</b>	.466	2.328	87.733			
<b>14</b>	.433	2.163	89.896			
<b>15</b>	.399	1.994	91.890			
<b>16</b>	.383	1.916	93.806			
<b>17</b>	.349	1.746	95.553			
<b>18</b>	.340	1.700	97.253			
<b>19</b>	.292	1.461	98.714			
<b>20</b>	.257	1.286	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factors are presented in Figure 3 and in Table 6.

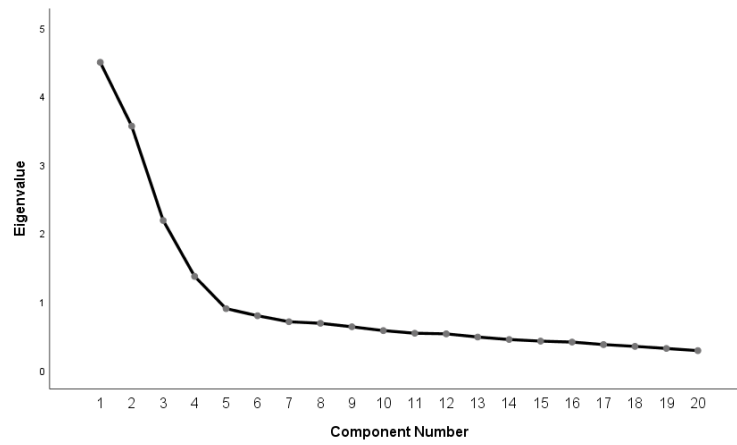


Figure 3 - Scree plot for Cultural Values Scale in Turkish Sample

Table 6- CVSCALE - Correlations of the items with the factor in Turkish sample

	<b>COLL</b>	<b>UA</b>	<b>PD</b>	<b>MASC</b>
<b>It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women</b>				<b>.76</b>
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition				.80

<b>Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men</b>				<b>.81</b>
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman				.76
<b>Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group</b>	<b>.68</b>			
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties	.76			
<b>Group welfare is more important than individual rewards</b>	<b>.84</b>			
Group success is more important than individual success	.84			
<b>Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group</b>	<b>.66</b>			
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer	.70			

<b>It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do</b>		<b>.75</b>		
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures		.77		
<b>Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me</b>		<b>.84</b>		
Standardized work procedures are helpful		.73		
<b>Instructions for operations are important</b>		<b>.80</b>		
People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions			.75	
<b>People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently</b>			<b>.66</b>	
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions			.72	

People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions			.72	
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions			.79	

The data presented in Table 6 shows that all items were significantly correlated to their adequate factors. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures four following dimensions: Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, PD, and Masculinity. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor that they represent. Moreover, there were no significant item cross loadings on multiple factors. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CVSCALE is four-dimensional, it measures cultural dimensions and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scales showed the following Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values: AMSC  $\alpha = .80$ ; COLL  $\alpha = .85$ ; UA,  $\alpha = .85$ ; PD  $\alpha = .80$ ; which indicate that all scales have good internal consistency.

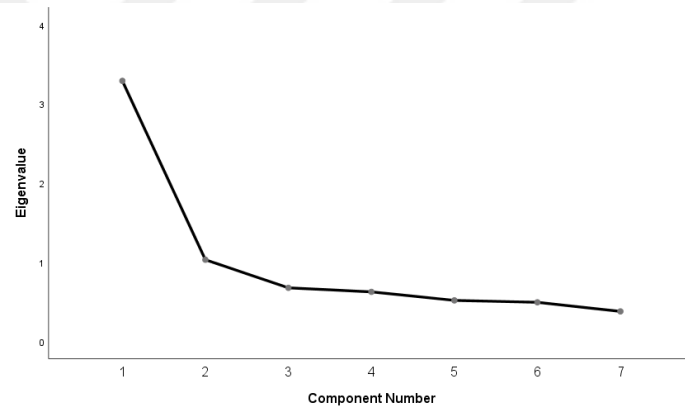
#### **6.1.1.3 Factor and Reliability Analyses of OCBB Scale in Turkish sample**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .84 which is meritorious according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor analysis. Factor analysis of Compulsive Buying Behavior scale showed that the scale measures one factor with Eigenvalue = 3.353 that explains 47.90 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in table 7 below.

**Table 7 - Factor Analysis Result for OCBB Scale in Turkish Sample**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
<b>1</b>	3.353	47.905	47.905	3.353	47.905	47.905
<b>2</b>	.985	14.070	61.974			
<b>3</b>	.663	9.478	71.452			
<b>4</b>	.617	8.813	80.266			
<b>5</b>	.517	7.383	87.648			
<b>6</b>	.489	6.979	94.627			
<b>7</b>	.376	5.373	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factor are presented in Figure 4 and in Table 8.



*Figure 4 - Scree plot for Online Compulsive Buying Behavior Scale in Turkish Sample*

**Table 8- OCBB Scale - Correlations of the items with the factor in Turkish sample**

	Online Compulsive Buying Behavior
<b>If I have any money left at the end of the pay period I just have to spend it online</b>	<b>.74</b>
Bought things online even though I couldn't afford them	.75
<b>Felt anxious or nervous on days I didn't shop online</b>	<b>.75</b>

Wrote a check when I knew I didn't have enough money in the bank to cover it	.73
<b>Bought myself something online in order to make myself feel better</b>	<b>.68</b>
Felt others would be horrified if they knew of my online spendings	.64
<b>Made only minimum payments on my credit card</b>	<b>.51</b>

The data presented in Table 8 shows that all items were significantly correlated to the factor. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures one factor. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that OCBB Scale is one-dimensional, it measures compulsive buying behavior, and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale has good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .80$ , which means that it has good reliability.

### **6.1.2 Factor and Reliability Analysis in American Sample**

Factor and reliability analysis of each scale for American sample is provided in this section. In order to check construct validity and reliability of the scales exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were applied (Kim & Mueller, 1978; Bolarinwa, 2015).

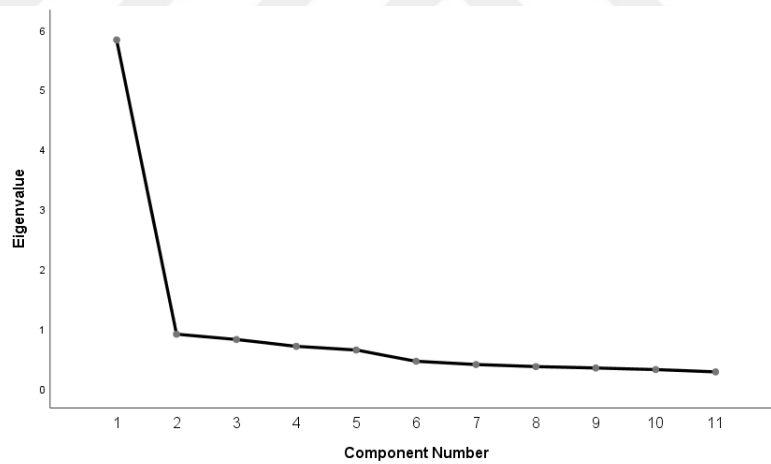
#### **6.1.2.1 Factor and Reliability Analysis of CCO Scale in American Sample**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .93 which is marvelous according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor analysis. Factor analysis of CCO Scale showed that the scale measures one factor with Eigenvalue 5.83 that explains 52.97 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in table 9 below

**Table 9 - Factor Analysis Result for CCO Scale in American Sample**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
<b>1</b>	5.827	52.974	52.974	5.827	52.974	52.974
<b>2</b>	.903	8.206	61.181			
<b>3</b>	.814	7.397	68.577			
<b>4</b>	.699	6.350	74.927			
<b>5</b>	.638	5.796	80.723			
<b>6</b>	.449	4.085	84.808			
<b>7</b>	.395	3.588	88.396			
<b>8</b>	.359	3.266	91.662			
<b>9</b>	.336	3.059	94.721			
<b>10</b>	.310	2.817	97.537			
<b>11</b>	.271	2.463	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factor are presented in Figure 5 and in Table 10.



*Figure 5 - Scree plot for Conspicuous Consumption Orientation scale in American Sample*

**Table 10 - CCO Scale - Correlations of the items with the factor in  
American Sample**

<b>It says something to people around me when I buy a high priced brand</b>	<b>.59</b>
I buy some products because I want to show others that I am wealthy	.76
<b>I would be a member in a businessmen's posh club</b>	<b>.74</b>
Given a chance, I would hang a famous painter's art piece in my living room	.52
<b>I would buy an interesting and uncommon version of a product otherwise available with a plain design, to show others that I have an original taste</b>	<b>.81</b>
Others wish they could match my eyes for beauty and taste	.75
<b>By choosing a product having an exotic look and design, I show my friends that I am different</b>	<b>.79</b>
I choose products or brands to create my own style that everybody admires	.79
<b>I always buy top-of-the-line products</b>	<b>.65</b>
I often try to find a more interesting version of the run-of-the-mill products, because I want to show others that I enjoy being original	.76
<b>I show to others that I am sophisticated</b>	<b>.79</b>

The data presented in Table 10 shows that all items were significantly correlated to the factor and all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CCO Scale is one-dimensional, homogenous, scale that measures conspicuous consumption and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale has excellent internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .91$ .

#### **6.1.2.2 Factor and Reliability Analysis of CVSCALE Scale in American Sample**

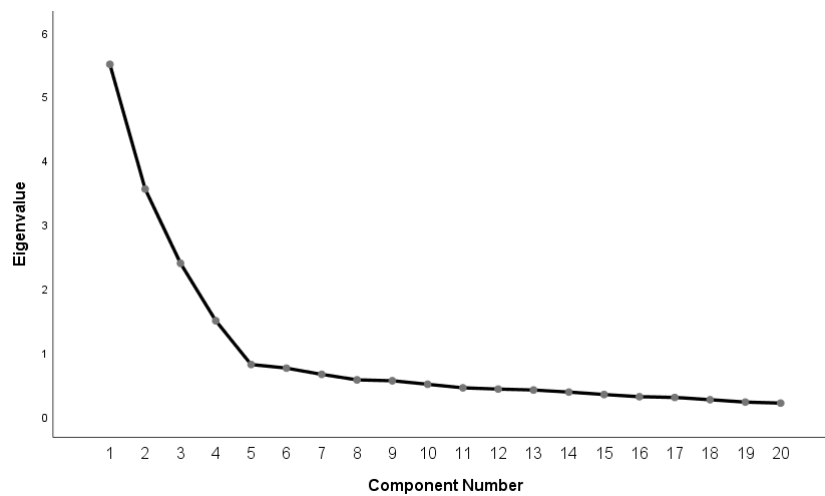
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .85 which is meritorious according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor analysis. Factor analysis of Hofstede's scale showed that the scale measures four factors that explain 65 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in Table 11 below.



**Table 11 - Factor Analysis Result for CVSCALE in American Sample**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.131	25.653	25.653	5.131	25.653	25.653
2	3.618	18.092	43.746	3.618	18.092	43.746
3	2.471	12.357	56.103	2.471	12.357	56.103
4	1.804	9.022	65.125	1.804	9.022	65.125
5	.789	3.944	69.069			
6	.748	3.741	72.810			
7	.646	3.230	76.040			
8	.565	2.826	78.865			
9	.545	2.727	81.593			
10	.496	2.479	84.071			
11	.428	2.140	86.211			
12	.413	2.067	88.278			
13	.401	2.005	90.283			
14	.368	1.841	92.125			
15	.337	1.686	93.810			
16	.302	1.508	95.318			
17	.279	1.395	96.713			
18	.248	1.240	97.953			
19	.210	1.048	99.001			
20	.200	.999	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factors are presented in Figure 6 and in Table 12.



*Figure 6 - Scree plot for Cultural Values Scale in American Sample*

**Table 12 - CVSCALE - Correlations of the items with the factor in American sample**

	COLL	UA	PD	MASC
<b>It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women</b>				<b>.81</b>
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition				.87
<b>Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men</b>				<b>.86</b>
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman				.76
<b>Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group</b>	<b>.75</b>			
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties	.73			
<b>Group welfare is more important than individual rewards</b>	<b>.81</b>			
Group success is more important than individual success	.83			
<b>Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group</b>	<b>.82</b>			

Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer	.72			
<b>It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do</b>		.64		
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures		.85		
<b>Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me</b>		.83		
Standardized work procedures are helpful		.82		
<b>Instructions for operations are important</b>		.80		
People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions			.79	
<b>People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently</b>			.81	

People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions			.78	
<b>People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions</b>			<b>.75</b>	
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions			.61	

The data presented in Table 12 shows that all items were significantly correlated to their adequate factors. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures four following dimensions: COLL, UA, PPD, and MASC. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor that they represent. Moreover, there were no significant item cross loadings on multiple factors. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CVSCALE is four-dimensional, it measures cultural dimensions and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scales showed the following Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values: Masculinity  $\alpha = .86$ ; Collectivism  $\alpha = .88$ ; Uncertainty Avoidance,  $\alpha = .85$ ; Power Distance  $\alpha = .84$ ; which indicate that all scales have good internal consistency.

### **6.1.2.3 Factor and Reliability Analysis of OCBB Scale in American**

#### **Sample**

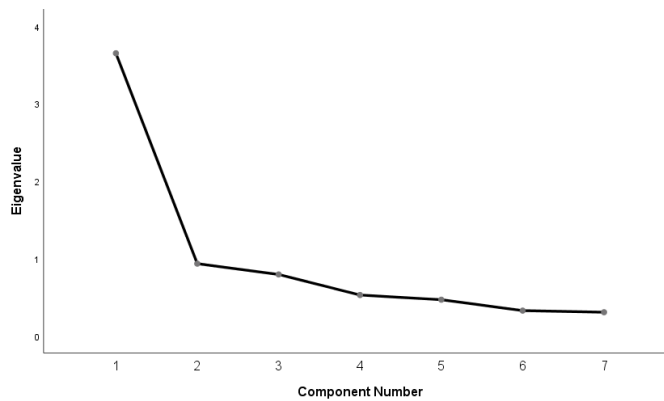
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .83 which is meritorious according to Keiser's interpretation. The results indicate that data fit factor

analysis. Factor analysis factor with eigenvalue 3.65 that explains 52.15 % of the data variability. Total Variance explained is presented in table 13 below.

**Table 13 - Factor Analysis Result for OCBB Scale in American Sample**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
<b>1</b>	3.651	52.151	52.151	3.651	52.151	52.151
<b>2</b>	.933	13.322	65.474			
<b>3</b>	.793	11.326	76.800			
<b>4</b>	.527	7.530	84.330			
<b>5</b>	.466	6.662	90.992			
<b>6</b>	.326	4.654	95.646			
<b>7</b>	.305	4.354	100.000			

The scree plot and correlations of the items with the factor are presented in Figure 7 and in Table 14.



*Figure 7 - Scree plot for Online Compulsive Buying Behavior Scale in American Sample*

**Table 14 - OCBB Scale - Correlations of the items with the factor in  
American sample**

	Online Compulsive Buying Behavior
<b>If I have any money left at the end of the pay period I just have to spend it online</b>	<b>.58</b>
Bought things online even though I couldn't afford them	.81
<b>Felt anxious or nervous on days I didn't shop online</b>	<b>.71</b>
Wrote a check when I knew I didn't have enough money in the bank to cover it	.79
<b>Bought myself something online in order to make myself feel better</b>	<b>.74</b>
Felt others would be horrified if they knew of my online spendings	.61
<b>Made only minimum payments on my credit card</b>	<b>.79</b>

The data presented in Table 14 shows that all items were significantly correlated to the factor. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures one factor. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that OCBB Scale is one-dimensional, it measures compulsive buying behavior, and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that alpha was  $\alpha = .83$ , which means that the scale has good reliability.

## 6.2 Demographic Findings

This section will examine the demographic differences in two samples.

**Table 15 – Demographics Comparison of American and Turkish Samples**

		Turkey		<u>U.S.A</u>	
	Groups	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	<b>Male</b>	<b>323</b>	<b>50.2</b>	294	49.2

Gender	<u>Female</u>	320	49.8	<u>303</u>	<u>50.8</u>
	Total	643	100.0	597	100.0
Marital Status	<u>Single</u>	261	40.7	<u>301</u>	<u>50.4</u>
	<b>Married</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>59.3</b>	296	49.6
	Total	642	100.0	597	100.0
Age	15-22	42	6.5	40	6.7
	23-30	140	21.8	122	20.4
	<b>31-38</b>	<b>168</b>	<b>26.1</b>	<u>132</u>	<u>22.1</u>
	39-46	92	14.3	108	18.1
	47-54	94	14.6	76	12.7
	55+	107	16.6	119	19.9
	Total	643	100.0	597	100.0
Income	Lowest Fifth	85	13.5	124	20.8
	2nd Fifth	63	10.0	78	13.1
	<u>3rd Fifth</u>	88	14.0	<u>171</u>	<u>28.6</u>
	4th Fifth	135	21.4	145	24.3
	<b>Highest Fifth</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>41.1</b>	79	13.2
	Total	630	100.0	597	100.0

**Table 16 - Education Groups in Turkish Sample**

	Groups	Frequency	Percentage
Education - Turkey	1-5 years	12	1.9
	5-8 years	26	4.0
	High school	90	14.0
	Diploma, some college, 2 years	47	7.3
	<b>Bachelor, college</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>54.3</b>
	Master's degree	110	17.1
	Ph.D.	9	1.4
	Total	643	100.0

**Table 17 - Education Groups in American Sample**

	Groups	Frequency	Percentage
Education – U.S	Less than high school degree	21	3.5
	High school degree or equivalent (e.g. GED)	60	10.1
	Some college but no degree	103	17.3
	Associate degree	53	8.9
	<b>Bachelor / College degree</b>	<b>244</b>	<b>40.9</b>



	Graduate degree	98	16.4
	Doctoral degree	18	3.0
	Total	597	100.0

In Turkish sample, 50.2% of respondents were male and 49.8% of respondents were female whereas in U.S.A sample, 49.2% was male and 50.8% was female. In Turkish sample, 40.7% was single and 59.3% was married whereas in U.S.A, 50.4% of respondents were single and 49.6% married.

In Turkish sample, 26.1% of respondents are in 31-38 age group, 21.8% are 23-30, 16.6% are 55+, 14.6% are 47-54, 14.3% are 39-46, and 6.5% are 15-22. In U.S.A sample, 25.3% of respondents are 55+, 20.4% are 23-30, 18.3% are 31-38, 18.1% are 39-46, 11.2% are 47-54 and 6.7% are 15-22.

In Turkish sample, 41.1% of respondent are in the Highest Fifth(5001 TL+) income group, 21.4% are in the 4th Fifth(3501 TL – 5000 tl), 14.0% are in 3rd Fifth(2,501 TL -3,500TL ), 13.5 in Lowest Fifth (0 TL-1500 TL) and 10.0% is in the 2nd Fifth(1,501 TL – 2,500 TL)income group. In U.S.A, 28.6% of respondents are in the 3rd Fifth (\$40,001-\$70,000) income group, 24.3% are 4th Fifth(\$70,000-\$100,000), 20.8% are Lowest Fifth(\$0-\$20,000), 13.2% in Highest Fifth(\$100.001+) and 13.1% are in 2nd Fifth(\$20,001-\$40,000) income group.

Table 16 shows that in Turkish sample, 54.3% of respondents are Bachelor's degree holders, 17.1% has Master's degree, 14.0% are high school graduates, 7.3% has 2 year university degree, 4.0 % has 5-8 years education, 1.9 has 1-5 years education and 1.4% has Ph.D. degree. Table 17 shows in American sample, 40.9 % of respondents has Bachelor's degree, 17.3% attended college with no degree, 16.4% has Graduate Degree, 10.1% has High school degree, 8.9% Associate Degree, 3% Doctoral degree and 2.5% has less than high school education.

Lastly, MANOVA analysis showed that there are no significant differences in gender and age groups within Turkish and American samples which indicates that samples are good fit for cross-comparison.

### 6.3 Hypothesis Testing

Because variable OCBB significantly deviated from normal distribution in American sample, Spearman's  $\rho$  correlation was used for testing relationship between this variable and all others. The results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to conspicuous consumption in American consumers  $r(597) = .463$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 18), and correlation is moderate and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .21, which means that conspicuous consumption explains 21 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 18 - Correlation Analysis between CCO and OCBB in American Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	CCO
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.463**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.	.000
		N	597	597
	CCO	Corr. Coeff.	.463**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	.
		N	597	597

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since  $p$  is lower than .05 and  $R$  is .463,  $H_1$  hypothesis is accepted.

Because variable OCBB significantly deviated from normal distribution in Turkish sample, Spearman's  $\rho$  correlation was used for testing relationship between this variable and all others. The results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to conspicuous consumption orientation in Turkish consumers  $r(641) = .475$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 19), and correlation is moderate and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .22, which means that conspicuous consumption explains 22 % of variability in compulsive buying.

**Table 19 - Correlation Analysis between CCO and OCBB in Turkish Sample**

Spearman's rho			Online Compulsive Buying	Conspicuous Consumption
	Online Compulsive Buying	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.475**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.	.000
		N	643	643
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	.475**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	.
		N	643	643

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .475, H1b hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to collectivism in American consumers  $r(597) = -.300$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 20), and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .09, which means that collectivism explains 9 % of variability in conspicuous consumption.

**Table 20 - Correlation Analysis between Conspicuous Consumption and Collectivism in American Sample**

Pearson Correlation			Conspicuous Consumption	Collectivism
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	-.300**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	597	597
	Collectivism	Corr. Coeff.	-.300**	1
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	597	597

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .300, H2a hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to collectivism in Turkish consumers  $r(643) = -.225$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 21), and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .05, which means that collectivism explains 5 % of variability in conspicuous consumption.

**Table 21 - Correlation Analysis between Collectivism and CCO in Turkish Sample**

Pearson Corr.			Conspicuous Consumption	Collectivism
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	-.225**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	643	643
	Collectivism	Corr. Coeff.	-.225**	1
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	643	643

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is -.225, H2b hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to power distance in American consumers  $r(597) = .308$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 22), and correlation is moderate and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .10, which means that power distance explains 10 % of variability of conspicuous consumption.

**Table 22 - Correlation Analysis between Power Distance and CCO in American Sample**

Pearson Correlation			Conspicuous Consumption	Power Distance
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	.308**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	597	597
	Power Distance	Corr. Coeff.	.308**	1
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	597	597

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .308, H3a hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to power distance in Turkish consumers  $r(643) = .375$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 23), and correlation is moderate and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .14, which means that power distance explains 14 % of variability of conspicuous consumption

**Table 23 - Correlation Analysis between Power Distance and CCO in Turkish Sample**

Pearson Correlation			Conspicuous Consumption	Power Distance
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	.375**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	643	643
	Power Distance	Corr. Coeff.	.375**	1
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	643	643

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .375, H3b hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to masculinity in American consumers  $r(597) = .217$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 24), and correlation is weak and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .05, which means that masculinity explains 5 % of variability of conspicuous consumption.

**Table 24 - Correlation Analysis between Masculinity and CCO in American Sample**

Pearson Correlation			Conspicuous Consumption	Masculinity
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	.217**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	597	597
	Masculinity	Corr. Coeff.	.217**	1
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	597	597

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since  $p$  is lower than .05 and  $R$  is .217, H4a hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to masculinity in Turkish consumers  $r(640) = .244$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 25), and correlation is weak and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .06, which means that masculinity explains 6 % of variability of conspicuous consumption.

**Table 25 - Correlation Analysis between Masculinity and CCO in Turkish Sample**

Pearson Correlation			Conspicuous Consumption	Masculinity
	Conspicuous Consumption	Corr. Coeff.	1	.244**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	640	640
	Masculinity	Corr. Coeff.	.244**	1

		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	640	640

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .244, H4b hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to collectivism in American consumers  $r(597) = -.249, p < .001$  (Table 26), and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .06, which means that collectivism explains 6 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 26 - Correlation Analysis between Collectivism and OCBB in American Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Collectivism
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	-.249**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	597	597
	Collectivism	Corr. Coeff.	-.249**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	597	597

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .249, H5a hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to collectivism in Turkish consumers  $\rho(643) = -.114, p < .05$  (Table 27). Furthermore coefficient of determination is .012, which means that collectivism explains 1 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 27 - Correlation Analysis between Collectivism and OCBB in Turkish Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Collectivism
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	-.114**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	643	643
	Collectivism	Corr. Coeff.	-.114**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.000	
		N	643	643

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is -.114, H5b hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to power distance in American consumers  $r(597) = .139$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 28), and correlation is weak and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .02, which means that power distance explains 2 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 28 - Correlation Analysis between Collectivism Correlation Analysis between Power Distance and OCBB and in American Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Power Distance
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.139**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.001
		N	597	597
	Power Distance	Corr. Coeff.	.139**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.001	
		N	597	597

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .139, H6a hypothesis is accepted.

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to power distance in Turkish consumers  $\rho(643) = .228$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 29), and



correlation is weak and positive. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .05, which means that power distance explains 5 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 29 - Correlation Analysis between Collectivism Correlation Analysis between Power Distance and OCBB in Turkish Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Power Distance
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.228**
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.000
		N	643	643
	Power Distance	Corr. Coeff.	.228**	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.001	
		N	643	643

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p is lower than .05 and R is .228, H6b hypothesis is accepted

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is not significantly correlated to masculinity in American consumers  $r(597) = .075$ ,  $p = .068$  (Table 30). There was a nonsignificant correlation of .075 ( $p = .068$ ) between OCBB and masculinity.

**Table 30 - Correlation Analysis between Masculinity and OCBB in American Samplers**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Masculinity
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.075
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.068
		N	597	597
	Masculinity	Corr. Coeff.	.075	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.068	
		N	597	597

\*\* .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p value is larger than 0.05, H7a hypothesis is rejected.

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is not significantly correlated to masculinity in Turkish consumers  $r(643) = .067, p = .092$  (Table 31). There was a nonsignificant correlation of .067 ( $p = .092$ ) between OCBB and masculinity in Turkish consumers.

**Table 31 - Correlation Analysis between Masculinity and OCBB in Turkish Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Masculinity
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	.067
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.092
		N	643	643
	Masculinity	Corr. Coeff.	.067	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.092	
		N	643	643

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Since p value is larger than 0.05, H7b hypothesis is rejected

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to uncertainty avoidance in American consumers  $r(597) = -.098, p < .05$  (Table 32), and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .01, which means that uncertainty avoidance explains 1 % of variability in OCBB.

**Table 32 - Correlation Analysis between Uncertainty Avoidance and OCBB in American Sample**

Spearman's rho			OCBB	Uncertainty Avoidance
	OCBB	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	-.098*
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		.017
		N	597	597
	Uncertainty Avoidance	Corr. Coeff.	-.098*	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	.017	
		N	597	597

Since p is lower than .05 and R is -.098 H8a hypothesis is accepted

In the next analysis, the results showed that OCBB is significantly correlated to uncertainty avoidance in Turkish consumers  $r(643) = -.153, p < .001$ (Table 33), and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination is .02, which means that uncertainty avoidance explains 2 % of variability in OCBB in Turkish consumers.

**Table 33 - Correlation Analysis between Uncertainty Avoidance and OCBB in Turkish Sample**

Spearman's rho			Online Compulsive Buying	Uncertainty Avoidance
	Online Compulsive Buying	Corr. Coeff.	1.000	<b>-.153**</b>
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)		<b>.000</b>
		N	643	643
	Uncertainty Avoidance	Corr. Coeff.	<b>-.153**</b>	1.000
		Sgn. (Two-tailed)	<b>.000</b>	
		N	643	643

Since p value is less than 0.01 and R value is -.153 H8b hypothesis is accepted.

### **Conspicuous consumption Regression – American sample**

In order to test predictive capacity of masculinity, power distance, and collectivism regarding conspicuous consumption in American consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed (Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2014). Distribution of standardized residuals significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable

in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006).

**Table 34 - Regression Analysis for CCO Model with Adjusted R Square in American Sample**

	R	R Sq.	Adjst. R Sq.
1	.422a	.178	.174

a. Predictors: (Constant), Masculinity, Collectivism, Power Distance

**Table 35 - Regression Analysis for CCO Model with Significance Levels in American Sample**

Model		Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		14.341	.000		
	<b>Power Distance</b>	<b>.244</b>	6.094	<b>.000</b>	.865	1.156
	Collectivism	<b>-.268</b>	-7.154	<b>.000</b>	.988	1.012
	Masculinity	<b>.106</b>	2.660	<b>.008</b>	.867	1.154

Depndt. Variable.: CCO

The results of the regression analysis on Table 34 and Table 35 show that the regression model is statistically significant  $F(3, 593) = 42.92, p < .001$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .17$ . In addition, masculinity ( $\beta = .106, p < .05$ ), power distance ( $\beta = .244, p < .001$ ) and collectivism ( $\beta = -.268, p < .001$ ) significantly predict conspicuous consumption orientation in American consumers.

In conclusion, the data showed that the model explains 17 % of conspicuous consumption which is statistically significant. Finally, because collectivism has the highest  $\beta$ -coefficient, we may conclude that this variable has the greatest impact on conspicuous consumption in American consumers.

In order to test predictive capacity of masculinity, power distance, and collectivism regarding conspicuous consumption in Turkish consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed (Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2014).

Distribution of standardized residuals significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006).

**Table 36 - Regression Analysis for CCO Model with Adjusted R Square in Turkish Sample**

	R	R Sq.	Adjst. R Sq.
1	.441a	.195	.191

a. Predictors: (Constant), Masculinity, Collectivism, Power Distance

**Table 37 - Regression Analysis for CCO Model with Significance Levels in Turkish Sample**

Model		Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		13.131	.000		
	<b>Power Distance</b>	<b>.297</b>	7.890	<b>.000</b>	.895	1.117
	<b>Collectivism</b>	<b>-.196</b>	-5.414	<b>.000</b>	.969	1.032
	<b>Masculinity</b>	<b>.176</b>	4.693	<b>.000</b>	.899	1.112

Dependent Var.: CCO

The results of regression analysis on Table 36 and Table 37 show that regression model is statistically significant  $F(3, 636) = 51.26, p < .001$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .20$ . In addition, masculinity ( $\beta = .176, p < .05$ ), power distance ( $\beta = .297, p < .001$ ), and collectivism ( $\beta = -.196, p < .001$ ) significantly predict conspicuous consumption in Turkish consumers.

In conclusion, the data showed that the model explains 20 % of conspicuous consumption which is statistically significant. Finally, because power distance has the highest  $\beta$ -coefficient we may conclude that this variable has the greatest impact on conspicuous consumption in Turkish consumers.

In order to test predictive capacity of masculinity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism regarding OCBB in American consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed.. Distribution of standardized residuals significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006).

**Table 38 - Regression Analysis for OCBB Model with Adjusted R Square in American Sample**

	R	R Sq.	Adjst. R Sq.
1	.402a	.161	.156

a. Predictors: (Constant), Masculinity, Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance

**Table 39 - Regression Analysis for OCBB Model with Significance Levels in American Sample**

Model		Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		1.012	.000		
	Power Distance	<b>.226</b>	5.494	<b>.000</b>	.840	1.190
	Collectivism	<b>-.242</b>	-6.078	<b>.000</b>	.895	1.118
	Masculinity	-.044	-1.086	.278	.865	1.156
	Uncertainty Avoidance	<b>-.133</b>	-3.305	<b>.001</b>	.874	1.145

Dependent Var.: OCBB

The results of regression analysis on Table 38 and Table 39 show that the regression model is statistically significant  $F(4, 592) = 28.47, p < .001$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .16$ . In addition, power distance ( $\beta = .226, p < .001$ ), collectivism ( $\beta = -.242, p < .001$ ), uncertainty avoidance ( $\beta = -.133, p < .001$ ) significantly predict OCBB whereas masculinity ( $\beta = -.044, p > .05$ ) does not.

In conclusion, the data showed that the model explains 16 % of OCBB which is statistically significant. Finally, because collectivism has the highest  $\beta$ -coefficient we may conclude that this variable has the greatest impact on OCBB in American consumers.

In order to test predictive capacity of masculinity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism regarding OCBB in Turkish consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed.. Distribution of standardized residuals significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006).

**Table 40 - Regression Analysis for OCBB Model with Adjusted R Square in Turkish Sample**

	R	R Sq.	Adjst. R Sq.
1	.382a	.146	.140

a. Predictors: (Constant), Masculinity, Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance

**Table 41 - Regression Analysis for OCBB Model with Significance Levels in Turkish Sample**

Model		Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		.823	.000		
	Power Distance	<b>.248</b>	6.381	<b>.000</b>	.893	1.120
	Collectivism	<b>-.150</b>	-3.787	<b>.000</b>	.859	1.165
	Masculinity	-.054	-1.377	.169	.881	1.135
	Uncertainty Avoidance	<b>-.175</b>	-4.407	<b>.000</b>	.855	1.169

Dependent Var.: OCBB

The results of regression analysis on Table 40 and Table 41 show that the regression model is statistically significant  $F(4, 635) = 27.05, p < .001$ , adjusted

R<sup>2</sup> = .14. In addition, power distance ( $\beta = .248, p < .001$ ), collectivism ( $\beta = -.150, p < .001$ ), uncertainty avoidance ( $\beta = -.175, p < .001$ ) significantly predict OCBB whereas masculinity ( $\beta = -.054, p > .05$ ) does not.

In conclusion, the data showed that the model explains 14 % of OCBB in Turkish consumers which is statistically significant. Finally, because power distance has the highest  $\beta$ -coefficient we may conclude that this variable has the greatest influence on OCBB.

To understand if Conspicuous Consumption is statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers, Levene test and independent sample t-test was employed. Table 42 shows the results of Independent Sample t-test.

**Table 42 – Gender Groups and CCO Independent Sample t-test in American Sample**

Conspicuous Consumption / Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
	<b>Eql. var. assumed</b>	2.386	.123	1.789	595	.074	.15967	.08924
	<b>Eql. var. not assumed</b>			1.789	586 .00 3	.075	.15967	.08937

p value for Levene's test was .123 which is higher than 0.05. Levene's test was not significant, thus it can be concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.



Second part of the table shows the p value for t-test ( $p = .074$ ) which is higher than 0.05, thus it can be concluded that conspicuous consumption in American consumers does not differ based on gender. Therefore, H9a hypothesis is rejected.

In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption is statistically significantly different based on gender in Turkish consumers, Levene test and independent sample t-test were employed. Table 43 shows the results of Independent Sample t-test.

**Table 43 - Gender Groups and CCO Independent Sample t-test in Turkish Sample**

Conspicuous Consumption / Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
	<b>Eq. var. assumed</b>	1.811	.179	1.794	641	.073	.13581	.07570
	<b>Eq. var. not assumed</b>			1.795	639 .00 1	.073	.13581	.07568

p value for Levene's test was .179 which is higher than .05. Levene's test was not significant, thus it can be concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Second part of the table shows the p value for t-test ( $p = .073$ ) which is higher than .05, thus it can be concluded that CCO in Turkish consumers does not differ based on gender. Therefore, H9b hypothesis is rejected.

In order to test if CCO statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .000 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met. Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. Also as a post-hoc test, Games-Howell test was preferred instead of Tukey (Moder, 2010). Result of the Welch ANOVA test on Table 44 shows  $p < .000$ . Thus, it can be concluded that Conspicuous Consumption significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers. Therefore, H10a hypothesis is accepted.

**Table 44 - Age Groups and CCO ANOVA results in American Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	32.256	5	6.451	5.618	.000
<b>Within Groups</b>	678.669	591	1.148		
<b>Total</b>	710.925	596			

In order to understand which groups have significant differences in Conspicuous Consumption, Games-Howell post-hoc test was employed. In Table 45, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which indicates that the Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs between those age groups that have (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 45 shows that 15-22 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 23-30 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 55+ group; 31-38 age cores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 55+. The highest

difference was between 15-22 and 55+ age groups where the mean difference was .84628.

**Table 45 - Age Groups and CCO ANOVA results with Group Mean Differences in American Sample**

<b>Conspicuous Consumption / Age Groups (I) AgeGroup</b>	<b>(J) AgeGroup</b>	<b>Mean Diff. (I-J)</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>15-22</b>	23-30	.39229	.20426	.400
	31-38	.37307	.20994	.487
	39-46	.48426	.22323	.264
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.74414*</b>	.20795	<b>.008</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.84628*</b>	.19604	<b>.001</b>
<b>23-30</b>	15-22	-.39229	.20426	.400
	31-38	-.01922	.13812	1.000
	39-46	.09197	.15759	.992
	47-54	.35185	.13508	.101
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.45399*</b>	.11591	<b>.002</b>
<b>31-38</b>	15-22	-.37307	.20994	.487
	23-30	.01922	.13812	1.000
	39-46	.11119	.16488	.985
	47-54	.37107	.14352	.106
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.47320*</b>	.12564	<b>.003</b>
<b>39-46</b>	15-22	-.48426	.22323	.264
	23-30	-.09197	.15759	.992
	31-38	-.11119	.16488	.985
	47-54	.25988	.16235	.599
	55+	.36202	.14678	.140

<b>47-54</b>	<b>15-22</b>	-.74414*	.20795	<b>.008</b>
	23-30	-.35185	.13508	.101
	31-38	-.37107	.14352	.106
	39-46	-.25988	.16235	.599
	55+	.10214	.12229	.960
<b>55+</b>	<b>15-22</b>	-.84628*	.19604	.001
	<b>23-30</b>	-.45399*	.11591	.002
	<b>31-38</b>	-.47320*	.12564	.003
	39-46	-.36202	.14678	.140
	47-54	-.10214	.12229	.960

In order to test if CCO statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was  $> .05$  where  $p = .112$  which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was met. Therefore, One-Way ANOVA test was employed. Results of the ANOVA test on Table 46 show  $p < .001$ . Thus, it can be concluded that CCO significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers. Therefore, H10b hypothesis is accepted.

**Table 46 - Age Groups and CCO ANOVA results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	18.191	5	3.638	4.029	<b>.001</b>
<b>Within Groups</b>	575.225	637	.903		
<b>Total</b>	593.416	642			

In order to understand which groups have significant differences in Conspicuous Consumption, Tukey post-hoc test was employed. In Table 47, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which means that the Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs between those age groups that has (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 47 shows that 23-30 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 31-38 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 group. No significant differences were found between 15-22, 39-46 and all the other age groups. The highest difference was between 23\*30 and 47-54 age groups where mean difference was .580477.

**Table 47 - Age Groups and CCO ANOVA results with Group Mean Differences in Turkish Sample**

<b>Conspicuous Consumption / Age Groups (I) AgeGroup</b>	<b>(J) AgeGroup</b>	<b>(I-J) Mean Diff</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>15-22</b>	23-30	-.28463	.16718	.531
	31-38	-.15747	.16394	.930
	39-46	-.10564	.17696	.991
	47-54	.22013	.17637	.813
	55+	.07436	.17303	.998
<b>23-30</b>	15-22	.28463	.16718	.531
	31-38	.12716	.10874	.851
	39-46	.17899	.12754	.725
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.50477*</b>	.12672	<b>.001</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.35899*</b>	.12202	<b>.039</b>
<b>31-38</b>	15-22	.15747	.16394	.930
	23-30	-.12716	.10874	.851
	39-46	.05183	.12325	.998
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.37760*</b>	.12240	<b>.026</b>
	55+	.23183	.11754	.359
<b>39-46</b>	15-22	.10564	.17696	.991

	23-30	-.17899	.12754	.725
	31-38	-.05183	.12325	.998
	47-54	.32577	.13936	.181
	55+	.18000	.13511	.767
<b>47-54</b>	15-22	-.22013	.17637	.813
	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.50477*</b>	.12672	<b>.001</b>
	<b>31-38</b>	<b>-.37760*</b>	.12240	<b>.026</b>
	39-46	-.32577	.13936	.181
	55+	-.14577	.13434	.887
<b>55+</b>	15-22	-.07436	.17303	.998
	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.35899*</b>	.12202	<b>.039</b>
	31-38	-.23183	.11754	.359
	39-46	-.18000	.13511	.767
	47-54	.14577	.13434	.887

In order to test if CCO statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .042 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. Also as a post-hoc test, Games-Howell test was preferred instead of Tukey (Moder, 2010). Results of the Welch ANOVA test on Table 48 show  $p < .05$  where  $p = .028$ . Thus, it can be concluded that Conspicuous Consumption significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers. Therefore, H11a hypothesis is accepted.

**Table 48 - Income Groups and CCO ANOVA results in American Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	15.650	4	3.912	3.331	<b>.028</b>
<b>Within Groups</b>	695.275	592	1.174		

<b>Total</b>	710.925	596			
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In order to understand which income groups have significant differences in Conspicuous Consumption, Games-Howell post-hoc test was employed. In Table 49, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which means that the Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs between those income groups that have (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 49 shows that Highest Fifth (\$100,000+) income group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than Lowest Fifth (\$0 - \$20,000) and 2nd Fifth (\$20,000 - \$40,000). No significant differences were seen in 3rd Fifth (\$40,001 - \$70,000), and 4th Fifth (\$70,001 - \$100,000) compare to all other income groups.

**Table 49 - Income Groups and CCO ANOVA results with Group Mean Differences in American Sample**

<b>(I) Personal Annual Income</b>	<b>(J) Personal Annual Income</b>	<b>(I-J) Mean Diff</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Lowest Fifth (\$0 - \$20,000)</b>	2nd Fifth	.06220	.14711	.993
	3rd Fifth	-.16554	.12263	.660
	4th Fifth	-.16186	.12598	.701
	<b>Highest Fifth</b>	<b>-.49325*</b>	.17358	<b>.041</b>
<b>2nd Fifth (\$20,000 - \$40,000)</b>	Lowest Fifth	-.06220	.14711	.993
	3rd Fifth	-.22774	.14171	.495
	4th Fifth	-.22407	.14462	.532
	<b>Highest Fifth</b>	<b>-.55546*</b>	.18755	<b>.029</b>

<b>3rd Fifth</b> (\$40,001 - \$70,000)	Lowest Fifth	.16554	.12263	.660
	2nd Fifth	.22774	.14171	.495
	4th Fifth	.00368	.11963	1.000
	Highest Fifth	-.32771	.16904	.302
<b>4th Fifth</b> (\$70,001 - \$100,000)	Lowest Fifth	.16186	.12598	.701
	2nd Fifth	.22407	.14462	.532
	3rd Fifth	-.00368	.11963	1.000
	Highest Fifth	-.33139	.17148	.305
<b>Highest Fifth</b> (\$100.000+)	<b>Lowest Fifth</b>	<b>.49325*</b>	.17358	<b>.041</b>
	<b>2nd Fifth</b>	<b>.55546*</b>	.18755	<b>.029</b>
	3rd Fifth	.32771	.16904	.302
	4th Fifth	.33139	.17148	.305

In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .001 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. Also as a post-hoc test, Games-Howell test was preferred instead of Tukey (Moder, 2010). Results of the Welch ANOVA test on Table 50 show  $p < .05$  where  $p = .043$ . Thus, it can be concluded that Conspicuous Consumption significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers. Therefore, H11b hypothesis is accepted.



**Table 50 - Income Groups and CCO ANOVA results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	7.105	4	1.776	1.904	<b>.043</b>
<b>Within Groups</b>	583.217	625	.933		
<b>Total</b>	590.323	629			

In order to understand which income groups have significant differences in Conspicuous Consumption, Games-Howell post-hoc test was employed. In Table 51, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which means that the Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs between those income groups that have (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 51 shows that Highest fifth (5001 TL+) income group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 3rd Fifth (25001 TL - 3500 TL) income group. Also Highest fifth (5001 TL+) income group has a non-significant but considerably higher Conspicuous Consumption score compared to Lowest fifth (0 TL - 1500 TL) and 2nd Fifth (15001 TL - 2500 TL) income groups. No significant differences were seen in other income groups.

**Table 51 - Income Groups and CCO ANOVA results with Group Mean Differences in Turkish Sample**

<b>(I) Personal Annual Income</b>	<b>(J) Personal Annual Income</b>	<b>(I-J) Mean Diff</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Lowest fifth (0 TL - 1500 TL)</b>	2nd Fifth	-.09334	.15496	.974
	3rd Fifth	.12885	.12178	.828

	4th Fifth	-.16712	.12787	.687
	Highest Fifth	-.16381	.11141	.583
<b>2nd Fifth (15001 TL - 2500 TL)</b>	Lowest Fifth	.09334	.15496	.974
	3rd Fifth	.22219	.14855	.567
	4th Fifth	-.07379	.15358	.989
	Highest Fifth	-.07047	.14018	.987
<b>3rd Fifth (25001 TL - 3500 TL)</b>	Lowest Fifth	-.12885	.12178	.828
	2nd Fifth	-.22219	.14855	.567
	4th Fifth	-.29597	.12002	.102
	<b>Highest Fifth</b>	<b>-.29266*</b>	.10231	<b>.037</b>
<b>4th Fifth (35001 TL - 5000 TL)</b>	Lowest Fifth	.16712	.12787	.687
	2nd Fifth	.07379	.15358	.989
	3rd Fifth	.29597	.12002	.102
	Highest Fifth	.00331	.10949	1.000
<b>Highest fifth (5001 TL+)</b>	Lowest Fifth	.16381	.11141	.583
	2nd Fifth	.07047	.14018	.987
	<b>3rd Fifth</b>	<b>.29266*</b>	.10231	<b>.037</b>
	4th Fifth	-.00331	.10949	1.000

In order to test if CCO statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .004 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, Welch ANOVA test

was employed. The results of the Welch ANOVA test given in Table 52 show a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .076$ . Thus, it can be concluded that CCO does not statistically significantly differ based on education in American consumers. Based on that information, H12a hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 52 - Education Groups and CCO ANOVA results in American Samples**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	11.777	6	1.963	1.656	.076
<b>Within Groups</b>	699.148	590	1.185		
<b>Total</b>	710.925	596			

In order to test if CCO statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .826 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was met ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, One-Way ANOVA test was employed. The results of the test given in Table 53 show a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .391$ . Thus, it can be concluded that Conspicuous Consumption does not statistically significantly differ based on education in Turkish consumers. Based on that information, H12b hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 53 - Education Groups and CCO ANOVA results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	5.824	6	.971	1.051	.391
<b>Within Groups</b>	587.592	636	.924		
<b>Total</b>	593.416	642			

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers, Levene test and independent sample t-test were employed. Table 54 shows the results of Independent Sample t-test.

**Table 54 - Gender Groups and OCBB Independent Sample t-test in American Sample**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior / Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
	Equal VAR. assumed	.069	.793	-2.211	595	.027	-.11512	.05206
	Equal var. not assumed			-2.212	594.931	.027	-.11516	.05204

p value for Levene's test was .793 which is higher than 0.05. Levene's test was not significant, thus it can be concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Second part of the table shows the p value for t-test ( $p = .027$ ) which is smaller than .05, thus it can be concluded that OCBB in American consumers differs based on gender. Therefore, H13a hypothesis is accepted.

Table 55 below shows the group statistics that shed light onto which group scores higher on OCBB. It can be concluded that OCBB is significantly higher in females than males in American consumers.

**Table 55 - Gender Groups and OCBB Group Means in American Sample**

CCO	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Male	294	1.6482	.62960	.03672
	Female	303	1.7633	.64195	.03688

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on gender in Turkish consumers, Levene test and independent sample t-test were employed. Table 56 shows the results of Independent Sample t-test.

**Table 56 - Gender Groups and OCBB Independent Sample t-test in Turkish Sample**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior / Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
	<b>Equal var. assumed</b>	2.018	.156	-2.427	641	.015	-.11838	.04877
	<b>Equal var. not assumed</b>			-2.427	637.468	0.15	-.11838	.04878

p value for Levene's test was .156 which is higher than .05. Levene's test was not significant, thus it can be concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Second part of the table shows the p value for t-test ( $p = .015$ ) which is smaller than .05, thus it can be concluded that OCBB in Turkish consumers differs based on gender. Therefore, H13b hypothesis is accepted.

Table 57 below shows the group statistics that shed light onto which group scores higher on OCBB. It can be concluded that OCBB is significantly higher in females than males in Turkish consumers.

**Table 57 - Gender Groups and OCBB Group Means in Turkish Sample**

CCO	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Male	325	1.6255	.59711	.03312
Female	318	1.7480	.63884	.03582	

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .000 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met. Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. Also as a post-hoc test, Games-Howell test was preferred instead of Tukey (Moder, 2010). Results of the Welch ANOVA test on Table 58 show  $p < .000$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers. Therefore, H14a hypothesis is accepted.

**Table 58 - Age Groups and OCBB ANOVA Results in American Sample**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Between Groups</b>	12.365	5	2.473	6.349	.000
<b>Within Groups</b>	230.212	591	.390		
<b>Total</b>	242.577	596			

In order to understand which groups have significant differences in OCBB, Games-Howell post-hoc test was employed. In Table 59, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which means that the OCBB statistically significantly differs

between those age groups that have (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 59 shows that 15-22 age group scores significantly higher in OCBB than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 23-30 age group scores significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ group; 31-38 age group scores significantly higher than 55+ and lastly, 39-46 cores significantly higher in OCBB than 55+ age group. The highest difference was between 15-22 and 55+ age groups where mean difference was .48160.

**Table 59 - Age Groups and OCBB ANOVA Results with Group Mean Differences in American Sample**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior / Age Groups (I) AgeGroup	(J) AgeGroup	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
<b>15-22</b>	23-30	.18109	.13005	.731
	31-38	.22175	.13079	.540
	39-46	.17606	.13886	.801
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.42801*</b>	.12886	<b>.019</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.48160*</b>	.12585	<b>.005</b>
<b>23-30</b>	15-22	-.18109	.13005	.731
	31-38	.04066	.07964	.996
	39-46	-.00503	.09229	1.000
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.24692*</b>	.07643	<b>.018</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.30051*</b>	.07123	<b>.001</b>
<b>31-38</b>	15-22	-.22175	.13079	.540

	23-30	-.04066	.07964	.996
	39-46	-.04570	.09333	.996
	47-54	.20625	.07768	.089
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.25985*</b>	.07257	<b>.005</b>
<b>39-46</b>	15-22	-.17606	.13886	.801
	23-30	.00503	.09229	1.000
	31-38	.04570	.09333	.996
	47-54	.25195	.09061	.065
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.30554*</b>	.08627	<b>.007</b>
<b>47-54</b>	<b>15-22</b>	<b>-.42801*</b>	.12886	<b>.019</b>
	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.24692*</b>	.07643	<b>.018</b>
	<b>31-38</b>	-.20625	.07768	.089
	39-46	-.25195	.09061	.065
	55+	.05360	.06904	.971
<b>55+</b>	<b>15-22</b>	<b>-.48160*</b>	.12585	<b>.005</b>
	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.30051*</b>	.07123	<b>.001</b>
	<b>31-38</b>	<b>-.25985*</b>	.07257	<b>.005</b>
	<b>39-46</b>	<b>-.30554*</b>	.08627	<b>.007</b>
	47-54	-.05360	.06904	.971

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .000 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met. Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. Also as a post-hoc test, Games-Howell test was preferred instead of Tukey (Moder, 2010). Results of the Welch ANOVA test on Table 60 show  $p < .000$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers. Therefore, H14b hypothesis is accepted.



**Table 60 - Age Groups and OCBB ANOVA Results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	16.616	5	3.323	9.176	.000
<b>Within Groups</b>	230.689	637	.362		
<b>Total</b>	247.304	642			

In order to understand which groups have significant differences in OCBB, Games-Howell post-hoc test was employed. In Table 61, (\*) sign indicates that the  $p < .05$  which means that the OCBB statistically significantly differs between those age groups that have (\*) sign on their corresponding mean difference value.

Table 61 shows that 23-30 age group scores significantly higher in OCBB than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 31-18 age group scores significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ age groups; 31-38 age group scores significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. There were no significant differences in 15-22 and 39-46 compared to all the other age groups. The highest difference was between 23-30 age group and 47-54 age group where the mean difference was .41198.

**Table 61 - Age Groups and OCBB ANOVA Results with Group Mean Differences in Turkish Sample**

Online Compulsive Buying Behavior / Age Groups (I) AgeGroup	(J) AgeGroup	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
<b>15-22</b>	23-30	-.26667	.10588	.131
	31-38	-.19388	.10236	.414
	39-46	-.07439	.11334	.986
	47-54	.14532	.10077	.701
	55+	.12553	.10013	.808
<b>23-30</b>	15-22	.26667	.10588	.131
	31-38	.07279	.07587	.930
	39-46	.19228	.09013	.275
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.41198*</b>	.07371	<b>.000</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.39220*</b>	.07284	<b>.000</b>
<b>31-38</b>	15-22	.19388	.10236	.414
	23-30	-.07279	.07587	.930
	39-46	.11949	.08597	.733
	<b>47-54</b>	<b>.33920*</b>	.06856	<b>.000</b>
	<b>55+</b>	<b>.31941*</b>	.06762	<b>.000</b>
<b>39-46</b>	15-22	.07439	.11334	.986
	23-30	-.19228	.09013	.275
	31-38	-.11949	.08597	.733
	47-54	.21970	.08407	.100
	55+	.19992	.08331	.163
<b>47-54</b>	15-22	-.14532	.10077	.701

	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.41198*</b>	.07371	<b>.000</b>
	<b>31-38</b>	<b>-.33920*</b>	.06856	<b>.000</b>
	39-46	-.21970	.08407	.100
	55+	-.01979	.06518	1.000
<b>55+</b>	15-22	-.12553	.10013	.808
	<b>23-30</b>	<b>-.39220*</b>	.07284	<b>.000</b>
	<b>31-38</b>	<b>-.31941*</b>	.06762	<b>.000</b>
	39-46	-.19992	.08331	.163
	47-54	.01979	.06518	1.000

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .000 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was not met ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, Welch ANOVA test was employed. The results of the Welch ANOVA test given in Table 62 show a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .081$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on income groups in American consumers. Based on that information, H15a hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 62 - Income Groups and OCBB ANOVA results in American Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	3.240	4	.810	2.004	.081
<b>Within Groups</b>	239.337	592	.404		
<b>Total</b>	242.577	596			

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .094 which indicates that

ANOVA test was employed. The results of the ANOVA test given in Table 63 shows a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .260$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on income groups in Turkish consumers. Based on that information, H15b hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 63 - Income Groups and OCBB ANOVA results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Diff</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	2.049	4	.512	1.322	.260
<b>Within Groups</b>	242.147	625	.387		
<b>Total</b>	244.196	629			

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .064 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was met ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, One-Way ANOVA test was employed. The results of the ANOVA test given in Table 64 shows a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .178$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on education in American consumers. Based on that information, H16a hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 64 - Education Groups and OCBB ANOVA results in American Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	3.626	6	.604	1.492	.178
<b>Within Groups</b>	238.951	590	.405		
<b>Total</b>	242.577	596			

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers, Levene's test was employed to look at the homogeneity of variances. p value for Levene test was .321 which indicates that homogeneity of variance assumption was met ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, One-Way ANOVA test was employed. The results of the ANOVA test given in Table 65 shows a p value that is higher than .05 where  $p = .134$ . Thus, it can be concluded that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on education in Turkish consumers. Based on that information, H16b hypothesis is rejected.

**Table 65 - Education Groups and OCBB ANOVA results in Turkish Sample**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	3.766	6	.628	1.639	.134
<b>Within Groups</b>	243.539	636	.383		
<b>Total</b>	247.304	642			

#### **6.4 Comparison of Research Variables in Turkey and U.S.A**

In US sample, according to Faber and O'Guinn's (1992) formula, 53 participants or (8.88 %) were compulsive buyers, while in Turkish sample, that number was 41 or (6.38 %).

In order to compare two samples (nationality- Turkish vs. American) on conspicuous consumption, OCBB, and cultural dimensions (MASC, PD, COLL, and UA), a MANOVA analysis was computed. Levene's test was not significant for all variables except for CCO and PD, so we can say that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met for all variables but CCO and PD. Because assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met for CCO and PD, it is recommended to use more conservative alpha value when looking at

the significance in the MANOVA test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus for CCO and PD, .01 alpha threshold is chosen instead of .05. Since MANOVA analysis is robust to violation of the assumption of distribution normality (Finch, 2005), we may conclude that there were no factors that could reduce validity and reliability of results of this analysis. In addition, statistical power of the analysis was 1.00 so we may conclude that there is very high probability that these results will be repeated on any other sample of similar size.

The results of MANOVA revealed that there is a significant impact of nationality on all dependent variables except OCBB together  $F(6, 1233) = 17769.79, p < 001$ . In addition, there was a significant between-subject effect on every dependent variable but OCBB: conspicuous consumption  $F(1, 22.99) = 21.82, p < 001$ , masculinity  $F(1, 44.80) = 47.65, p < 001$ , collectivism  $F(1, 74.25) = 132.05, p < 001$ , uncertainty avoidance  $F(1, 28.39) = 74.52, p < 001$ , power distance  $F(1, 42.55) = 76.17, p < 001$ , and OCBB had  $p > 01$  where  $p = .565$ . Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 66.

**Table 66 – Descriptive Statistics Comparing American and Turkish Samples**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
<b>UA</b>	U.S.A	3.8975	.63220
	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>4.2003</b>	<b>.60291</b>
<b>COLL</b>	U.S.A	3.1142	.76932
	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>3.6039</b>	<b>.73138</b>
<b>PD</b>	U.S.A	1.9548	.71862
	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>2.3255</b>	<b>.77315</b>
<b>MASC</b>	U.S.A	2.2044	1.00163
	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>2.5848</b>	<b>.93885</b>
<b>CCO</b>	U.S.A	2.9613	1.09217
	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>3.2338</b>	<b>.96142</b>
<b>OCBB</b>	<b>U.S.A</b>	<b>1.7066</b>	<b>.63797</b>
	Turkey	1.6861	.62065

Results show that Turkey scored significantly higher in all variables except for OCBB where Americans had higher score than Turkish consumers

## **6.5 Summary of Results and Discussion**

The study was designed to fill the gap in the literature regarding the relations between cultural dimensions, conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior.

Main goal of the research was to conduct a cross-cultural academic work to understand the impact of cultural dimensions on two important outcomes of consumerism; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. Also another important aspect of this research was to see if a link between conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior exists. Results are found to be a good contribution to the body of literature and provide valuable information for managers and marketing professional. The results of the hypothesis developed around those research questions are summarized in Table 59.

The research was based on two cultures that have distinct characteristics and cultural orientation based on Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions studies; Turkey and United States of America. Participants of the study were chosen from Istanbul, Turkey and Washington, D.C, United States of America.

In Turkish sample (total 643), 50.2% of the respondents were male and 49.8% of respondents were female. It can be said that majority of respondents were married (59.3%) and 31-38 age group was the majority (26.1%) within Turkish respondents. Highest fifth (5001 TL+) personal income group which represents people earning more than 5000 Turkish Liras monthly (net) has the majority (41.1%). Lastly in education level, majority (17.1%) of respondents had 4 years Bachelor's degree.

In the U.S sample (total 597), 49.2% of the respondents were male and 50.8% of respondents were female. It can be said that majority of respondents were single (50.4%) and 55+ age group was the majority (25.3%) closely followed

by 23-30 with 20.4%. 3<sup>rd</sup> Fifth personal income group which represents people earning between 40.001 – 70.000 US Dollars annually had the majority (28.6%). Lastly in education level, majority (40.9%) of respondents had 4 years Bachelor's degree.

Amount of compulsive buyers in each sample was calculated based on Faber and O'Guinn's formula that is provided below

“Scoring equation =  $-9.69 + (Q1 * 0.33) + (Q2 * 0.34) + (Q3 * 0.50) + (Q4 * 0.47) + (Q5 * 0.33) + (Q6 * 0.38) + (Q7 * .31)$  where an overall score higher negative score than -1.34, would classify that person as a compulsive buyer.” (Faber and O'Guinn, 1992).

In, Turkish sample, 41 participants out of 643 were compulsive buyers which equates to 6.38% whereas in American sample, 53 participants out of 597(8.88%) were compulsive buyers. These numbers are in parallel with the study of O'Guinn and Faber (1989) where they've found 6% compulsiveness in American consumers and with a later study of Faber and O'Guinn (1992) conducted in American consumers where they've found 8% compulsiveness. There are other studies conducted in Canada and India (Hassay and Smith, 1996) that have shown considerably higher compulsiveness values between 10% - 18%, however, those results are not surprising at all because they were conducted only on young university students and previous studies had shown that age is a significant indicator of CBB, where younger people are more prone to this behavior than older people. (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; Dittmar, 2005). Therefore, the results are in parallel with the literature.

***Factor Analysis:***

Factor analysis of Conspicuous Consumption scale in Turkish sample showed that the scale measures one factor with Eigenvalue 5.14 that explains 46.76 % of the data variability. The results of the factor analysis are in parallel with the original scale development study (Chaudhuri et al. ,2011) where only one factor was found to be explanatory. Conspicuous Consumption scale is found to be



one-dimensional, homogenous, scale that measures conspicuous consumption and had high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale had good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .88$ .

Factor analysis of Conspicuous Consumption scale in American sample showed that the scale measures one factor with Eigenvalue 5.83 that explains 52.97 % of the data variability. The results of the factor analysis are in parallel with the original scale development study (Chaudhuri et al. ,2011) where only one factor was found to be explanatory. Based on the results provided by the factor analysis, Conspicuous Consumption scale in American sample is found to be one-dimensional and homogenous. The scale measured conspicuous consumption and had high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale had excellent internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .91$ .

Factor analysis of CVScale in Turkish sample showed that the scale measures four factors that explain 60 % of the data variability. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures following four dimensions: Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, and Masculinity. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor that they represent. Moreover, there were no significant item cross loadings on multiple factors. The results of the factor analysis are found to be consistent with the original scale development study conducted by Yoo et al., 2011 and many other in the United States, Brazil and South Korea(Yoo et al. 2011). Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CVScale is four-dimensional, it measures cultural dimensions and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scales showed the following Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values: Masculinity  $\alpha = .80$ ; Collectivism  $\alpha = .85$ ; Uncertainty Avoidance,  $\alpha = .85$ ; Power Distance  $\alpha = .80$ ; which indicate that all scales have good internal consistency.

Factor analysis of CVScale in American sample scale showed that the scale measures four factors that explain 65 % of the data variability. Furthermore, the

analysis confirmed that this questionnaire measures four following dimensions: Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, and Masculinity. In addition all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor that they represent. Moreover, there were no significant item cross loadings on multiple factors. The results of the factor analysis are found to be consistent with the original scale development study conducted by Yoo et al., 2011 and many other researches in the United States, Brazil and South Korea (Yoo et al. 2011). Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis it can be concluded that CVScale is four-dimensional, it measures cultural dimensions and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scales showed the following Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values: Masculinity  $\alpha = .86$ ; Collectivism  $\alpha = .88$ ; Uncertainty Avoidance,  $\alpha = .85$ ; Power Distance  $\alpha = .84$ ; which indicate that all scales have good internal consistency.

Factor analysis of Online Compulsive Buying Behaviors scale in Turkish sample showed that the scale measures one factor that explains 47.90 % of the data variability. The results of the factor analysis are in parallel with the original scale development study conducted in the U.S (Faber and O'Guinn, 1992) and also supports the study conducted in Turkey (Turkyilmaz, et al., 2016) where in both studies only one factor was found to be explanatory. Additionally, all items were significantly correlated to the factor and all items had moderate to high correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis Online Compulsive Buying Behavior scale is found to be one-dimensional, it measures online compulsive buying behavior, and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale had good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .80$ , which means that it had good reliability.

Factor analysis of Online Compulsive Buying Behaviors scale in American sample showed that the scale measures one factor that explains 52.15 % of the data variability. The results of the factor analysis are in parallel with the original scale development study conducted in the U.S (Faber and O'Guinn, 1992) where only one factor was found to be explanatory. Additionally, all items were significantly correlated to the factor and all items had moderate to high

correlation with the factor. Hence, based on the results provided by factor analysis Online Compulsive Buying Behavior scale is found to be one-dimensional, it measures online compulsive buying behavior, and has high construct validity. Reliability analysis of the scale showed that the scale had good internal consistency with Cronbach's  $\alpha = .83$ , which means that it had good reliability.

***Conspicuous Consumption Orientation and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior:***

In order to test the relationship between CCO and OCBB in both American and Turkish consumers, Spearman's Correlation analysis was conducted. Results showed that in both countries conspicuous consumption was found to be moderately correlated to OCBB and the correlation was in positive direction. The results showed that conspicuous consumption explains 21 % of variability in OCBB in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 22% of variability in OCBB. Even though the studies around OCBB and its' relation with conspicuous consumption is limited in the literature, the results of this study is found to be in parallel with previous findings where status and conspicuous consumption have found to be significantly correlated with off-line compulsive buying behavior (Roberts, 1998; Roberts, 2000; Yang, 2006; Eroglu 2016) yet the impact of CCO on OCBB seems significantly higher compared to previous studies which indicates that in online setting the effects may differ, therefore further research is required to uncover more about online compulsive buying behavior.

***Cultural Dimensions and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation:***

In order to test the relationship between Cultural Dimensions and CCO in American and Turkish consumers, Pearson's Correlation analysis was conducted for each dimension. The correlation analysis showed that collectivism is significantly correlated to conspicuous consumption in both American and Turkish consumers and correlation is weak and negative. Furthermore coefficient of determination was .09, which means that collectivism explains 9 % of variability in conspicuous consumption in

American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 5 % of variability in conspicuous consumption.

Furthermore, the results of the Pearson's correlation analysis showed that power distance is significantly correlated to conspicuous consumption in both American and Turkish samples and correlation was weak and positive. Power distance explained 10 % of variability of conspicuous consumption in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 14% variability in conspicuous consumption. The results are found to be in parallel with the literature (Piron, 2000; Moon and Chan 2005; Kim and Zhang, 2014; Varman and Vikas 2005) where conspicuous consumption has been described as a socially desirable way to converse affluence and social position in the societies with a large power distance and also those studies showed that consumers with high power-distance belief tend to have stronger preference towards status brands when compared to people with low level of power-distance belief.

The results of the Pearson's correlation analysis showed that that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to masculinity in both American and Turkish samples and correlation was weak and positive. Masculinity explained 5 % of variability of conspicuous consumption in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 6% variability in conspicuous consumption. The results are supporting the literature on consumer behavior and masculinity (Hofstede, 2001; Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015; Bezzaouia & Joanta, 2016) where studies have shown that in masculine societies, expensive, unique, and luxury goods are important means that one uses to show one's success and high masculine values comes with an increased importance put into money and material possessions which are also being attributed to CCO.

### ***Regression Analysis on Cultural Dimensions and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation:***

To be able to understand the predictive capacity of cultural dimension regarding conspicuous consumption in both American and Turkish consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed. Distribution of standardized residuals

significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006). Regression analysis showed that the model significantly predicts conspicuous consumption in both American and Turkish samples. Furthermore, the model explains 17 % of conspicuous consumption in American sample and collectivism had the greatest impact on conspicuous consumption whereas in Turkish sample, the model explained 20% of conspicuous consumption and power distance had the greatest impact on conspicuous consumption. .These findings can be valuable for marketing managers where they want to market certain status products in both nations. In Turkey, to make the brands and products more conspicuously consumed, marketing efforts can be more geared in a way that it promotes and clearly distinguishes one's social status whereas in America, that emphasis can be more on the uniqueness, rareness and exclusivity of that product.

#### ***Cultural Dimensions and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior:***

In order to test the relationship between Cultural Dimensions and OCBB in American and Turkish consumers, Spearman's Correlation analysis was conducted for each dimension. The correlation analysis showed that collectivism is significantly correlated to Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in both American and Turkish consumers and correlation was weak and negative. Furthermore, collectivism explained 6 % of variability in Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 1 % of variability in Online Compulsive Buying Behavior. The results support the literature on collectivism and personal pathology (Caldwell-Harris and Aycicegi, 2006) where individualism has found to be correlated to more personality pathology including obsessive-compulsive disorders when compared to collectivism. Also it is in parallel with the findings that individualistic societies positively evaluate active risk taking, and are less retraining towards gambling, which is an addictive and compulsive behavior (Ciarrocchi, Kirschner, & Fallik 1991).

The correlation analysis showed that power distance is significantly correlated to OCBB in both American and Turkish consumers and correlation was weak and positive. Furthermore, power distance explained 2 % of variability in OCBB in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it explained 5 % of variability in OCBB. When it comes to the relationship between OCBB and power distance, there has been a lack in studies that researched and explained the nature of this relationship on cultural level; however, these findings are logically consistent with previous studies that showed a correlation between Power Distance and impulse buying tendency (Ali and Sudan, 2018) and studies that showed link between impulsive buying and CBB (Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015). Therefore, demonstrating the relation between power distance and OCBB is going to be a valuable addition to the body of the literature.

The correlation analysis showed that masculinity is in fact not significantly correlated to OCBB in both American and Turkish consumers. There was a nonsignificant correlation of .075 ( $p = .068$ ) in American sample and a nonsignificant correlation of .067 ( $p = .092$ ) in Turkish sample. Literature on masculinity and online and off-line compulsive buying behavior is limited. Few studies have shown that materialistic values are correlated with compulsive buying behavior and Hofstede, 2010 noted that in high-masculinity cultures, people tend to be more materialistic than in low-masculinity cultures. Also there were studies that hinted that males could be more prone to consumption of expensive, luxury goods (Li, et al., 2009), which could in turn trigger more compulsive buying. Thus, the hypothesis of the relationship between masculinity and OCBB was formed based on the indications provided on those studies. On the contrary to what was expected, masculinity was not significantly correlated to OCBB in both American and Turkish culture and this can be a valuable addition to the literature of cultural dimensions and consumer behavior.

The correlation analysis showed that uncertainty avoidance is significantly correlated to OCBB in both American and Turkish consumers and correlation was weak and negative. Furthermore, uncertainty avoidance explained 1 % of variability in OCBB in American sample whereas in Turkish sample, it

explained 2 % of variability in OCBB. Even though the studies regarding Uncertainty Avoidance and OCBB has been limited yet there were few studies that hinted such relation through examining other related constructs. To be more clear, Ayoun and Moreo (2008) have noted that on individual level, people who score high on uncertainty avoidance, tend to feel anxious and stressed in unknown and unstructured situations and buyers with high uncertainty avoidance are more likely to avoid risks (Hwa-Froelich & Vigil, 2004; Yildirim & Barutçu, 2016). Park and Burns (2005) showed that pathological gambling, which is a compulsive behavior, is in negative correlation to uncertainty avoidance. In addition, previous studies showed that compulsive consumption is positively correlated to risk-taking (Campbell 1976; Wallach & Kogan 1961). Supporting that, Ozorio, Lam and Fong (2010) found that people who have low uncertainty avoidance are more risk-tolerant. Likewise, Demaree et al. (2009) noted that uncertainty avoidance lowers the negative effects of compulsive gambling-related risk taking. The findings of this study showed an evidence that uncertainty avoidance and OCBB is in fact directly and negatively correlated and it can be a good addition to the body of literature.

### **Regression Analysis on Cultural Dimensions and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior**

To be able to understand capacity of cultural dimensions regarding OCBB in both American and Turkish consumers, a multiple regression analysis was employed. Distribution of standardized residuals significantly resembled normal distribution, and scatterplot of predicted and standardized residuals indicated that homoscedasticity assumption was met. In addition, VIF of every variable in the model was significantly lower than five, so we may conclude that all assumptions for this analysis were met (Paul, 2006). Regression analysis showed that the model significantly predicted OCBB in both American and Turkish samples. All variables were significantly correlated with OCBB except masculinity. Furthermore, the model explains 16 % of OCBB in American sample and collectivism had the greatest impact on OCBB whereas in Turkish sample, the model explains 14% of OCBB and power distance had the greatest impact on OCBB. These findings can be valuable in marketing promotions and

online shopping website designs when targeting Americans and Turkish consumers.

### **Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption**

In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on gender in both American and Turkish consumers, independent sample t-test were employed. Results showed that in both cultures, Conspicuous Consumption Orientation did not significantly differ based on gender. Although few studies showed that women engage slightly more in conspicuous consumption than men, most studies in the literature have not found significant differences in conspicuous consumption based on gender. The results of this study are in parallel with the latter (Eastman et. Al, 1997; Eastman, Goldsmith & Flynn, 1999; Chaudhuri et. al, 2011; Goldsmith, Flynn & Clark, 2012).

In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on age groups in both American and Turkish consumers. ANOVA test was employed. Results of the ANOVA and group mean differences tests showed that Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on age groups in both cultures. In American sample. 15-22 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 23-30 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 55+ group; 31-38 age cores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 and 55+ and lastly, 39-46 cores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 55+ age group. The highest difference was between 15-22 and 55+ age groups where the mean difference was .95844. In Turkish sample, 23-30 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 31-38 age group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 47-54 group. No significant differences were found between 15-22, 39-46 and all the other age groups. The highest difference was between 23-30 and 47-54 age groups where mean difference was .580477. Results indicate that in both cultures, young adults are more inclined to conspicuous consumption.



In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on income groups in both American and Turkish consumers, ANOVA and group means tests were employed. The results showed that Conspicuous Consumption significantly differs based on income groups in both cultures. In American consumers, Highest Fifth income group (\$100,001+) scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than Lowest Fifth (\$0-\$20,000) and 2<sup>nd</sup> Fifth (\$20,001-\$40,000). No significant differences were seen in 3<sup>rd</sup> Fifth (\$40,001-\$70,000), and 4<sup>th</sup> Fifth(\$70,000-\$100,000) compare to all other income groups. In Turkish consumers, Highest fifth (5001 TL+) income group scores significantly higher in Conspicuous Consumption than 3<sup>rd</sup> Fifth (2,501 TL -3,500TL) income group. Also Highest Fifth (5,001 TL +) income group has a non-significant but considerably higher Conspicuous Consumption score compared to Lowest Fifth (0 TL-1,500 TL) and 2<sup>nd</sup> Fifth (1,501 TL – 2,500 TL) income groups. No significant differences were seen in other income groups. Results indicate that the more disposable income a person has, the more they are inclined to engage in conspicuous consumption in both cultures.

In order to test if Conspicuous Consumption statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers, ANOVA test was employed. The results showed that Conspicuous Consumption does not statistically significantly differ based on education in both American and Turkish consumers.

***Demographics and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior:***

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on gender in both American and Turkish consumers, Levene test and independent sample t-test were employed. The results showed that OCBB in fact differs based on gender in both cultures. In both samples, OCBB was seen more in women than men. Even though studies around OCBB are still limited, the results are in parallel with the compulsive buying literature where many studies around the world have shown that female consumers were more compulsive than males. (Kraepelin, 1915; Bleuler, 1924; D’Astous, 1990; Christenson et al., 1994, Faber and O’Guinn, 1992; McElroy et al. 1994;McElroy, Keck and Philips,

1995; Black, 1996; Shoham and Brencic, 2003; Kyrios, Frost & Steketee, 2004; Dittmar, 2007; Akagun Ergin, 2010)

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on age groups in both American and Turkish consumers, ANOVA test was employed. The results showed that OCBB significantly differs based on age groups in both cultures. In American sample, 15-22 age group scored significantly higher in OCBB than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 23-30 age group scored significantly higher than 55+ group; 31-38 age group scored significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ and lastly, 39-46 scored significantly higher in OCBB than 55+ age group. The highest difference was between 15-22 and 55+ age groups where mean difference was .52751. In Turkish sample, 23-30 age group scored significantly higher in OCBB than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. Also, 31-18 age group scored significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ age groups; 31-38 age group scored significantly higher than 47-54 and 55+ age groups. There were no significant differences in 15-22 and 39-46 compared to all the other age groups. The highest difference was between 23-30 age group and 47-54 age group where the mean difference was .41198. The results indicated that young age groups have significantly higher OCBB than older age groups. This finding is in parallel with the earlier studies in the literature (O'Guinn and Faber 1989; D'Astous 1990; Lee, Lennon & Rudd, 2000; Kyrios, et al., 2004; Dittmar, 2005; Akagun Ergin, 2010)

In order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on income groups in both American and Turkish consumers, ANOVA test was employed. The results showed that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on income groups in both cultures. The results indicate that OCBB can be seen in any income group in both cultures. This finding is found to be in parallel with previous studies (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989; D'Astous, et al., 1990; Christenson et al. 1994; Roberts, 1998; Dittmar, 2005).

Lastly, in order to test if OCBB statistically significantly differs based on education in both American and Turkish consumers One-Way ANOVA test was

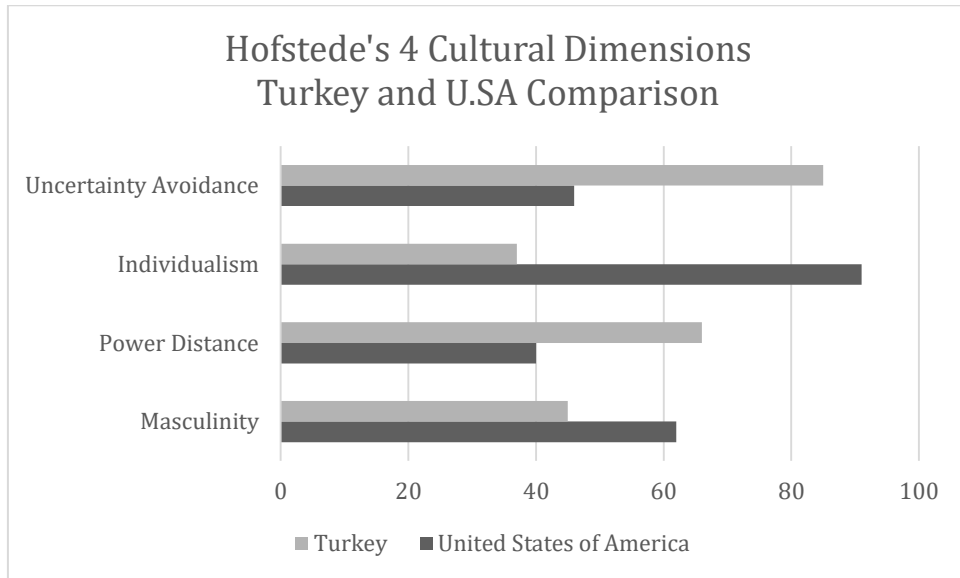
employed. The results of the ANOVA test concluded that OCBB does not statistically significantly differ based on education in both cultures.

***Turkey and United States Differences:***

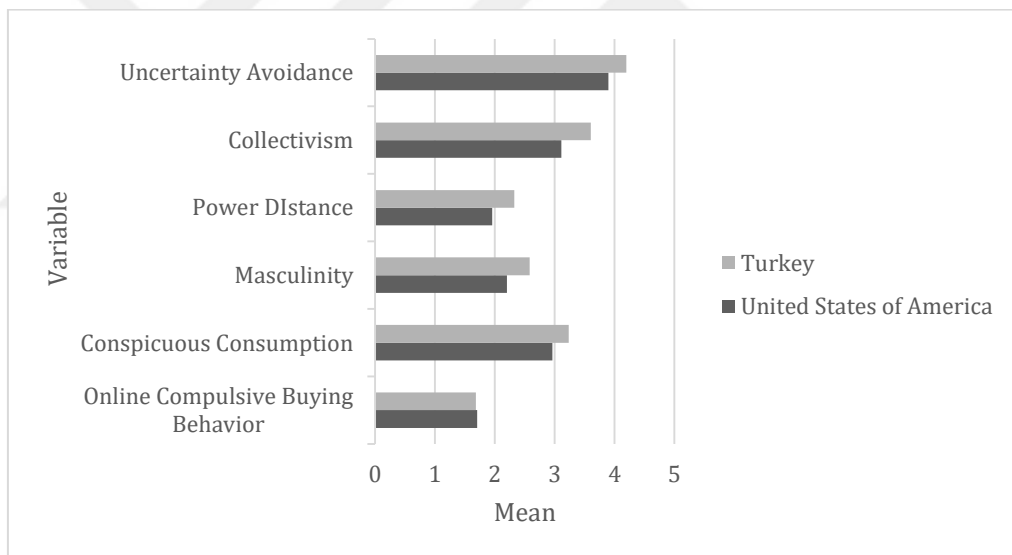
The results of MANOVA revealed that there is a significant impact of nationality on all dependent variables except OCBB together  $F(6, 1233) = 17769.79$ ,  $p < 001$ . In addition, there was a significant between-subject effect on every dependent variable but OCBB: conspicuous consumption  $F(1, 22.99) = 21.82$ ,  $p < 001$ , masculinity  $F(1, 44.80) = 47.65$ ,  $p < 001$ , collectivism  $F(1, 74.25) = 132.05$ ,  $p < 001$ , uncertainty avoidance  $F(1, 28.39) = 74.52$ ,  $p < 001$ , power distance  $F(1, 42.55) = 76.17$ ,  $p < 001$ , and OCBB had  $p > 01$  where  $p = .565$ . Differences are presented in Figure 9 below.

All cultural variables at individual level were found to be mostly in parallel with Hofstede's national culture studies except masculinity. In many studies Turkey is considered a slightly feminine culture at the edge of being masculine as a nation whereas United States is considered a highly masculine culture yet at the individual level, results (Figure 10) showed that Turkish consumers are more masculine than American consumers. Although culture is characterized at the national level, one should pay close attention if an individual demonstrates the same national culture at the individual level. This distinction becomes even more important when a nation consist of a diverse population and even more so in consumer behavior studies.

The results showed that Turkish consumers scored significantly higher on collectivism scale than Americans. Also, consumers in Turkey scored significantly higher on Power Distance scale than Americans and they scored significantly higher on Uncertainty Avoidance scale.



*Figure 8 –Four Cultural Dimensions Turkey and U.S.A National Comparison*



*Figure 9 - Comparison of American and Turkish Sample on all Variables*

Looking at CCO and OCBB, Turkish consumers scored significantly higher on conspicuous consumption than Americans whereas American consumers scored significantly higher on OCBB than Turks.

Conspicuous Consumption literature provides little information about why a certain culture would engage more in Conspicuous Consumption than another culture, however, there are studies suggesting individualist cultures are more

inclined to consume conspicuously (Souiden et al, 2011; Teimourpour and Hanzae, 2011). Also those studies have noted that desire for uniqueness, is known to be a core descriptive element of conspicuous consumption, is correlated negatively with collectivism. On the other hand, others showed that collectivistic cultures are more prone to positive evaluations of publicly visible possessions than consumers from individualistic cultures (Wong & Ahuvia, 1998). Therefore, it is difficult to attribute the difference in conspicuousness levels just to individualism/collectivism dimension.

Studies (Piron, 2000; Moon and Chan 2005; Kim and Zhang, 2014; Varman and Vikas 2005) have shown conspicuous consumption as a socially desirable way to converse affluence and social position in the societies with a large power distance and also those studies showed that consumers with high power-distance belief are more inclined towards status brands when compared to people with low level of power-distance belief.

The main reasons behind status purchases are demonstration of power and position; hence status purchases are more frequent in cultures with large power distance. Furthermore, in these cultures, power distance is used to explain importance of being different (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011); therefore, people believe that one should show his or her social status clearly and without disambiguation, because only then will other people show the respect that that person really deserves (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). In concordance with this principle are the results of a survey conducted in 2007 by European Media which showed that purchases of expensive perfumes and handbags are significantly correlated to power distance (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). To remind, Turkey scores significantly higher on Power Distance in both at the national level and individual level which could be one of the explanations why Conspicuous Consumption Orientation was higher in Turkish consumers than Americans. Also in people with high masculine orientation, expensive, unique, and luxury goods are important means that one uses to showcase success (Bezzaouia ,& Joanta, 2016) and high masculinity creates more conspicuous consumption (Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015). Turkish consumers scored

significantly higher on masculinity at the individual level compared to Americans as well and this could also shed light onto the difference in conspicuousness among Turkish and American consumers. On the other hand, one should not neglect the fact that there could be other factors such as personal and physiological traits that could potentially play role in CCO that were not part of the scope of this study.

Looking at the difference in OCBB in both culture, American consumers seem to score significantly higher. This result is in parallel with the findings in the literature where Caldwell-Harris and Aycicegi (2006) noted that individualism is correlated to more personality pathology including obsessive-compulsive disorders when compared to collectivism. Moreover, gambling, is known to be more prevalent in individualistic cultures. Also, individualistic societies and consumers positively evaluate active risk taking, and are less retraining towards gambling, which is an addictive and compulsive behavior (Ciarrocchi, Kirschner, & Fallik, 1991). Therefore, it can be said that the findings of this research are supporting the literature.

Research hypotheses and their results are summarized in Table 59 below.

**Table 67 – Research Hypotheses and Results**

<b>Hypothesis regarding the relationship between Conspicuous Consumption and OCBB</b>	
H1a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption Orientation and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.	Accepted
H1b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Conspicuous Consumption Orientation and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
<b>Hypothesis regarding the relationship between Cultural Dimensions and Conspicuous Consumption</b>	
H2a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.	Accepted

H2b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
H3a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.	Accepted
H3b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
H4a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in American consumers.	Accepted
H4b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
<b>Hypothesis regarding the relationship between Cultural Dimensions and OCBB</b>	
H5a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.	Accepted
H5b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Collectivism and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
H6a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers.	Accepted
H6b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Power Distance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.	Accepted
H7a: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers	Rejected
H7b: There is a statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers.	Rejected
H8a: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in American consumers	Accepted
H8b: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Online Compulsive Buying Behavior in Turkish consumers	Accepted
<b>Hypothesis regarding the Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption</b>	
H9a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers	Rejected
H9b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on gender in Turkish consumers	Rejected
H10a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers	Accepted
H10b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers	Accepted

H11a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers	Accepted
H11b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers	Accepted
H12a: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers	Rejected
H12b: Conspicuous Consumption Orientation statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers	Rejected
<b>Hypothesis regarding the Demographics and OCBB</b>	
H13a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on gender in American consumers	Accepted
H13b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on gender in Turkish consumers	Accepted
H14a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on age groups in American consumers	Accepted
H14b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on age groups in Turkish consumers	Accepted
H15a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on income groups in American consumers	Rejected
H15b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on income groups in Turkish consumers	Rejected
H16a: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on education in American consumers	Rejected
H16b: Online Compulsive Buying Behavior statistically significantly differs based on education in Turkish consumers	Rejected



## CONCLUSION

The need for understanding consumer's cultural orientations and their effects on consumer behavior is crucial in today's world. The study intended to address the gap in the literature by discovering the influence of cultural values on the two important outcomes of today's consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. Another goal of this research was to see whether conspicuous consumption orientation is linked with online compulsive buying behavior. Last but not least, it attempted to show how conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior varies across cultures and demonstrate the role of demographics.

Previous studies have been focusing only on one cultural dimension (IND/COLL or PD) at a time when conducting cross-cultural research and lack the theoretical framework that describes the relationship between each cultural dimension at the individual level and consumer's consciousness and compulsiveness. Moreover, online compulsive buying behavior as a whole has been paid attention largely in psychological investigations and lacks the required focus in culture and consumer behavior literature.

The primary objective of the study was to address the shortcomings in the literature and understand the impact of cultural dimensions at the individual level on two important outcomes of consumer society; conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. Secondly, this study also aimed to fill the gap in online compulsive buying behavior knowledge by showing that conspicuous consumption orientation is in fact in relation with online compulsive buying behavior despite the traditional belief that

compulsive consumers are purely addictive buyers and do not even use or show the products they compulsively acquire.

Furthermore, the third purpose was to discover and compare the number of compulsive buyer among consumers in Istanbul and Washington DC and draw a meaningful comparison.

Lastly, the study examined how cultural dimensions at the individual level, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior varies across Turkish and American consumers and demonstrated that demographics such as gender, age, income had significance in consumer's conspicuousness and compulsiveness.

This study managed to provide valuable information and contribution to the academia and marketing professionals by addressing the gap in the literature of cultural dimensions and its' relation with conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior. The study will also act as the first cross-cultural comparison between two nations that encompasses culture, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior.

The study was successful in discovering the relationships between cultural dimensions at the individual level and two important outcomes of consumer society which have not been closely examined in the literature.

Specifically, the study successfully showcased the influence of cultural dimensions (COLL, PD, MASC and UA) on conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior in both American and Turkish consumers with differences in the power of each variables' effect on dependent variables. More specifically, PD was found to be the dominant dimension affecting conspicuousness and online compulsive buying behavior in Turkish sample whereas COLL/IND had the greatest impact on Americans. Also, COLL, PD and UA were discovered to be in relation with OCBB but MASC was not and this finding is considered to be a great contribution to the

literature where the relationship examined for the first time. The research model tested for each country were found to be explanatory. Also, the study demonstrated that there is a moderate and positive correlation between consumer's conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior which can be considered as another contribution to the body of knowledge despite the general belief that compulsive buyers are just addicted consumers that have no interest in displaying their possessions. Furthermore, the study showed and discussed the variations in cultural dimensions at the individual level, conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying behavior across Turkish and American consumers and demonstrated that demographics such as gender, age, income and education play a significant role in consumer's conspicuousness and compulsiveness.

This study contains valuable information and managerial implications for marketing professionals who want to implement different marketing strategies in different cultural settings. The greatest impact on conspicuous consumption orientation was power distance in Turkey and collectivism/individualism in United States. Thus, one of the important recommendations would be to consider designing marketing strategies where the effort is more geared towards a way that the product promotes and clearly distinguishes one's social status in Turkish market whereas in the U.S, that emphasis can be put more on the uniqueness, rareness and exclusivity of the product. This approach can be useful when a certain brand desire to position itself as a consciously consumed brand or product which in turn can increase their customer base in corresponding culture.

On the other hand, as an unwanted outcome of consumer society, online compulsive buying behavior was found to be directly correlated with conspicuous consumption which shows that the construct should be examined more closely. Future studies should study online compulsive buying behavior by introducing more variables from not only consumer behavior literature but also personality traits into the model in an attempt to understand if online compulsive buying differs from regular compulsive behavior and uncover more

about the nature of compulsiveness in online realm. That way, the findings can become even more valuable to be used in marketing promotions, online shopping website designs and consumer educations when targeting Americans and Turkish consumers.

Study showed that young adults are more inclined to both conspicuous consumption and online compulsive buying behavior and women engage more in OCBB which could be another opportunity to further focus the study on young adults and pay more attention to a comparison among younger generations.

Based on Faber and O'Guinn (1992) formula, 41 participants out of 643 were compulsive buyers in Turkish sample which equates to 6.38% whereas in American sample, 53 participants out of 597(8.88%) were compulsive buyers. These numbers are in parallel with the study of O'Guinn and Faber (1989) where they've found 6% compulsiveness in American consumers and with a later study of Faber and O'Guinn (1992) conducted in American consumers where they've found 8% compulsiveness reminding that those studies were not conducted specifically for internet shopper. Therefore, it is another contribution to the literature to showcase the amount of compulsive consumers among online shoppers in Turkey and the U.S.

All cultural variables at individual level were found to be mostly in parallel with Hofstede's national culture studies except masculinity. In many studies Turkey is considered a slightly feminine culture at the edge of being masculine as a nation whereas United States is considered a highly masculine culture yet at the individual level, the study showed Turkish consumers are more masculine than American consumers. Although culture is characterized at the national level, it is crucial to see if an individual demonstrates the same national culture at the individual level. This distinction is even more important when a nation consist of a diverse population and even more so in consumer behavior studies.

Despite the fact that cultural orientations can differ at the individual level compared to nation's culture, American consumers scoring significantly lower in masculinity dimension than Turkish consumers might indicate that a different scale could be a better fit in future research because the questions in masculinity questionnaire was gender and workplace focused and the shift in American culture towards more gender inclusive language might have hindered the results.

Other limitations of the study should not be ruled out when analyzing the findings. Primary limitation is that convenience sampling was employed because of the budget and time constraints of the research. Also, only one city from each country (Istanbul and Washington DC) were included in the study. Therefore one should consider these limitations when generalizing the findings to Turkey and United States.

Thus, it would be beneficial to replicate the study in other areas of each country. This approach would also provide additional insight into comparing different parts of each nation and help marketing managers target certain parts of each country differently based on various cultural orientations, conspicuousness and compulsiveness that might exist.

Also, since it is known that cultural dimensions can influence the group of product or services chosen, future studies may include an investigation of products that people consume which could shed light into which product group is predominantly used conspicuously and compulsively in different cultures. Also since the study showed that in Turkish sample, PD had the greatest impact on conspicuous consumption orientation and online compulsive buying whereas in American sample it was IND/COLL dimension, comparing the choice of products consumed conspicuously and compulsively in each culture can not only have great managerial implications but also can lead to development of better consumer education programs in the society.

Moreover in Turkish sample, majority of respondents were married (59.3%) whereas in the U.S sample, majority of respondents were single (50.4%) which is not surprising considering the cultural differences and importance put into marriage in each culture. Even though there were no significant differences in gender and age groups among samples, there were some differences in income groups which indicates that the findings containing age groups should be generalized carefully. In future research, a quota sampling might be introduced to make sure that there is no significant differences occur in income groups among samples.

Furthermore, literature review hinted that cultural dimensions could impact many behavioral patterns in purchasing decision and this study successfully showcased the impact of cultural dimensions on two important outcomes of consumer society (CCO and OCBB). Therefore it is reasonable to suspect that cultural dimensions at the individual level may also be linked with other important elements within consumer behavior literature. Although it was not part of the scope of this research, it would be of significant interest to stretch this study further and with a thorough literature review include relevant variables such as impulse buying, brand loyalty, fashion orientation, advertisement and brand attitude, etc., and investigate the impact of cultural dimensions at the individual level on each of them in a cross-cultural setting which in turn would be a great addition to the body of knowledge and can further assist marketing professionals develop better strategies for different cultures.

Lastly, the cultural orientation scale (CVSCALE) used in this study considers each orientation as unidimensional constructs yet some indicators suggest that more than one dimension for each orientation can exist at the individual level even though those scales have not been thoroughly tested in cross-cultural settings. For instance, evidence shows that individualism/collectivism tendencies can coexist in one person (Sharma, 2010). Also, same study suggests masculinity can have a sub-dimension called gender equality. Therefore, using a scale that treats each cultural orientation as unidimensional constructs should be a consideration in later studies.

As a conclusion, the study successfully addressed the gap in the literature by shedding more light onto culture's role at the individual level in consumer society's important outcomes with several contributions to the literature, actionable insights for marketing managers and ideas for further research.



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## APPENDIX A

Doctoral research about consumer culture and buying behaviour

Welcome to the Survey

You are invited to participate in a web-based online survey on measuring consumer culture and buying behaviour in the United States. This is a research project being conducted by Berk Benli, a student at Isik University. It should take approximately 6-7 minutes to complete.

You may contact the researcher at any time about the study or the procedures at [berk.benli@isik.edu.tr](mailto:berk.benli@isik.edu.tr) or research supervisor, Prof. Dr. Murat Ferman at [muratferman@beykent.edu.tr](mailto:muratferman@beykent.edu.tr)



\* 1.

#### PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

#### BENEFITS

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this research study. However, your responses may help us learn more about the consumer behaviour in the United States.

#### RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

#### CONFIDENTIALITY

Your survey answers will be sent to a link at SurveyMonkey.com where data will be stored in a password protected electronic format. Survey Monkey does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. Therefore, your responses will remain anonymous. No one will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study.

**ELECTRONIC CONSENT:** Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for your records. Clicking on the "Agree" button indicates that

You have read the above information

You voluntarily agree to participate

- Agree
- Disagree

Doctoral research about consumer culture and buying behaviour

\* 2. Are you a U.S citizen?

Yes

No

\* 3. In the last 6 months, have you shopped online?

Yes

No

4. Do you live in Washington D.C metro area?

Yes

No

Doctoral research about consumer culture and buying behaviour

\* 5. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
It says something to people around me when I buy a high priced brand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I buy some products because I want to show others that I am wealthy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would be a member in a business men's/business women's posh club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Given a chance, I would hang a famous painter's art piece in my living room	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would buy an interesting and uncommon version of a product otherwise available with a plain design, to show others that I have an original taste	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Others wish they could match my eyes for beauty and taste	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
By choosing a product having an exotic look and design, I show my friends that I am different	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I choose products or brands to create my own style that everybody admires	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always buy top-of-the-line products	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often try to find a more interesting version of the run-of-the-mill products, because I want to show others that I enjoy being original	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I show others that I am sophisticated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 6. Please indicate how often you have done each of the following things

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I felt others would be horrified if they knew my online spending habits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I bought things online even though I couldn't afford them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I bought something online when I knew I didn't have enough money in the bank to cover it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I bought something online in order to make myself feel better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I felt anxious or nervous on days I didn't shop online	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I made only the minimum payments on my credit cards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 7. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
If I have any money left at the end of the pay period, I just have to spend it online.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 8. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 9. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or the work place).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Group success is more important than individual success.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 10. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Standardised work procedures are helpful.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Instructions for operations are important.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 11. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Demographic Information

Please answer the below demographic questions.

\* 12. What is your age? (Please enter a value between 15 - 79)

\* 13. What is your gender? Please enter your gender in the box below

14. Ethnic origin: Please specify your ethnicity.

- White  Native American or American Indian
- Hispanic or Latino  Asian / Pacific Islander
- Black or African American
- Other (please specify)

15. What is your Marital Status ?

- Single
- Married

16. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than high school degree
- High school degree or equivalent (e.g., GED)
- Some college but no degree
- Associate degree
- Bachelor / College Degree
- Graduate degree
- Doctoral degree

17. What is your employment status?

- Unemployed
- Part time
- Full time
- Other (please specify)

18. Which best describes your experience level?

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="radio"/> Intern                 | <input type="radio"/> Vice President        |
| <input type="radio"/> Entry Level            | <input type="radio"/> Senior Vice President |
| <input type="radio"/> Associate              | <input type="radio"/> C level executive     |
| <input type="radio"/> Manager                | <input type="radio"/> President or CEO      |
| <input type="radio"/> Senior Manager         | <input type="radio"/> Owner                 |
| <input type="radio"/> Director               |   |
| <input type="radio"/> Other (please specify) |   |

\* 19. Please enter your yearly gross personal income

\* 20. Please enter your yearly gross household income



## Arařtırmaya Hořgeldiniz

Deęerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Iřık Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Doktora Öğrencisi Berk Benli tarafından, tüketicilerin satın alma kültür ve alışkanlıklarını deęerlendirmek amacıyla gerekleřtirilmektedir. Arařtırma sonucunda elde edilen veriler, sadece akademik amaçla kullanılacak olup, sizden herhangi bir kimlik bilgisi talep edilmeyecektir.

Arařtırma ile ilgili tüm sorularız için; berk.benli@isik.edu.tr adresinden arařtırmacıya veya muratferman@beykent.edu.tr eposta adresinden Doktora Danıřmanı Prof. Dr. Murat Ferman'a ulařabilirsiniz.

\* 1. Anketimiz, tahmini olarak, 7 dakikanızı alacak řekilde tasarlanmıřtır.

Bu alıřmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. alıřmanın amacına ulařması için sizden beklenen, tüm soruları dikkatli okuyarak size en uygun gelen cevabı seçmenizdir.

Bu formu okuyup onaylamanız arařtırmaya katılmayı kabul ettięiniz anlamına gelecektir. Ancak, alıřmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda alıřmayı bırakma hakkına da sahiptiriz. Bu alıřmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen akademik amaç ile kullanılacak olup, sizden kimlik bilgisi istenmeyecektir. İsim, eposta adresi, IP adresi gibi sizi ayırt edici hiçbir bilgi toplanmamaktadır.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okuduęunuzu ve arařtırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmak istedięinizi onaylıyor musunuz?

- Evet, onaylıyorum
- Hayır, onaylamıyorum

## Luften ařağıdaki sorulara cevap veriniz

\* 2. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti vatandařı mısınız?

- Evet
- Hayır

\* 3. 14 yařından büyük müsünüz ?

- Evet
- Hayır

4. Son 6 ay içinde, online alışveriş yaptınız mı?

Evet

Hayır

5. İstanbul'da mi ikamet ediyorsunuz?

Evet

Hayır



\* 6. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Yüksek fiyatlı bir marka satın aldığı zaman bu, çevremdekilere benim hakkımda bir şeyler anlatır	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bazı ürünleri diğer insanlara varlıklı olduğumu göstermek istediğim için satın alırım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
İş adamlarının/kadınlarının müdavimi olduğu lüks bir kulübün üyesi olmak isterim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
İmkânım olsaydı, odama ünlü bir ressamın resmini asmak isterdim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diğer insanlara orijinal olmaktan hoşlandığımı göstermek için, ürünlerin ilginç ve yaygın olmayan türlerini ya da özel yapım ürünleri satın almayı isterim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Herkes benim güzellik ve zevk anlayışıma sahip olmak ister	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Egzotik bir görünüm ve tasarıma sahip ürünler seçerek arkadaşlarıma farklı olduğumu gösteririm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ürün ya da markaları, herkesin hayran olacağı kendi stilimi yaratmak için seçerim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bir ürün kategorisi içinden her zaman en iyisini satın alırım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Genellikle ürünlerin daha ilginç türlerini bulmaya çalışırım, çünkü diğer insanlara orijinal olmaktan hoşlandığımı göstermek isterim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diğer insanlara ne kadar zevkli olduğumu gösteririm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 7. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadeleri ne sıklıkla gerçekleştiriyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Her zaman	Çoğu Zaman	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
Online harcama alışkanlığımı öğrenmeleri durumunda insanların dehşete kapılacaklarını düşünürüm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maddi gücüm yetmese bile internet üzerinden birşeyler satın alırım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bankada satın almak istediğim şeyi karşılayacak param olmadığını bile çeşitli yöntemlere (kredi kartıyla ödeme, ek hesaptan kullanma veya çek yazma gibi) başvurarak online alışveriş yaparım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için internet üzerinden birşeyler satın alırım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online alışveriş yapmadığım günlerde kendimi gergin ve endişeli hissederim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kredi kartı ekstremi sadece minimum (asgari ödeme) tutarını öderim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 8. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadeye ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Ödemelerimi ve gerekli harcamalarımı yaptıktan sonra ay sonunda kalan param olsa, onu da online alışveriş yaparak harcama gereği duyarım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 9. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Erkekler için profesyonel bir kariyere sahip olmak kadınların profesyonel kariyere sahip olmasından daha önemlidir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Erkekler problemleri genellikle mantıksal analiz ile kadınlar ise genellikle sezgileri ile çözerler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Zor problemlerin çözümü, daha çok erkeklere ait özellikler olan aktif ve sert bir yaklaşım gerektirir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Erkekler, bazı mesleklere kadınlardan daima daha iyidirler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 10. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Bireyler, gerektiğinde grup için (toplum, takım, ekip, vb) kendi çıkarlarını feda etmelidirler(okulda veya işyerinde)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bireyler, zor durumdayken bile grup ile (toplum, takım, ekip, vb) durnalı ve beraber hareket etmelidirler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grubun (toplum, takım, ekip, vb) refahı, bireysel kazançlardan daha önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grubun başarısı (toplum, takım, ekip, vb) bireysel başarıdan daha önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bireyler, ancak toplumun veya dahil olduğu grubun refahını da hesaba katarak kendi hedeflerinin peşine düşmelidirler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gruba sadakat (topluma, takıma, ekibe, vb), bireysel amaçlar zarar görse bile, teşvik edilmelidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 11. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Benden bir iş yapmam istendiğinde, ne yapmam istendiğini bilmem için verilecek talimatların detaylı olarak açıklanması önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yapılacak işlerde yol, yöntem ve talimatların sıkı bir şekilde takip edilmesi önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Benden ne beklediği konusunda beni bilgilendirdiği için kurallar ve düzenlemeler önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yapılacak işlerde standart çalışma yol ve yöntemlerinin olması faydalıdır	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yapılacak işlerde açıklayıcı bilgilerin olması önemlidir	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 12. Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne ölçüde katılıyorsunuz? Lütfen belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Daha yüksek pozisyondaki insanlar kararlarını, çoğunlukla, kendilerinden daha düşük pozisyondakilere danışmadan veremeler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Daha yüksek pozisyonda olan insanlar, kendilerinden daha düşük pozisyondaki insanların görüşlerine çok sık başvurmamalıdır	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Daha yüksek pozisyondaki insanlar, kendilerinden daha düşük pozisyondaki insanlarla sosyal etkileşimden kaçınmalıdır	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Düşük pozisyonlarda çalışan insanlar kendilerinden daha yüksek pozisyonlardaki insanların verdiği kararlar ile ters düşmemeliler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Daha yüksek pozisyonlardaki insanlar, önemli görevleri kendilerinden daha düşük pozisyondaki insanlara vermemeliler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

#### Demografik Bilgiler

\* 13. Kaç Yaşındasınız? (Lütfen 15 - 79 arasında bir sayı giriniz)

\* 14. Cinsiyetiniz (Lütfen cinsiyetinizi aşağıya yazınız.)



\* 15. Medeni Durumunuz

- Bekar  
 Evli

\* 16. Eđitim durumunuz (En son mezun olduđunuz okul)

- İlkokul mezunu  
 Ortaokul mezunu  
 Lise ve dengi okul mezunu  
 Ön Lisans Mezunu  
 Lisans Mezunu  
 Yüksek Lisans Mezunu  
 Doktora Mezunu

\* 17. İş Durumunuz (Mevcut İş Durumunuzu Seçiniz)

- Tam Zamanlı Çalışan  
 Yarı Zamanlı Çalışan  
 İşsiz  
 Ev Hanımı  
 Diğer (Lütfen belirtin)

\* 18. İş tecrübenizi en iyi hangi seçenek yansıtır ?

- Stajyer  
 İşçi / Hizmetli  
 Memur / Ofis Çalışanı  
 Nitelikli uzman, mühendis, teknik eleman  
 Orta Düzey Yönetici  
 Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)
- Üst Düzey Yönetici  
 Genel Müdür Yardımcısı  
 Genel Müdür  
 İş Yeri Sahibi

\* 19. Aylık (Net TL) Kişisel Gelinizi Giriniz (Noktalama kullanmadan sadece rakam giriniz, örneğin: 3500)

## **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Berk Benli was born on 7 September 1988, in Ankara. He received his B.S. degree in Computer Technologies and Information Systems in 2009 from Bilkent University and M.Sc. degree in 2010 in Computing and Security from King's College London. Since 2011, he has been working as a Technology Sales Consultant at various IT companies in EMEA and North America regions.