

Elizabethtown College

JayScholar

Business: Student Scholarship & Creative Works

Business

Spring 2020

Segmentation: The Forgotten Marketing Segment?

Dylan Warner

Follow this and additional works at: <https://jayscholar.etown.edu/busstu>



Part of the Business Commons

Segmentation: The Forgotten Marketing Segment?

By

Dylan Warner

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Honors in the Discipline in
Business and the Elizabethtown College Honors Program

May 12th, 2020

Thesis Director (signature required)



Department Chair (signature required)

Croislanc



**Honors Senior Thesis
Release Agreement
Form**

The High Library supports the preservation and dissemination of all papers and projects completed as part of the requirements for the Elizabethtown College Honors Program (Honors Senior Thesis). Your signature on the following form confirms your authorship of this work and your permission for the High Library to make this work available. By agreeing to make it available, you are also agreeing to have this work included in the institutional repository, JayScholar. If you partnered with others in the creation of this work, your signature also confirms that you have obtained their permission to make this work available.

Should any concerns arise regarding making this work available, faculty advisors may contact the Director of the High Library to discuss the available options.

Release Agreement

I, as the author of this work, do hereby grant to Elizabethtown College and the High Library a non-exclusive worldwide license to reproduce and distribute my project, in whole or in part, in all forms of media, including but not limited to electronic media, now or hereafter known, subject to the following terms and conditions:

Copyright

No copyrights are transferred by this agreement, so I, as the author, retain all rights to the work, including but not limited to the right to use in future works (such as articles or books). With this submission, I represent that any third-party content included in the project has been used with permission from the copyright holder(s) or falls within fair use under United States copyright law (<http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#107>).

Access and Use

The work will be preserved and made available for educational purposes only. Signing this document does not endorse or authorize the commercial use of the content. I do not, however, hold Elizabethtown College or the High Library responsible for third party use of this content.

Term

This agreement will remain in effect unless permission is withdrawn by the author via written request to the High Library.

Signature: Deylan Warner Date: 5/11/20

Table of Contents

Abstract	3
Literature Review	4
<i>Background</i>	4
<i>Introduction to Segmentation</i>	4
<i>Early Types of Segmentation</i>	5
<i>More Recent Segmentation Types</i>	8
<i>Marketing Research on Socialization</i>	10
<i>Influence of Groups on Behavior</i>	11
<i>Cultural Impacts of Groups</i>	14
<i>Structure of a Socialization Segment</i>	15
<i>Proposed Model and Research Questions</i>	20
Methodology	22
Results and Discussion	23
Limitations and Future Research	31
References	34
Appendices	46

Abstract

Segmentation has been a part of the marketing process since the 1950's. It has grown over time to include four main categories: geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioral. Yet while there are hundreds of segmentation strategies within these four categories, to this point none of these approaches focus on the social behaviors of consumers, in spite of the wide use of socialization in many other areas of marketing. The current study seeks to explore the possibility of adding a new set of variables to the current segmentation process related to the way a consumer chooses to socialize. This study is the first step in a proposed three part process consisting of exploratory research through focus groups, additional qualitative research through ethnography and projective techniques, and quantitative hypothesis testing through surveys and experiments. For this initial step, focus groups were conducted in order to explore the structure of a model that could incorporate socialization into the existing segmentation process. Results demonstrate that there are a number of variables pertaining to socialization that could potentially be incorporated into a final model, including assertive and cooperative behaviors, proximity of a group to the decision, decision importance as it relates to relevant social groups, and cultural contexts related to social behaviors.

Literature Review

Background

Segmentation, the process of dividing consumers into groups that are similar to one another and different from others, is a core part of the marketing process. It is typically one of the first steps marketers use when executing a new marketing strategy. Due to the importance of understanding the changing needs of consumers, segmentation is constantly evolving. One potential area that holds promise is socialization. Socialization is a key component to human behavior that has been increasingly studied by social scientists. While socialization has been incorporated into numerous aspects of marketing and consumer behavior, it has never been used as a variable within a segmentation strategy. This paper seeks to examine the possibility of incorporating such a socialization layer into the existing framework of segmentation. The goal is to enhance the way segmentation is conducted by giving marketers a new method with which to put consumers into groups. If successful, this new segmentation layer could prove useful in grouping otherwise dissimilar consumers.

Introduction to Segmentation

Segmentation arose in marketing as a response to the problems of overgeneralization that were on the minds of marketing researchers during the 1950's (Smith 1956). Prior to the introduction of the concept to the field, marketers often generalized all of their target customers as similar in terms of their needs and the proper targeting tactics needed to reach them. In fact, many did not consider marketing a scientific pursuit until right before segmentation was first brought into the field (Blankenship 1949).

Segmentation was first introduced to the field of marketing in 1956 by Wendell Smith in the *Journal of Marketing*. Smith defined segmentation as the, "redefinition of segments as

individual markets.” That is to say, separating a group of consumers into multiple segments, each of which will be treated as a separate market when a marketing strategy is deployed. Smith described the benefits of segmentation by saying it, “provides for greater maximization of consumer or user satisfactions,” and, “tends to build a more secure market position.”

From here, the field of marketing grew rapidly and adopted segmentation as one of the core parts of the marketing process (Vinuales et. al 2019). Segmentation is the first part of the three-step process, which is usually described as segmentation, targeting, and positioning. In the modern day, segmentation is defined as, “An ongoing and iterative process of examining and grouping potential and actual buyers with similar product needs into subgroups that can then be targeted with an appropriate marketing mix in such a way as to facilitate the objectives of both parties.” (Mitchell & Wilson 1998)

Segmentation is typically broken up into four broad areas: geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioral segmentation (Weinstein 2006). Each of these areas focuses on different aspects about consumers that could influence their purchase decisions and behavior. These different segmentation types are often used simultaneously and in conjunction to achieve the most accurate segments to be targeted. This model has been critiqued by some in the field who believe it does not provide enough flexibility for all firms (Shapiro & Bonoma 2014). However, on the whole, it is still the dominant model used in modern marketing, so it is the model that will be analyzed and elaborated on in this paper.

Early Types of Segmentation

Geographic segmentation is the process of segmenting a market based on location of the consumer(s) in question (Wedel & Kamakura 2010). This location could be as broad as a continent, or as narrow as individual neighborhoods and streets. Geographic segmentation is

often cited as the most commonly employed method of segmentation due to the low costs associated with market research and data access (Weinstein 2006). Geographic segmentation is also often used as a first step to creating smaller market segments (Hunt & Arnett 2004). For example, a firm may choose a geographic region such as Pennsylvania to target, and then further segment that geographic area using one of the other four dimensions. One example of geographic segmentation is the way Kellogg's offers different food and beverage choices to different regions of the world based on common tastes in those areas. Soy Sauce Pringles are commonly found in Asia, but they are not sold in many stores in the United States (Pringles Potato Crisps 2016).

Demographic segmentation is based on demographic factors such as household income, gender, age, career, and ethnicity (Weinstein 2006). This type of segmentation is also widely used due to the availability of this type of information and the ease of collection (McDonald & Dunbar 2013). Much of this information can be found using simple surveys and data from the U.S. Census, which makes it accessible to a broad range of marketers with varying resources. A classic example of demographic segmentation is the difference in marketing to men and women in hygienic products. Dove items marketed to women traditionally have flower and fruit-based scents, bright colors, and artistic imagery. Dove products marketed to men have utilitarian scents, darker colors, and little to no imagery (Body Wash 2020).

One problem with both geographic and demographic segmentation is that they can be prone to stereotypes. Research by Giddens (1991) and Harrison, Yang, & Moyo (2017) demonstrate that marketing based on demographic factors sometimes relies on and reinforces stereotypes around gender and race in society. There is danger in geographic and demographic segmentation because one's customers may cross categories. When faced with product attributes or promotional messages that are based on demographic and geographic factors, consumers may

feel left out if they are not being marketed to due to something like their age. Many companies have come under fire recently for promotions that appeal to stereotypes (Chiu 2019).

Another issue with geographic and demographic segmentation is that it may not capture meaningful differences that affect purchase decisions in some industries. In the past, some viewed these types of segmentation as more viable because people identified more strongly with groups such as their race and gender (Hurst et. al 2007). However, some firms in the modern day are choosing to interact with identity in a more complex way. For example, in the past, many social researchers believed that TV was targeted to different ethnic groups, evidenced by the difficulty of shows featuring African Americans to attract white audiences (Lynch 2019). But recently, Netflix announced that their viewers cannot be segmented based on demographic or geographic factors because those factors often have little impact on a person's genre preferences, sense of humor, etc. (Lynch 2018) Instead, Netflix has moved to a "taste communities" approach to segmentation which uses primarily psychographic variables.

A third common criticism of geographic and demographic segmentation is that it does not always provide accurate groupings for marketers. Traditional segmentation approaches have sometimes been accused of creating groups of consumers that do not hold unifying factors among them that matter (Ernst & Dolnicar 2018). People of varying geodemographic backgrounds can often be more similar than those they share a background with. These similarities can create problems for marketers who use one positioning strategy with people they believe to be similar but are actually quite different. Estimates from Google show that many companies lose time and money from this segmentation mistake (Sivanandan 2018).

In spite of these criticisms, geographic and demographic segmentation still play key roles in marketing. Many marketers choose to combine these types of segmentation with other types to be able to create an effective synergy between variables and unlock new insights (Wells 1975).

More Recent Segmentation Types

In the 1970's, marketers created psychographic segmentation (Curtis 2006). This type of segmentation relies on the way consumers live their lives and behave in ordinary circumstances (Wells 1975). Psychographics are not bound by any particular geodemographic variable and are instead often used in conjunction with those variables. One popular subset of psychographic segmentation is lifestyle segmentation, which looks at consumers in terms of how they choose to spend their time and what goals they pursue (Mitchell 1983). Target lifestyles are common in modern brand's market strategies. Red Bull focuses on, "top athletes, busy professionals, college students, and travelers," while Supreme states they are, "working with generations of artists, photographers, designers, musicians, filmmakers, and writers who defied conventions." (Red Bull Inc. 2020, The Carlyle Group 2020). Additionally, targeting a lifestyle a consumer wants to have can be just as effective for some types of products (Salmon 2008). Another type of psychographic research examines consumer personality profiles using insights from psychology (Barry & Weinstein 2009). For example, a firm may target those who are open to new experiences, or those with higher levels of neuroticism. These types of segmentation have proven effective when more traditional methods do not segment a target group effectively for the firm's needs (Seguara & Strehlau 2012).

The final segmentation type is behavioral segmentation, which focuses on the way a consumer responds to a particular product in terms of preexisting knowledge, prior interactions, and opinions of the product (Wells et. al 2010). This type is typically broken into two subtypes:

occasion and benefit. Occasion segmentation focuses on the various occasions consumers might use a product for, such as celebration or indulgence (Sudo et al 2009). Confectionary companies often use this type of segmentation due to their high volume of seasonal sales (National Confectioner's Association 2020). Benefit segmentation is centered on understanding what benefits a consumer intends to gain by using the product, such as getting somewhere quickly or enjoying time with friends (Wells et. al 2010). Benefit segmentation has been cited as an effective way to reduce the chance of marketing myopia (Levitt 2008). Marketing myopia is when a firm focuses marketing efforts on the wrong reason for a consumer purchasing a product, such as a dry cleaning business seeing their firm as one that provides dry cleaning, rather than as a firm that cleans clothing. As Levitt (2008) cites in his book, companies that do not focus on the want or need their products truly satisfy are destined to be beaten by a competitor who finds a better way to fulfill that want or need.

Psychographic and behavioral segmentation are often presented as more effective due to their focus on factors that truly motivate individual decision making (Segura & Strehlau 2012). They avoid many of the common pitfalls of geographic and demographic segmentation discussed earlier. They are often combined with geographic and demographic segmentation to great effect, such as segmenting a market first into men and women, and then by their personality or buying habits (Wells 1975). However, there is room within segmentation for a layer that focuses on the aspects of how a person socializes that is not currently accounted for in the discipline. The focus of this paper is to understand what role, if any, a socialization layer can play within the current framework of market segmentation.

Marketing Research on Socialization

While it has yet to be applied to segmentation in any meaningful way, there is a great deal of existing research in marketing regarding the power of social groups to influence consumers. Marketers have especially taken interest in a concept known as social identity (Champniss et. al 2015). Social identity is the part of a person's concept of themselves that they derive from being the member of a particular group. Not every group will have an impact on social identity; rather, the consumer decides which groups they belong to that they wish to incorporate into their social identity (Reed & Forehand 2011). When a consumer is making a purchase, they may take into consideration how it will impact their status within groups they care about. Social identity has been demonstrated to impact media consumption (Saegert 1985), responses to promotional campaigns (Grier & Deshpandé 2001), and brand loyalty (Deshpandé & Stayman 1994).

Social identity serves an additional role in the diagnosticity of decision making by giving consumer models for appropriate behavior with which they can moderate their decisions (Feldman & Lynch Jr. 1988). By observing the behavior of others they trust, consumers can frame situations in terms they understand better to make a more informed decision. Plus, when others in a trusted group see information as important, diagnosticity effects can make that information more important to the consumer (Pieter et al 2020).

Marketers have also studied the effects of socialization in regard to reference groups. Reference groups are groups that consumers take cues from about their behavior (Johnson et al. 2002) One important type of reference group is an aspirational reference group, which is one that a consumer desires to be a member of but is not a member of currently (Mothersbaugh et. al 2020). Reference groups can be paired with opinion leaders to great effect. Reed (2002) found

that consumers are more easily influenced by a role model they associate with an aspirational group. Another way consumers use social groups is to make judgements about the social groups others belong to (Shavitt et. al 1992). This often-unconscious behavior occurs when a person sees someone else buying a product and makes an assumption about their social status. For example, a person buying a home-gardening kit may be judged as a homeowner with free time and a love of nature. These decisions about others often rely on heuristics, or mental shortcuts, and are made quickly (Aronson et. al 2018). These judgements could impact future purchases if the reference group the observed person is part of is salient to the consumer (Johnson et. al 2002).

Promotional research has also produced insights into socialization. Some industries have large portions of their promotional strategy structured around creating camaraderie and a sense of community between consumers. Sports teams often rely on creating a sense of community with their fans to sell tickets, while many high-status fashion brands cultivate communities around the enjoyment of their brands (Katz et. al 2018; Huddleston Jr. 2019). A commonly cited example of this strategy is the Harley Owner's Group club that played an instrumental role in Harley Davidson's success in the 21st century (Fournier & Lee 2015).

Influence of Groups on Behavior

Prior research shows that the groups consumers spend time with can both actively and passively influence the choices they make, demonstrating the importance of accounting for these factors when undertaking a segmentation process. Accounting for the psychological impact of the groups people choose to spend time with allows for a more comprehensive understanding of what factors allow marketers to segment consumers.

One of these factors to consider is the “group self,” which refers to an altered pattern of behavior a person can take on when they are part of a group and involved in group activities (Ellemers 2012). The group self can be seen in public events such as concerts and political rallies, when people often lose their sense of self in the crowd. This dissociation can often lead to tragedy, but it also provides important insight into the powerful impact a social setting can have on the choices a person makes. For example, several soldiers interviewed after the incident at Abu Ghraib in 2004 stated that they felt like their behavior was not their own during their time as guards at the prison. They explain their own behavior as if observing someone else, saying that they felt indifferent at the time and they could not explain why (Alkadry & Witt 2009).

This understanding of the group self provides insight into how an individual’s actions could conflict with their normal patterns of behavior when they are in the presence of a group. There is an inherent pressure to bring your behavior in line with what others are doing, regardless of whether that behavior is typical. The group self could cause someone to do things they would not have done in other contexts. For example, a person might not usually buy ice cream, but when they are with their friends who love ice cream, they mirror the behavior of the group and purchase it.

Another important element to consider is the effect of conformity. Conformity refers to the tendency of people to conform their behavior to that of the group around them (Izuma & Adolphs 2013). Whereas the group self is a feeling of dissociation that may even be unconscious, conformity is a conscious decision a person makes to follow the opinions and/or behaviors of a group they are in (Aronson et. al 2018). Conformity is typically subdivided in two ways: informational conformity and normative conformity.

Informational conformity is when a person conforms to the behavior of a group for the purpose of making the correct decision (Cialdini & Goldstein 2004). Research has shown that in situations where people are uncertain of the right choice, they frequently look to those around them for guidance (Shuper & Sorrentino 2004). This is because people trust the opinion of the majority in ambiguous situations, which makes them more likely to co-opt the opinions of others (Cialdini & Goldstein 2004). This effect becomes even stronger when the individual is surrounded by those they trust (Ross 1973). Consumer applications of this concept include reading online reviews before making a purchase, asking friends and family about their experiences with a product, and following the advice of a famous person when making a purchase decision.

Having a segmentation layer that focuses on social groups could provide insight into informational conformity by allowing marketers to better understand where consumers are getting their information about a particular purchase. For instance, consider the fact that Latino consumers tend to purchase less heavily processed foods (Poti et. al 2016). A white consumer who spends time with people who are Latino may learn from this group about why they choose to eat less heavily processed meals, which could inform their subsequent food purchases.

The other type of conformity that impacts consumer decision making is normative conformity. Normative conformity refers to the phenomenon of people making a choice to please the members of a group they belong to (Deutsch & Gerard 1955). In contrast to informational conformity, the person may have another course of action they want to take, but they change their behavior due to the pressure to fit in with their in-group (Aronson et. al 2018). This effect only tends to occur when it involves a social group the consumer is part of (Keasey et. al 1969). Consumer applications of this concept include purchasing a popular brand even though it is more

expensive, trying a new product because others are using it to avoid being left out, and purchasing a cutting-edge product to show off to others.

Adding a group-based layer would provide insight into the normative conformity making an impact on consumer's decisions. One example could be a person who is classified as a Thinker in terms of lifestyle segmentation, which means they make rational decisions and are not prone to wanting the latest and greatest (Mitchell 1983). But if their colleagues at work are Experiencers, and they dress according to the latest fashions, it is possible that the Thinker consumer may purchase fashionable clothing as well in order to fit in with their coworkers.

Cultural Impacts of Groups

Another important aspect to consider is the influence of cultural ideals around groups and socialization. The marketing process as it is understood today originated in western marketing research, and over the years has become much more inclusive of other cultures (Twohill 2018). Adding socialization as a marketing segment is one way to account for other cultures in contemporary segmentation.

One of the most cited distinctions between western and eastern cultures is the distinction between individualism and collectivism. Hofstede (2005) defines the difference as, "the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members." Individualism is the dominant mindset of Western cultures such as Europe and the United States, while collectivism is the dominant mindset of Eastern cultures, primarily in Asia (Wu 2007). Individualism is typically described as a perspective of focusing on the actions and consequences of one person's behavior (Hofstede 2005). For example, many Western pieces of fiction focus on one person as a hero who has to save others through their own hard work. Capitalism as an economic structure is often linked to the ideals of individualism (Billing 2018).

Collectivism, on the other hand, is typically defined as a perspective of focusing on the actions and consequences of the behavior of a group of people (Hofstede 2005). These groups could be family units, friend groups, or entire nations. Much of the philosophy of Asia ties back to putting the well-being of the group ahead of one's own individual prosperity (Kidd 2020). An examination of the films in the University of Hildesheim's Intercultural Film Database (2005), which subdivides films based on traits like individualism and collectivism, shows that stories with collectivist themes are more prevalent in Asian nations.

While the idea of individualism versus collectivism distinction is often examined from a Western versus Eastern perspective, there is evidence of collectivist values that come into play within both Eastern and Western cultures. The family unit has been shown to have large impacts on individual purchase behavior, regardless of location (Tsoi & Shchekoldin 2014). Children living in a household can have a demonstrable impact on the purchase behavior of their guardians in both Eastern and Western households (Şener 2011, Flurry & Burns 2005). Prior research seems to point to the conclusion that cultural contexts like collectivism and individualism can be found in all parts of the world and may have an impact on the way consumers socialize across cultures. A layer of segmentation that focuses on contextualizing one's decision making with the way they socialize may help add more cultural context to segmentation, both in terms of geographically-based culture and subcultures within those regions.

Structure of a Socialization Segment

If a segmentation layer based on social groups was introduced, it would have to be structured in a way that makes it productive for decision making, rather than just adding to the large pool of data marketers already have to draw from. There are attributes we can apply to

individual consumers that relate to the groups they spend time with and how much that influences their behavior. The framework for this segmentation layer starts with research by Latané (1981) into the way groups influence thinking. His social impact theory states that there are three primary factors about groups that affect the likelihood a person will be influenced by the group: the importance of the group, the immediacy of the group at the time the behavior is taking place, and the size of the group.

The first part of this layer's structure is to analyze the primary social groups the person in question spends time with and how important they are to the consumer in question. Luckily, a model for creating these groups is already in place. Research by Zhou et. al (2005) states that humans tend to have differing groups of people whom they rely upon for their social needs, but the sizes are relatively stable across cultures and time periods. Their research, which began with Dunbar's (1988) research into primates, shows that people have an average of 35 others who they might spend time with in social gatherings, but may not be considered trusted and meaningful connections. People also have an average of 15 associates that they trust significantly, and may choose to spend time with in one-on-one situations. Additionally, people have an average of five intimate connections, which are people they know and trust quite well. Any of these groups can contain family members, friends, work colleagues, etc.

A possible application of this model is to use the numbers given as averages to establish how social the consumer in question is. For example, a consumer who has significantly larger social groups than these Dunbar's numbers could be considered to be a high socializer, whereas a consumer with significantly smaller social groups than these numbers could be considered a low socializer. Consumers who fall closer to these averages could be considered medium socializers.

The second question to answer is how immediate the group is to the decision being made. Latané (1981) has demonstrated that the less physical distance there is between the person making a decision and the group applying the pressure, the more likely they are to be influenced by the group. This effect is likely due to the impersonal nature of social pressure applied from a distance (Greene 2003). Research shows that having social influence in close proximity to a person activates more of an emotional response, which makes them more likely to be swayed by the influence. To account for this effect, a variable known as Proximity of Group would account for how close a consumer usually is to their social groups when they make decisions.

The third part of social impact theory to come into play is the size of the group. Specifically, Latané (1981) focused on how many people are nearby when a decision is being made that could have social impact. In a later meta study, Bond (2005) determined that conformity to group expectations increases as a function of the number of people attempting to exert influence over the behavior. Using five different models, Bond determined that the social influence effects increase rapidly as more people are added to the group from zero, but the effects level out after more than three people are in the group. To account for the size of a group, a Group Size variable could account for the preferred size of groups the consumer typically spends their time with.

Social psychologists have found other aspects of group dynamics that can affect the influence a group has over a person. One such aspect is something called idiosyncrasy credits (Hollander 1960). Hollander's (1960) research shows that if a person has exhibited past behaviors that conform to the expectations of the group in question, they earn a sort of social currency with the group that they are then able to, "spend" at a later time to do something the group does not expect. Hollander (1960) also shows evidence that those who do not go along

with the group after a significant amount of time, then choose to do something counter to what the group expects, can actually increase their social influence. A variable accounting for Past Conforming Behavior seems appropriate due to these factors. If a consumer has conformed frequently in the past, it will be easier for them to avoid conforming to group expectations in the future. The best way to get information about past conforming behavior is to simply ask the consumer and those they know about the consumer's past behavior.

Perhaps one of the most well researched and powerful forces of group dynamics is unity. This concept is already understood well by marketers; promotional tactics focused on consensus are already widely in use (Freling & Dacin 2010). Multiple experiments have shown that when a group all behaves in the same way with no dissent, it is much more challenging to behave in a way that goes against what the group expects (Asch 1955, Allen & Levine 1969, Morris & Miller 1975). Since challenging a unified group is significantly more challenging, Opinion Diversity of Social Groups is important to account for. If a consumer spends time with groups that have a diverse array of opinions, they are less likely to conform than if they spend time with homogeneous groups. Measuring this effect could be challenging, since research shows people often know their friends less well than they claim to (Almaatouq et al. 2016). However, research by Friesen and Kammrath (2011) demonstrated that people tend to know a fair amount about the opinions of people they are close to. Therefore, asking a person about the diversity of opinions among their friend group should be an accurate way to measure this variable.

Additional research by Rahim, (1983), Schneer & Chanin (1987), and Van de Vliert & Euwema (1994) points to individual personality factors that affect the amount of influence a group has on a particular person. These factors apply in this context in two primary ways: assertiveness and cooperation. Cooperative behaviors are behaviors where a person gives into the

demands or requests of someone else (Nauta & Sanders 2000). These behaviors are usually part of a goal to appease others and strengthen relationships with another party (Kilmann & Thomas 1977). Cooperative behaviors are more common among introverted people and those with a high need to please others. Unsurprisingly, behavior that cedes to the other party is typically socially desirable, which means those who are attempting to please others are likely to employ cooperative behaviors when in group settings. Assertive behaviors are those where a person looks out for their own interests before considering the interests of others (Thomas 1992). This behavior is not inherently selfish; it is simply a mindset of concerning oneself primarily with one's own goals and motivations. Assertive behaviors are more common among more extroverted people and those with a low need to please others. This behavior is considered socially undesirable in most instances, so those who are attempting to please others are unlikely to use assertive behaviors in group settings.

This leads to the introduction of a personality variable: Assertive/Cooperative Personality. These personalities are correlated with other personality traits as explained in the literature, but not every extrovert uses assertive behavior, and not every introvert uses cooperative behavior (Kilmann & Thomas 1977). Therefore, it is prudent to consider this a separate personality factor from those typically accounted for in psychographic segmentation, which often includes traits such as extraversion and introversion (Wells 1975). Traditional psychographic profiles could easily incorporate information about assertive and cooperative behavior patterns based on prior research into these behaviors (Thomas 1992, Kilmann & Thomas 1977, Nauta & Sanders 2000).

There is also a cultural context to consider with this segmentation layer. Due to the cultural differences of collectivism versus individualism detailed in the literature, the culture a

consumer lives in will greatly impact the amount of influence a group has over that consumer (Tsoi & Shchekoldin 2014). In his book, *Individualism vs. Collectivism*, Triandis (1995) explains the distinctions between two types of self-views that can result from cultural contexts or other factors: independent view of self and interdependent view of self. People with an independent view of self see themselves as independent units that make decisions primarily based on internal factors (Markus & Kitayama 1991). This independent view of self leads people to be less influenced by the groups they are a part of when they are making decisions. People with an interdependent view of self, on the other hand, tend to account for other's opinions and ideas more when making decisions. Therefore, it is prudent to include a factor called Level of Independence/Interdependence to the socialization segmentation layer. This factor is heavily influenced by, but not inherently determined by, the culture a consumer grew up in (Triandis 1995).

Proposed Model and Research Questions

All of the above factors have potential to be included in a layer of segmentation focused on socialization: type of socializer (Latane 1981, Cialdini & Goldstein 2004, Dunbar 1988), proximity (Latane 1981, Greene 2003), group size (Latane 1981, Bond 2005), past behavior (Hollander 1960), group unity (Asch 1955, Allen & Levine 1969, Morris & Miller 1975), personality variables (Nauta & Sanders 2000, Kilmann & Thomas 1977, Thomas 1992), and cultural context (Triandis 1995, Tsoi & Shchekoldin 2014, Markus & Kitayama 1991). The focus of this study, therefore, is to begin to explore some of these socialization variables and their impacts on consumers. This study aims to find new insights related to these variables, and to determine if these methods of measurement are worth the investment to marketers. Once there is an understanding of which of these factors, if any, could have impact on the way consumers can

be categorized, and that these factors can be measured efficiently, building a model becomes possible.

RQ1: How does the size of the groups a consumer spends time with influence how they could be segmented?

Research by Latane (1981) states that larger groups create higher levels of social influence. Research by Cialdini and Goldstein (2004) shows that larger groups create higher levels of conformity. Research by Dunbar (1988) provides averages with which to measure how large of a group is considered normal and abnormal. Together, the insights from these pieces of literature allow for typical group size to be measured and compared to understand its effects on the way a consumer is segmented.

RQ2: How does a consumer's personality and socialization behavior patterns influence how they could be segmented?

Research by Nauta and Sanders (2000) and Kilmann and Thomas (1977) points to the impact cooperative behaviors can have on group influence, while research from Thomas (1992) shows the impact of assertive behaviors. Hollander (1960) makes the case for idiosyncrasy credits earned through past behavior that allow for more nonconformity in the future. These make the case for a behavior pattern that could add a layer to segment individuals.

RQ3: How does the typical proximity of a consumer to their social groups affect the way they could be segmented?

Latane's (1981) research, as well as research by Greene (2003), shows that physical proximity to a group has an impact on social influence. This research points to the importance of understanding if a consumer usually makes purchase decisions while in the presence of social groups, which adds another variable to the proposed socialization layer.

RQ4: How does the cultural context of socialization influence the consumer's segmentation?

There is evidence to suggest that cultural context of collectivism versus individualism has an impact not only directly on the decisions made by consumers, but also on how these consumers socialize (Triandis 1995, Markus & Kitayama 1991). To account for this secondary impact, it may be important to understand how a consumer's cultural context is impacting their social decisions. This context in turn allows for a variable related to culture in the socialization layer.

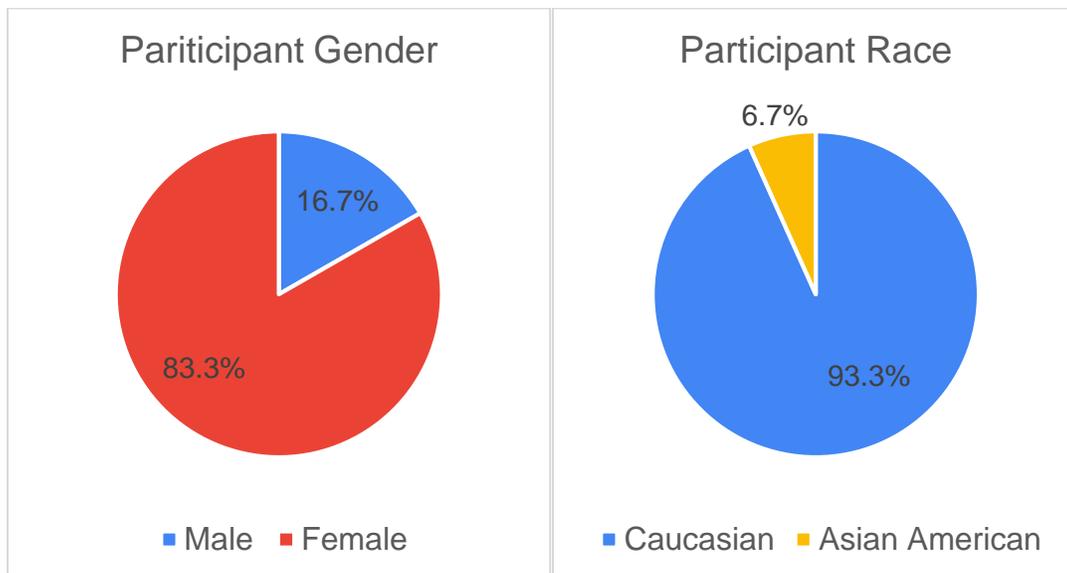
Methodology

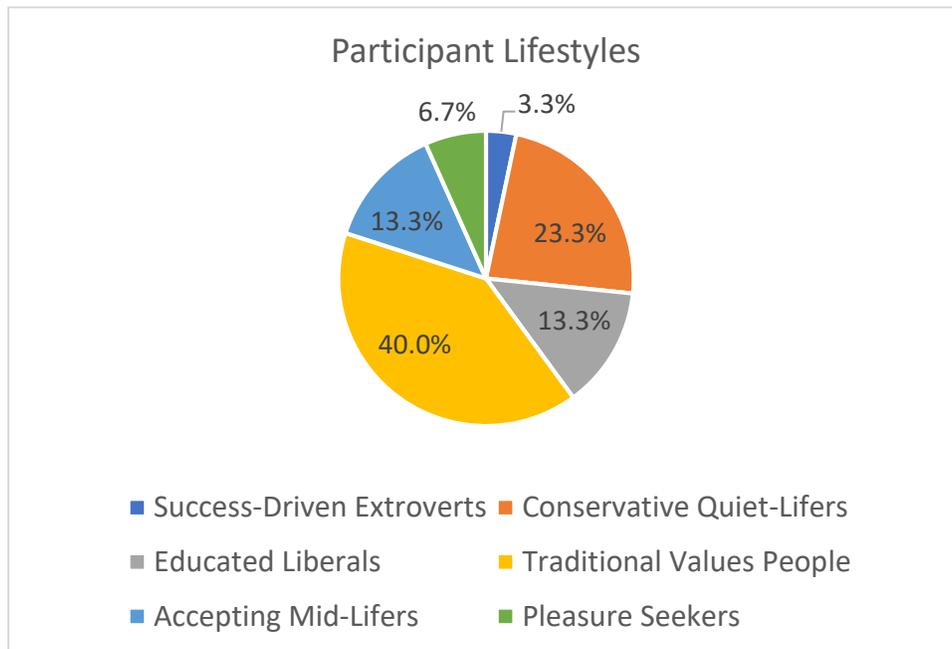
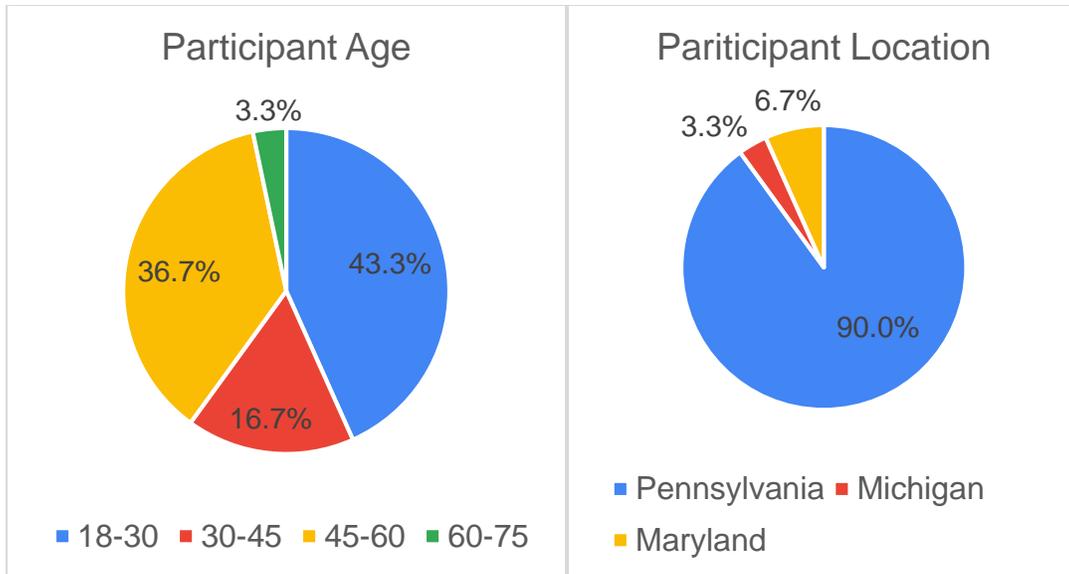
Based on the exploratory nature of this topic, qualitative research is necessary to understand the relevance of each part of the proposed model, as well as to assist in the development of hypotheses to test and the proper definition of variables that would enable such testing. To establish a model such as this, multiple steps are required, the first being secondary research and focus groups. After that has been completed, ethnography and projective techniques would allow for further refinement of the variables. Finally, conclusive research is needed to test the variables defined in the preceding steps. This last step would utilize descriptive and causal methods to determine if there are significant differences and/or relationships between these variables in order to ascertain how or if this new model fits into the traditional conceptualization of segmentation. This research is focused just on the first step- exploratory research utilizing secondary research and focus groups.

For this study, 30 participants were recruited to participate in three focus groups, with each group containing ten participants. Participants for the focus groups were selected from a few different age groups and life stages but were largely similar for the purpose of facilitating meaningful discussion. Participants were largely white, suburban, educated, middle-class individuals. Participants were offered no incentive for being a part of the focus groups. Each participant completed a pilot survey exploring individual variables, which can be found in Appendix One. Following the survey, the participants were scheduled for one-hour focus group sessions that were held over the Zoom web conferencing platform. The research guide in Appendix Two contains the questions that were used in the focus groups. Participants were encouraged to speak freely and discuss points of interest with one another. Participants were asked clarifying questions for points that were particularly relevant or unclear.

Results and Discussion

Below is a summary of the demographic and geographic characteristics of the participants.





The first question explored in this study is group size and how that affects the way consumers can be segmented. Multiple participants stated that for them, the size of the group was less important than how much they trusted the people within the group. One scenario discussed was the likelihood of raising an opinion that a group disagrees with. One participant stated, “I would be more intimidated by [three strangers rather than fifteen friends] and probably wouldn’t say how I disagree.” Another stated that they would trust their family in larger settings rather

than smaller groups they know less well, explaining, “I know that they’re family and 100%, you know, they would accept what I had to say regardless.” However, others held the opposite opinion. When considering a larger group, one person said, “I think anxiety might play a role... and I would feel really overwhelmed. Whereas, if it’s a smaller group, I might act differently and be more comfortable.” Another participant said that they would feel more comfortable expressing a contrary opinion in a smaller, less well-known group than a larger, more well-known group. From these results, it seems that group size has differing effects for different individuals. Rather than uniformly increasing or decreasing influence, it seems that size has a more dynamic effect depending on how a person feels in large group settings. If this difference in comfort with group settings could be measured, there is some basis for a segmentation layer that incorporates a person’s comfort with a group.

Another part of the group size variable discussed in the literature review was the application of Dunbar’s Numbers. Participants had the chance to provide estimates of how large each of their social groups were to understand how well Dunbar’s Numbers could be applied to segmentation. Most participants had larger or smaller values across the board. One participant claimed to have five close friends, seven friends, and nine acquaintances, while another claimed to have 30, 120, and 200+ respectively. This effect could prove useful in identifying someone as a high socializer. However, there was also evidence that the model may not be so easily applied. One participant stated that their friends and acquaintances groups were smaller than their close friends, counter to Dunbar’s Numbers. Several other participants had a larger number of friends than someone else, but a smaller number of acquaintances. These mixed findings show that there could be an application of Dunbar’s Numbers to socialization segmentation, but it is also possible that there is not a strong enough link between the two.

The second research question in this study examined the personality of individual consumers as it relates to socialization. Participants expressed several different personality factors that influenced the way they interacted with groups in their lives. Confidence came out as a key personality variable impacting social interactions, with a few participants tying independent thinking to confidence. One participant explained, “[Confidence] did come with time and life experiences and being independent on your own.” Another participant stated that they used to be anxious about group interactions, but over time they have become more independent. They attributed this change to confidence, asserting, “I think self-confidence is a big part of that.” An additional personality trait that came up frequently relates directly to the assertive and cooperative behaviors discussed in the literature. Participants were mixed on how much these behaviors impacted their ability to build connections with others, but they seemed to have knowledge of which behaviors they were more likely to show. One participant said that in a case of differing opinions with others, “I prefer to start a fight. I have a nice discussion about their opinion.” A different participant said, “I don’t want to start a fight, I would stay quiet.” From this mixture of personality variables and how they interact with socialization, it seems that individual personality factors likely play a role in how people socialize. These factors could in turn have impacts on consumers purchase decisions, and how they could be segmented.

Many participants were adamant that the context of a situation was more important to their reaction to group influence than their internal personality factors. For example, a situation where a person feels uncertain seemed to lead to higher levels of influence. When discussing going to a new restaurant for the first time with friends, a participant who had previously stated they usually resisted group influence said something contrary to that: “I would probably, you know, take the recommendation of a friend that I trust if it’s completely brand new.” Another

situation that led to higher influence was a situation in which a person felt inexperienced and had to rely on others for information. When discussing financial decision making, one participant commented, “I feel like [my husband] knows a lot more about money than I do, so he’s kind of my go-to there.” Another participant answering the same question remarked, “I also think that I would go to somebody who’s had that experience.” In both cases, the participants confirmed that these social interactions would have higher influence on their final purchase than they would have otherwise. This situational uncertainty aligns well with the concept of informational conformity, as discussed in the literature.

Another research question referred to the proximity of others to a consumer at the time of purchase. This question was explored by looking into what effects a nearby group might have on a consumer. One participant said that when shopping with others, “I am more of an impulse buyer,” A different participant said that when shopping with others, “I don’t want to carry a bag around with me... So I’m just going to not buy something. Whereas, if I am alone, I’m like, it’s time to treat myself.” One perspective came from a participant who said that she would spend less with friends because, “If I know they can’t afford to buy a new shirt... I would probably not buy that shirt for myself, I would go back to Target later by myself and buy the shirt.” Others thought they were led to spend more due to the specialty of the social occasion. One participant said, “I’m not really spending money when I’m on my own. But when I’m with friends like we’re usually going out, we’re usually eating or doing something that requires spending money.” It seems that the influence of nearby groups impacts people in different ways, rather than in one uniform way. While some may be nervous to spend money when others are around due to the friend’s situation, others may spend more due to the influence of the group self that leads them to

more impulse purchasing. Some people see social occasions as excuses to spend more money, and others see individual occasions as excuses to spend more.

The final research question focuses on the impact of cultural context through the lens of individualism versus collectivism, also referred to in the literature as independent versus interdependent view of self. Participants took a particular interest in the discussion that asked them to identify as an individualist or a collectivist in their social lives. Most participants agreed that their individualist or collectivist socialization style played a role in the way they socialize. One participant who identified themselves as an individualist stated that when consulting others for decisions, “I have to stand by what I believe and what I think.” Another individualist said that for any choice, “Ultimately... it’s my decision.” These quotes point to the idea that people who believe more in individualism see their choices as more their own and may be less prone to group influence on their choices. On the other hand, a participant who identified as a collectivist said that, “I’m always trying to please people.” A second participant agreed with that, saying that, “I constantly seek out the opinion of literally anyone for any decision.” These quotes point to the idea that people who believe in collectivism take other opinions into account in a much bigger way, which could lead to them being more prone to group influence.

An additional aspect of cultural context that was explored in this study was the influence of social units such as family, friends, and colleagues. As expected, the immediate family was cited most frequently as having influence over purchase decisions. One participant was still living with their parents, and explained, “A lot of decisions are based off of whether it would make them happy or not.” Another participant who had their own children and a spouse said, “I do, you know, ask for their input... depending on if it’s a bigger purchase.” One insight that could be explored with further research is whether family units are unique in their own right, or

if it is due to proximity and frequency of time spent that most participants cited their family as an influence. The same participant with the spouse and children seemed to think the influence was due more to proximity and time spent than anything else. This participant was asked, “For example, if it was just some cousin that you saw once a year, that wouldn’t fall into that [category of family you ask for advice]... Am I on the right track?” The participant responded, “Yeah I would say so for sure.” The participant went on to say that they felt a similar level of trust, “even with close friends, for the most part.”

One of the most important concepts to understand about these results is that the participants shared many traits in other segmentation variables. Most participants were from the same geographic area, they had similar backgrounds, and they fit similar demographic profiles. Most of them were either students or educators. Despite these similarities, there was great variety in responses about how the participants socialized and how that affected their purchases. For example, one 22-year-old white female participant stated that she saw herself as a collectivist. When asked about sourcing feedback from others, she stated, “I’m looking at the opinions of everyone.” Another 22-year-old white female stated that she also saw herself as collectivist. However, when asked about sourcing feedback from others, she had the opposite view: “I think I’m still able to like, keep myself in mind if I already know that I don’t want it. So, I think friends can give validation of the thing that I do want but can’t persuade me into buying something that I don’t want.” These statements show just one example of a common phenomenon across the focus groups- people who were very similar in other segmentation dimensions frequently gave very different, sometimes opposite answers to the socialization-based questions. These differences give merit to the idea that socialization could be used as a

unique segmentation layer to provide insights about someone in addition to the existing segmentation variables already in use.

An important concept came through in all three focus groups that was not directly addressed in any research question but may warrant further exploration and research beyond this study due to its potential applications to the field of marketing. Many people mentioned that the decisions that are most easily influenced by groups are decisions where the outcome matters little to them and/or they are equally convinced about alternatives. This effect could be considered an edge effect, wherein a decision that has low levels of involvement and/or has equally appealing alternatives puts someone on the edge between two outcomes. These choices are where the potential for social influence seemed to increase among focus group participants. One person said, “I think if it’s a smaller choice I’m on the edge about, um, kind of indecisive about, friends will have that influence.” Another participant affirmed that, saying, “I think it’s the weight of the decision. Like if it’s food, I might [allow outside influence]. But if it’s, it’s something like oh I’m applying to jobs here... I’m definitely going to have to think about that one. And hopefully not let their decision or influence affect how I perceive the situation.” After asking a participant if they would order the food their friend recommends, they remarked, “I think, but only because it’s food... if it was something more serious, I wouldn’t be saying it.” This edge effect could hold great interest to future investigators in segmentation and in other areas of marketing.

The insights obtained from these focus groups are only the first step in what will be a multi-step process to explore the application of socialization to marketing segmentation. Due to the self-reporting nature of focus groups, it is possible that participants were not being entirely truthful with their assertions. Additionally, the participants may not have been able to fully understand their own behavior and how it affects their socialization. The groups themselves also

likely made an impact; one participant even remarked that they may have shared more in a smaller group or in a one-on-one interview. This is why ethnography and projective techniques are the logical next step in this study. The focus groups obtained the first level of qualitative insights, diving into how some consumers perceive their own social habits and how they see it impacting their purchase behavior. Because ethnography and projective techniques are designed to uncover hidden truths that people may not want to and/or be able to convey, it is well suited to adding to the insights needed to form hypotheses for quantitative study.

Once there are enough qualitative insights in place to begin testing, quantitative analysis could answer some of the questions posed in this paper, as well as others that are added to the literature by further qualitative investigation. Quantitative research could explore how much of an impact different social units have on segmentation, and what makes these social units distinct from one another. It could provide evidence as to which personal, cultural, and experiential variables have the highest influence on social interactions as they relate to purchases. Plus, it could provide testing for the edge effect and the effect of proximity to groups during purchases. All of this information will be important if marketers wish to turn socialization into a tool they can utilize in their segmentation analyses.

Limitations and Future Research

Due to the timing of the focus groups coinciding with the onset of COVID-19 in the United States, focus groups had to be conducted over Zoom online platforms. Consequently, body language was more challenging to read, and exercises that involved sharing written opinions were less effective than they could have been. Zoom also had some technical errors during the focus groups that caused bits of conversation to be clipped from the transcript and slowed down the overall process. Additionally, it was more challenging to get participants than it

would have been otherwise; participants had to be contacted directly through personal communications, so the insights may have been influenced by personal relationships. While it is true that similarity is important in focus groups, ideally the focus groups would have been composed of people without personal connections to one another. Plus, greater insights could have been obtained with a higher number of participants.

The next step for this research is further exploratory research using methods such as ethnography and projective techniques. These research methods will provide more insight into the information brought up in this paper, as well as elucidate further points of interest for quantitative investigation. Once additional qualitative research has been conducted, quantitative research will be used to delve further into how much influence each factor has on a decision. For example, an experiment could be used to determine how low involvement has to be for a consumer to be swayed by advice from a trusted friend, and then explore if the involvement requirements change as the advice comes from less well-known sources. The results from these investigations could then be used to determine a Maximum Level of Involvement for Social Influence for different consumer groups. A survey or experiment could be utilized to determine how much a person's confidence is correlated with their assertive behaviors. This research would assist researchers in understanding if one could be used as a proxy for the other in socialization segmentation. Another possible study would be to determine the relationship between the size of a group and the trust level of the people within the group, and how much individual factors influence this relationship. A survey could be used to understand how much individualist and collectivist ideals correlate with other types of social behavior.

Once this type of quantitative measurement has been rigorously tested, and if socialization is proven to add value, it could be added to the framework marketers use in the field

to segment target markets. A usable model of socialization segmentation would need to be constructed which would include the variables which show a statistically significant impact on segmentation effectiveness. Such variables could include assertive/cooperative behaviors, past social behavior, typical group size, typical group proximity, cultural context, and others, depending on future results. This model could then be incorporated into the existing segmentation framework, thus working in tandem with the other parts of segmentation in order to create a deeper understanding of consumer groups. Armed with this new tool, marketers may one day find new avenues of connecting with consumers and helping them connect to one another through the lens of socialization segmentation.

References

- Alkadry, M. G., & Witt, M. T. (2009). Abu Ghraib and the Normalization of Torture and Hate. *Public Integrity*, 11(2), 135–153. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.2753/PIN1099-9922110202>
- Allen, V. L., & Levine, J. M. (1971). Social support and conformity: The role of independent assessment of reality. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 7(1), 48–58. doi: 10.1016/0022-1031(71)90054-0
- Almaatouq A, Radaelli L, Pentland A, Shmueli E (2016) Are You Your Friends' Friend? Poor Perception of Friendship Ties Limits the Ability to Promote Behavioral Change. PLoS ONE 11(3): e0151588. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0151588>
- Armstrong, G., & Kotler, P. (2015). *Marketing: an introduction* (12th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Aronson, E., Wilson, T. D., Akert, R. M., & Sommers, S. R. (2018). *Social psychology*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Asch, S.E. (1951). Effects of group pressure on the modification and distortion of judgments. In H. Guetzkow (Ed.), *Groups, leadership and men*(pp. 177–190). Pittsburgh, PA: Carnegie Press.
- Asch, S. E. (1955). Opinions and Social Pressure. *Scientific American*, 193(5), 31–35. doi: 10.1038/scientificamerican1155-31
- Baudry, M., & Maslanskaia-Pautrel, M. (2016). Revisiting the hedonic price method in the presence of market segmentation. *Environmental Economics & Policy Studies*, 18(4), 527–555. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1007/s10018-015-0122-5>

Barry, J., & Weinstein, A. (2009). Business psychographics revisited: from segmentation theory to successful marketing practice. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25(3-4), 315–340. doi:

10.1362/026725709x429773

Bian, Q., and S. Forsythe. 2012. Purchase intention for luxury brands: A cross cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Research* 65(10):1443–1451.

doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.010.

Billing, A. G. (2018). Rousseau's critique of market society: Property and possessive individualism in the Discours sur l'inégalité. *Journal of European Studies*, 48(1), 3–19.

<https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1177/0047244117744090>

Blankenship, A. (1949). Needed: A Broader Concept of Marketing Research. *Journal of Marketing*, 13(3), 305-310. doi:10.2307/1248113

Body Wash. (2020). Retrieved from <https://www.dove.com/us/en/washing-and-bathing/body-wash.html#>

Bond, R. (2005). Group Size and Conformity. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 8(4), 331–354. doi: 10.1177/1368430205056464

Bose, T. K. (2012). Market Segmentation and Customer Focus Strategies and Their Contribution towards Effective Value Chain Management. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 4(3).

doi: 10.5539/ijms.v4n3p113

Champniss, G., Wilson, H. N., & Macdonald, E. K. (2015, October 11). Why Your Customers' Social Identities Matter. *The Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from

<https://hbr.org/2015/01/why-your-customers-social-identities-matter>

Chiu, B. (2019, September 25). Can The Advertising Industry Stop Perpetuating Harmful Gender Stereotypes? Retrieved from [https://www.forbes.com/sites/bonniechiu/2019/09/24/can-the-](https://www.forbes.com/sites/bonniechiu/2019/09/24/can-the-advertising-industry-stop-perpetuating-harmful-gender-stereotypes/#4b9505f0375f)

[advertising-industry-stop-perpetuating-harmful-gender-stereotypes/#4b9505f0375f](https://www.forbes.com/sites/bonniechiu/2019/09/24/can-the-advertising-industry-stop-perpetuating-harmful-gender-stereotypes/#4b9505f0375f)

Cialdini, R.B. & Goldstein, N.J. (2004). Social Influence: Compliance and Conformity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 591-621.

Curtis, A., & British Broadcasting Corporation. (2006). The Century Of The Self.

Deshpandé, Rohit and Douglas M. Stayman (1994), “A tale of two cities: Distinctiveness theory and advertising effectiveness,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31 (1), 57-64.

Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955, November). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgment. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 51(3), 629-636. doi:10.1037/h0046408.

Diederich, J., & Lehradt, B. (2020, April 6). VERANSTALTUNG ENTFÄLLT ! / Lernen! Aber wie? Strategien für's Studium. Retrieved from <http://www.uni-hildesheim.de/interculturalfilm/>

Dunbar, R. I. M. (1988). *Primate social systems*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell Univ. Press.

Ellemers, N. (2012). The Group Self. *Science*, 336(6083), 848–852. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1126/science.1220987>

Ernst, D., & Dolnicar, S. (2018). How to Avoid Random Market Segmentation

Solutions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(1), 69–82. [https://doi-org.proxy-](https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1177/0047287516684978)

[etown.klnpa.org/10.1177/0047287516684978](https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1177/0047287516684978)

Feldman, J. M., & Lynch Jr., J. G. (1988). Self-Generated Validity and Other Effects of Measurement on Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(3), 421–435. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.3.421>

Flurry, L., & Burns, A. C. (2005). Childrens influence in purchase decisions: a social power theory approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(5), 593–601. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2003.08.007

Fournier, S., & Lee, L. (2015, July 16). Getting Brand Communities Right. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2009/04/getting-brand-communities-right>

Freling, T. H., & Dacin, P. A. (2010). When consensus counts: Exploring the impact of consensus claims in advertising. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 20(2), 163–175. doi: 10.1016/j.jcps.2009.12.001

Friesen, C., & Kammrath, L. (2011). What It Pays to Know About a Close Other: The Value of If-Then Personality Knowledge in Close Relationships. *Psychological Science*, 22(5), 567–571. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797611405676>

Gerganov, E. N., diLova, M. L., Petkova, K. G., & Paspalanova, E. P. (1996). Culture-specific approach to the study of individualism/collectivism. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 26(2), 277–297. [https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-0992\(199603\)26:2<277::AID-EJSP752>3.0.CO;2-0](https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0992(199603)26:2<277::AID-EJSP752>3.0.CO;2-0)

Goldberg, L. (1990). An alternative “description of personality” - the big-five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6), 1216–1229. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.59.6.1216>

Greene, J. (2003). Opinion: From neural “is” to moral “ought”: what are the moral implications of neuroscientific moral psychology? *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 4(10), 846–850. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1038/nrn1224>

Grier, Sonya A. and Rohit, Deshpandé (2001), “Social dimensions of consumer distinctiveness: The influence of group social status and identity on advertising persuasion,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38 (2), 216-224

Harrison, P., Yang, Y., & Moyo, K. (2017). Visual representations in South Africa of China and the Chinese people. *Journal of African Cultural Studies*, 29(1), 25–45. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1080/13696815.2016.1253460>

Hofstede G and Hofstede GJ (2005) *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, 2nd ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Hollander, E. P. (1960). Competence and conformity in the acceptance of influence. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 61(3), 365–369. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1037/h0049199>

Horst, U., Kirman, A., & Teschl, M. (2007, September). Changing Identity: The Emergence of Social Groups, by Ulrich Horst; Alan Kirman; Miriam Teschl. Retrieved from <https://ideas.repec.org/p/hal/wpaper/halshs-00410853.html>

Hunt, S. D., & Arnett, D. B. (2004). Market Segmentation Strategy, Competitive Advantage, and Public Policy: Grounding Segmentation Strategy in Resource-Advantage Theory. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 12(1), 7–25. doi: 10.1016/s1441-3582(04)70083-x

Izuma, K., & Adolphs, R. (2013). Social manipulation of preference in the human brain. *Neuron*, 78(3), 563–573.

Johnson, Craig et al. “Self-reference and Group Membership: Evidence for a Group-reference Effect.” *European Journal of Social Psychology* 32.2 (2002): 261–274.

Jr., T. H. (2019, October 10). How Supreme went from a small NYC skateboard shop to a \$1 billion global phenomenon. Retrieved from <https://www.cnn.com/2019/10/10/how-supreme-went-from-small-nyc-skateboard-shop-to-a-global-phenomenon.html>

Katz, M., Ward, R. M., & Heere, B. (2018). Explaining attendance through the brand community triad: Integrating network theory and team identification. *Sport Management Review*, 21(2), 176–188. doi: 10.1016/j.smr.2017.06.004

Keasey, C. B., Walsh, J. A., & Moran, G. P. (1969, December). The effect of labeling as an informational social influence upon color perception. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 79(1), 195-202.

Kidd, I. J. (2020). Daoism, humanity, and the Way of Heaven. *Religious Studies*, 59(1), 111–126. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1017/S0034412519000313>

Kilmann, R. H., & Thomas, K. W. (1977). Developing a forced-choice measure of conflict-handling behavior: The “Mode” Instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 37, 309–325. doi: 10.1177/001316447703700204.

Latané, B. (1981). The psychology of social impact. *American Psychologist*, 36(4), 343–356. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1037/0003-066X.36.4.343>

Latané, B., & Nida, S. (1981). Ten years of research on group size and helping. *Psychological Bulletin*, 89(2), 308–324. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.89.2.308>

Lawson, R., & Todd, S. (2002). Consumer Lifestyles: A Social Stratification Perspective. *Marketing Theory*, 2(3), 295–307. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1470593102002003278>

Levitt, T. (2008). *Marketing Myopia*. Harvard Business Review Press.

Lynch, J. (2018, July 29). Netflix Thrives By Programming to 'Taste Communities,' Not Demographics. Retrieved from <https://www.adweek.com/tv-video/netflix-thrives-by-programming-to-taste-communities-not-demographics/>

Lynch, H. (2019, December 4). African Americans in Television. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/African-American>

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98(2), 224–253. doi: 10.1037/0033-295x.98.2.224

McDonald, M., & Dunbar, I. (2013). *Market segmentation: how to do it and how to profit from it*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Mitchell, A. (1983). *The Nine American Lifestyles: Who We Are and Where We're Going*. New York: Macmillan.

Mitchell, V., and D. F. Wilson. 1998. Balancing theory and practice: A reappraisal of business-to-business segmentation. *Industrial Marketing Management* 27:429–445

Morris, W.N., Miller, R.S. and Spangenberg, S. (1977), The effects of dissenter position and task difficulty on conformity and response conflict¹. *Journal of Personality*, 45: 251-266.

doi:[10.1111/j.1467-6494.1977.tb00150.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1977.tb00150.x)

Mothersbaugh, D. L., Hawkins, D. I., & Kleiser, S. B. (2020). *Consumer behavior: building marketing strategy*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.

Nagel, J., & Waldmann, M. R. (2013). Deconfounding distance effects in judgments of moral obligation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 39(1), 237–252. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1037/a0028641>

National Confectioner's Association. (2020). Data & Insights. Retrieved from <https://www.candyusa.com/data-insights/>

Nauta, A., & Sanders, K. (2000). Interdepartmental Negotiation Behavior in Manufacturing Organizations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(2), 135. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1108/eb022838>

Pieter Van Dessel, Jeremy Cone, Anne Gast & Jan De Houwer (2020) The impact of valenced verbal information on implicit and explicit evaluation: the role of information diagnosticity, primacy, and memory cueing, *Cognition and Emotion*, 34:1, 74-85, DOI:

10.1080/02699931.2019.1594703

Poti, J. M., Mendez, M. A., Shu Wen Ng, Popkin, B. M., & Ng, S. W. (2016). Highly Processed and Ready-to-Eat Packaged Food and Beverage Purchases Differ by Race/Ethnicity among US Households. *Journal of Nutrition*, 146(9), 1722–1730. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.3945/jn.116.230441>

Pringles® Potato Crisps. (2016). Retrieved from <https://www.pringles.com/jp/products.html>

Red Bull Inc. (2020). About Us. Retrieved from <https://www.redbull.com/us-en/energydrink>

Reed II, Americus (2002), "Social Identity as a Useful Perspective for Self-concept based Consumer Research," *Psychology and Marketing*, 19(3), 1-32.

Reed II, A., & Forehand, M. (2011). *Social Identity in Marketing Research: An Integrative Framework*.

Ross, J. A. (1973, February). Influence of expert and peer upon negro mothers of low socioeconomic status. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 89(1), 79-84.

Saegert, Joel, Robert J. Hoover and Marye T. Hilger (1985), "Characteristics of Mexican American Consumers," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12 (June), 104-109

Segura, A., & Strehlau, S. (2012). Personality-Based Segmentation of Brazilian Private Banking Clients. *Latin American Business Review*, 13(4), 289–309. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1080/10978526.2012.749086>

Şener, A. (2011). Influences of Adolescents on Family Purchasing Behavior: Perceptions of Adolescents and Parents. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 39(6), 747–754. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.2224/sbp.2011.39.6.747>

Shapiro, B. P., & Bonoma, T. V. (2014, August 1). How to Segment Industrial Markets. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/1984/05/how-to-segment-industrial-markets>

Shavitt, Sharon, Tina M. Lowrey and Sang-pil Han (1992), "Attitude functions in advertising: The interactive role of products and self-monitoring," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 1(4), 337-364.

Shuper, P. A., & Sorrentino, R. M. (2004). Minority Versus Majority Influence and Uncertainty Orientation. *Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(2), 127–147. <https://doi-org.proxy->

etown.klnpa.org/10.3200/SOCP.144.2.127-148

Sivanandan, S. (2018, March). Demographics are dead: Welcome to the age of intent - Think with Google. Retrieved from <https://www.thinkwithgoogle.com/intl/en-apac/trends-and-insights/demographics-dead-welcome-age-of-intent/>

Smith, W. R. (1956). Product Differentiation and Market Segmentation as Alternative Marketing Strategies. *Journal of Marketing, 21*(1), 3. doi: 10.2307/1247695

Sudo, N., Degeneffe, D., Vue, H., Ghosh, K., & Reicks, M. (2009). Relationship between needs driving eating occasions and eating behavior in midlife women. *Appetite, 52*(1), 137–146. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2008.09.005

The Carlyle Group. (2020). About. Retrieved from <https://www.supremenewyork.com/about>

Thomas, K. (1992). Conflict and Conflict Management: Reflections and Update. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(3), 265-274. Retrieved April 6, 2020, from www.jstor.org/stable/2488472

Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism collectivism*. Boulder (Colo.): Westview Press.

Tsoi, M. Y., & Shchekoldin, V. Y. (2014). Assessment of Family Member Influence on the Purchase Decision-Making Process. *International Multidisciplinary Scientific Conference on Social Sciences & Arts SGEM, 65–73*.

Twohill, L. (2018, June). 4 things we learned about inclusive marketing - Think with Google. Retrieved from <https://www.thinkwithgoogle.com/consumer-insights/inclusive-marketing/>

University of Hildesheim Intercultural Film Database. (2005, June). Retrieved from <http://www.uni-hildesheim.de/interculturalfilm/>

Van de Vliert, E., & Euwema, M. C. (1994). Agreeableness and Activeness as Components of Conflict Behaviors. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 66(4), 674–687. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1037/0022-3514.66.4.674>

Vinuales, G., Magnotta, S. R., Steffes, E., & Kulkarni, G. (2019). Description and Evaluation of an Innovative Segmentation, Targeting, and Positioning Activity Using Student Perceived Learning and Actual Student Learning. *Marketing Education Review*, 29(1), 24–36. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1080/10528008.2018.1493932>

Vyncke, P. (2002). Lifestyle Segmentation. *European Journal of Communication*, 17(4), 445. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1177/02673231020170040301>

Wedel, M. and Kamakura, W.A., *Market Segmentation: Conceptual and Methodological Foundations*, Springer Science & Business Media, 2010, pp 8-9

Weinstein, A. 2006. A strategic framework for defining and segmenting markets. *Journal of Strategic Marketing* 14:115–127.

Wells, V., Chang, S., Oliveira-Castro, J., & Pallister, J. (2010). Market Segmentation From a Behavioral Perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 30(2), 176–198. <https://doi-org.proxy-etown.klnpa.org/10.1080/01608061003756505>

Wells, W.D., 1975. Psychographics: a critical review. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 12, 196–213.

Wu S, Keysar B. The effect of culture on perspective taking. *Psychol Sci.* 2007; 18: 600–6.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.01946.x>

Zhou, W.-X., Sornette, D., Hill, R. A., & Dunbar, R. I. M. (2005). Discrete hierarchical organization of social group sizes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 272(1561), 439–444. doi: 10.1098/rspb.2004.2970

Appendix One: Pilot Survey Questions

- 1) What is your name?
- 2) What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Non-binary
 - d. Other:
 - e. Prefer not to answer
- 3) Are you Hispanic/Latino?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 4) What is your race?
 - a. Caucasian
 - b. African American
 - c. Asian American
 - d. Pacific Islander
 - e. Other:
- 5) What is your age?
 - a. 18-30
 - b. 30-45
 - c. 45-60
 - d. 60-75
 - e. 76+

- 6) In what state do you currently live?
 - a. [List of all 50 U.S. states provided in a dropdown menu]
- 7) If you had to choose one of these to describe yourself, which would you use?
 - a. Self-oriented and actively ambitious
 - b. Informed and outer-directed
 - c. Reflective and nostalgic
 - d. Progressive and believe in diversity
 - e. Family and community oriented, believe in traditional values
 - f. Content to observe, accepting of things as they are
 - g. Living for today and what is best for me right now
- 8) Choose where you believe you fall on the following personality traits:
 - a. Openness to New Experience (General feelings about trying new things)
 - i. Very Open
 - ii. Open
 - iii. Neutral
 - iv. Not Very Open
 - v. Not Open
 - b. Conscientiousness (Acting in socially conscious ways and controlling impulses)
 - i. Very conscientious
 - ii. Conscientious
 - iii. Neutral
 - iv. Impulsive
 - v. Very Impulsive

- c. Extraversion vs. Introversion (Gaining energy from interacting with others vs. gaining energy from time spent alone)
 - i. Very extraverted
 - ii. Extraverted
 - iii. Ambivert
 - iv. Introverted
 - v. Very introverted
 - d. Agreeableness (Ability to get along well with others)
 - i. Very agreeable
 - ii. Agreeable
 - iii. Neutral
 - iv. Not very agreeable
 - v. Not agreeable
- 9) Write down at least five things you purchased in the past month by choice. If you cannot think of five things, put down as many as you can remember.

Appendix Two: Focus Group Questions

- 1) I want you to think about the people in your life. First are close friends, defined as someone you trust completely and totally, and you see them all the time. Next are friends, defined as someone you trust, who you may share secrets with and spend time with one-on-one. Then there are acquaintances, defined as someone you see sometimes and may spend time with, but typically only in group settings. Now I want you to write down the people who are in each category on one side of your paper. Once you are done, turn it over and write three big numbers: first the number of close friends, then friends, then acquaintances. [pause] Now, hold up your number. How do you think your numbers compare to the average person?

- 2) Take your paper, write down <5, 5-10, and >10. For the time you spend with others, what percentage of time would you say you spend in each of these groups? You can use rough estimates. Which of these size groups you think have the greatest influence on you?

- 3) Choose which of the following most closely describes you, and write the letter on your paper:
 - a) I see my actions as my own, influenced by others but ultimately up to me. I am an individual, and while I rely on others, I start my decision-making process by looking through my own perspective.
 - b) I see my actions as part of a web of actions taken by myself and others, even though I am the one making the choice. My life revolves around the groups I am a

part of, and even though I rely on my own judgement, I start my decision-making process by considering how others might react.

How do you think your answer impacts the way you socialize, if at all?

- 4) Think of a kind of food you do not like. Now, let us imagine you are out with friends, and they tell you that the [food] here is amazing and you should really get it. Everyone else orders the [food]. In what instances might you order the [food], if any?
- 5) Let us imagine you're with a group of people you know well. Someone in the group expresses an opinion you do not agree with, and several others quickly remark that they agree. What do you do?
- 6) When you make purchases that require consideration, who do you turn to for advice most often? Why?
- 7) When you make purchases that require consideration, do you usually make them in the presence of others, or alone? Why?