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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jeffrey Wade Overby entitled "The Impact of National Culture Upon the Customer Value Hierarchy: A Comparison Between French and American Consumers." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Business Administration.

Sarah Gardial, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Interim Vice Provost and
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THE IMPACT OF NATIONAL CULTURE UPON THE CUSTOMER VALUE HIERARCHY: A COMPARISON BETWEEN FRENCH AND AMERICAN CONSUMERS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jeffrey Wade Overby
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Leslie,
and my two daughters, Sarah and Rachel.

Your patience, encouragement,
and faith have been my guiding light.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are many people to whom I am grateful for the time I have spent at the University of Tennessee. The faculty and fellow graduate students have made this one of the most rewarding experiences of my life. I am particularly grateful to my Dissertation Committee, Sarah Gardial, Ernie Cadotte, Bob Woodruff, and Bob Maddox, for their invaluable input into this research. Moreover, this research would not have been possible were it not for financial support from the University of Tennessee CBA Scholarly Research Grant Program, the Mentzer Endowment, and the Learning Partnership Fund.

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ABSTRACT

The general objective of this dissertation is to investigate how culture impacts upon customer value. Specifically, by examining consumers' cognitive means-end structures, propositions are developed in terms of how culture influences the *perception* and *importance* of the *content* and *structure* of the customer value hierarchy. The propositions are tested utilizing data from in-depth laddering interviews with a matched sample of 30 French consumers and 30 American consumers on the subject of wine consumption in a restaurant usage situation.

The data are analyzed in two simultaneous stages: 1) a quantitative independent coding analysis of implication matrices and centrality statistics, and 2) a qualitative coding analysis of the meaning, valence, and linkages of customer value hierarchy dimensions. The findings indicate that culture does influence the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. The data appear to provide empirical evidence that cultural value dimensions can be utilized to theoretically predict similarities and differences in customer value. Interestingly, the perception and importance of consumption consequences appear to be more sensitive to cultural differences than do the pereception and importance of product and service attributes and evoked end-states. Moreover, cultural values alone are not the only influence upon consumer perceptions. In addition to personal characteristics and use situation, other cultural factors are shown to be influential, most notably social norms.

This research extends existing customer value theory and means-end theory by demonstrating that culture is intertwined throughout all of the levels of meanings that

consumers construct for products and services rather than just at the end-state level, and by testing a priori propositions regarding the influence of culture. This research indicates that future conceptualizations of value should consider the inclusion of culture, in addition to person, product, and situation. Additional refinements may include the categorization of specific attribute, consequence, and end-state subtypes, the expansion of the situation to include occasion, the inclusion of valence into value dimension linkages, and application to the study of perception (i.e., meaning) and preference (i.e., importance). Finally, by identifying both cultural similarities and differences, this research provides partial support for the strategic concept of intermarket segmentation based upon customer value segments.

Large-scale verification of these findings would further strengthen the conclusions. Future research should also focus upon factors that moderate the influence of culture upon customer value, along with possible antecedents and consequences for both consumers and marketers.

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CHAPTER 1
PROBLEM DEFINITION

Introduction

At first glance, our world appears to be becoming a smaller place. Technology and efficiencies in transportation seem to be bringing everyone closer together. No where does this appear to be more evident than in the global expansion of consumer product and service markets. One only has to look on the clothing racks in the local mall or the automobiles in the mall parking lot to see the proliferation of foreign-made products. It is often difficult to even determine the origin of a product, given the plethora of foreign components contained in products and the worldwide outsourcing of assembly and subassembly.

This global expansion could lead one to conclude that consumers around the world are becoming more alike, with the ultimate result being global convergence. However, this conclusion might not be entirely accurate. Both the academic literature and the popular press (e.g., Jeannet 1998; Swasy 1989; Ricks 1983) are full of examples of cross-cultural marketing blunders made by companies around the world. What are the causes of such blunders? One primary cause may be the inability or unwillingness of marketers to recognize differences in the product or service value desired by consumers. People may desire similar products but for very different reasons. Some researchers have even termed this phenomenon "creolization" of consumption (Ger and Belk 1996; Hannerz 1992). For example, a consumer in Korea might value a backpack style purse

because it is popular and fashionable, whereas an American consumer might value the same style purse because it helps them to keep their hands free and feel safe.

What is needed then is an understanding of how culture impacts upon customer value. Such understanding would be valuable to both marketing academics and practitioners. Marketing academics have only just begun to "dig" into the concept of customer value (e.g., Cathey 1999; Flint, Woodruff, and Gardial 1997; Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Johnson 1998; Holbrook 1996), and culture is one influence that has essentially been overlooked. Moreover, practitioners are continuously looking for better international strategic marketing approaches, and understanding customer value cross-culturally could assist in the development of international segmentation strategies. For example, there may be possibilities for international marketing mix standardization if segments of consumers are found across two or more cultures who value a product or service for the same reason. Likewise, the identification of divergent cross-cultural customer value segments will likely indicate the need for marketing mix customization.

In order for marketing organizations to succeed globally, they must then understand customers across cultures. As Ferraro (1994) argues, "if our nation is to continue to be a world leader we must build deep into our national psyche the need for international competency - that is, specialized knowledge of foreign cultures" (p. 13). He then offers specific examples of this lack of international competency among American society:

- The United States continues to be the only country in the world where it is possible to earn a college degree without taking any foreign language courses,

- A United Nations study of 30,000 students in nine countries found that American students ranked next to last in their understanding of foreign cultures,
- Approximately half of all American adults are not able to locate the Republic of South Africa on a world map.

Unfortunately, the marketing discipline also has been slow to recognize the need for a better understanding of international culture, consumer, and strategic issues, as most of the marketing research literature has been specific to a single issue and/or culture, and has been especially lacking in the area of strategic decision making and strategic tools (Day 1992). However, there have been some outspoken proponents of an international focus in marketing (Cavusgil 1997; Cavusgil and Nevin 1981; Samiee 1997; Wind and Robertson 1983). For example, Cavusgil (1997, p. 573) asserts that "marketing scholars have an obligation to investigate fundamental relationships in international marketing (IM)...we should not abandon knowledge generation because IM is so contextual. Rather, we should pay strict adherence to principles of scientific inquiry in the way we approach the challenge."

The current lack of unique theories and constructs in international marketing does not necessarily indicate that unique theories and constructs cannot or do not need to be developed. In fact, several issues currently of interest to business scholars involve unique properties of international marketing, including: standardization versus customization of marketing programs and the marketing process; intermarket segmentation; diffusion of innovations; market entry mode; country-of-origin; and countertrade (Cavusgil 1997; Gatignon 1997; Samiee 1997; Sheth 1997). At the present time, research on these topics still remains unfinished. Samiee (1997) cites two examples of issues - country-of-origin

studies and standardization of advertising studies - which have garnered much interest and research, but have not offered any universally accepted constructs or measurement scales.

A Framework for International Marketing Theory Development

Saimee (1997) attempts to respond to these shortcomings with the development of an integrative conceptual framework that emphasizes the elements and issues not typically included in the domestic marketing literature. He (1997, pp. 546-547) argues that "there is no evidence of widely accepted or even debated conceptual framework(s) or theories in IM...and this limitation has created a barrier to a consistent and defensible explanation of the roles, differences, and similarities of IM to domestic marketing." He then offers his conceptual framework (see Figure 1-1) as a guide to future research. Some of the elements of Saimee's framework will now be explored in more depth.

Saimee (1997, p. 550) argues that there are several primary considerations that "alter the type of marketing that is practiced in the domestic market vis-à-vis the international marketplace:" the international marketing philosophy and organization; intermarket segmentation; the marketing mix; and the market entry mode. The international marketing philosophy will influence all of the marketing decisions made by an organization. For example, an organization that views international markets as secondary to its domestic activities will exhibit a lower level of commitment to international marketing. This lower commitment will likely be evident in the design of its marketing mix and the organization of its marketing functions both domestically and in its foreign markets. Saimee presents three international marketing philosophies -

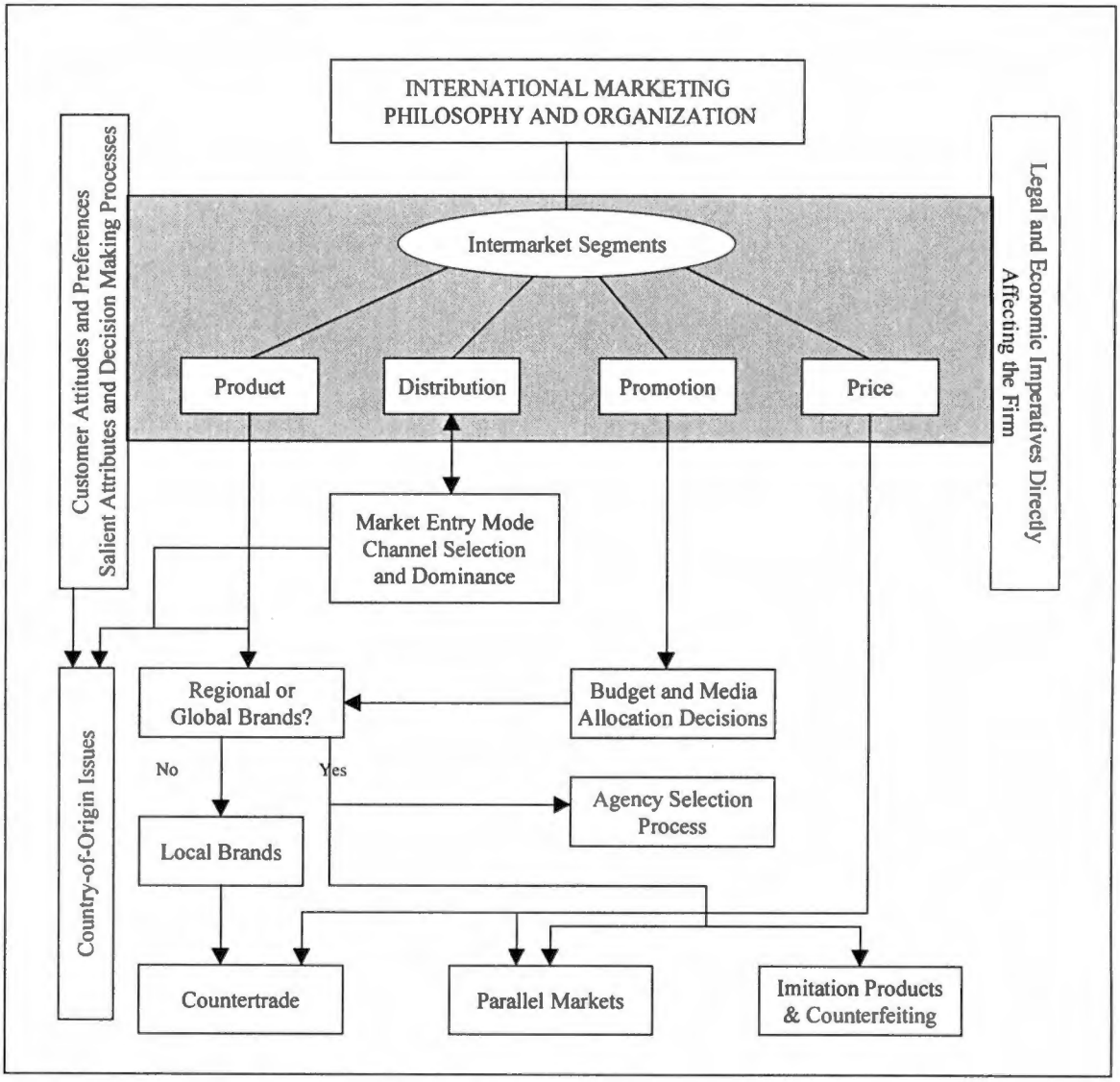


Figure 1-1: Saimee's International Marketing Research Model
Source: Adapted from Saimee (1997)

market extension, multidomestic, and global - and these will be explained in greater detail later in this chapter.

Intermarket segmentation is offered as another primary element of the conceptual framework. Intermarket segmentation essentially represents the identification of common market segments across national or multicultural marketplaces. In addition to Saimee's advocacy of this concept, many other scholars (Cavusgil 1997; Cavusgil and Nevin 1981; Douglas and Wind 1987; Jain 1989; Sheth 1986) have also advocated a similar concept. Despite the many calls for the use of intermarket segmentation, there has been little conceptual, theoretical, or empirical examination of the concept, and there is no evidence that firms actually seek to identify intermarket segments

A third element of the framework is the development of the marketing mix (also called marketing program). A significant amount of literature has been devoted to the debate over standardization versus customization of the marketing mix in international markets. Obviously, where intermarket segments are not identified, customization seems the natural choice. However, there appears to be standardization possibilities for intermarket segments. The key is an understanding of the local market - as Gatignon (1997, p. 569) argues: "it has become critical to know and understand the response function in one's country or market in order to judge the transferability of a marketing program."

The fourth element of Saimee's framework concerns market entry mode. Market entry mode does not address the choice of markets, but rather the organizational structure for entering markets. For example, should a business enter a new market through

establishment of a sales office, contract manufacturing, a joint-venture, or direct foreign investment. Such decisions pose significant implications for the business, including foreign taxation of income, local labor laws, and local content regulations.

Saimee's framework serves as an excellent strategic foundation for the proposed research. However, because of several limitations, his framework will have to be adapted and refined. One primary limitation is that the framework appears to marginalize consumer issues. Instead, the framework focuses primarily upon operational issues, such as branding decisions, countertrade, budget and media allocation, and market entry mode. This limitation appears endemic to the international marketing literature. Saimee briefly discusses the uniqueness of customer attitudes and preferences in international marketing. He also briefly discusses the importance of considering country-of-origin on consumer perceptions. However, whether intended or not, this marginalization appears to imply that understanding international customers poses no unique issues or challenges to the marketer versus domestic marketing. This chapter provides evidence that, on the contrary, it does.

Finally, Saimee's framework also appears to marginalize environmental influences. Again, domestic marketing must also contend with environmental differences, but the complexity and depth of environmental differences in international markets can pose significant challenges to the marketing organization. Moreover, some of these environmental influences also appear to affect consumer issues. For example, one especially influential variable - culture - has received some attention in the marketing literature (e.g., Roth 1995; Segal, Segal, and Niemczycki 1993; Ferraro 1994; McCort

and Malhotra 1993; Costa 1998; McCracken 1986; Henry 1976), but it has often been on a very one-dimensional basis using cultural elements, such as the collectivism dimension or language, as the sole exogenous variable.

Given these shortcomings, an alternative framework is offered in Figure 1-2. This framework will serve as the strategic foundation for the conceptual frameworks that will guide this research. A brief description is provided, and then the various elements will be further detailed throughout the chapter.

The framework begins with an organization's degree of market orientation, which influences the nature and extent of customer value analysis performed. Customer value analysis represents the determination of what customers want or value (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). Essentially, an organization that utilizes customer value analysis is expected to be market oriented. This statement is congruent with previous research that has offered market orientation as way to operationalize a customer value focus (Narver and Slater 1990). Thus, an organization that is focused on the needs of customers within a market will emphasize and implement an analysis of what its current and potential customers value.

Customer value analysis is an important segmentation tool. For example, different segments of consumers often desire different types of benefits from a product or service, and customer value analysis is a way to identify those different desired benefits. This method for understanding customers and identifying common segments of customers should apply to all types of customers, whether these customers are located in domestic or international markets. In fact, customer value analysis may prove to be an

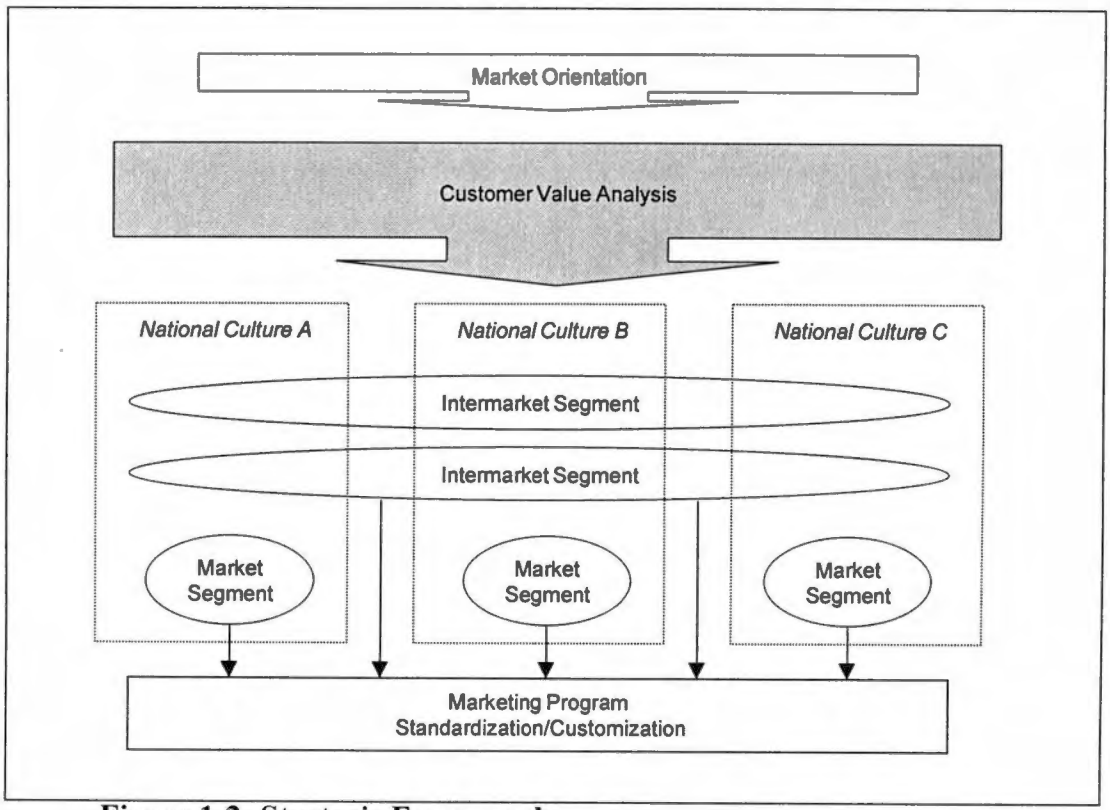


Figure 1-2: Strategic Framework

excellent method for identifying common segments across cultures and/or nations, or intermarket segmentation (Samiee 1997; Sheth 1986; Sheth 1997).

Based upon customer value research, market research, and intermarket segmentation analysis, the international marketing organization designs the marketing mix for a selected market target with the appropriate degree of program standardization/customization. Essentially, the marketing organization will likely develop standardized products, prices, promotion, and distribution strategies for intermarket segments, but not for segments that are culture specific.

Where this framework is not unique from domestic marketing is that all decisions are made with the ultimate goal of providing value to the customer, whether that customer is in the United States, France, or Malaysia. However, one broad problem related to the framework is the lack of empirical evidence that intermarket segments actually exist (Samiee 1997). The premise of the existence of intermarket segments is that customer value is similar across cultures. Thus, the primary question driving this research emerges: does culture cause customer value to differ across country markets? This question will be addressed throughout the chapters. However, the importance of customer value must first be established.

Marketing Concept, Market Orientation, and Customer Value

Marketing Concept

One of the guiding philosophies in the marketing literature is the marketing concept. This concept, which emerged during the 1950's, has traditionally been viewed as

encompassing three components or "pillars": customer focus, coordinated marketing, and profitability (King 1965; Kohli and Jaworski 1990). Kotler and Armstrong (1997, p. 19) define the marketing concept as the "marketing management philosophy that holds that achieving organizational goals depends on determining the needs and wants of target markets and delivering the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors do." The marketing concept suggests that the means to organizational success is delivering *value* to *target* customers, which in turn leads to *satisfaction* and goal achievement.

Market Orientation

Discussing the benefits of the marketing concept is easy, but implementing the philosophy presents substantial challenges. Several researchers (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; McNamara 1972; Slater and Narver 1994) have offered the concept of market orientation as the way to operationalize and implement the marketing concept. However, there has been some debate as to what market orientation entails. For example, Kohli and Jaworski (1990) define it as organizationwide generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market intelligence. Alternatively, Narver and Slater (1990) define it as the organizational culture that creates the behaviors necessary for the creation of superior value, which in turn creates a sustainable competitive advantage. They then assert that market orientation is composed of several components, including customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination, long-term focus, and profitability.

The notion of the marketing concept and the resulting market orientation has received substantial support among scholars and practitioners. Kohli and Jaworski (1990) assert that higher business performance is a consequence of a marketing orientation, and Narver and Slater (1990) have been able to empirically correlate market orientation with business profitability. Narver and Slater (1990, p. 21) assert that market orientation is the organizational culture that "most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviors for the creation of superior value for buyers, and thus, continuous superior performance for the business."

An important distinction must be made when addressing market orientation, a distinction that some scholars fail to make - it is a *market* orientation and not a *marketing* orientation. This implies that the entire organization, and not just the marketing department, should be focused on the customer (Slater and Narver 1994). Moreover, this implies that one begins with a market. In order to understand the value that potential customers desire, one must first define the market in which those customers exist. Only after defining the market, and identifying segments within that market, can an organization begin to design ways to best deliver value to target customers.

Perhaps customer value (differences) is a superior basis of segmentation to more traditional segmentation bases, such as geographics, demographics, or psychographics. Hofstede, Steenkamp, and Wedel (1999, p. 3) propose such an approach by arguing that customer value analysis "for the purpose of international segmentation combines the strengths of product- and consumer-specific bases of segmentation." Similarly, Gutman (1982) argued early on for the segmentation benefits of understanding product markets

from the consumer perspective, asserting that understanding what customers value can assist in identifying subgroups of consumers who value similar product attributes, benefits, and/or values. Thus, understanding customer value is essential to organizational strategy and the ultimate design and implementation of the marketing mix.

Obviously, market segmentation, and design of the marketing mix are significant decisions that must be made in any organization, but they take on special significance when considering international markets. Cultural differences in languages, religions, customs, norms, and values, pose major obstacles to the international marketer's attempt to select international market segments. For this reason, many organizations simply segment based upon nationality. However, does a consumer in Taiwan automatically value a product differently than a consumer in the United States? Maybe or maybe not. Could there possibly be segments of customers who value the same things across multiple cultures? If there are, then there may be opportunities to target intermarket segments.

Customer Value

As far back as 1972, Kotler (1972) extolled the virtues of customer value. He offered several corollaries, one of which states that "the essential activity of marketing is the creation and offering of value. Value is defined subjectively from the market's point of view" (p. 50). He went on to add that the marketer attempts to receive value from the market by offering value to it. Likewise, Naumann (1995, p. 16) states that the number one goal of any business should be to "maximize customer value and strive to increase

value continuously." In order to do so, the marketer must understand what customers in a market value from suppliers.

One criterion that has been used to indicate whether an organization is implementing the marketing concept, and in turn delivering superior customer value, is market share growth (Stahl and Bounds 1991). However, one must acknowledge that there is often a lag between marketing decisions and market share results. Moreover, the relationship is probably indirect, at best, as there may be other factors influencing market share growth other than whether an organization is market oriented. However, the positive relationship between customer value delivery and market share growth is still useful from a long-run perspective.

Looking internationally, U.S. companies have traditionally enjoyed success in selling to foreign markets and gaining substantial shares of foreign markets. However, this success has declined over the past few decades, as indicated by the decline in worldwide market share held by U.S. firms in many industries (World Bank Group 1997). This decline could have possibly been prevented, or perhaps commuted, if U.S. industry had kept its eyes on delivering customer value (Stahl and Bounds 1991). Obviously then, understanding what customers value is not simply a domestic issue.

Value is based upon customer perceptions and not managerial judgments. As a result, it is imperative to understand value from the consumer's perspective (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). Understanding what customers value is one area in which marketing can have a distinct influence upon the strategy dialogue. Holbrook (1994) defines value as "a relativistic preference" characterizing a customer's experience of interacting with

some object. Similarly, Woodruff (1997) defines it as "a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations" (p. 142). Woodruff and Gardial (1996) offer means-end theory as a way to conceptualize how customers perceive value, as illustrated in Figure 1-3.

Means-End Theory and Customer Value

Means-end theory represents how customers think about products. More specifically, the theory focuses on important meanings that consumers associate with the products they purchase and consume. Means-end theory distinguishes between three levels of abstraction or categories of meaning: attributes, consequences, and end-states. In essence, customers value products with attributes that produce desired consequences and minimize undesired consequences. The importance of these consequences is, in turn, determined by the desired end-states or values that the consequences help the consumer to fulfill (Gutman 1982).

Means-end theory represents an effective perspective for understanding customer value (Cathey 1999; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). It allows marketers to better understand how consumers perceive products and services. By understanding how a certain segment of consumers link specific product features with desired consequences and end-states, marketers may be better able to design the marketing mix to provide superior value. Moreover, by learning to think in terms of the delivery of desired consequences and end-states rather than only product features, marketers and marketing organizations themselves become more efficient and effective (Johnson 1998; Woodruff

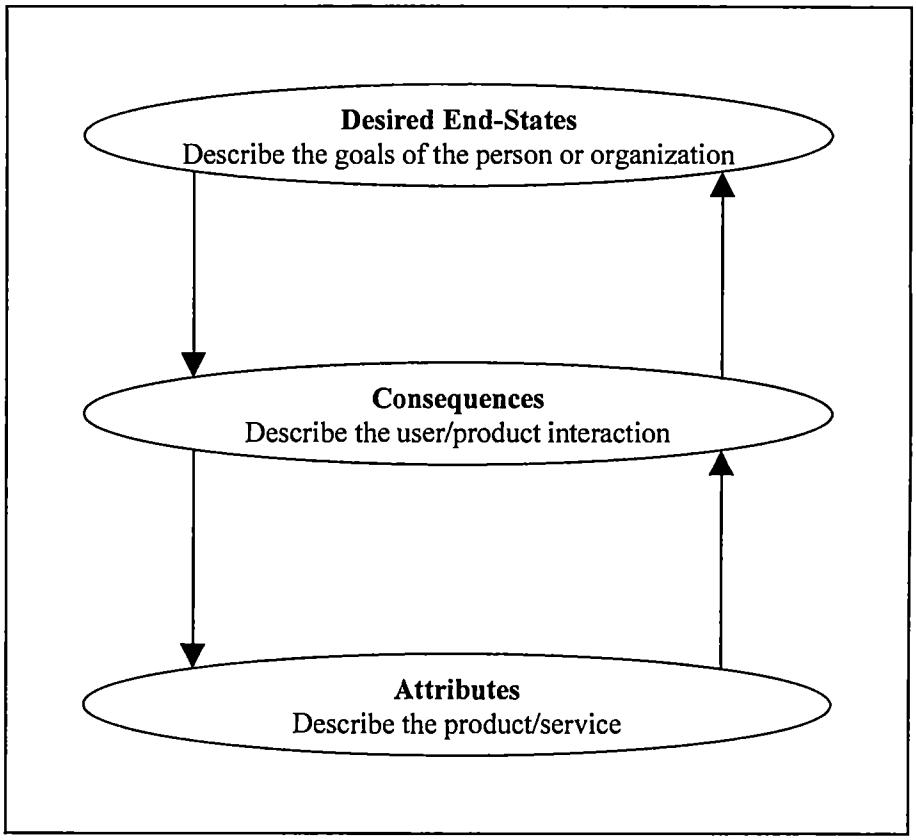


Figure 1-3: Customer Value Hierarchy
Source: Adapted from Woodruff and Gardial (1996)

1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). There has been increasing utilization of means-end theory in the marketing literature in recent years primarily for understanding consumers' cognitive structures in relation to products and services (e.g., Hofstede, Steenkamp, and Wedel 1999; Valette-Florence 1998; Pieters, Baumgartner, and Allen 1995; Cathey 1999). However, a review of this literature reveals several gaps.

First, many empirical studies have not examined all of the means-end levels (i.e., attributes, consequences, and end-states) simultaneously. For example, Barczak, Ellen, and Pilling (1997) utilized means-end research followed by a survey to examine consumer motives for use of technologically-based banking services. However, their analysis primarily focused on the consequence level only. Likewise, Walker and Olson (1991) examined only attributes and end-states when exploring how two decision situations affected subjects' product knowledge and means-end structure. The attractiveness of means-end theory is its ability to link desired attributes with desired consequences and end-states. An understanding of all three levels is important both for the development of customer value theories and for the development of marketing strategies.

Second, few means-end studies have specifically proposed and tested hypotheses regarding the content and structure of means-end hierarchies. A number of studies (e.g., Aurifeille and Valette-Florence 1995; Hofstede et al. 1998; Valette-Florence and Rapacchi 1991; Gengler and Reynolds 1995; Reynolds and Gutman 1988) have been primarily methodological. These have examined methods for accessing consumers' means-end thoughts and also methods for graphically mapping the results. Most other

means-end studies have been primarily exploratory. For example, Klenosky, Gengler, and Mulvey (1993) conducted a study to assess the means-end structural relationships of downhill skiers. However, no hypotheses were stated in advance of the empirical work. Similarly, Mulvey et al. (1994) utilized means-end theory to examine the content and structure of three groups of consumers with differing levels of product involvement. However, no predefined hypotheses were stated as to how content and structure would differ. Knowledge in any discipline advances with the testing of theories. Thus, there needs to be more hypothesis development and hypothesis testing in the means-end theory literature in order to advance knowledge of customer value.

Third, as discussed later in this chapter, there has been little examination of means-end theory across two or more cultures. Such testing would help to establish the universality of the theory. Moreover, such testing would assist marketing strategists in the examination of customer value across cultures, possibly facilitating the identification of intermarket segments and better determination of the standardization or customization of the international marketing mix.

This research attempts to fill all three of these gaps. Specifically, a theoretical model is developed in Chapter 2 that examines the influence of culture upon all of the customer value hierarchy dimensions (attributes, consequences, and end-states). Propositions are then presented and tested to assess the validity of the model.

Culture and Customer Value

Johnson (1998) states that when examining customer value, the place to start is with historical and cultural factors. This statement implies that culture must have a

significant impact upon what customers value in a product. Johnson (1998) believes that culture is often overlooked as a starting point for understanding root customer wants and needs. Roth (1995, pp. 164-5) concurs when he states that "the many aspects of a culture affect differently the needs consumers satisfy through the acquisition and use of goods and services." Examination of what customers from different cultures value in a product should, therefore, reveal the effects of cultural influences.

As discussed earlier, customer value theory and analysis may prove to be a promising alternative to traditional segmentation approaches both domestically and internationally, and ultimately the implementation of the marketing concept. However, understanding customer value internationally raises numerous theoretical and methodological issues. First, do consumers perceive value in the same ways across cultures? For example, might consumers in Hong Kong and Singapore desire similar product attributes but for very different reasons? Second, what methods are best for determining value cross-culturally? Perhaps the laddering interview technique is more effective within certain cultures than others, or perhaps certain cultures are more inclined to respond to mail surveys than others. Finally, do the antecedents, moderators, and outcomes of customer value judgements differ across cultures? It may be that people from modern cultures have value structures that are dissimilar to people from traditional cultures. These questions demand an understanding of culture's role in forming customers' value perceptions.

Culture has always been recognized as a variable influencing marketing by organizations. Nearly every introductory marketing textbook examines the impact of the

cultural environment upon marketing decisions. In fact, the cultural environment is often one of the first topics addressed in any marketing survey course. Berkman, Lindquist, and Sirgy (1997) argue for the importance of culture to the marketing discipline when stating that "culture influences the benefits and therefore the products people seek" (p. 412).

Culture is often cited as a primary reason that specific goods and services valued in one society may not be valued by another society. This fact is realized when one examines the plethora of ways that marketers have adapted services and products for specific target markets. For example, Colgate-Palmolive offers its soaps in three different shapes, and seven different fragrances in 43 different countries in the world. Likewise, *Cosmopolitan* magazine is published in over 30 international editions with varying editorial content and printed in over a dozen languages (Berkman, Lindquist and Sirgy 1997).

Duesenberry (1949) was one of the first researchers to study the role played by culture for the individual consumer. He postulated that "in every case the kinds of activities in which people engage are culturally determined; (and) nearly all purchases of goods are made...either to provide physical comfort or to implement the activities which make up the life of our culture" (p. 20). Obviously then, knowledge and understanding of the complexities of culture are important to the marketer in developing successful strategies.

One key component of culture that has recently begun to receive increased attention in the marketing and consumer behavior literature is cultural values (McCort

and Malhotra 1993; McCracken 1986; Roth 1995). McCracken (1990) illustrates the importance of culture and values for understanding consumer behavior, and he also links these concepts to the importance of understanding what customers value in a product. He states that traditional consumer models have represented the consumer as a "maximizing creature" who makes all product decisions based upon economic utility. For this type of consumer, products are simply bundles of utility and never packages of meaning. Defined in this manner, the consumer is essentially placed outside of a cultural context. For this reason, McCracken presents an alternative view of products as vehicles of cultural meanings, and consumers as "choosers and users of these cultural meanings." And he implicates the marketing system as one of the primary methods in which products assume cultural significance.

In order for the marketing discipline to practice what it preaches - a focus on the customer - marketing and consumer behavior research should turn toward anthropology and take advantage of its understanding of culture. Rustogi (1990) asserts that the anthropological perspective of culture provides "a realistic background for studying consumer behavior across national boundaries" (p. 13). He adds that culture is essentially transmitted from one generation to another through the socialization process that introduces each new generation to the fundamental values of that society. Since these factors influence consumer decision-making processes, they should become the focus of marketers. Therefore, "value analysis becomes increasingly important in international trade" (Rustogi 1990, p. 14).

Verhage and Henion (1986) suggest that marketers must allow for cross-cultural differences in the marketing mix because values, attitudes, and beliefs are different across cultures and, hence, translate into different needs. And different needs are one of the key explanations for how consumers value products differently. Therefore, customer value research should consider the impact of cultural values on customers' determination of product value. Several researchers have examined cultural values and a number of typologies have emerged, including those of Hofstede (1984) and Schwartz (1992). Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions have been some of the most used and cited examples of cultural values, and many scholars have attempted to link these values to behavior.

How have these studies been used to demonstrate how cultural *values* relate to customer *value*? Utilizing the individualism/collectivism dimension as an example, many studies have simply measured consumers on some type of behavior and then categorized those consumers as either individualist or collectivist depending upon their nationality. Any differences in behavior have then been attributed to cultural differences. Unfortunately, this indirect approach relies on a great deal of inference. Do such researchers really know that the reasons behind the consumer behavior differences are culturally based?

An alternative method of linking cultural value differences to differences in desired value and consumer behavior is the use of means-end theory (Valette-Florence 1998). Examining means-end hierarchies should reveal the differences between consumers on desired consequences and end-states resulting from consumption of the same product or

service. If the consequences and end-states are congruent with cultural dimensions, then these differences can more confidently be attributed to cultural differences.

The few cross-cultural means-end studies in the literature (e.g., Hofstede et al. 1999; Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Valette-Florence 1998) have essentially sidestepped a deep *understanding* of why and how culture impacts the hierarchy. These studies, which are discussed in Chapter 2, have simply explored means-end hierarchies in two or more cultures through highly structured methods (i.e., paper-and-pencil, association pattern technique). They have then presented primarily quantitative analyses with little or no *explanation* as to why similarities and differences exist. Although highly structured, non-interview techniques may be more objective, these techniques often do not allow the researcher to probe for deep meaning. Moreover, because of the structured methods utilized, the resulting hierarchies are often somewhat simplified. For example, paper-and-pencil laddering approaches usually only evoke three to five ladders, and these ladders are often only two to five dimensions in length. Highly structured approaches such as these also do not allow for much crossover between dimensions. For example, consumers may cognitively link an attribute to a number of higher level dimensions, but a highly structured laddering approach may not elicit these diverse linkages. Contrary to these approaches, the way that customers cognitively assess value dimensions is anything but simple. For example, consumers often link value dimensions in multiple direct and indirect ways. And consumers often ascribe different meaning and importance to specific dimensions and linkages. Therefore, it seems that the existing studies utilizing means-end theory leave much room for further exploration and understanding.

Finally, existing cross-cultural means-end studies have essentially placed cultural influences at the top of the hierarchy; values are equated to end-states, which are offered as a driver for the importance of desired consequences (Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Overby and Min 1998). These desired end-states then filter down and influence the consequences and ultimately the attributes that the consumers value. Unfortunately, this oversimplifies the proposed influence of culture upon customer value. What is needed is a more comprehensive model. Figure 1-4 presents a revised view of the customer value hierarchy by incorporating the influence of culture. This conceptual model demonstrates that culture is intertwined throughout all of the levels of meanings that consumers construct for products and services. Rather than simply filtering down through end-states, culture is expected to directly influence all dimensions and linkages in the hierarchy. For example, a consumer in Korea might perceive a "crowded store" (attribute) as "hip" or "exclusive," whereas an American consumer might perceive the same store attribute as "cheap." These differences are likely explained by the influence of culture upon attribute and/or consequence perception and not end-states. The conceptual model will be further explored in the next chapter and will guide the development of the theoretical model.

Research Objectives and Questions

The general objective of this research was to determine how culture impacts upon a customer value hierarchy. Drawing from the personal values literature, the culture literature, the customer value literature, and the international marketing strategy literature, a theoretical model was proposed.

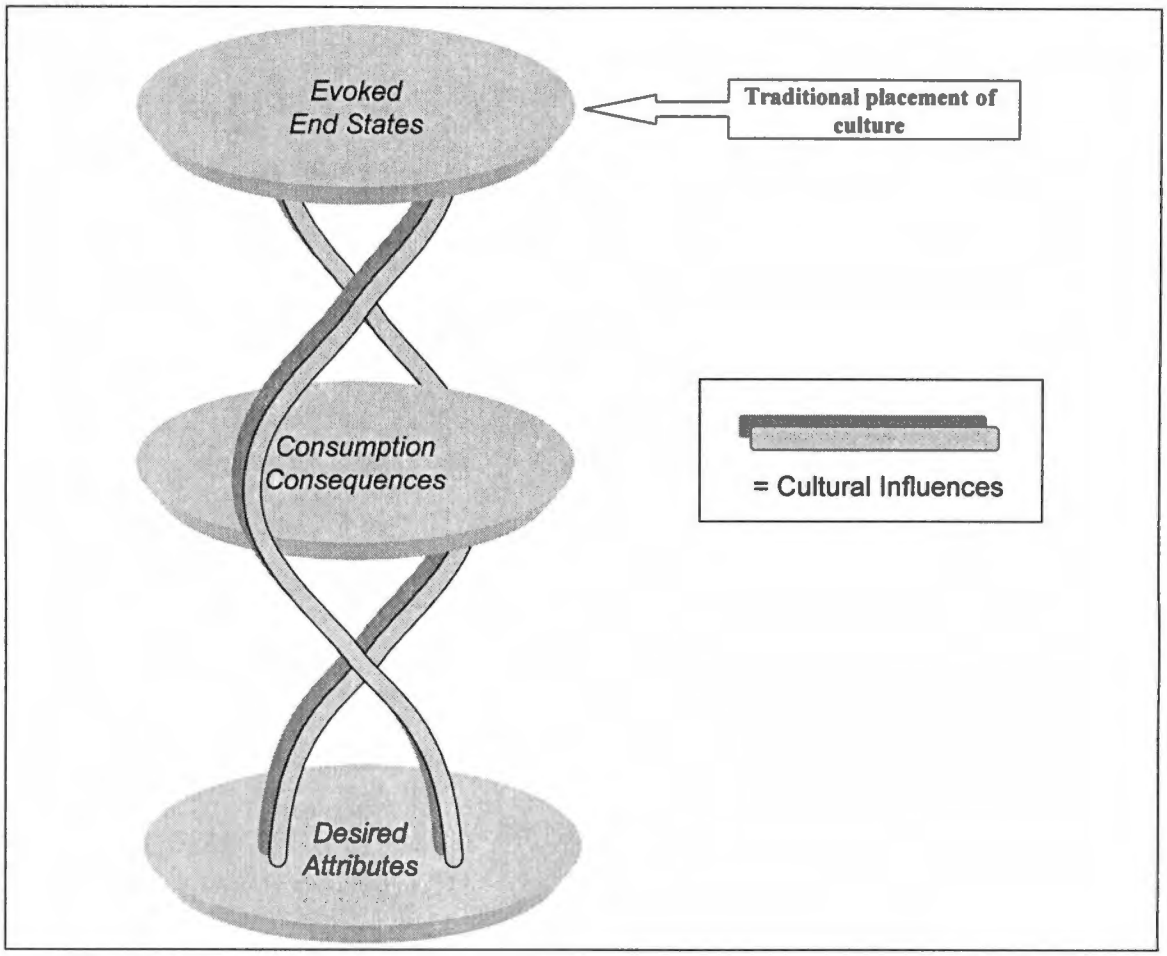


Figure 1-4: Conceptual Model

This model was developed to help academic researchers and practitioners better understand the influence of culture upon the customer value process, with the ultimate objective being to help make better strategic marketing decisions, such as those related to segmentation and standardization/customization of the marketing mix. One overall question guided this research. The overall question was:

Does culture impact upon customers' value perceptions?

Utilizing means-end theory and customer value theory, there are several places where culture can have an impact, i.e., values, desired consequences and/or desired attributes, and the linkages between them. Moreover, there are various aspects of culture (i.e., language, economics, religion, social institutions, values, customs) that can impact upon customer value. For example, social institutions such as family structure can influence desired value for an automobile, as an extended family might value "roominess" and a two-person family might value "sportiness." This research only addressed the influence of culture through cultural values.

If cultural influences affect customer perceptions, then customer value hierarchies will likely exhibit differences between diverse cultures. Moreover, these differences may emerge both in terms of the content and the structure of the hierarchy. Content refers to the actual dimensions (attributes, consequences, end-states) in the customer value hierarchy. Culture is expected to influence both the perception and importance of these dimensions. For example, American consumers generally value mild coffee, whereas Italian consumers value stronger coffee.

Structure refers to the hierarchical linkages between value dimensions. Like content, culture is expected to influence both the perception and importance of these linkages. For example, Americans may be more likely to value a certain color of clothing because it makes them stand out from the crowd, whereas Koreans may be more likely to value another color clothing because it helps them to fit in with those around them.

Thus, there are two major subquestions that will help to answer the overall research question:

1. *Does culture impact upon the content of the customer value hierarchy?*
    a. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
    b. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
2. *Does culture impact upon the structure of the customer value hierarchy?*
    a. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of linkages between attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
    b. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon linkages between specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*

Research Gaps and Potential Contributions

Addressing the above research questions should help to fill some of the existing gaps in the literature. One such gap concerns the fact that much of the research on customer value and means-end theory has been conceptual or exploratory with little hypothesis testing. Numerous researchers have extolled the benefits of understanding what customers value (Kotler 1972; Narver and Slater 1990; Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). Others have provided normative recommendations for businesses (Johnson 1998; Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). However, few have

empirically examined customer value models and tested theoretical antecedents and consequences of customer value formation.

This study proposed a priori propositions regarding the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy and also tested these propositions. Because support was shown for the propositions, future research can turn to the examination of moderating factors, along with possible antecedents and consequences of customer value. Additionally, practitioners will have greater confidence that customer value analysis is an effective tool for understanding and possibly predicting consumer behavior.

Another gap that this research attempted to fill is the lack of cross-cultural customer value analyses. Only four studies (Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Hofstede, Steenkamp and Wedel 1999; Overby and Min 1998; Valette-Florence 1998) have appeared in the marketing literature utilizing means-end theory on a *cross-cultural* basis. The lack of cross-cultural value research is surprising considering the many benefits that such analysis offers to researchers and practitioners. In terms of theoretical research, this study demonstrated how cultural differences translate into differences in the cognitive structures of consumers.

And for practitioners, this study demonstrated how cultural differences in customer value perceptions can and should influence the development of marketing strategy. As Van Raaij (1978) states, "from a practitioner's viewpoint, there exists the need for information on consumer behavior in other cultures and nations in order to develop international marketing operations. It's not the validation or invalidation of

theories that is important here, but rather the answer on the question of applying a global or culture-specific marketing strategy" (p. 693).

Overview of Dissertation

This chapter has presented the problem that the dissertation will address. Specific research questions have been offered to guide the study. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive and integrative review of the appropriate literatures that facilitates the examination of the research questions raised and facilitates the emergence of research propositions. Chapter 3 delineates research methodologies to test the research propositions. Chapter 4 reviews the actual analysis and findings. Finally, Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings, implications, and future research.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Chapter 2 reviews selected literature related to the research questions. The chapter provides the foundation and antecedent justification for the conceptual framework and research propositions that guided the dissertation research. The chapter consists of four major sections. The first section examines the literature on customer value. The second section examines the culture literature from various disciplines. The third section reviews customer value in terms of means-end theory and reviews cross-cultural applications of this theory. The fourth section presents an expanded conceptual framework based upon insights from the customer value, means-end theory, and culture literatures, and develops propositions as to how these dimensions are expected to influence the conceptual model in two diverse cultures.

Customer Value

Definitions/Theories of Value in General

The concept of value has been the subject of study for a long time. Moreover, the concept has been examined by numerous disciplines. Some of the primary disciplinary conceptualizations of value are discussed below.

Philosophy Perspective on Value. Early philosophers were actually some of the first to examine the concept of value. Some of the philosophers, such as Plato (1991), viewed value as an innate property of an object that individuals are only able to

"apperceive" by intuition. Later philosophers, such as Dewey (1931), viewed value as neither wholly subjective nor objective. Rather, value is determined by the interaction of subject and object. In general, philosophers who examine value (also called axiologists) have completely ignored the concepts of price paid and sacrifices made to attain value (Sinha 1996).

Economics Perspective on Value. Unlike axiologists, economists have considered value primarily from a material perspective. Early economists, such as Adam Smith (1902), proposed examining value-in-use (the ability of a product to provide some functional utility) in addition to value as economic exchange. Ratchford (1975) actually suggested that the demand for products was because of consumers' demands for product attributes and not the products themselves. However, most current economic texts equate value simply to equilibrium price, or the point at which demand for a product equals supply for that product (Sinha 1996). Moreover, current economic thought states how people *should* actually behave rather than how they actually *do* behave. It also completely denies the presence of psychological motivation, thus rendering it "incapable of conducting a productive, if meaningful, inquiry into what value is and how it is formed" (Sinha 1996, p. 25).

Marketing Perspective on Value. Value concepts that have emerged in the marketing literature have begun to have some success at overcoming the theoretical limitations present in axiology and economics. However, this does not imply that there are not disagreements among marketing researchers as to the meaning of value. Sinha (1996) has developed a comprehensive taxonomy of major value theories in marketing.

This taxonomy is presented in Table 2-1, and then each of the four value types are briefly discussed.

Table 2-1: Taxonomy of Value Theories

Theory	Value Definition	Research Articles
Transaction-Specific	Value is the perceived savings in the transaction (i.e., reference price less given price)	Szybillo and Jacoby (1974); Berkowitz and Walton (1980); Urbany et al. (1988)
Price-Adjusted Quality	Value is quality conditional on price (i.e., Value = Quality/Price)	Monroe (1990); Dodds, Monroe, and Grewel (1991); Bolton and Drew (1991); Tellis and Gaeth (1990)
Utility-Oriented	Value depends on utility of the product, or utility conditional on the sacrifice made (i.e., Value = transaction utility + acquisition utility)	Thaler (1985); Hauser and Urban (1986); Zeithaml (1988); Krishnamurthi et al. (1992)
Experiential	Value is an interactive experience or is a subjective notion derived from experience. Value is highly influenced by the situation.	Holbrook (1994); Holbrook and Hirschman (1982); Holbrook and Corfman (1985)

Source: Adapted from Sinha (1996)

The *transaction-specific theory* of value was the primary focus of most early conceptualizations of value in the marketing literature (Sinha 1996). For example, Berkowitz and Walton (1980) examined the influence of several aspects of price - perceived worth, price acceptability, and value for the money - upon several dependent variables. Likewise, Szybillo and Jacoby (1974) examined the influence of perceived worth upon purchase intentions. Unfortunately, this perspective was essentially limited to price savings, and it considered no other benefits.

The *price-adjusted theory* of value still dominates the marketing literature. This view holds that value is a subjective association between quality and price (Sinha 1996). For example, Dodds et al. (1991, p. 308) write: "Price can be an indicator of the amount

of sacrifice needed to purchase a product and an indicator of the level of quality. Higher prices lead to higher perceived quality and consequently to a greater willingness to buy." Stahl and Bounds (1991) identify quality as one of the major dimensions of customer value. And Gale (1994, p. xiv) defines customer value as "market perceived quality adjusted for the relative price of your product."

The quality of a product has been associated with value perceptions among consumers for some time, but the notion of quality has also been the subject of definitional problems in research (Holbrook and Corfman 1985; Zeithaml 1988). For example, Zeithaml (1988, p. 5) defines quality as a higher-order abstraction that deals with "the superiority or excellence" of a product. Monroe (1990, p. 47), on the other hand, defines quality as "the ability of the product to provide satisfaction." Additionally, Sinha (1996) points out that there are problems with solely using the price-quality tradeoff to determine value. For example, "what helpful purpose does a product having high quality and a low price serve when it is not desired by anyone, i.e. *there is no perceived utility*?" (p. 30).

Given these shortcomings, a *utility-oriented theory* of value has emerged. This theory views value as a tradeoff between utility (or benefits) and sacrifice (Sinha 1996). For example, Zeithaml (1988, p. 14) defines value as "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perception of what is received and what is given." Likewise, Monroe (1985, p. 46) defines value as perceptions representing a tradeoff between the benefits from a product or service relative to the sacrifice they perceive by paying the price. Sinha (1996) argues that this conceptualization of value is more useful

than a simple price-quality tradeoff, but that there still exists considerable heterogeneity in consumer perceptions.

The *experiential theory* of value incorporates consumer characteristics and experiences (Sinha 1996). For example, Holbrook (1994, p. 27) offers a formal definition of value as "*an interactive relativistic preference experience*." This definition contains several important elements. First, value is a preference. Preference implies a favorable disposition, liking, or positive affect. Second, value involves interaction between a subject and object. By object, Holbrook (1994) means any good, service, person, place, thing, event, or idea. Third, value is relativistic. Relativistic implies that value hinges on the context within which an evaluative judgment occurs and the individual evaluating it. For example, two consumers may differ distinctly on brand purchases, one placing significant value on brand names and another preferring generics. Likewise, the first consumer may value different brands depending on the use situation. For example, when hosting a dinner party he may prefer a European brand of beer to impress others, while at home alone he might prefer American brands. Finally, value attaches to an experience. Experience implies the actual consumption of a product rather than simply its purchase. Thus, consumers may actually change value perceptions after using a product or service.

In considering all of the various value theories and conceptualizations related to customers, Woodruff (1997) identifies several areas of consensus among research definitions of customer value. First, customer value is linked to a product. According to Woodruff, "this characteristic distinguishes customer value from personal or

organizational 'value,' those centrally held and enduring beliefs about right and wrong, good and bad that cuts across situations and products or services" (p. 141). Second, customer value is perceived by customers, rather than objectively determined by the seller. Finally, customer perceptions of customer value involve a trade-off between what the consumer receives (e.g., quality, benefits, and utilities) and what s/he gives up (e.g., price, and sacrifices).

Woodruff and Gardial (1996, p. 54) define customer value as "the customers' perception of what they want to have happen (i.e., the consequences) in a specific use situation, with the help of a product or service offering, in order to accomplish a desired purpose or goal." This paper will build upon the Woodruff and Gardial definition, but with one primary addition - that of culture. The definition of customer value adopted for this paper is:

> *Customer value is the customer's perception of the extent to which use of a product allows him/her to accomplish some desired purpose or goal. This evaluation is influenced by the interaction of person, product, culture, and use situation, and it is the result of perceived tradeoffs between the positive and negative consequences of product use.*

Utilizing the above definition, each of the above components of the value definition are discussed.

Perceived by Customer

Value is perceived by the individual - hence, it is idiosyncratic. However, this does not necessarily mean that individuals cannot agree on some level of value. Sinha (1996, p. 10) posits that there may be sufficient commonality in the idiosyncratic

experiences of more than one individual "such that aggregation may be possible at the segment level and within any one of which consumers may be considered as being homogeneous."

Corfman, Lehmann, and Narayanan (1991) actually present a model for determining the value of a product that incorporates perception. They posit that value is determined by the tradeoff of utility and price. In turn, utility is determined by the consumer based upon both the *perception* that personal values are satisfied by the product and the *relative importance* of the personal values that are satisfied. They continue by identifying several sources of perceptions, including previous experience, advertising, and word of mouth.

Linked to Product (Good or Service)

Alicke (1983, p. 4) defines value as "a relationship between a cognizing subject and the object of the subject's apprehension." Although he uses the term object, he later refines this term to include not only material objects of value, or goods, but also abstract objects of value. He adds that psychologists often refer to statements about objects as attitudes and reserve the term value for more abstract concepts. Philosophers, on the other hand, generally consider all evaluative statements as statements of value.

In evaluating products, consumers often focus on the features or characteristics of the product itself (Burns 1993). Ratchford (1975) states that economic theory suggests that consumer demand is built on underlying product characteristics or attributes rather than on brands or product themselves. Myers and Shocker (1981) claim that the product

characteristics which consumers use to determine value tend to be in the cognitive realm and include both physical characteristics and pseudo-physical characteristics.

Physical characteristics are "the most objective types of product descriptors, in the sense that they are measurable on some sort of physical scale; e.g., temperature, color intensity or hue, sweetness, thickness, dollars, acidity, saltiness, strength of fragrance, contains vitamins, etc." (p. 213). Physical characteristics can even apply to some services. For example, food taste and décor are physical characteristics of a restaurant. Pseudo-physical characteristics are "also objective in nature but are not as measurable on a physical scale. However, they reflect physical properties that are generally understood by both producers and consumers; e.g., spiciness, smoky taste, greasiness, creaminess, shininess, etc." (Myers and Shocker 1981, p. 213).

This linkage to value is not only reserved for tangible goods and services with physical characteristics. Many services have few tangible attributes but still represent value to customers. For example, universities provide value through attributes such as quality teaching and service to the community.

Influenced by Culture

It is reasonable to expect that culture will influence how customers perceive and determine value. However, to examine this statement, culture must first be defined. Triandis (1994) offers a lengthy definition:

> Culture is a set of human-made objective and subjective elements that in the past have increased the probability of survival and resulted in satisfactions for the participants in an ecological niche, and thus became shared among those who could communicate with each other because they had a common language and they lived in the same time and place.

Ferraro (1994) offers a shorter definition, but like Triandis, seems to exclude nothing: "culture is everything that people have, think, and do as members of society" (p. 17).

Other cultural researchers have limited their definitions to include only mental processes, such as attitudes, beliefs, and values. Given that this paper is primarily concerned with cognitive structures of consumers in divergent cultures, this paper will take a similar position and adopt the definition of culture offered by Hofstede (1984): culture is the "collective programming of the mind." This definition essentially refers to those enduring characteristics (i.e., beliefs and values) that are held commonly by members of a society.

Few previous customer value studies have addressed the issue of cultural influences. However, it could be argued that the perception of value is not solely an internally influenced phenomenon (McCort and Malhotra 1993). For example, Duesenberry (1949) was one of the early researchers to examine the role played by culture for the individual. He postulated that "in every case the kinds of activities in which people engage are culturally determined; (and) nearly all purchases of goods are made...either to provide physical comfort or to implement the activities which make up the life of our culture" (p. 20). Likewise, Triandis and Brislin (1984) have asserted that culture should exhibit its greatest influence upon perception, information processing strategies, and cognitive structures. Similarly, Hofstede (1984) links the "intensity" of wants and needs to culture, and Bock (1994) attributes motivation to culture. Culture thus influences customer value through two mechanisms: perception and importance.

Perception. The way that people actually perceive the world around them is significantly influenced by the culture in which one has been socialized (Bock 1994; Cui and Choudhury 1998; McCracken 1986; McCracken 1990). Although perception has been shown to have, in part, a physiological basis (the five senses), it also has cultural, social, economic, and psychological bases (Bock 1994; Usunier 1996). In fact, culture affects every stage of the perceptual process. Initially, it provides patterned material for perception (i.e., architecture, smell of foods, sounds of music). Later, through verbal and nonverbal means, it suggests the proper labeling of and responses to perceptions of patterns. These arguments have been supported by evidence in both the psychological and anthropological literature (Bock 1994; Bruner 1973; Segal, Campbell and Herskovits 1966; Spindler and Spindler 1991).

Culture may influence perception directly and indirectly. For example, a Korean consumer might perceive a small store with 20 people in it as not being crowded, whereas an American consumer might perceive the same store as being very crowded. Culture might also influence perception indirectly through a psychological basis such as motivation, as people tend to perceive things that they want or need. Needs have been posited in the marketing literature to become wants through the shaping of culture and individual personality (Kotler and Armstrong 1997). For example, a resident of Mississippi might perceive iced tea as the way to quench his/her thirst, whereas a thirsty resident of Provence might perceive pastis as being the only answer.

McCracken (1986) refers to "culture" as a lens through which people view the world. As such, culture influences how people perceive and assimilate phenomena. Cui

and Choudhury (1998, p. 355) assert that culture actually informs the "ways that people perceive marketers and experience the market place, such as responses to new product offerings and perception of product attributes." For example, in an examination of consumer perceptions in Israel and Australia, Kustin and Heazlewood (1993) find evidence that there are differences in consumer perceptions in diverse global markets. Not only do they find significant differences in perceptions of frozen prepared entrees, but they also find significant differences in the relationship between purchases of frozen prepared entrees and the consequences (weight loss methods) that result. In their study, Israeli consumers link low calorie and natural foods to weight loss methods while Australian consumers link natural and low salt/cholesterol foods to weight loss methods.

Importance. In addition to perception, culture is also proposed to influence importance placed on customer value dimensions. Cultural influences actually help determine societal norms and roles, and individual needs, motives, and values. In turn, these roles, norms, motives, and values influence the importance placed on specific customer value dimensions (Tse, Wong and Tan 1988). For example, it has been a norm in the United States for women to marry in a white dress, as the color white is generally linked with the consequence "purity." This cultural influence results in significant importance being placed on the color of the dress when a bride is shopping.

Needs and motives have been shown to be basically what drives customer desire for product value, and numerous marketers have argued that individual needs and motives are ultimately driven by cultural influences (Bock 1994; Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Johnson 1998; Kotler and Armstrong 1997; McCracken 1986;

McCracken 1990; Van Raaij and Wandwossen 1978). Johnson (1998) has been a strong proponent of a customer orientation, and he makes the argument that culture should actually be the starting point for understanding "root customer wants and needs." Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991) state that the strength of individual motives are largely determined by cultural and life history factors. Finally, in arguing for the influence of an evoked set of role values upon value judgments, Flint, Woodruff, and Gardial (1997) state that this evoked set is partially formed by culture, personality, and society.

Johnson (1998) provides an excellent example of the many cultural factors impacting upon the importance of specific products. He examines a comparison of Japanese and American societies, and he finds that there is an inherent emphasis placed upon homogeneity, purity, and stability in traditional Japanese society. He then explains how these cultural factors influence a specific product - headache remedies. U.S. consumers traditionally value a remedy that is tailored to their particular type of ache or pain. Conversely, Japanese consumers value the purity and homogeneity of available remedies. The implication is that Japanese consumers prefer analgesic tablets in a bubble pack instead of a bottle so that they can inspect each tablet for uniformity and purity.

Specific to Use-Situation

Customer value is created when a product and a user interact within a particular use situation. In fact, desired value and value judgments will change according to the context in which the consumption takes place (Gardial, Clemons, Woodruff et al. 1994; Holbrook 1994; Sheth, Newman and Gross 1991; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988). Woodruff and Gardial (1996) assert that the context is so important that consumer

researchers will experience difficulties attempting to understand how consumers perceive the value provided by a product without first understanding the many different ways that the product will be used.

Outside the value literature, there has been considerable research already on the influence of situation upon consumer behavior (Belk 1975; Kahle and Timmer 1983). However, this literature has examined a broader type of situation of the environmental or ecological variety. Customer value research focuses on one specific type of situation, the use situation. Use situation refers to the situational characteristics that are occurring at the one point in time or space that the consumer is actually purchasing and/or consuming the product (Belk 1975).

Tradeoff of Consequences

Value is believed to result from tradeoffs made by consumers (Holbrook 1994; Sheth, Newman and Gross 1991; Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988). Traditionally, these tradeoffs were believed to involve only quality and price (Zeithaml 1988). However, recently the concept of tradeoffs has been extended to include a much wider range of sacrifices and benefits (Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). Sacrifices might include everything from price to time wasted to psychological benefits given up. Likewise, benefits might include everything from quality to time saved to compliments from others.

The benefits that contribute to customer value have been conceptualized as occurring primarily at the consequence level of the value hierarchy (Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988). The concept of consequences has been

examined by several researchers (Burns 1994; Holbrook 1994; Lai 1995; Sheth, Newman and Gross 1991) in the marketing literature recently under terms such as benefits, value, and consumption value. A number of types of consequences have been identified, and these are presented in Table 2-2. Of these consequence typologies, several consequences appear to be common across a number of researchers, including functional, social, emotional, hedonic, and symbolic. Functional and social consequences are most clearly and consistently defined. The others (i.e., emotional, hedonic, and symbolic) share common elements, especially the fact that they represent personal, intrinsic effects. As a result, they are collapsed into a third type called personal. These three types of consequences - functional, personal, and social - are discussed.

Functional Consequences represent the ability of a product or service to perform its utilitarian purposes. These consequences are often based upon salient physical attributes in the case of goods. Functional valuation is primarily founded on the concept of utility from the field of economics (Burns 1993). Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991, p. 34) define utility as "the satisfaction derived from using a product or service." It is implied that satisfaction is derived from the physical product performing its intended purpose. In addition to product performance and/or attributes, utility can also result from the benefits provided prior to, during, and after use of the product (Myers and Shocker 1981; Burns 1993; Woodruff 1997). The concept of use value has been addressed previously through the evaluative belief and perceived instrumentality components of the models developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Rosenberg (1956).

Table 2-2: Types of Consequences

Researcher	Consequences
Burns (1993)	1) Functional Value (Value-in-Use) 2) Symbolic Value (Possession Value)
Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991)	1) Functional Value 2) Social Value 3) Emotional Value 4) Epistemic Value 5) Conditional Value
Holbrook (1994)	1) Efficiency Value 2) Play Value 3) Excellence (Quality) Value 4) Esthetics Value 5) Politics (Success) Value 6) Morality Value 7) Esteem Value 8) Spirituality Value
Lai (1995)	1) Functional Benefits 2) Social Benefits 3) Affective Benefits 4) Epistemic Benefits 5) Aesthetic Benefits 6) Hedonic Benefits 7) Situational Benefits 8) Holistic Benefits
de Ruyter, Wetzels, Lemmink, and Mattsson (1997)	1) Emotional Value 2) Practical Value 3) Logical Value
Naylor (1996)	1) Experiential Benefits 2) Functional Benefits 3) Symbolic Benefits

Personal Consequences represent the ability of a product to satisfy important intrinsic goals. This is similar to symbolic valuation identified by Burns (1994) which is primarily founded on the concept of a product's contribution to self-enhancement (Burns 1993). Levy (1959) was one of the early proponents of symbolic valuation. He acknowledged that "people buy things not only for what they can do, but also for what they mean" (p. 118). McCracken (1990) has been another proponent of this view. He states that "consumer goods have a significance that goes beyond their utilitarian character and commercial value" (p. 71). This interest in the symbolic nature of products and how they relate to individuals appear to be expanding (Burns 1993). Numerous other researchers (Hirschman and LaBarbera 1990; Holbrook 1986; Mick 1986) have presented studies in which they identify factors related to the meaning placed on material possessions.

Social Consequences represent the ability of a product or service to portray an image to others that is congruent with the norms of important others. These consequences are often associated with publicly consumed products and services. In fact, Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991) state that the consumption of almost any visibly identifiable product is likely to be at least partially, if not primarily, influenced by social value. This value type is closely related to the esteem value of Holbrook (1994). Holbrook claims that esteem value results from "the reactive contemplation of one's own status and prestige, as reflected in the approbative opinion of others" (p. 48). This concept has been the subject of numerous other research, going all the way back to

Veblen's (1899) "conspicuous consumption" and forward to Eastman et al.'s (1996) status consumption.

Summary of Value Literature

A review of the value and customer value literatures reveals numerous definitions and conceptualizations of value. An experiential approach seems most congruent with the idea of customer value because it incorporates the interaction of customer, product, and situation. There are several areas of consensus and insight in the literature in terms of the concept of customer value. First, customer value is perceived by the customer. Secondly, it is linked to a product or service. Third, it is specific to use situation. Fourth, it involves a tradeoff of consequences. The literature has also identified a number of types of consequences, and this study integrates these into three types: functional consequences, personal consequences, and social consequences.

What appears to be missing in the customer value literature is any consideration of the influence of culture upon the process by which customers determine value. A brief review of the culture literature reveals that culture is one of the primary determinants of individual wants, needs, and motives. In turn, these wants, needs, and motives determine what and how customers determine value. Culture appears to influence value determination in two ways: perception and importance. Given this discussion, the concept of culture needs to be further explored. This literature is reviewed in the next section.

Culture

Culture has been defined and conceptualized by countless researchers in a diversity of social science disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, psychology, marketing and management. Edward Tylor (1871) offered the first modern technical definition of culture. Tylor (1871, p. 1) defined culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."

Tylor's definition has been extended considerably by researchers since he first proposed it, and some have even attempted to create exhaustive universal lists of the content of culture (Bodley 1994). However, even among anthropologists, who claim culture as their guiding conceptual principle, there is no single definition of the phenomena. Thus, conceptualizing culture has resulted in considerable theoretical debate, and this fact is made aptly evident by Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) in their historical review of the literature. They collected and published over 160 different definitions of culture from various disciplines that study the phenomena. They categorized the definitions into six classes and from this developed their own definition of culture:

> Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments of artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may on the one hand be considered as products of actions, on the other as conditioning elements of further action (p. 357).

Rohner (1984) identifies two differing views of culture within anthropology. He states that one school of thought views culture as being institutionally directed behavior (i.e., technological, economic, political, religious, familial) and the other school views culture as a function of acquired meanings and symbolic relationships. Engel and Blackwell (1982, p. 72) agree with the second anthropological school discussed above when they define culture as:

> the complex of values, ideas, attitudes, and other meaningful symbols created by people to shape human behavior and the artifact of that behavior transmitted from one generation to another.

Bodley (1994, p. 8) defines culture as consisting of three components: "what people think, what they do, and the material products they produce." Ferraro (1994, p. 17) offers a similar definition when he states that "culture is everything that people have, think, and do as members of their society." These three themes (*having, thinking, and doing*) represent the structural components of the concept of culture. What people think involves mental processes and includes beliefs, knowledge, and values. What people do involves behavior, and this behavior is often the result of societal normative or expected patterns. Material products include the material and social artifacts constructed by people. Finally, as Ferraro (1994) includes in his definition, culture involves society. Culture must be shared by a significant segment of people. If a single individual thinks and behaves in a certain way, then his/her thoughts and actions are idiosyncratic, not cultural.

Properties of Culture

Given the above definitions, there exist a number of properties of culture upon which some consensus has been reached among researchers. Generally, it is agreed that culture is learned, shared, adaptive, and need satisfying. There are also properties on which most researchers do not agree, and these will be addressed following discussion of the areas of agreement listed above.

Culture is Learned.

This property implies that culture is not biologically inherited, but is learned instead. For example, Americans are not born knowing American values, but rather learn them. At a very early age, humans thus begin to acquire from their social environment a set of beliefs, values, and customs that make up their culture. Anthropologists refer to this learning of one's own culture as enculturation. This learning involves a degree of prescription in that it provides ideal standards or patterns of behavior so that the members of a society share a common understanding of what are right and wrong ways of thinking, feeling, and acting. Gupta (1996) states that enculturation allows most behavior and perceptions of behavior to occur at a subconscious level. Therefore, most individuals unconsciously access their own cultural value system when confronted with a behavior situation.

Although there are tremendous variations in cultures throughout the world, all people acquire their culture through learning. Ferraro (1994) adds that there is no evidence to suggest that people in some cultures are less efficient learners than people in other cultures. The function of learning is the same even though cultural content may be

different. He continues, stating that this notion of cultural learning has important implications for international marketers. One of these implications is the idea of tolerance. Understanding that cultures are different in part due to the content of their learning and not due to being any less intelligent allows a marketer to be more understanding of other cultures and leads to more effective intercultural communication. A second implication is the idea of acculturation. Acculturation refers to the process of learning about a culture other than one's own. Hence, if one recognizes that individuals have essentially learned their own respective culture, then one realizes that it may be possible to learn to function in other cultures as well.

Culture is Shared.

This idea was alluded to earlier when asserting that culture is not idiosyncratic but, instead, is shared between a significant segment of people and usually whole societies. Hence, culture is a social phenomenon. To be considered a cultural characteristic, a particular belief, value, or custom must be shared by a significant segment of a society (Schiffman and Kanuk 1997). Hofstede (1984) states that culture is to the human collective what personality is to the individual, because it determines the identity of a human group in much the same way that personality determines the identity of an individual.

This sharing implies that culture is complex. Herskovits (1958, p. 310) confirms this complexity when stating: "In populations of considerable size, with a high degree of specialization and a class structure, it is beyond the capacity of any one person to know

his entire culture." This complexity is a primary reason that researchers define only a part of culture as their area of research interest (Gupta 1996).

Culture is Adaptive.

Cultures are gradually and continuously changing. Some are static and change very slowly, whereas others are dynamic and change very rapidly. As the needs of society change, the behavioral patterns of society will also have to adapt to handle this change. For this reason, it is imperative that marketers carefully monitor the cultural environment in order to be able to market existing products more effectively or to develop promising new products for these changing needs (Schiffman and Kanuk 1997). Although some marketers argue that the world is becoming more homogeneous and cultural variation is decreasing (Levitt 1983), others are arguing the opposite. "It has become abundantly clear that...world cultures as a whole are resisting homogenization, even as they eagerly embrace Western consumer goods and bureaucratic forms" (LeVine 1988, p. 80).

Culture is Need-Satisfying.

Culture exists to satisfy the needs of people within a society. People will continue to abide by cultural beliefs, values, and customs as long as those beliefs, values, and customs yield satisfaction. However, when a specific standard no longer provides satisfaction to members of a society, it is often modified or replaced. This corresponds closely to the property of adaptation discussed above, because culture gradually, but continually, evolves to satisfy the needs of society (Schiffman and Kanuck 1997).

Schiffman and Kanuck (1997, p. 407) provide an excellent example of this property: "culture provides standards about when to eat (e.g., not between meals), where to eat (e.g., in a busy restaurant), and what is appropriate to eat for breakfast (e.g., juice and cereal), lunch (e.g., a hamburger), and dinner (e.g., something hot, good and healthy), and what to serve to guests at a dinner party (e.g., a formal sit-down meal), at a picnic (e.g., barbecued hot dogs and hamburgers), or at a wedding (e.g. champagne)."

Sources of Culture

Before the twentieth century, the explanation offered for cultural differences was differences in mental development. This was the view espoused by evolutionary cultural theorists such as Edward Tylor (1871), Herbert Spencer (1876) and William Sumner and Albert Keller (1927). As written by Tylor, the evolutionary theorists believed that "by simply placing nations at one end of the social series and savage tribes at the other, arranging the rest of mankind between these limits...ethnographers are able to set up a rough scale of civilization - a transition from the savage state to our own" (p. 27).

By the beginning of the twentieth century, Franz Boas began to posit another explanation as to the sources of culture. He and his students argued that cultural differences are explained by the environmental conditions in which people live and by the accidents of history. This view suggested that the development of cultures could be reconstructed by plotting the dispersion of particular customs, beliefs, and social forms (Goodenough 1996).

Both of these anthropological schools of thought shared a number of common ideas. One major area of agreement was that humans learn "culture" through interaction

with other humans, and hence, culture is not predetermined by genetic coding. This idea is still a defining element of any definition of culture. Another area of agreement was that the content of each culture is the property of a society as distinct from its individual (Goodenough 1996).

Triandis (1994) and Berry (1979) identify ecology as the principal source of culture. Triandis (1994) presents a simplified flowchart on the link between the two and social behavior:

Ecology → Culture → Social Behavior

He defines ecology as consisting of the "objects, the resources, and the geography of the environment, and the ways one can make a living and survive" (p. 14).

Georgas (1989) asserts that when trying to predict behavior, researchers must consider the entire range of influences - from ecology, social organization, communication, family, and personality. Additionally, researchers should consider the behavior setting (Barker 1968). Triandis (1994, p. 26-27) adds that "people behave in specific ways in each setting, e.g., praying in church, dancing at a party, depositing money at bank, reading in a library. The setting is one of the most powerful predictors of behavior. But cultures shape their settings differently, depending on the ecology, social organization, community, and family structure."

Hofstede (1991) describes the various cultural influencers as "the collective programming of the mind." Hofstede, along with other researchers (Usunier 1996; Trompenaars 1993) have attempted to detail all of the influencers of culture. These

influencers include: language, economics, religion, education, politics, social institutions, social class, values, attitudes, customs, and material objects.

Culture and Behavior

There have been some disagreements between social scientists on the influence of culture upon behavior. Cultural anthropologists have long argued that there are distinct differences between societies and subgroups within societies and that these differences result in variability of behavior. In fact, some anthropologists have argued for complete cultural determinism, implying that culture is the cause of all behavior (Brown 1991). Conversely, sociologists and psychologists have often objected strongly to cultural determinism. They have instead attributed culture to other factors, such as social systems and individual personalities (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961; Munro 1997).

Munro (1997) argues that human behavior is not simply the result of family roles or cultural groups. Instead, he argues that behavior should be understood in terms of all levels of influence - from the cell to neurons to individual psychology to interpersonal relations to society. However, he also argues that such an examination of all levels would be difficult to accomplish in one study. Social scientists must then utilize the theories of their discipline to somehow deal with this ambiguity. Ultimately, all of these studies will help "to map comprehensively the myriad linkages within and between levels of understanding of both motivational and cultural phenomena" (Munro 1997, p. 14).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) argued early on that one of the primary reasons for disagreements with cultural anthropology concepts is "the failure to organize these concepts into a systematic and analytic theory of cultural variation" (p. 3-4). They also

stated that basic psychological differences do also influence behavior, though they are often difficult to isolate. They go on to state that one way to address cultural variability is to only examine "highly generalized elements of culture," and they call these value orientations or dimensions.

Utilizing widely held theories from the anthropology, cross-cultural psychology, and marketing literatures, culture is thus assumed to be a primary determinant of consumer preferences, beliefs, values and attitudes. In turn, these preferences, beliefs, values, and attitudes will impact upon the perceived value of various products and services and ultimately consumer behavior. Therefore, it is expected that value systems of individuals will reflect their cultural environments. Using the term cultural schemas, Strauss and Quinn (1997, p. 101) state that these schemas are essentially motivational, arguing that "were cultural schemas to stay with the individuals who share them, but never have any discernible affect on how people behaved, that would be inconsistent with what we know about culture."

Hall (1977) presents a comprehensive explanation of the impact of culture upon human behavior. He writes:

> Culture is man's medium; there is not one aspect of human life that is not touched and altered by culture. This means personality, how people express themselves (including shows of emotion), the way they think, how they move, how problems are solved, how their cities are planned and laid out, how transportation systems function and are organized, as well as how economic and government systems are put together and function (p. 16).

Using Hall's explanation, every aspect of human life is impacted by culture. Everything people do, say, and think is in some way affected by culture.

Hall (1980) asserts that culture controls behavior in "deep and persisting ways," and that people are often unaware of this control, hence it is beyond the conscious control of the individual. Understanding the role of culture within the individual is beyond the objectives of anthropologists who are primarily concerned with the comparative study of cultures - or the enduring characteristics that mark a culture apart from another culture. Therefore, to understand the impact of culture on the individual, one must turn to cross-cultural psychology. Cross-cultural psychology focuses on the individual. However, the individual is not regarded as an abstract entity to be studied without reference to culture, but rather as the individual-in-a-cultural-context (Ho 1994).

Cross-cultural psychologists believe that culture is a multidimensional variable, and identify three main classes of cultural variables: (1) exposure - which is the quality and quantity of how a person is actually exposed to external culture; (2) enculturation - which is the process by which a person learns from, adapts to, and is influenced by a culture; and (3) internalized culture - which is the consequence of enculturation. Thus, the cross-cultural psychological conception of culture is not concerned with the culture external to the individual, but rather is concerned with the culture internalized within the individual.

Thus, mental processes, beliefs, knowledge, and values are parts of culture. Some anthropologists would define culture entirely as mental rules guiding behavior; although wide divergence often exists between the acknowledged rules for correct behavior and what people actually do. Statements about a particular culture are often generalizations about what most of the people do and think most of the time. Without denying the strong

influence that culture exerts on behavior, people are still endowed with free will, and they will sometimes go against cultural norms. As a result, cultural anthropologists often make distinctions between "ideal" behavior and "actual" behavior (Ferraro 1994). Consequently, some researchers pay most attention to human behavior and its material products (Bodley 1994).

Summary of Culture

For this study, culture is conceptualized as those values that are learned, shared, adapted, and need satisfying by a society of people. Culture is thus expected to influence consumer behavior through cultural values, which in turn are expected to influence how consumers perceive products and services. Culture appears to influence value determination in two ways: perception and importance. However, in order to fully understand how this might occur, an examination is needed of the exact way that customers incorporate person, product, culture, and situation in their minds. The customer value hierarchy, utilizing means-end theory, is offered as a way to understand this process. This literature is reviewed in the next section.

Means-End Theory: The Customer Value Hierarchy

Value judgments occur when the consumer assimilates information about both benefits received and what is given up during product/service consumption. Using the definition of value provided earlier, a customer-driven concept of customer value can be developed. This concept is anchored in a conceptual framework utilizing a means-end type of model developed by Gutman (1982). Woodruff and Gardial (1996) use the model

(see Figure 1-3) to demonstrate the essence of customer value. Means-end theory research has only recently begun to infiltrate the marketing literature, and can be used to explore how culture might influence customer value perceptions.

A review of the literature on means-end theory indicates significant areas of consensus as well as gaps in the literature. Two primary areas are discussed: conceptual development and empirical testing. Conceptually, means-end theory posits that consumers desire product attributes because of the consequences that result from consumption of those attributes. In turn, consumption consequences help consumers to fulfill desired end-states. These three types of value dimensions (attribute, consumption consequences, and end-states) and their connection through linkages make up a means-end hierarchy, also called the customer value hierarchy.

Conceptual Development of Means-End Theory and the Customer Value Hierarchy

Means-end theory addresses the issue of how consumers actually think about products and services. More specifically, it concerns the meanings that consumers associate with products and services that they consume. The theory posits a hierarchical cognitive structure that involves linkages between product attributes, consumption consequences, and desired end-states (Gutman 1982; Gutman and Alden 1985; Gutman and Vinson 1978; Walker and Olson 1991). Woodruff (1997, p. 142) does a good job of explaining this hierarchical structure:

> The customer value hierarchy suggests that customers conceive of desired value in a means-end way. Starting at the bottom of the hierarchy, customers learn to think about products as bundles of specific attributes and attribute performances. When purchasing and using a product, they

> form desires or preferences for certain attributes based on their ability to facilitate achieving desired consequence experiences, reflected in value in use and possession value, in the next level up in the hierarchy. Customers also learn to desire certain consequences according to their ability to help them achieve their goals and purposes (i.e., the highest level). Looking down the hierarchy from the top, customers use goals and purposes to attach importance to consequences (Clemons and Woodruff 1992). Similarly, important consequences guide customers when attaching importance to attributes and attribute performances.

Means-end theory is concerned with both the "content" and the "structure" of consumer knowledge. Content refers to the actual concepts (attributes, consequences, end states) that constitute consumer knowledge. Structure refers to the linkages between those concepts (Hofstede et al. 1998). For example, the content of a means-end hierarchy for a soft drink would likely include: attributes such as taste, price, and caffeine; consequences such as "have a good time", "save money", and "picks me up"; and end-states such as "enjoy life" and "achievement". The structure might include a linkage between caffeine, "picks me up", and "enjoy life".

Additionally, customer value can be both desired and received, and means-end theory is an effective tool for examining both of these types of value. The examination of desired value begins at the top of the hierarchy (desired end-states) and proceed downward. Thus, the customer's desired end-states are a primary determinant of the consumption consequences that the customer desires. In turn, these consequences will determine the product or service attributes that are desired (Garver 1998).

Conversely, the examination of received value begins at the bottom of the hierarchy (attributes) and proceeds upward. Thus, customer value is received as a result

of purchasing and/or using a product or service and its associated attributes and performance on these attributes. Through purchase and/or use, the customer realizes specific consumption consequences (both benefits and sacrifices) that, in turn, help or hinder him/her in fulfilling desired end-states (Garver 1998).

Each of the means-end elements will now be discussed, as well as to how culture might impact upon them.

Attributes

Attributes have been described as the most tangible, concrete meanings that a consumer holds. Olson and Reynolds (1983) distinguish two types of attributes: concrete attributes and abstract attributes. Concrete attributes are features that can be directly perceived, such as color, size, or price of a product. Abstract attributes are not directly measurable and may or may not be perceived directly through the senses. Examples include quality, reliability, and fit. Attributes are important to consumers because they imply the ability of a product or service to provide positive consequences to the consumer (Gutman 1982).

Tradeoffs between attributes by consumers have been one of the most researched areas of consumer choice models. For example, multi-attribute attitude theories (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) have measured attitude primarily at the attribute level. Likewise, research on consumer decision making, such as conjunctive, disjunctive and multiattribute compensatory rules, have also been focused on attribute ratings (Wright 1975).

Culture and Perception of Attributes. The perception of specific attributes is partly determined by culture. Hall (1980; 1977) extensively details how culture impacts perceptions of body language, time, space and context. This has particular relevance to the perception of intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues, such as size and color, relate closely to the concept of concrete attributes. Extrinsic cues, such as beauty and brand image, relate closely to the concept of abstract attributes. Culture has been shown to impact perception and importance of each of these types of cues or attributes (Jacobs et al. 1991; Maheswaran 1994).

For example, the perception of color may vary from culture to culture. Jacobs et al. (1991) find significant differences in color perceptions between consumers in China, South Korea, Japan, and the United States. Grey is associated with being inexpensive in China and Japan, but expensive, high quality and dependable in the United States. Yellow is perceived as being pure in all the countries except for China, where it is perceived as being progressive. Other research has shown that country of origin influences consumer perceptions (Hong and Wyer 1989; Roth and Romeo 1992). For example, Maheswaran (1994) along with many other researchers, has found that country of origin can effect how consumers rate cues such as price, quality, and brand.

Culture and Importance of Attributes. In terms of the influence of culture upon attribute importance, Tse, Wong and Tan (1988, p. 387) state that "a consumer's perceived attribute importance measures his/her motivation behind the product choice and hence may reflect the cultural values he/she subscribes." This is one of the primary assumptions of means-end theory. Attributes are only important to the consumer to the

extent that they deliver consumption consequences, which in turn help that consumer to achieve his/her desired end-states.

It is for this reason that many cross-cultural consumer behavior studies have examined correlations between cultural values and attribute importance. For example, Henry (1976) found empirical support for the general relationship that cultural values causally influence consumer behavior. He found that certain cultural values identified with American society correlate with the ownership of generic automobile categories. Wetzels et al. (1995) found that nationality influenced service quality dimensions; Europeans were found to place significantly more importance on advertising and product information than consumers in other parts of the world. Hoyer and Deshpande (1982) found that Hispanic Americans place more importance upon brand image than non-Hispanic Americans.

However, not all findings have been conclusive (Tse, Wong and Tan 1988). For example, Tse, Wong, and Tan (1988) have argued that one of the major limitations of cross-cultural studies that attempt to link cultural value to consumer choices is that these studies do not have strong results. Finally, Overby and Min (1998) argue that means-end analysis may be the solution to these inconclusive findings, because means-end theory considers consumption consequences as a bridge linking cultural values to attributes.

Consequences

Whereas attributes essentially describe the product, consequences describe what a product or service does or provides to the consumer through purchase and/or consumption. Consequences differ both in terms of valence and importance, and they

derive valence and importance from their ability to fulfill desired end-states. Valence implies that consequences may be both positive and negative. Positive consequences include benefits and desired outcomes. Negative consequences include sacrifices and undesired outcomes.

As discussed earlier in the customer value section, a number of types of consumption consequences have been identified in the literature (e.g., social consequences, functional consequences, and personal consequences). Unfortunately, both practitioners and researchers have overlooked the influence of consequences while focusing their marketing efforts primarily at the attribute level (Woodruff 1997; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). The few studies that have examined consequences have shown that the product characteristics most related to choice are actually located at the consequence level rather than the attribute level (Geistfeld, Sproles and Badenhop 1977; Sheth, Newman and Gross 1991). Thus, understanding the set of consumption consequences that best contribute to value should be a primary goal of researchers and practitioners.

Culture and Perception of Consequences. Consumption consequences may or may not be perceived by consumers (Lai and Widdows 1993). As discussed earlier, culture may have a significant influence upon perception. In a factor analytic cross-cultural examination of product attributes, Tse and his colleagues (1988) found different consumer factor structures in five different Asia Pacific countries. For example, they discovered that the social value factor was composed of very different benefits across the five countries. For example, the social value "trendiness" was associated with items such

as traditional, popular, and status in Singapore, but was associated with being neat, popular, traditional, and moral in Taiwan. They concluded that each country has its own conception of social value.

Culture and Importance of Consequences. Cross-cultural examinations of consumption consequences are almost nonexistent. However, recent cross-cultural means-end analyses have revealed differences in consequences between multiple cultures (Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Hofstede et al. 1998; Hofstede, Steenkamp and Wedel 1999; Valette-Florence 1998). For example, in a study of branded clothing in Europe, Botschen and Hemetsberger (1998) found that Austrians place more importance on the consumption consequence of "national pride" while Germans place more importance on the consumption consequence "coordinates well." However, these limited cross-cultural means-end studies have not offered explicit explanations as to how culture impacts the importance of consequences. Rather, much of the conceptual focus has been at the end-state level.

Consumers in two cultures might simply place very different degrees of importance on certain consequences. For example, American culture places a great degree of importance on losing weight, whereas in another culture, this consequence is of little importance. However, both cultures may value similar food types (i.e., attributes) and both cultures may value good health (i.e., end-state).

End-States

End-states are the most abstract and intangible meanings in the hierarchy. They are basically cognitive representations of consumers' most basic and fundamental needs

and goals. Some authors equate end-states with personal values. Olson and Reynolds (1983) distinguish two types of end-states - terminal values and instrumental values. The terminal-instrumental distinction is based upon the work of Rokeach (1973) who posits that instrumental values are preferred modes of conduct, such as accomplishment, that lead to higher-level values, called terminal values, which are preferred end-states or modes of being, such as self-esteem.

End-states are one direct determinant of importance placed upon desired consequences and ultimately attributes. Thus, examination of means-end hierarchies can reveal how consumers reinforce their values through consumption. Moreover, given the historically weak findings in studies attempting to directly correlate values with behavior (e.g., Tse, Wong and Tan 1988; Pitts and Woodside 1983; Manzer and Miller 1978), means-end theory might prove to be a superior solution because it considers consumption consequences as a direct link between values and attributes. For example, a consumer may place significant value on a positive family life. This desired end-state might lead him/her to pursue the consumption consequence of spending quality weekend time with family members which, in turn, might result in the desire for a boat large enough to bring together the entire family.

Like attributes, values have received considerably more attention among researchers in marketing and the social sciences than consequences. Numerous definitions of values exist within the literature. Values have been defined as being equated to: a need, a belief, a motive, any object of interest, a conception of the desirable, a standard according to which evaluations are made (Munson 1984). Munson lists

numerous classification schemas within which values have been categorized as operating: extrinsic, intrinsic, inherent and instrumental; general and political; religious, social, theoretical, political, economic, and aesthetic.

Rokeach (1973) was one of the first researchers to provide a definition when he stated that a value is an "enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). Similarly, Kahle and Timmer (1983, p. 43-4) postulate that "values are central to people's lives in that what they rate highly is what they prize, hold in esteem, and nurture. And because of their importance, values also influence behavior." Many other researchers have offered definitions (Maslow 1959; Morris 1956). Among these definitions, five features appear to be common to most of them: values are (a) concepts or beliefs, (b) about desirable end states or behaviors, (c) that transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987).

Measurement of Values. Value paradigms are essentially the various value scales that have been developed. The importance of personal values in decision making probably originated with the early work of Maslow (1954) and his hierarchy of needs. Later, Rokeach (1973) refined Maslow's theoretical base and operationalized it into a list of values. The list was a value measurement instrument called the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). The RVS consists of two sets of values, 18 instrumental and 18 terminal values. Terminal values are defined as a person's beliefs concerning desirable end-states of existence (ends) while instrumental values refer to a person's beliefs regarding

desirable modes of conduct (means). According to Rokeach, both terminal and instrumental values are essentially independent, meaning that each one of the 36 value items represents a distinct personal value.

Other researchers have attempted to develop a more parsimonious list of values (Kahle 1984; Munson and McQuarrie 1988). Their arguments for doing so are often that many of the Rokeach items appear to be largely irrelevant to consumption. For example, Kahle (1984) states that Rokeach (1973) himself has acknowledged that some of the values in the survey are self-centered (e.g., self-respect) and some are society-centered (e.g. world at peace). Kahle continues that because most marketing choices probably fulfill personally oriented goals rather than socially oriented goals, the personally oriented items will probably have more relevance to marketers. Kahle (1984) then presents an alternative value measurement scale, the List of Values (LOV). LOV is basically a modified subset of Rokeach's terminal values and it includes a list of 9 values.

Similarly, Schwartz (1992) identifies 11 individual-level motivational value types, and Schwartz and Ros (1995) empirically identify 7 culture-level value types. The individual-level value types are measured at the individual level (i.e., "What values are important to ME as guiding principles in MY life?"), and the culture-level value types are measured at the culture level (i.e., "How important is value X as a guiding principle in people's lives, in the eyes of (culture group Y?").

Culture and Perception and Importance of End-States (Values). Kahle (1984) bases his conceptualization of values or end-states on social adaptation theory. He implies that values are the point of intersection between individuals and society. They

are acquired in the early years of one's life through the influence of relatives, friends, peer groups, and the mass media. Although they are relatively stable, they are subject to long-term variation resulting from the shift of generations and/or changes in the surrounding environment.

Hofstede (1984) refers to the concept of "mental programs" when relating culture and values. He states that one can infer the presence of stable mental programs when one observes human behavior. In predicting behavior, he adds that "for each prediction of behavior, we try to take both the *person* and the *situation* into account. We assume that each person carries a certain amount of mental programming which is stable over time and leads to the same person showing more or less the same behavior in similar situations" (p. 14). Hofstede (1984) does argue that part of an individual's mental programming is unique and part is shared with others. The shared programming is what most social scientists refer to as culture. The unique elements constitute people's unique personality.

Thus, the heart of culture is essentially formed by values (Schwartz 1997). Cultural values should directly impact upon consumers' desired end-states and ultimately the customer value hierarchy. Several studies have assessed universal dimensions of human values (Hofstede 1980; Kahle 1984; Schwartz 1992; Schwartz and Bilsky 1987; Schwartz and Bilsky 1990). Hofstede (1980; 1984) proposes four basic cross-cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity. Schwartz and Ros (1995) suggest seven universal motivational

domains of values: conservatism, hierarchy, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy, mastery, egalitarianism, and harmony.

Although cultural value dimensions have been shown to exist universally throughout the world, their perception and relative importance will differ according to specific cultures (Bond 1988; Hofstede 1984; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961; Schwartz 1992; Schwartz and Ros 1995; Triandis 1988; Triandis 1994). And these differences will likely be reflected in the desired end-states and ultimately the entire customer value hierarchy. For example, a consumer in Hong Kong may likely emphasize the end-state of hedonism much more than a consumer in Beijing. In fact, in a longitudinal study of advertising in Hong Kong, Taiwan and China, Tse, Belk and Zhou (1989) found evidence of cultural changes on consumers and desired end-states. They found that advertising in Hong Kong had more hedonic advertising themes than either Taiwan or China and concluded that these differences reflected the greater exposure of Hong Kong society to Western culture.

Summary

Given the discussion from the three previous sections, it is expected that cultural values will influence whether and how consumers perceive specific attributes, consequences, and end-states that result from product consumption. Thus, the following proposition is offered:

> Proposition 1: For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.

Linkages

The linkages within the means-end chain, or customer value hierarchy, are as important as the actual concepts contained within the hierarchy. End-states are believed to determine the relative importance of consequences, which in turn determine the relative importance of attributes (Gutman 1982; Woodruff and Gardial 1996). For example, a consumer in Osaka who highly values collectivism will likely place significant importance on the consequence of "fitting in" when shopping for clothing. The result will be a desire for a popular brand of clothing. Conversely, a consumer in Sydney who highly values individualism might likely place greater importance on expressing his/her individuality and standing out. These consequences, in turn, will result in a desire for a unique, "alternative" brand of clothing. Thus, it is important to understand not only the three levels of the customer value hierarchy, but also how the three levels link together.

Culture and Perception of Linkages. Perception is especially influential when examining linkages between value dimensions, as consumers form a perception of the extent to which the consequences derived from attributes will assist him or her in obtaining desired end-states. Culture should impact the perception of such linkages. In fact, even if similar attributes, consequences, and end-states emerge across cultures, the exact perceived linkages between these concepts may be very different.

In a study discussed earlier, Kustin and Heazlewood (1993) actually found cross-cultural differences in the perception of linkages between attributes (frozen prepared entrees) and consequences (weight loss methods). They found that Israeli consumers

appeared to link low calorie and natural foods with weight loss methods, whereas, Australian consumers appeared to link natural foods and low salt/cholesterol foods with weight loss.

Culture and Importance of Linkages. An understanding of the importance of perceived linkages holds significance for both researchers and practitioners. Practitioners want to know which linkages are most important to consumers in order to design appropriate marketing mixes. Researchers want to know which linkages are most important to consumers in order to understand the sources of meaning that products and services hold for consumers (Gutman 1982; Olson and Reynolds 1983).

It is expected that culture will impact the importance placed upon specific linkages. A primary source of this influence are the common values held by a culture. These values should result in certain linkages being more important in one culture than another. For example, Botschen and Hemetsberger (1998) find the linkage "warmth→comfortable clothing→satisfaction→harmony with yourself" to be extremely important among German consumers of a high quality branded clothing manufacturer. However, Austrian consumers place much less importance on that linkage. Unfortunately, the authors offer little explanation as to the reasons behind the differences. While issues of understanding how culture affects perceptions of linkages are in need of further research, it still seems reasonable to offer the following proposition:

> Proposition 2: For two diverse cultures, there will be differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute~attribute linkages, attribute~consequence linkages, consequence~consequence linkages, and consequence~end-state linkages) for the same product or service.

Review of Findings From Empirical Means-End Theory Studies

The literature also allows a consideration of the ways in which means-end theory has been tested in previous research. Table 2-3 provides a review of the means-end studies that have appeared in the marketing literature. The table reveals several gaps in the literature. First, as argued by Valette-Florence (1998), there has been very little grounded hypothesis development and testing as to the influence of means-end theory on consumer behavior. Likewise, there has been little consideration of moderating and mediating variables on means-end and customer value hierarchy formation. Finally, there has been very little utilization of means-end theory in cross-cultural consumer analysis.

Upon deeper examination of previous research, there has also been a tendency to not examine the entire means-end chain. For example, in an experiment of 120 consumers, Graeff (1997) examined the influence means-end descriptions (attributes and consequences) in an advertisement and consumer knowledge on the consumer formations of means-end associations during product comprehension and brand attitude. He found that higher-knowledge consumers are more likely to infer cause-and-effect means-end associations during product comprehension. He also found that consequence descriptors were better predictors of brand attitude than attribute descriptors. Unfortunately, this study did not go beyond the consequence level. Likewise, Walker and Olson (1991) argued for the influence of decision situations upon product knowledge. In a laddering study, they found that different decision situations activate different aspects of

Table 2-3: Review of Means-End Studies

Article	Empirical or Conceptual or Methodological	Hypo-thesis Testing	Methodology	National Culture(s) Examined
Hofstede et al. (1999)	Methodological	No	APT - Association Pattern Technique	11 European countries
Botschen and Hemetsberger (1998)	Empirical; Methodological	No	Paper-and-Pencil Laddering and HVM	Austria, Italy, Germany
Hofstede et al. (1998)	Methodological	No	Laddering and APT	Belgium
Overby and Min (1998)	Empirical	Yes	Grand Tour and HVM	Korea, U.S.
Valette-Florence (1998)	Empirical; Methodological	No	Laddering and Nonlinear Generalized Canonical Analysis	France, Italy, Germany, Switzerland
Graeff (1997)	Empirical	Yes	Laddering and Experiment	U.S.
Woodruff (1997)	Conceptual	No	N/A	N/A
Durgee, O'Connor and Veryzer (1996)	Methodological	No	Backward Laddering	N/A
Woodruff and Gardial (1996)	Conceptual	No	Laddering and Grand Tour	N/A
Aurifeille and Valette-Florence (1995)	Methodological	No	Laddering	U.S.
Claeys, Swinnen and Vanden Abeele (1995)	Empirical; Methodological	Yes	Laddering and HVM	U.S.
Gengler and Reynolds (1995)	Conceptual; Methodological	No	Laddering and Centralized HVM	N/A
Pieters, Baumgartner and Allen (1995)	Empirical; Methodological	No	Laddering and Consumer Goal Structure Analysis	U.S.
Reynolds, Gengler and Howard (1995)	Empirical	Yes	Laddering and HVM	U.S.
Bagozzi and Dabholkar (1994)	Empirical	No	Telephone Laddering	U.S.
Mulvey et al. (1994)	Empirical	No	Paper and Pencil Laddering and HVM	U.S.
Klenosky, Gengler and Mulvey (1993)	Empirical; Methodological	No	Laddering, HVM, and Cluster Analysis	Canada
Gutman and Vinson (1978)	Conceptual	No	N/A	N/A
Valette-Florence and Rapacchi (1991)	Methodological	No	Laddering, Graph Theory and Correspondence Analysis	N/A

Table 2-3 (continued)

Article	Empirical or Conceptual or Methodological	Hypo-thesis Testing	Methodology	National Culture(s) Examined
Walker and Olson (1991)	Conceptual; Empirical	Yes	Paper and Pencil Laddering and HVM	U.S.
Pitts, Wong and Whalen (1991)	Empirical	No	Experiment with values scales and benefit scales	U.S.
Reynolds and Gutman (1988)	Methodological	No	N/A	N/A
Gutman and Alden (1985)	Conceptual; Empirical	No	Laddering and HVM	U.S.
Gutman (1982)	Conceptual	No	N/A	N/A

consumers' self-schema. However, this study only examined attribute and end-goal levels. Consequences were not examined.

Among all studies that have looked at means-end theory empirically (even those which did not state hypotheses up-front), most have been specific to the U.S. Five studies specifically examined means-end theory in non-U.S. cultures, and only four of those have actually made cross-cultural comparisons. Three of these four studies examined cultures in Europe, and only one compared the theory between U.S. and an Asian culture. Most significantly, none of the cross-cultural studies stated any a priori hypotheses as to where and how culture should impact upon the customer value hierarchy.

Valette-Florence (1998) echoes the call for greater use of a priori hypotheses in means-end studies and also for the purpose of validating cultural differences. Likewise, since consequences have been shown to link to values, he asserts that there should be more attention given to the identification of such values "mainly because all of the recent studies undertaken in France or Europe have proven the core importance of social values for studying specific or/and symbolic consumption patterns" (p. 165).

Upon examination of the end-states that emerged from Valette-Florence's study and the empirical studies of others, many of the values or end-states that have emerged correspond closely to the values that have been identified in numerous cultural and personal-value scales. For example, end-states that appear in several means-end studies (Aurifeille and Valette-Florence 1995; Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Klenosky, Gengler and Mulvey 1993; Pieters, Baumgartner and Allen 1995; Valette-Florence 1998)

- hedonism, social recognition, happiness, achievement, individuality, warm relationships, self-fulfillment, safety - also appear in the Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach 1973) and in Schwartz's Cultural Value Dimensions Survey (Schwartz 1994, 1992).

Given the above discussion, it appears that customer value hierarchies are accurate reflections of the values that cultures hold to be important. Thus, it is expected that the values that are found to be important in a culture utilizing measures such as those of Rokeach, Schwartz, or Kahle, will also emerge as important end-states in the value hierarchies for consumers in that culture. Given this conclusion, the following proposition is offered:

> Proposition 3: For the same product or service, important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.

Summary of Means-End Theory Literature

The review of empirical means-end research reveals a limited number of empirical studies in the marketing literature. Of these studies, three major gaps are revealed. First, few studies have actually examined all three levels of value hierarchy dimensions (i.e., attributes, consequences, and end-states) simultaneously in a single study. Second, there has been very little hypothesis testing in the means-end literature. The majority of the studies have been exploratory. Finally, only four means-end studies have examined more than one culture simultaneously. These limitations provide further significance to this dissertation.

In sum, means-end theory is a way to conceptualize and empirically examine how consumers think about the value of products and services. Moreover, it provides an

excellent foundation for examining the influence of culture upon customer value formation. Given this review and the review from the previous section, a conceptual model can now be constructed.

Development of Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this section is to integrate the customer value literature and the means-end literature with the culture literature. This integration resulted in a framework that guided this study and will guide future research as well. After the framework is presented and described, it is applied to two diverse cultures. This requires a more thorough analysis of the literature on culture (which is the topic for the fourth section of this chapter).

Description of the Proposed Framework

The Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy (depicted in Figure 2-1) integrates conceptual thought and empirical research from the customer value, means-end theory, and culture literatures to explain and predict how culture influences the customer value hierarchy. This model builds upon previous customer value and means-end models by incorporating cultural influences.

As conceptualized in the Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy, attributes can be categorized as concrete or abstract. These attributes can influence perceptions of each other. For example, the concrete attribute "price" may influence perception of the abstract attribute "quality." Likewise, these attributes are expected to create consumption

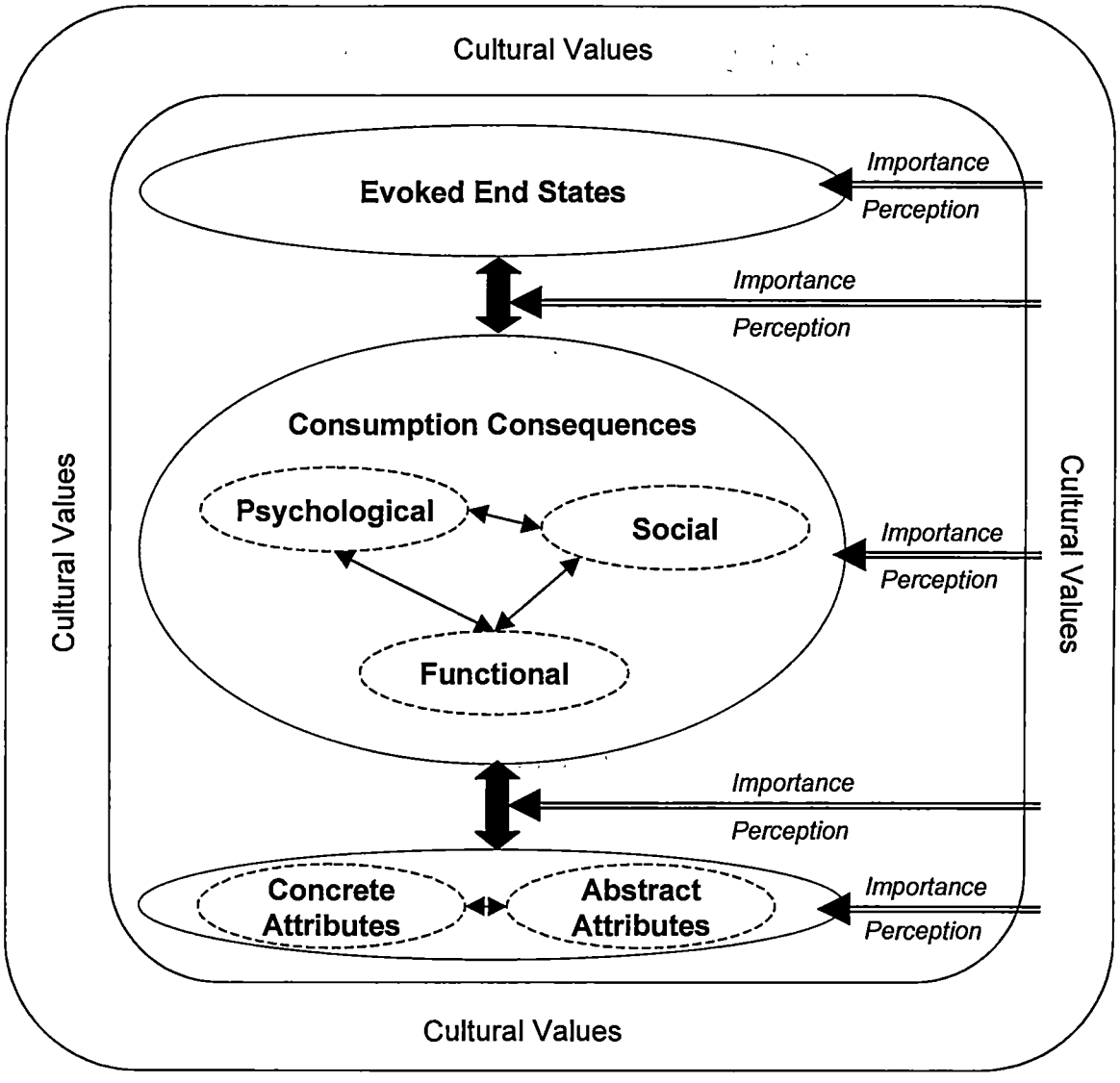


Figure 2-1: Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy

consequences. Consumption consequences can be categorized as functional, psychological and social. Attributes can link directly to any of the consequences or indirectly from one consequence to another. In turn, consumption consequences are expected to be important to consumers to the extent that they help them to achieve desired end-states. Specific operational definitions of the attribute, consequence, and end-state constructs are provided in Chapter 3.

Finally, culture is expected to influence the hierarchy in three ways. First, for a given product or service, culture should influence how consumers perceive specific attributes and consequences. Second, culture should influence whether or how consumers perceive linkages between specific attributes, consequences, and end-states. Third, culture should influence the importance that consumers place upon specific attributes, consequences and end-states, as well as the importance that consumers place upon specific linkages in the hierarchy.

The discussion up until this point has been at a very conceptual level. The three propositions offered in the previous sections can be applied to *any* intercultural context. However, in order for specific cultural differences and/or similarities to by posited, two or more cultures must be compared and contrasted. This first requires a method for operationalizing culture, and this is the subject of the next section. This review will then provide the justification required for culture-specific propositions.

Operationalization of Culture

So how does one determine the impact of culture upon consumer behavior and ultimately the customer value hierarchy? One of the primary problems in studying

culture's impact on marketing has to do with the definition and aggregation of the culture construct (Kahle, Beatty and Mager 1994). This paper has already examined the definition issue, but now the aggregation issue must be addressed.

One of the primary approaches to operationalizing the concept of culture has been the development (through aggregation) of empirically derived orientations or dimensions. Schwartz and Ros (1995) explain this process well, stating that "in order to employ cultural values effectively for national comparisons, they must be organized into a limited number of dimensions on which comparisons can be made." So cultural value dimensions represent types of culture-level values that are closely correlated and share a common societal theme. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) were some of the first proponents of such an approach. They argued that cultural orientations vary from culture to culture only in the patterns of the component parts and that the parts themselves are actually cultural universals. Other researchers, including Herskovits (1958)), Hofstede (1984), Hall (1977), Ferraro (1994), and Baligh (1994), have offered cultural dimensions as a way to examine cultural variation. Several of the most influential perspectives are now examined: including those of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, Hall, Trompenaars, Hofstede, and Schwartz.

The Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck Perspective (1961)

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) perspective is based upon several assumptions: 1) all humans have a limited number of common problems for which they must find some solution; 2) solutions to these problems are variable but not infinite; and 3) all solutions are present in all cultures but they are differentially preferred. They

identify five major problems common to all cultures, and these are presented in the form of value orientations.

Human Nature Orientation. This orientation answers the question: "What is the character of innate human nature?" Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identify three variations: evil; mixture of good and evil; and good. The "evil" view assumes that people are basically evil, that they must continuously practice self-control and self-discipline to overcome their evilness and that regression is always possible. The "mixed" view assumes that people are basically evil but perfectible. Thus, people are expected to sometimes do wrong, but that these lapses can be understood and need not always be condemned. The "good" view assumes that people are basically good, that they live and work to fulfill or maximize their human potential.

Man-Nature Orientation. This orientation answers the question, "What is the relation of man to nature?" Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identify three variations: subjugation-to-nature; harmony-with-nature; and mastery-over-nature. The "subjugation" view assumes that people have no control over their environment. This view is fatalistic because someone who adopts it accepts fate and often tends to just let things happen. The "harmony" view assumes that there is no real separation between people and their environment. People attempt to manage their environment while at the same time respecting it. The "mastery" view assumes that people can dominate or control nature and the environment. It is thus part of man's obligations to overcome obstacles and help themselves or make things happen.

Time Orientation. This orientation answers the question, "What is the temporal focus of human life?" Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identify three variations: past, present, and future. The "past" view considers the past as being important and necessary for understanding one's present condition. Many decisions are based upon lessons learned from the past and tradition is important. The "present" view considers that today is what is important. Thus, the past is over and should be forgotten, and the future is uncertain and should not be planned for. The "future" view considers the future as something that can be predicted and/or influenced and something that can be better than the present and the past. The focus is upon change rather than tradition.

Activity Orientation. This orientation answers the question, "what is the modality of human activity?" Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identify three variations: being, being-in-becoming, and doing. The "being" view emphasizes spontaneous activity rather than developmental activity. More emphasis is placed upon self-reflection and thought rather than action. The "being-in-becoming" view believes that what the human "is" is more important than what he "does." However, all activity should be directed toward the development of all aspects of the self as an integrated whole. The "doing" view emphasizes external activity rather than internal activity. Self-identification is attained through action, performance, and achievement.

Relational Orientation. This orientation answers the question, "what is the modality of man's relationship to other men?" Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identify three variations: lineality, collaterality, and individualism. The "lineality" view holds that group goals are more important than individual goals. This emphasis is usually based

upon either hereditary factors or kinship structures. The "collaterality" view holds that extended-group goals are more important than individual goals or non-extended group goals. Thus, one's in-group has primacy over the out-group. The "individualism" view holds that individual goals are more important than group goals. This does not imply that the individual is totally selfish without regard for other societal members. Instead, it implies that an individual's responsibility to the total society is defined by autonomous goals rather than group goals.

The Hofstede Perspective (1984, 1980)

Although outside the area of marketing, probably the best known list of cultural dimensions was developed by Hofstede (1984). He developed a four-dimensional framework that has been utilized by numerous marketing scholars (Kale 1994; Roberts, 1997; Nakata, 1996). Hofstede analyzed data from questionnaires given to over 116,000 IBM employees in twenty different languages from 72 countries at two different times (1968 and 1972). The survey, which was originally intended to examine employee morale within IBM, contained questions regarding personal goals and beliefs, satisfactions, and perceptions. Hofstede examined the responses to the personal goals and beliefs statements in order to identify the dominant universal value systems.

Hofstede's (1984) work has not been without criticism. Some of the primary criticisms have included: 1) IBM employees might not really have been representative of the cultures to which they belong; 2) the nations examined did not represent world's nations well; and 3) the items used to measure the dimensions might not have had equivalent meanings in every culture. Despite these problems, his research has probably

been the most comprehensive culture survey ever conducted and analyzed, and it continues to stimulate a large number and variety of cross-cultural studies in multiple disciplines (Schwartz 1997).

The four dimensions of culture that comprise Hofstede's (1984) framework are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. These four dimensions represent types of universal goals that guide individual behavior, and Hofstede termed them "value dimensions." The primary purpose of his analysis was to "find value differences among countries and to relate these to characteristics of the countries...country score levels reflect in general both the collective state of mind of the respondents and the collective situation in which these respondents find themselves" (p. 55).

Power Distance. Power distance concerns the way societies handle human inequality. People possess unequal physical and intellectual capacities, which translate into inequalities in power, status, and wealth. Large power distance societies are comfortable with wide disparities in income, status, and wealth among their inhabitants. Small-power distance societies, on the other hand, believe that inequity among individuals with regard to power, status, and wealth should be minimized. While all societies have inequalities among people, some are more so than others (Hofstede 1984). As measured by Hofstede (1984), high-power distance countries include the Philippines, Mexico, and India, and low power-distance countries include Austria, Israel, and Denmark.

Uncertainty Avoidance. Uncertainty avoidance reflects how a society deals with the uncertainties and ambiguities of day-to-day living. At one extreme, weak-uncertainty avoidance cultures socialize their members to handle uncertainty with relative ease and comfort. People in these cultures tend to accept each day as it comes, take risks rather easily, and are tolerant of differing opinions and behaviors. Strong-uncertainty avoidance cultures, on the other hand, foster the need to control uncertainty be being risk-averse, planning-oriented, and dogmatic in their beliefs and opinions (Hofstede 1984). As measured by Hofstede (1984), high uncertainty avoidance countries include Greece, Japan, and France, and low power distance countries include Singapore, Denmark, and Great Britain.

Individualism. Individualism describes the relationship between an individual and his or her fellow individuals in society. At one end of the spectrum are high-individualism societies with very loose ties between individuals. Such societies allow a large degree of freedom, and everybody is expected to look after their own self-interest. At the other end are low-individualism societies with very strong ties between individuals forming their in-group. Everybody is expected to look after the interest of their in-group and owe their loyalty to the group in exchange for protection. Low-individualism societies show tight integration (Hofstede 1984). As measured by Hofstede (1984), high individualism countries include the United States, Great Britain, and Canada, and low individualism countries include Venezuela, Colombia, and Pakistan.

Masculinity. Masculinity specifies the degree to which a society displays the stereotypical male and female values. Masculine cultural values emphasize making

money, ostentatious manliness, and the pursuit of visible achievements. Countries showing an inclination for these values have been classified in the Hofstede framework as high-masculinity nations. Low-masculinity or feminine countries exhibit values associated with traditionally female roles such as nurturance, and an emphasis on people rather than money (Hofstede 1984). As measured by Hofstede (1984), highly masculine countries include Japan, Austria, and Switzerland, and highly feminine countries include Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands.

Schwartz Perspective (1990a, 1990b, 1992, 1994, 1997; Schwartz and Bilsky 1990; Schwartz and Ros 1995)

Like Hofstede (1984), Schwartz attempted to identify potential universal types of human values. After analyzing responses to forty-five values in numerous nations, he developed several value types and ultimately three cultural values dimensions (Schwartz 1997).

Though similar to Hofstede's (1984) findings, Schwartz offers his dimensions as a way to overcome the criticisms of Hofstede's work. Important improvements include: 1) some of the values that are typically included in the individualism/collectivism dimension were actually distinguished into two different cultural dimensions; 2) analyses were conducted in 54 nations which appeared to well-represent the world's nations; and 3) individuals from different walks-of-life were considered, not only employees of a multinational organization. The three dimensions are now discussed below.

Conservatism versus Autonomy. This dimension addresses the question, "to what extent are persons autonomous versus embedded in groups?" In "conservatism" cultures,

people are viewed as belonging to a collective. Thus, meaning in life results from social relationships and group interaction. People attempt to maintain the status quo and avoid disruption of the collective. As measured by Schwartz (1994), conservative cultures include the Druze of Israel, Malaysia, and Singapore.

In "autonomy" cultures, people are viewed as being autonomous and are expected and encouraged to express their own uniqueness. Schwartz further distinguishes autonomy into two types: intellectual and affective. Intellectual autonomy places emphasis on the pursuit of individual intellectual directions (curiosity, broadmindedness, and creativity). Affective autonomy places emphasis on the pursuit of individual affectively positive experiences (pleasure, excitement, varied life). As measured by Schwartz (1994), autonomous cultures include the France, the French of Switzerland, and West Germany.

Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism. This dimension addresses the question, "how to motivate people to consider others' welfare and coordinate with them to manage their unavoidable interdependencies?" In "hierarchy" cultures, people often have ascribed roles and are expected to conform to the rules and obligations attached to their roles. These cultures place a great deal of emphasis on an unequal distribution of power, authority, and wealth. As measured by Schwartz (1994), hierarchy cultures include China, Thailand, and Turkey.

In "egalitarianism" cultures, people are viewed as equals and are expected to voluntarily cooperate and express concern for everyone's welfare. These cultures place a

great deal of emphasis on equality, social justice, honesty and freedom. As measured by Schwartz (1994), egalitarianism cultures include Portugal, Italy, and France.

Mastery versus Harmony. This dimension addresses the question, "is it more important for one to submit, to fit in, or to exploit others?" In "mastery" cultures, people are not taught to accept the things as they are, but rather to believe that they can change both the natural and the social worlds. These cultures emphasize self-assertion, ambition, success, and taking control of one's life. In "harmony" cultures, people are taught to accept the world as it is and to preserve rather than change or exploit the world. These cultures emphasize unity with nature, environmental protection, and fate. As measured by Schwartz (1994), mastery cultures include China, Greece, and the United States, and harmony cultures include Italy, urban Estonia, and Finland.

Hall Perspective (1980, 1977)

Hall's work simply represents a monologue on cultural influences. His work has been built primarily on qualitative research rather than quantitative data, and he has not precisely ranked specific countries on any dimensions. Much of Hall's work has concerned assumptions about space, time, and communication, and how these assumptions relate both to issues of external adaptation and internal integration. For example, our view of time is partly determined by the degree to which we believe that we can control nature, and in turn it determines the importance we place on relationships versus tasks. Likewise, communication reflects our relationship with nature (as in how fishermen describe the sea), and it also facilitates relationships among people. Hall's three major cultural assumptions will now be discussed.

Space. Two dimensions of space are identified: physical and personal. There may be significant cultural differences in how physical space (through architecture and interior design) is managed. Likewise, there are significant cultural differences in how personal public versus private space is managed in relationships.

Time. Two dimensions of time are identified: monochronic and polychronic. Individuals working under monochronic time usually do one thing at a time and tend to adhere to preset schedules. Monochronic people are often more committed to schedules than other non-monochronic people. Individuals working under polychronic time are able to do several things at the same moment, easily modify their schedules, and rarely conceive of time as something that is wasted. Polychronic people are often more committed to people than to schedules.

Communication Context. Two dimensions of context are identified: high-context and low-context. In high-context cultures, the external environment, the situation, and non-verbal behavior are highly influential in creating and interpreting communication. Meaning is communicated implicitly, and as a result, cues are often used, subtlety is valued, and inference is often utilized. Several characteristics are common in high-context cultures: 1) interpersonal relationships are often long-lasting and highly involved; 2) communication is fast and efficient, especially in routine situations; 3) agreements are usually spoken rather than written; and 4) insiders and outsiders are strongly distinguished.

In low-context cultures, explicit communication is more important than communication through the environment, the situation, and non-verbal behavior. This

often results in the use of a direct communicative style. Several characteristics are common to low-context cultures: 1) interpersonal relationships are often shorter and less intense; 2) messages must be made explicit and there is a risk of misunderstanding if too much inference is required; 3) agreements are usually written rather than spoken; and 4) little distinction is made between insiders and outsiders.

Trompenaars Perspective (1993)

Trompenaars built his perspective upon the concept of dilemmas. His methodology assumes that there are universal cultural dilemmas in relation to time, other people, activities, and nature, and that people may be located at polar opposites on how they respond to these dilemmas. For example, by placing people in situations, such as the choice of concealing or revealing a friend's unethical behavior at work, the influence of culture emerges across a group of respondents. Cultures may or may not take opposing stands on these basic dilemmas of being. From these dilemmas, emerge seven dimensions of culture.

Universalism versus Particularism. This dimension involves the importance of rules versus exceptions. It asks the question, "when no code, rule or law seems to quite cover an exceptional case, should the most relevant rule be imposed, however imperfectly, on that case, or should the case be considered on its unique merits, regardless of the rule?" In Universalism cultures, the rule of law is highly influential. In Particularism cultures, laws are not unimportant, but they originate in friendship. More attention is given to the obligations of relationships and unique circumstances than to

abstract societal codes. Trompenaars (1993) identifies Germany and Switzerland as universalism countries, and South Korea and Venezuela as particularism countries.

Individualism versus Collectivism. This dimensions basically addresses the question, "is the enhancement of individual rights, motivations, and capacities more important than the advancement of the rights, motivations, and capacities of society as a whole?" This addresses whether people consider themselves primarily as individuals or primarily as part of a group. What distinguished these two perspectives is not the individual's motive but rather where value is seen to accrue. For example, an individual can do a very social act but only be doing it to further his or her own interests. Trompenaars (1993) identifies the United States and Canada as individualism countries, and Pakistan and Thailand as collectivism countries.

Specific versus Diffuse. This dimension addresses the question, "are we more effective as people when we analyze phenomena into specifics (i.e., parts, facts, numbers, units) or when we integrate such details into diffuse patterns, relationships and wider contexts?" Some cultures value getting straight to the point, whereas others will talk around the point for several minutes or even hours and get to the point at the end. It is a source of significant misunderstandings, especially in cross-cultural negotiations. Trompenaars (1993) identifies the United States and Poland as specific countries, and Thailand and Italy as diffuse countries.

Neutral versus Emotional. This dimension asks the question, "should the nature of our interactions be objective and detached, or is expressing emotion acceptable?" Neutral cultures believe that the brain restrains emotions because emotion is believed to

confuse the issue. Emotional cultures believe that strong emotions are appropriate and should be accessed in all decision making. Trompenaars (1993) identifies Japan and Indonesia as neutral countries, and Italy and France as emotional countries.

Achievement versus Ascription. This involves the dilemma between judging by results and judging by other non result-oriented standards. The question addressed is, "should the status of people depend on what they have achieved and how they have performed, or on some other characteristic important to society?" In an achievement culture, the first question asked is likely to be "What did you study?" while in an ascriptive culture, the first question asked will more likely be "Where did you study?" Trompenaars (1993) identifies the United States and Canada as achievement countries, and France and Thailand as ascription countries.

Time as Sequences versus Time as Synchronization. This dilemma looks at time in two ways - "time-as-a-race" and "time-as-a-dance." It asks the question, "is it more important to do things fast, in the shortest possible sequence of passing time, or to synchronize all efforts, just-in-time, so that completion is coordinated?" Sequential cultures believe that time is objective and real and that only the present is knowable. Synchronic cultures are less insistent upon punctuality, often perform multiple activities at one time, and place relationships before schedules. Trompenaars (1993) identifies the United States and the former West Germany as sequential countries, and Japan and France as synchronic countries.

Attitude toward the Environment. This dilemma concerns people's relation with nature and the environment. Some cultures view the environment as something that is

more powerful than individuals and cannot be controlled. These cultures are more "outer-directed," believing that people are part of nature and must go along with its laws, directions and forces. They often believe in hard work along with fate. Other cultures view the environment as something that can be controlled by imposition of individual will. These cultures are more "inner-directed" and believe that the source of all decisions and behavior should come from within. Trompenaars (1993) identifies Brazil and China as inner-directed, and Japan and Egypt as outer-directed.

Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars Perspective (1993)

Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars build upon the work began by Trompenaars in 1984 by surveying attendees of Trompenaars' cross-cultural management seminars throughout the world. The dimensions are primarily the same except for several name changes and one new dimension. They rename the Trompenaars' (1993) "Attitude toward the Environment" dimension the "Inner Directed versus Outer Directed" dimension. They change "Collectivism" to "Communitarianism." They change "Specific versus Diffuse" to "Analysed Specifics versus Integrated Wholes." And they add a new dimension "Equality versus Hierarchy." Only the new dimension will be described.

Equality versus Hierarchy. This involves the question, "is it more important that we treat everyone as equals or emphasize hierarchy and judgment?" Some cultures value the security of knowing precisely the rights and limits of one's authority and where one fits into societal rankings. Other cultures view hierarchy as being inefficient and debasing. In these societies, people believe that everyone is equal and should have the same rights and privileges. Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) identify Pakistan

and Indonesia as hierarchy countries, and the United States and the Netherlands as equality countries.

Categorization of Cultural Dimensions

Now that the most significant perspectives in the literature have been examined, a categorization of these dimensions is offered in Table 2-4. Table 2-5 provides an example of how two national cultures - the United States and France - have been categorized in the literature in regards to these dimensions (Ferraro 1994; Hall 1977; Hall 1980; Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 1993; Hofstede 1984; Schwartz 1994; Schwartz and Bilsky 1990; Trompenaars 1993; Usunier 1996).

As can be seen in the table, France and the United States appear to be the most culturally diverse compared to each other on five dimensions: implicit/explicit, monochronic/polychronic, achievement/ascription, hierarchy/equality, and universalism/particularism. Although the two countries diverge on equality/hierarchy and universalism/particularism, these two dimensions have only been applied to managerial behavior. As a result, there is not enough empirical support to apply them to consumer behavior. Given this discussion, specific propositions can be offered to predict how cultural values might impact the customer value hierarchy in two diverse countries such as the United States and France. Propositions are offered only in regards to the three dimensions that are expected to influence consumer consumption: implicit/explicit; achievement/ascription; and monochronic/polychronic.

Table 2-4: Categorization of Cultural Dimensions

New Cultural Dimension	Original Dimension	Source
Implicit/Explicit	High Context/Low Context	Hall (1980, 1977)
	Specific/Diffuse Analysis	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Space	Space Orientation	Hall (1980, 1977)
Monochronic/Polychronic	Time Orientation	Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961)
	Monochronic/Polychronic	Hall (1980, 1977)
	Sequential/Synchronic	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Inner-Direction/Outer-Direction	Human Nature Orientation	Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961)
	Mastery/Harmony	Schwartz (1990b, 1992, 1994); Schwartz and Bilsky (1987); Schwartz and Ros (1995)
	Inner Directed/Outer Directed	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Individualism/Collectivism	Relational Orientation	Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961)
	Individualism	Hofstede (1984, 1980)
	Conservatism/Autonomy	Schwartz (1990b, 1992, 1994); Schwartz and Bilsky (1987); Schwartz and Ros (1995)
	Individualism/Collectivism	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Achievement/Ascription	Activity Orientation	Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961)
	Masculinity	Hofstede (1984, 1980)
	Achievement/Ascription	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Hierarchy/Equality	Power Distance	Hofstede (1984, 1980)
	Hierarchy/Egalitarianism	Schwartz (1990b, 1992, 1994); Schwartz and Bilsky (1987); Schwartz and Ros (1995)
	Equality/Hierarchy	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Uncertainty	Uncertainty Avoidance	Hofstede (1984, 1980)
Universalism/Particularism	Universalism/Particularism	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)
Emotion	Neutral/Emotional	Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993)

Table 2-5: Summary of Cultural Dimensions for the United States and France

Dimension	United States	France
[1]*Implicit/Explicit*	Highly Explicit	Highly Implicit
Space	Moderately Private	Highly Private
[1]*Monochronic/Polychronic*	Highly Monochronic	Highly Polychronic
Inner-Direction/Outer-Direction	High Inner-Direction	Moderate Inner-Direction
Individualism/Collectivism	High Individualism	Moderate Individualism
[1]*Achievement/Ascription*	High Achievement	High Ascription
Hierarchy/Equality	High Equality	High Hierarchy
Uncertainty Avoidance	Low Uncertainty Avoidance	Moderate Uncertainty Avoidance
Universalism/Particularism	High Particularism	High Universalism
Emotion	Moderate Emotion	High Emotion

Sources: Based upon empirical findings from Schwartz and Ros (1995); Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993); Trompenaars (1993); Hofstede (1984); Hall (1980, 1977)

[1]These cultural dimensions justify Propositions 4-11.

Implicit/Explicit

This dimension is based upon the high context/low context research of Hall (1980, 1977) and the diffuse/specific dimension of Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993). Cultures vary in terms how they process and communicate information. Low context cultures, such as the United States, communicate explicitly. Emphasis is placed upon clear, logical, and persuasive communication. Thus, implicit cues are not as likely to be processed as explicit cues. High context cultures, which include most Asian countries and also France in Europe, communicate implicitly. Emphasis is placed upon inexact and indirect communication. Thus, implicit cues are as likely, or more likely, to be processed as explicit cues.

Closely related to low context/high context is approach to analysis - specific or diffuse. This dimension can apply both to relationships and to information. For example, in the United States, people often perform roles that are specific to their current circumstance. A college professor may be referred to as Professor Doe, Doctor John, or John depending on the situation. Public space is relatively large. However, in France, Monsieur le Professeur is referred to in that manner in whatever circles he is found. Public space is rather small.

These differences can also be seen in the manner that information is processed and thinking patterns. Members of specific cultures analyze specific points and often must tear apart an issue to understand it. For example, Americans' decisions are often based upon induction - consideration of all facts. Conversely, members of diffuse cultures think more holistically, making decisions more on intuition than on facts and

figures. Their decisions can often seem indirect, circuitous, and ambiguous. Moreover, relationships are often seen as being highly influential in all decisions. For example, the French have been recognized as some of the most deductive people in the world. They have been trained as Cartesians, and theory is more important than facts.

Given this discussion, it is expected that explicit cultures (specific and low context) will emphasize concrete attributes and functional consequences more than implicit cultures (diffuse and high context). Social consequences are expected to be more important in implicit cultures than in explicit cultures, especially considering the importance of relationships in implicit cultures. Explicit cultures are also expected to have more simple hierarchies than implicit cultures because they place significance on simplicity, efficiency, and functional consequences. Implicit cultures actually distrust simplicity and often tend to overcomplicate things. Given this discussion, the following propositions are offered:

Proposition 4: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.

Proposition 5: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.

Proposition 6: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.

Proposition 7: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.

Proposition 8: For the same product or service, value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.

Achievement/Ascription

This dimension is based upon the activity orientation of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), the masculinity/femininity dimension of Hofstede (1984), and the achievement/ascription dimension of Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993). The dimension involves the emphasis placed in a culture upon achievement versus ascription or "doing" versus "being". The United States is an example of a national culture that highly emphasizes achievement and doing. This is consistent with the frontier mentality and traditional Protestant work ethic that holds that work is not only respectable but even virtuous. In fact, many Americans actually derive their personal identities in part from their occupation.

France is an example of a culture that emphasizes ascription and being. This is consistent again with the influence of Cartesianism. The intellectual, contemplative person is usually held in the highest esteem, rather than person who simply performs well. Moreover, members of ascriptive societies such as France often maintain self-esteem through relationships rather than through achievements. The French also place more emphasis upon those traits that are given or ascribed to the individual rather than those that are earned or achieved. Thus, it is important to know one's lineage, the school (or Grande Ecole) where one attended, and other important historical traits.

Given this review, it is expected that activity orientation will influence the customer value hierarchy. Achievement oriented cultures will likely value functional attributes and consequences as well as personal consequences such as achievement. On the other hand, ascription oriented cultures will value being rather than doing. The result

may be more emphasis on abstract value dimensions and less emphasis on more concrete dimensions, particularly functional consequences. There will also likely be greater emphasis on the personal consequences of hedonism and emotion. Achievement, hedonism, and emotion all represent different types of personal consequences, and as such, may counter each other, resulting in no significant difference between achievement and ascription cultures for personal consequences. In addition to the following proposition, this discussion provides further support for proposition 6.

Proposition 9: For the same product or service, there will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American consumers and French consumers (though the actual subtype of personal consequence will likely differ).

Monochronic/Polychronic

This dimension is based upon the research of Hall (1980, 1977) and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993). The dimension addresses the perception of time. Hall (1977) asserts that polychronic national cultures, such as the France, emphasize multiple tasks, whereas monochronic national cultures, such as the United States, emphasize simple, linear, and efficient communication and analyses. Similarly, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars' (1993) sequential/synchronic research, building upon the work of Hall (1980, 1977), describes certain national cultures like the United States as viewing time as sequence, and other national cultures like France as viewing time as synchronization. People who view time as sequential often see life "as-a-race," whereas people who view time as synchronous often see life "as-a-dance."

This dimension is expected to influence the customer value hierarchy in terms of overall structure. Monochronic cultures will likely form simpler, more efficient connections with products. It is expected that attributes will usually link through functional consequences to higher level dimensions. Polychronic cultures will likely form more complex, even confusing, connections with products. It is expected that attributes will often link directly to more abstract dimensions, sometimes even bypassing functional consequences. In addition to providing further support for proposition 8, this discussion supports the following propositions:

Proposition 10: For the same product or service, functional consequences are more likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.

Proposition 11: For the same product or service, attributes are more likely to link directly to personal and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.

Culture-Level and Individual-Level Dimensions

Many of the cultural dimensions identified in the literature were developed at the culture level rather than the individual level (Hofstede 1984; Schwartz 1994). These dimensions represent the means of overall cultures or the "modal personalities" and are often inferred from individual values averaged across members of a society. Within each culture, there are actually wide spread individual values and behaviors. For example, in a collective culture such as South Korea, one is still likely to find people who exhibit highly individualistic behavior. Trompenaars (1993) actually refers to culture as a "normal distribution." It is for this reason that researchers have demanded extreme care

in explaining cultural influences. As discussed earlier, individual values are partly the result of cultural values and partly the result of unique individual experience.

However, there are reasons to expect similarities between culture-level dimensions and individual-level dimensions. First, cultural priorities take into account both psychological dynamics that are inherent in human nature and also universal aspects of social interaction. Second, individuals are socialized to internalize the values of their culture. Schwartz (1994, p. 93) argues that "it would therefore be surprising if the value dimensions identified at the two levels did not overlap somewhat."

This perspective is consistent with that of cognitive anthropologists and cross-cultural psychologists. Essentially, culture is believed to include both group-level phenomena and individual-level phenomena. Whereas traditional anthropologists and sociologists have focused only upon group-level phenomena, cognitive anthropologists argue that "an individual psychological perspective is relevant to understanding consumer behavior precisely because it centers on how an individual comes to personalize cultural influence in his/her own cognitive organization, thus impacting individual behavior" (McCort and Malhotra 1993, p. 95).

This approach is most appropriate when attempting to examine the influence of culture upon customer value. Customer value is by its nature an individual cognitive phenomena and the goal of cognitive anthropology is to discover how elements of culture impact upon individual cognitive functioning and ultimately individual behavior (McCort and Malhotra 1993). Finally, as argued by McCort and Malhotra (1993, p. 96), while a cognitive orientation can not provide an overarching theory of cross-cultural behavior, it

does offer a means of exploring cultural influences on behavior by linking cultural antecedents with individual psychological functioning."

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literatures on value, means-end theory, and culture in order to develop a critical model demonstrating how culture can impact upon the customer value hierarchy. The conceptual model offers several contributions. First, the model proposes that culture impacts all levels of the customer value hierarchy; not just the end-state level. Secondly, the model reveals that culture influences both perception and importance of specific hierarchy dimensions and linkages between those dimensions. Finally, the hierarchy reveals three types of consequences - functional, personal, and social - and two types of attributes - concrete and abstract.

This chapter also provides antecedent justification for specific research propositions. The first set of propositions (see Table 2-6) primarily addresses the influence of cultural values upon customer value perceptions. These propositions are expected to apply to *any* comparison of two or more diverse cultures. The second set of propositions (see Table 2-7) addresses the influence of cultural values upon the importance of customer value dimensions and linkages. As can be seen in Tables 2-6 and 2-7, all of the propositions stated are intended to answer the research questions first posed in Chapter 1. The methodology for testing the research propositions is described in Chapter 3.

Table 2-6: Research Propositions Related to Perceptions

Research Proposition	Research Question Addressed
P1: For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.	#1
P2: For two diverse cultures, there will be differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute-attribute linkages, attribute-consequence linkages, consequence-consequence linkages, and consequence-end-state linkages) for the same product or service.	#2
P3: For the same product or service, important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.	#1

Table 2-7: Research Propositions Related to Importance

Research Proposition	Research Question Addressed
P4: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.	#1
P5: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.	#1
P6: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.	#1
P7: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.	#1
P8: For the same product or service, Value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.	#2
P9: For the same product or service, there will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American consumers and French consumers (though the actual subtype of personal consequence will likely differ).	#1
P10: For the same product or service, functional consequences are more likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.	#2
P11: For the same product or service, attributes are more likely to link directly to personal and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.	#2

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Chapter 1 described the importance of customer value analysis to international marketers. It also explained the necessity for examining how culture impacts upon the customer value hierarchy and offered several research questions. These research questions are:

1. *How does culture impact upon the content of the customer value hierarchy?*
   a. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
   b. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*

2. *How does culture impact upon the structure of the customer value hierarchy?*
   a. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of linkages between attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
   b. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon linkages between specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*

Chapter 2 reviewed the relevant literature needed to address the research questions posed and to construct a conceptual model. A Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy was presented. This model proposes that culture impacts both the perception and importance of specific customer value dimensions and linkages between those dimensions. Finally, a number of propositions were stated. A summary of these propositions is provided in Tables 3-1 and 3-2. These tables also illustrate how the research propositions were translated into research hypotheses.

Table 3-1: Qualitative Research Propositions

	Research Proposition	Unit of Analysis	Research Hypotheses	Test
P1	For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Differences in perceptions were evidenced by use of different value dimensions and by different meaning and valence attached to the same value dimension.
P2	For two diverse cultures, there will be differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute-attribute linkages, attribute-consequence linkages, consequence-consequence linkages, and consequence-end state linkages) for the same product or service.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Differences in perceptions were evidenced by use of different A~A, A~C, C~C, and C~ES linkages in the value hierarchy.
P3	For the same product or service, important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Correlations were evidenced by comparing consistencies between Schwartz's cultural value ranking for France and the U.S. and the end-states from the French and U.S. summary value hierarchies.

Table 3-2: Quantitative Research Propositions and Hypotheses

	Research Proposition	Unit of Analysis	Research Hypotheses	Test
P4	For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CAA_{France} > CAA_{US}$[1]	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P5	For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CCA_{US} > CCA_{France}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P6	For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CFC_{US} > CFC_{France}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P7	For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CSC_{France} > CSC_{US}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P8	For the same product or service, value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(L + NL)^2_{France} > (L + NL)_{US}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P9	For the same product or service, there will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American and French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CPC_{US} = CPC_{France}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P10	For the same product or service, functional consequences are likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(\#(FC\sim PC)^3+\#(FC\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{US} > (\#(FC\sim PC)+\#(FC\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{France}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)
P11	For the same product or service, attributes are more likely to link directly to psychological and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(\#(CA\sim PC)+\#(CA\sim SC)+\#(AA\sim PC)+\#(AA\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{France} > (\#(CA\sim PC)+\#(CA\sim SC)+\#(AA\sim PC)+\#(AA\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{US}$	Independent samples t-test ($p<0.05$ was the criteria for rejecting the null hypothesis)

[1] $CAA_{France} > CAA_{US}$ is read "centrality of abstract attributes among French consumers is greater than centrality of abstract attributes among American consumers."
[2] (L-NL) is read "number of ladders plus number of linked dimensions."
[3] #(FC~PC) is read "number of functional consequence-psychological consequence linkages."

Operational Definitions of Constructs

Cultural Values

Cultural values are believed to influence the entire customer value hierarchy. Consumers are not expected to adopt *all* of the cultural values of the culture to which they belong, but there should be distinct similarities between the cultural values measured for the culture as a whole and the values held by individual members of the culture. Cultural values are defined as (a) concepts or beliefs, (b) held by most members of a society, (c) about desirable end states or behaviors, (d) that transcend specific situations, (e) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (f) are ordered by relative importance (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987).

Schwartz and Ros (1995) identify seven universal motivational domains measured at the culture level, each of which is held in varying degrees by the world's cultures:

- Affective Autonomy - emphasizes promoting and protecting the individual's independent pursuit of affectively positive experiences (hedonism, pleasure, stimulation).
- Conservatism - emphasizes maintaining the status quo and restraint of actions or inclinations that might disrupt the group or the traditional order (conformity, security, tradition).
- Egalitarianism - emphasizes the welfare of others over selfish interests (benevolence, equality, freedom).

- Harmony - emphasizes respect for the environment (unity with nature, protecting the environment, universalism).
- Hierarchy - emphasizes the hierarchical allocation of fixed roles and resources (authority, power, wealth).
- Intellectual autonomy - emphasizes promoting and protecting the ideas and rights of the individual to pursue his/her own priorities (broadmindedness, creativity, spiritualism).
- Mastery - emphasizes getting ahead through self-assertion and through changing and mastering the environment (achievement, ambition, self-direction).

Evoked End-States (ES)

For this research, evoked end-states were defined as (a) a set of consumption goals or purposes (including cultural values), (b) held by an individual, (c) that transcend specific consumption contexts, (d) motivate selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance.

These evoked end-states may also include consumption goals or purposes that motivate the consumer. Woodruff and Gardial (1996, p. 69) assert that relative to core cultural values, these consumption goals "represent a lower-order, consumption-specific set of concerns that are related specifically to the individual's (or organization's) role as a customer."

In addition to the cultural values measured at the culture level identified by Schwartz and Ros (1995) in the previous section, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990, 1987)

identify eleven motivational domains that are measured at the individual level. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990, p. 93) argue that "there are theoretical reasons to expect culture-level and individual-level value dimensions to be related conceptually." Therefore, since end-states are measured at the individual-level, they were operationalized for the "perception" analysis utilizing the eleven Schwartz and Bilsky (1990, 1987) individual-level dimensions. These eleven dimensions are defined as:

- Self-direction - independent thought and action; derived from the organismic need for mastery and control through choosing, creating, and exploring, and interaction requirements for autonomy and independence.
- Stimulation - need for variety in order to maintain an optimal level of activation, excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.
- Hedonism - pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.
- Achievement - goal of personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards and thereby obtaining social approval.
- Power - attainment of social status and prestige, control, or dominance over people and resources.
- Security - basic individual and group requirements; goal of safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.
- Conformity - restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations and norms.
- Tradition - respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion impose on the individual.

- Spirituality - represents the attainment of meaning in life and inner harmony through transcending everyday reality.
- Benevolence - goal to preserve and enhance the welfare of those people with whom one is in frequent personal contact.
- Universalism - understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature.

Consumption Consequences (CC)

For this research, consumption consequences were defined as (a) desired outcomes (including both desired benefits and the avoidance of undesired sacrifices), (b) perceived by an individual, (c) associated with the use of product(s) and/or service(s), (d) in attaining (or inhibiting) aspired evoked end-states, (e) in a specific consumption context. These consequences can result directly from consumption and/or indirectly during pre-purchase search and post-consumption. Consumers maintain an evoked set of desired consumption consequences in which certain consequences are more salient than others. Salience depends upon situational factors and the role being played by the consumer.

As shown in the conceptual model, three types of consumption consequences were considered. These three types were distinguished using the following definitions.

- Functional Consequences (FC) -the (in)ability of a product or service to perform its utilitarian or physical purposes; often created by salient physical attributes in the case of goods. Functional consequences might include a number of

subconsequences, such as the ability of a product to provide quality, pleasure, comfort, fashionability, convenience, or monetary savings.

- Personal Consequences (PC) - the (in)ability of a product to satisfy important self-oriented goals. These consequences are often associated with feelings and emotional states. Psychological consequences might include a number of subconsequences, such as the ability of a product to help one feel that s/he has gotten a good deal, feel happy, or express his/her own personality.
- Social Consequences (SC) - the (in)ability of a product or service to portray an image to others that is congruent with the norms of important others; often associated with publicly consumed products and services. These consequences often relate to changes (real or perceived) in the way that consumers believe that others will view them. Social consequences might include a number of subconsequences, such as the ability of a product to convey to the user that s/he has status, that s/he conforms, or that s/he stands out from the crowd.

Desired Attributes (DA)

For this research, attributes were defined as (a) tangible and intangible features of a product or service, (b) perceived by an individual, (c) to help attain consumption consequences. Two types of attributes were identified:

- Concrete Attributes (CA) are features that can be directly perceived. These include product features such as color, size, price, and weight.
- Abstract Attributes (AA) are features that are not directly measurable and may or may not be perceived as directly as characteristics inherent in a physical

product. These include product features such as quality, reliability, fit, and taste.

Summary

Examples are offered in Table 3-3 to illustrate the constructs included within the Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy. These verbatim examples are derived from exploratory practice interviews on the subject of wine consumption with actual consumers in France and the United States performed prior to the final data collection.

Selection of National Cultures

In order to examine the influence of culture upon the customer value hierarchy, this study examined a product and context where maximal cultural differences were most likely to be present. In order facilitate this criterion, two maximally different national cultures were selected. This selection was guided by how culture is defined. The definition of culture in this dissertation was that adopted from Hofstede (1984): "collective programming of the mind." This essentially refers to enduring characteristics (i.e., values, beliefs) that are held commonly by members of a society. Although there are many different individual, enduring characteristics in any society, the approximation most frequently adopted in the literature has been that of national culture. Thus, national culture was used to represent culture in this dissertation. As stated by Nakata and Sivakumar (1996, p. 62), "because of the difficulties in delimiting the amorphous concept of culture, the nation is often used as a surrogate - albeit imperfect - for culture (Clark 1990; Inkeles and Levinson 1969)."

Table 3-3: Examples of Constructs Included in the Theoretical Model

Hierarchy Level	Sample Comments
Evoked End-States	❖ I want to feel loved. ❖ I don't want to lose my job. ❖ Life is all about having fun.
Social Consequences	❖ Because it helps everyone to get along and just have a good time. ❖ Because of my husband's social position, it makes me think I should probably pay a lot more attention to how others perceive us. ❖ I don't want the waiter to think I have no taste. ❖ Because I want to impress my date.
Personal Consequences	❖ It makes me feel like I possess something valuable and sophisticated, even though in actuality I don't own much. ❖ A good wine makes me feel like I made a good decision. ❖ It makes me feel like I've had a good evening.
Functional Consequences	❖ Because it goes better with what I am eating. ❖ It just goes down smoother. ❖ I want to be able to buy more than one bottle.
Abstract Attributes	❖ I'd rather have something of better quality. ❖ I don't want a wine that is too aggressive. ❖ It has a good flavor.
Concrete Attributes	❖ I like Cabernet or Merlot. ❖ I always order California wines. ❖ I don't want to spend more than $20 on a bottle. ❖ I pay attention to recommendations.

A primary factor considered in selecting the culture of study was the amount of existing literature on the country and its culture. Cultural literature specific to each culture examined in this study was necessary for the evaluation of specific findings. For example, it might be interesting to compare consumers from the United States with consumers from Chile. However, Chile has rarely been examined in any of the cultural dimension studies reported in Chapter 2. The countries most commonly examined in the review of the cultural dimension literature include: the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Japan, South Korea, and Singapore. This list served as an initial subgroup from which to choose.

In order to attempt to maximize differences, two cultures should be chosen which are different on as many of the cultural dimensions developed in Chapter 2 as possible. The United States is one national culture that was the subject of this study. This decision was made for several reasons: 1) the principle researcher is a citizen of and lives in the United States; 2) the decision simplified data collection because the author had to collect data in one foreign country; 3) the research results will be targeted primarily for dissemination in the United States; and 4) a significant body of literature exists on American culture. Utilizing the list developed in the preceding paragraph and assuming that the United States would be one of the countries in the study, the United Kingdom and Germany were eliminated from the list because of similarities to the United States. For example, the United Kingdom is often cited as being most similar to the United States in terms of cultural value dimensions (Hofstede 1984; Trompenaars 1993). Similarly, Germany is often classified with the United States and the United Kingdom on

many cultural dimensions, such as Universalism, Achievement, Equality, Sequential Time, Power Distance, and Context (Hofstede 1984; Trompenaars 1993).

At the same time, all other influences on desired value should be held constant. One factor that has been shown to impact consumption behavior is modernity. Some researchers (Levy 1966; Yang 1988) have argued that as societies modernize, they become more alike in terms of structure, social institutions and values held by their members. Although this might serve to reduce cultural differences, the customer value differences that do emerge can more confidently attributed to cultural differences and not economic differences. Van Raaij and Wandwossen (1978) argue that meaningful cross-cultural research comparisons can really only be made between societies at the same level of economic development. This assertion is based upon the work of both Marx and Engels who argued for a contextual view of social phenomena. Hence, differences that emerge between two societies at different levels of development may be due to developmental differences and not cultural differences. The remaining national cultures could all be considered modern societies.

Another factor influencing choice of national culture was the presence of a reliable research contact in the country of study. Potential research partners were identified in France and South Korea. Convenience was then utilized to make the final selection. Because of time and language constraints, France was chosen over South Korea. First, the contact in France was available at the needed time period. Secondly, the principle researcher speaks French and has lived, worked, and studied in France.

There is support for the decision to use France and the United States. In an examination of cultural differences in seven capitalist societies - the United States, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Japan, France, and Sweden - Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) assert that France is very much the opposite of the United States. On most of the seven cultural dimensions that they examine, "France is on the opposite side of the English-speakers, the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada" (p. 334).

Product and Consumption Context

The product and consumption context chosen for this study, wine in a restaurant setting, met three criteria: 1) the product should be considered a high involvement product; 2) the product should be associated with multiple types of consumption consequences (functional, social, and personal); and 3) the product should maximize the potential for cultural differences. A number of means-end researchers (e.g., Claeys, Swinnen, and Abeele 1995; Walker and Olson 1991; Reynolds and Gutman 1988) have concluded that involvement influences the probability of reaching the end-state level during an interview. Claeys, Swinnen, and Abeele (1995, p. 207) assert that "under high involvement conditions value levels will be accessed more easily and frequently as a reflection of the increased degree of personal relevance." To operationalize high-involvement products, previous cross-cultural marketing research has often focused on more value-expressive and publicly consumed products. For example, Valette-Florence (1998) examined perfume, Overby and Min (1998) examined handbags, Botschen and

Hemetsberger (1998) examined clothing, and Beatty, Kahle, and Homer (1991) examined gift-giving behavior.

An examination of means-end studies that have been conducted in only one culture revealed products that would fulfill requirements one and two, and likely the third requirement as well. For example, Judica and Perkins (1992) examined consumption of sparkling wines for heavy and light users. Gutman and Alden (1985) examined the clothing consumption for adolescents. Gengler, Klenosky, and Mulvey (1995) examined the ski destination choice for downhill skiers who had been skiing at least two times. And Bagozzi and Dabholkar (1994) examined household decisions to recycle. Each of these product type choices produced means-end hierarchies emphasizing all three major types of consumption consequences.

Specifically in regards to wine consumption, several recent single-culture studies (i.e., Judica and Perkins 1992; Mitchell and Greatorex 1989) have demonstrated that wine is considered a high-involvement product. Additionally, these same studies have shown that wine is consumed for multiple reasons, including the three types of consumption consequences examined in this study. For example, Judica and Perkins (1992) found that American consumers are highly involved in the purchase of wine and that they consider a number of similar attributes but very different consequences and end-states, including enjoyment, sophisticated image, impressing others, belonging and family life. Likewise, Mitchell and Greatorex (1989) assert that British consumers perceive functional, social, financial, and physical risks from wine consumption.

Moreover, it is anticipated that wine is a culture-bound product, and as such, will maximize the potential for cultural differences. Culture-bound products are generally more deeply integrated into local culture and as a result are more likely to reveal cultural differences among consumers (Djursaa and Kragh 1998; Quelch and Hoff 1995; Usunier 1996). Djursaa and Kragh (1998), in a review of the literature, assert that food and clothing are "strongly culture-bound" and industrial products are "culture-free." Similarly, Adler and Kandel (1982) find alcoholic beverages to be culturally bound. Upon examining three countries (France, Israel, and the United States) characterized by divergent alcohol use, Adler and Kandel (1982) found that the cultural environment (i.e., significant others, parents, peers, etc.) is a more powerful predictor of alcohol use than simply personal attributes. These arguments further justify the selection of wine consumption for this study. Finally, a review of 1997 wine consumption statistics in the two national cultures examined in this research (France and the United States) reveals that the French consume an average of 15.9 gallons of wine per capita while Americans consume an average of 2.0 gallons of wine per capita (Horiuchi 1999). Although wine is likely functionally equivalent, such differences in usage statistics at the culture level indicate the likelihood of cultural differences in perception and importance of the product category.

In addition to the product choice, the context under which the product is consumed must also be considered. Consumption context can be defined as the situation in which a product or service will be purchased and/or consumed by a consumer. There are often numerous consumption contexts for a single product. For example, the

consumption of a simple bottle of mineral water will likely differ depending on whether one is consuming it after or during physical exercise, sipping it slowly in a café, using it to cook with, or mixing it with scotch. Like the product choice, the context should attempt to maximize opportunities for cultural differences. In a recent study, Djursaa and Kragh (1998) theorize that consumption context can significantly determine the influence of culture. They categorize the consumption context as a sliding scale with two polar extremes: central and peripheral:

- central consumption context - a culturally closed situation in which consumption is usually consistent with prevailing cultural values.
- peripheral consumption context - a culturally open situation in which consumption is often pursued to fulfill values that are not necessarily consistent with prevailing cultural values.

Djursaa and Kragh (1998) then offered data to support their theory. They conducted 60 interviews and group discussions examining food consumption in three Arab cities (Dubai, Jedda and Riyadh) and found that the central-peripheral dichotomy partly explained the influence of culture upon consumer behavior. The purpose of the present research is not to test their theory. However, selection of a central consumption context should help to address the primary research question of this study - does culture impact upon the customer value hierarchy. Therefore, for purposes of this study, a central consumption context was selected. A central consumption context for wine would more likely include situations in which wine is publicly consumed, such as restaurant meals, cocktail parties, and/or family mealtime gatherings. This study

examined wine consumption within the context of dinner in a restaurant on a special occasion.

In addition to product and consumption context, the choice of value - desired or received - must be resolved. Desired value represents consumer preferences for specific value dimensions (i.e., attributes, consequences, and end-states). Received value represents consumer evaluations of product or service performances on these desired value dimensions (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). Given that this study utilized a laddering approach, dimensions of both desired and received value emerged. However, the primary focus was upon desired value. A primary reason for this decision is that desired value can be examined in terms of the choice criteria for a product category. Received value, however, is essentially post-purchase and concerns performance and evaluation of a specific product (Gardial et al. 1994). Examination of desired value for a product category should result in more significant consumer differences than for a specific product or brand (Holbrook 1994; Van Raaij and Wandwossen 1978), in part because consideration of a specific product or brand constrains the range of attributes and resulting consequences available to the consumer as compared to consideration of a product category. Moreover, Van Raaij and Wandwossen (1978) assert that motivational models are highly relevant for generic choice processes (such as product classes), while multiattribute attitude models may be more relevant for specific choice processes. Finally, it was expected that national culture would influence what a consumer desires more than consumer perceptions of what has been received.

Development of Research Methodology

The selection and development of the appropriate research methodology depends upon the research questions posed and, if applicable, the research hypotheses to be tested. Desired customer value is a highly subjective concept, and as such demands qualitative data. It can be very difficult to access the cognitive structures of consumers using highly structured, quantitative methods. A primary objective of this research was to understand perception and importance of customer desired value dimensions from the perspective of the consumer rather than the perspective of the researcher, and qualitative research is most appropriate in such situations. In fact, Woodruff and Gardial (1996) assert that "measuring customer value is rooted in the use of qualitative data-gathering techniques."

For example, the first three propositions specifically addressed consumer perceptions and involved comparisons between two culture groups. It is likely that the same value dimension (i.e., color or performance) may be perceived differently in two divergent cultures. Purely quantitative approaches might capture the fact that consumers from two divergent cultures perceive the presence of the value dimension, but such approaches likely make it difficult for the researcher to capture the fact that the consumers perceive the *meaning* of the actual value dimension very differently. Truly understanding customer value requires a "peeling back" process in which the researcher flexibly probes respondents with open-ended, loosely structured questions. As the objective of the perception propositions was to *understand* differences in meaning, valence, and linkages of customer value dimensions, qualitative data-gathering and analysis was necessary. Moreover, even when empirically determined statistical

relationships are utilized, qualitative research can help to interpret and illuminate upon the findings.

In terms of evaluation, the research questions and resulting hypotheses guiding this study actually involved some theory testing. As such, an analysis method conducive to theory testing was needed. This, in turn, drove the type of data collected. As discussed above, the perception propositions were examined qualitatively. However, the importance propositions (P4-P11) were more conducive to quantitative testing. There are quantitative analysis approaches (i.e., simple counts, centrality statistics) in the means-end theory literature that have been utilized to represent the importance of value hierarchy dimensions. Even though this type of analysis is more quantitative, the data should first be collected in a qualitative manner in order to facilitate the examination of consumer perceptions. These requirements called for less structured qualitative data that could be quantified.

This discussion provides justification for the following research techniques and design that were employed in this study.

Technique for Accessing the Cultural Customer Value Hierarchy

In order to examine the cultural customer value hierarchy, it was necessary to first elicit the associations between attributes, consequences, and end-states. A number of approaches have been described in the means-end literature for this purpose:

- Survey techniques
- Focus group interviewing
- In-depth interviewing

The use of survey techniques is relatively new to means-end research. The most quantitative technique is the Association Pattern Technique (Hofstede et al. 1998; Hofstede, Steenkamp and Wedel 1999). This technique provides the respondent with two separate matrices (an attribute-consequence matrix and a consequence-value matrix). The attributes, consequences, and values are defined a priori, and the respondent simply checks the appropriate boxes connecting an attribute with a consequence and a consequence with a value. This technique is not meant to replace, but to supplement more traditional qualitative techniques such as laddering (Hofstede et al. 1998). Like other quantitative techniques, the technique is constrained in terms of the limited depth of data generated.

Another survey technique that has been utilized in the means-end literature is pencil-and-paper laddering (Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Walker and Olson 1991). In this technique, laddering occurs through a structured questionnaire in which respondents first write up to four attributes that are important to them. For each attribute, they then write up to three reasons why each of these attributes is important. This technique eliminates any direct contact between researcher and respondent and, thus, helps to avoid interviewer biases. However, the hierarchies that result can be less complex and less rich than more traditional laddering techniques in which the interviewer is able to inject probes.

Focus group research is a qualitative data gathering approach. It has been utilized rather sparingly in means-end research, primarily for the generation of a priori dimensions to support the Association Pattern Technique. Although focus groups are

useful for generating a breadth of information, they are not conducive for generating depth of information (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). For example, a focus group could facilitate the development a broad list of important value dimensions for a product or service. However, the focus group discussion might make it difficult for the researcher to examine the perceptions and meanings held by each consumer for each value dimension. Moreover, the focus group approach might actually inhibit focus group participants from expressing divergent opinions or experiences (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). The danger of such "groupthink" for intercultural research is that the researcher might make inaccurate cultural comparisons by arguing that since everyone in the focus group agrees, the phenomena must be a culture-specific trait.

Given that this study sought to *understand* in a profound way how culture impacts upon the customer value hierarchy, and given the weaknesses of the previous techniques, a more qualitative technique was chosen. In-depth interviewing appeared to offer the best alternative for accessing such cognitive processes.

The in-depth interview involves one-to-one dialogue between researcher and respondent and is often utilized to identify consumer attitudes, motives, and behavior, and to measure their relative importance (Bellenger, Bernhardt and Goldstucker 1976). This method is "most effective for moving to deeper and deeper layers of the customer's value perceptions" (Woodruff and Gardial 1996, p. 174). A number of in-depth interviewing techniques have been utilized to identify value dimensions. Table 3-4 provides a brief summary of the three techniques that examine all three levels of the means-end hierarchy (attributes, consequences, and end-states). There have been other

Table 3-4: Description of Depth Interviewing Techniques Used to Identify Value Dimensions

Method	Description of Method	Theoretical Basis	Source
Laddering	In-depth interview used to understand how consumers translate product attributes into meaningful associations with respect to self. Uses directed probes, such as "why is that important to you?" to determine linkages between key perceptual elements across the range of attributes, consequences, and end states.	Means-end theory (Gutman 1982)	Reynolds and Gutman (1988); Woodruff and Gardial (1996)
Grand Tour	In-depth interview used to understand value hierarchies indirectly by exploring the consumer use experience. Uses directed probes, such as "what are you feeling at this point during your activity?" and "why is that important to you?" to learn about attributes, consequences, and end-states relevant during use.	Means-end theory (Gutman 1982)	Woodruff and Gardial (1996)
Zaltman Metaphor Elicitation Technique (ZMET)	In-depth interview technique used to understand consumer images of brands, products, and companies, brand equity, product concepts and designs, etc. Consumers bring in photographic images which serve as a basis for guided conversation that uses a combination of Kelly Repertory Grid and laddering techniques to elicit constructs that can be organized into a summary mental map. Consumers can also create summary visual images and vignettes which can be used to assist in the creation of advertising design and copy.	Categorization theory (Rosch 1978); Means-end theory (Gutman 1982); Nonverbal communication (Birdwhistell 1970); Metaphor elicitation (Lakoff 1987)	Zaltman and Coulter (1995)

Source: Adapted from Cathey (1999)

techniques used (i.e., Grey Benefit Chain and Kelly Repertory Grid), but these have typically only examined one or two hierarchy dimensions (attributes and benefits) and rarely the entire hierarchy.

Of the qualitative techniques summarized above, laddering has been utilized in the literature more than any other technique. However, all three techniques (Laddering, Grand Tour, and ZMET) are able to reveal significant insights into how consumers form value perceptions. The specific strengths and weaknesses associated with each technique are summarized in Table 3-5. The choice of any data gathering technique should ultimately be determined by the research questions guiding the research and the hypotheses being tested. The data gathering techniques will now be examined in terms of the research questions proposed in this study.

First, this study examined the impact of culture upon the customer value hierarchy. This objective required understanding consumer value hierarchies and also how consumers perceive the various dimensions within the hierarchy. Moreover, a specific use situation was examined in order to isolate cultural differences and similarities. All three approaches allow the researcher to access rich consumer meaning specific to a use situation. The Grand Tour and ZMET techniques provide greater depth of information than the Laddering technique. However, specific in-depth questions, such as perception questions, can be built into the Laddering approach.

Second, this study examined specific linkages between value dimensions. Given that a major strength of Laddering is its ability to generate explicit linkages between value dimensions, this technique appeared to be superior to ZMET and the Grand Tour

Table 3-5: Strengths and Weaknesses of Techniques Used to Identify Value Dimensions

Method	Strengths	Weaknesses
Laddering	• Provides understanding of how consumers translate the attributes of products into meaningful associations with respect to self • Structured interview which eases moderator's task and makes training easier • Reasonably short interview time frame (45 minutes to one hour) • Connections between attributes, consequences, and end-states are explicitly made by the consumer • Relative strength of linkages can be determined	• Nature of probes ("why") can lead to respondent fatigue, which may cause omission of some information • Respondents catch on to what the interviewer is looking for; can lead to social desirability responses and the creation of linkages that do not really exist • Does not reveal much about how use situations and other activities influence the value consumers place upon a product or service
Grand Tour	• Provides in-depth understanding of consumer use situations and use of a product/service within a given situation • Expected to yield more information about all levels of the value hierarchy as compared to laddering • Yields consumer insights related to product/service that can help managers uncover strategic opportunities • Allows for the incorporation of laddering questions into the interview	• Interview requires significant amount of consumer time (one to two hours) • Requires more intensive training of interviewers because of the lack of structure and the need for probing • Connections between hierarchy dimensions are rarely explicit and must be inferred from consumer responses
Zaltman Metaphor Elicitation Technique (ZMET)	• Taps nonverbal channels of communication in a manner that elicits consumer insights • Makes use of metaphors on the basis that they are fundamental to learning and communication • Generates core constructs and the reasonings that connect them to form mental models that represent consumer thinking about a brand • Provides visual as well as written data, which is helpful for the development of marketing communication strategies based upon consumer needs	• Is not grounded in the use situation • Does not clearly describe linkages between value dimensions • Requires extensive training of interviewers • Requires trained graphics imaging technicians • Requires a large amount of consumer time (five hours preparation plus two hour interview) • Analysis is extremely labor intensive • Requires graphics imaging hardware and software • Does not provide quantitative estimates of the relative strengths of associations between dimensions • Photographic images selected by consumers are limited to concepts they find familiar

Source: Adapted from Cathey (1999)

technique. ZMET does not examine explicit linkages, and the Grand Tour technique does allow for the examination of linkages, but they are often not explicitly stated.

Third, the interviews in this study were compared across subjects and across cultures. In order to facilitate such comparisons, the interview format needed to be standardized as much as possible. Laddering is far superior to the Grand Tour and ZMET techniques in terms of allowing a standardized structure. A Laddering approach best ensures equivalent structure and probing across interviewers.

In sum, Laddering appeared to be superior to Grand Tour and ZMET for the purposes of this research. A Laddering approach facilitates a deep, rich understanding of the influence of culture upon customer value, while at the same time allowing for the structured construction and examination of specific value hierarchies and hierarchy dimensions.

Overview of the Laddering Technique

The Laddering technique attempts to understand the customer value hierarchy by exploring in detail how a product or service is experienced by the customer in a particular consumption context (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). The interviewer asks the respondent to imagine himself/herself in a specific real-life situation. The interviewer then elicits a number of product or service attributes that are important to the respondent within that specific situation. The situation can involve prepurchase, postpurchase, use, or even disposal.

The interviewer attempts to "ladder" from each important attribute to desired consequences and ultimately to desired end states. This often involves the use of "why"

questions and/or a variety of probes. For example, while discussing the purchase of a purse, a consumer may recall that she was looking for a large purse. The interviewer would ask "why was finding a large purse important to you?" and the consumer might respond, "because I have a lot of stuff to carry around when shopping with my children, and I want to keep up with it while at the same time keeping up with my children."

The Laddering technique also employs retrospective verbalizations on the part of the respondent. Retrospective verbalization involves recall by the respondent regarding his/her pre-purchase and post-purchase product experiences. This technique essentially avoids possible distractions that are often associated with concurrent verbalizations (Gardial et al. 1994). Gardial et al. (1994) evaluate both the advantages and limitations of this technique. First, although some researchers have discounted the usefulness of customer memory, customers typically make product evaluations and choices utilizing their previous experiences and knowledge. Moreover, these evaluations and choices are made regardless of the accuracy of the memories. Second, there may be some biases associated with reliance on long-term memories, such as differences between what consumers recall and what they actually experienced. However, such biases, if any, should be consistent across all product and service evaluations. The result would simply be that any customer value differences identified would likely be understated (Gardial et al. 1994).

Cross-Cultural Equivalence Issues

Equivalence is a primary concern in cross-cultural research because meaningful cross-cultural comparisons can only be made if the research from two or more cultures is

comparable. A number of types of equivalence have been identified in the literature (Poortinga 1989; Sekaran 1983; Vijver and Leung 1997). Some equivalence types are specific to measurement development (i.e., structural equivalence, measurement unit equivalence, and scalar equivalence). The types of cross- cultural equivalence salient to this study are discussed below and are also addressed in the research design.

Sampling Equivalence

Quite often in cross-cultural research, convenience samples are utilized. These types of samples do not allow for a priori predictions about cultural differences, and when cultural differences are found, post hoc explanations are offered. An alternative approach is systematic sampling. This approach involves the selection of cultures in a systematic, theory-guided way, and better facilitates the testing of a priori hypotheses. Vijver and Leung (1997, p. 263) assert that "in order to maximize the effectiveness of the systematic approach, cultures that are far apart on the theoretical dimension upon which they vary should be selected. This approach will maximize the chance to detect cultural differences." This approach guided the culture selection discussed earlier in this chapter.

In order to reach any valid conclusions in cross-cultural research, the subjects from the different cultural groups should be as similar as possible. Thus, the objective of sampling must be the elimination of plausible rival hypotheses (Van Raaij 1978). If not, then any differences that result may be to factors other than culture, such as sample-specific differences. Van Raaij and Wandwossen (1978) identifies four types of sampling for cross-cultural research and posit that the selection of sampling method

depends upon the research question. The appropriate situations for these four types of sampling are briefly discussed.

Random Sampling. This type of sampling is recommended for comparisons of income and age distributions in different cultures (Van Raaij and Wandwossen 1978). This type of sampling facilitates statistical testing for the significance of differences and is recommended for large-scale quantitative surveys. However, this approach is not conducive for qualitative approaches that require more purposeful "information-rich" sampling (Patton 1987).

Functional Equivalence Sampling. This type of sampling involves primarily the comparison of organizations. An example is offered in terms of comparing salesmen in Japan and the United States. One must find similar organizations and samples of personnel within the organizations. However, generalization to the general culture or population may not be appropriate (Van Raaij and Wandwossen 1978).

Sample Representativeness or Typical Case Sampling. This type of sampling is recommended for descriptive studies, especially studies concerned with attitude-value structures, attitude-behavior relationships, life-style or opinion research. Representativeness means that the sample must be characteristic of the culture from which it is drawn. The goal is examination of relationships between variables in different cultures, and not absolute distributions of the variables (Van Raaij and Wandwossen 1978). This approach is most feasible in organizational research and typical cases are usually selected with the cooperation or assistance of key informants (Patton 1987).

Matched Sampling. This type of sampling is recommended for causal studies. Other researchers also argue for this type of sampling (Hofstede 1984; Vijver and Leung 1997). Two methods can be initiated to achieve matched sampling - broad sampling or narrow sampling. Broad sampling involves surveying a large cross-section of a society in order to randomize out subcultural differences. However, this is only feasible in large-scale quantitative studies. The second approach, narrow sampling, involves surveying a limited, but very similar group in each culture. This approach is feasible in both quantitative and qualitative studies.

The danger with matched sampling is that real cross-cultural differences are actually eliminated because of the matching procedure. Van Raaij and Wandwossen (1978, p. 694) maintains that "one has to have a theory to distinguish between the matching variables and the independent variables in a research design." Despite this potential weakness, this approach is most appropriate for testing a theory in which all other factors should be controlled other than national culture of the respondents. Given that this study examined the relationship between culture and customer value, matched sampling was utilized.

Considering the product and consumption context chosen for this research, consumers were matched on several criteria: age, education, wine usage, frequency of restaurant dining, and involvement. First, wine consumption does not often begin until the late twenties and afterwards. Younger consumers in both France and the United States are more likely to consume drinks other than wine during meals. Additionally, the reasons for consuming are likely to be very different between young drinkers and middle-

aged and older drinkers. Second, the level of education should impact both wine consumption patterns and the types of wine consumed. Wine drinkers in the United States are more higher educated than non-wine drinkers, and they often consume higher quality wines. Amount of wine consumption in France does not differ greatly by level of education or income although it is expected that higher educated also consume higher quality wines. Therefore, in order to be able to make any type of comparison, consumers with similar education levels were examined in France and the United States. Third, amount of wine usage should significantly influence the customer value hierarchy. People who consume more wine are likely to also be more knowledgeable of wine, and product knowledge as well as involvement have been shown to influence the complexity and the specific dimensions of the customer value hierarchy. Therefore, the French and American respondents were matched on wine usage. Fourth, consumers who rarely dine in restaurants are likely to value very different dimensions than consumers who regularly dine in restaurants. Thus, the French and American respondents were matched on how often they dine in restaurants. Finally, the samples were matched on involvement with wine. As discussed in the product selection section, involvement has been shown to affect the ability to elicit higher levels of the means-end hierarchy (Claeys, Swinnen, and Abeele 1995).

Functional Equivalence

Functional equivalence is concerned with the different functions that products and services play in different cultures (Sekaran 1983). For example, bicycles are a form of basic transportation in some cultures, but represent recreation in other cultures. Thus,

any cross-cultural study that involves the measurement of some consumer behavior construct under the context of consumption of a functionally non-equivalent product could provide non-valid results. Any differences identified may not be due to cultural differences, but rather due to functional non-equivalence of the product or buying situation (Singh 1994).

Maintenance of this type of equivalence is important when quantitatively measuring constructs and their theoretical relationships. However, it is often these functional differences that are of interest in customer value analysis. For example, an examination of Dutch consumer hierarchies for bicycles might reveal that Dutch consumers desire comfortable bikes so that they can get to home and work without pain or injury. On the other hand, American consumer hierarchies for bicycles might reveal that Americans desire durable bikes so that they can ride through rough mountain terrain and have a good time. This study attempted to control such functional differences through the careful application of the same product category (wine) and consumption context (restaurant) for respondents from both cultures.

Conceptual Equivalence

Conceptual equivalence concerns whether or not the concepts under investigation are equivalent. If they are not, then the results of a cross-cultural study may not be interpretable (Singh 1994). For example, cognitive consistency theory holds that people do not voluntarily hold discrepant attitudes. However, this theory has been tested primarily in the United States and may not apply in other cultures. Thus, the theory may

be culture-bound, and it would not be appropriate to utilize it in some cross-cultural studies (Green and White 1978).

This discussion raises the question as to whether means-end theory is culturally bound. Based upon the countries where the theory has been examined, it appears that means-end theory is conceptually equivalent across European and North American cultures (Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Valette-Florence 1998; Valette-Florence and Rapacchi 1990; Valette-Florence and Rapacchi 1993). Moreover, the one Asian study also appears to reveal that means-end theory is a universal theory (Overby and Min 1998).

Instrument Equivalence and Data Collection Equivalence

Cross-cultural instruments must measure and test the same phenomena in each of the cultures being studied. Two types of instrument equivalence must be addressed - measurement equivalence and instrument translation.

Measurement Equivalence. Even if a phenomenon is functionally and conceptually equivalent across cultures or nations, it may be manifested differently in each culture or nation. For example, the concept of timeliness for a train is likely universal and the function of timeliness (i.e., getting from one place to another as scheduled or planned) may be very similar. However, the operationalization of the concept may demand very different measures because one culture may equate being "on-time" to being within one minute of the schedule whereas another culture may equate being "on-time" to being within one hour of the schedule. This poses significant obstacles for the construction of an instrument that accurately measures the phenomenon

in each culture being studied (Sekaran 1983). Two approaches have been developed by cross-cultural researchers to address this problem - the emic approach and the etic approach.

The emic approach requires that instruments be developed to measure the phenomenon in each culture of study. Utilizing the previous example, if a researcher utilized an American measure of timeliness in southern Italy, s/he might find that the concept is unimportant. However, timeliness might, in fact, be very important to southern Italians. Unfortunately, the development of emic measures makes any type of statistical comparison very difficult. The etic approach develops an instrument with measures from all of the cultures being studied into one "multicultural" instrument (Green and White 1978). In general, these types of measurement equivalence are most applicable to quantitative research. As qualitative analysis involves the search for meaning, the phenomena of interest are essentially collected in an emic way. Qualitative comparison of interview transcripts, for example, can then result in both emic and etic interpretations.

In qualitative data collection, the research instrument is essentially the researcher him/herself (Patton 1987; Strauss and Corbin 1990). This poses significant problems for cross-cultural equivalence especially when different interviewers are used in each culture. Every attempt should be made to ensure that data is collected in an equivalent manner in each culture. Several techniques were implemented in order to ensure such equivalence. First, the interviewers were trained in a similar manner in each culture (Sekaran 1983). Second, the interviews were conducted in a similar manner in each culture, utilizing a

similar interview guide and similar probes. The researcher attempted to ensure that uniform data collection procedures were used in each culture being studied so as to minimize differences dues to data collection procedures (Sekaran 1983). This involved identical methods of introduction to the study and to the researcher, task instructions, closing remarks, and recording. Third, the data were collected within similar time frames. If too much time elapses between data collection periods, other factors could influence the comparability of data (Sekaran 1983). For example, devaluation of the currency in one culture could significantly impact consumption phenomena. The interviews for the study were collected within a three to four month time frame. The French interviews were collected first. The brief delay between interviews was not expected to negatively affect the findings. The techniques discussed above were implemented in this research and additional detail is provided in the research design section.

Instrument Translation. An interview guide was developed and translated into the languages of the cultures in which it was administered. This was not as straightforward as it sounds. Poor translation can result in inferior or noncomparable results. For example, some terms may not even have equivalents in other languages. Several methods have been offered in the literature for addressing instrument translation - direct translation, back translation, and decentering (Brislin 1986).

Direct translation is the most common translation method. In this method, a bilingual translator translates an instrument from one language to another. Although this

is the simplest, quickest, and least expensive method, the researcher often has no assurance as to the quality of the translation (Brislin 1986).

Back translation overcomes the shortcomings of direct translation. In this method, a research instrument is first translated into another language by a bilingual translator. The instrument is then translated back into the original language by a second bilingual translator. The translations are compared and corrections are made where discrepancies exist. The process can be repeated until the researcher believes that s/he has an equivalent instrument (Brislin 1986).

Decentering involves the construction of a research instrument in all of the languages of the cultures to be studied and then incorporation of items from each culture into a single instrument (Brislin 1986). This approach is often utilized when developing measurement scales for universal constructs. Unfortunately, this method results in a much longer instrument and will require a multilingual translator if more than two languages are involved.

After reviewing the various translation methods, Hofstede (1984) recommends the direct translation method. He argues that, although back-translation is a "wise safeguard," it can be extremely expensive and time-consuming. Moreover, the quality of the translation still depends upon the skill of the translators involved. He argues for "a one-shot translation by a gifted translator familiar with the content matter of the document over the result of a back-translation exercise using two or more mediocre translators" (p. 28).

Given that this research involved a short interview guide, probes, and a one-page biographical survey and not several pages of scaled measures, direct translation was used. A bilingual translator who was familiar with consumer research performed the translation from English to French.

Summary of Equivalence Issues

A summary of the various equivalence issues is presented in Table 3-6. The table also briefly addresses how this study applied each type of equivalence.

Table 3-6: Summary of Equivalence Issues

Type of Equivalence	Issue	Study Application
Sampling	The subjects from different cultural groups should be as similar as possible.	Study applied matched sampling by surveying members of two similar groups in the two cultures.
Functional	Object (product or service) of study should perform similar purpose in each culture being studied.	Study examined same product and consumption context in each culture - wine consumption during restaurant dining on a special occasion.
Conceptual	The theory under investigation should be analogous in each culture being studied.	Previous means-end studies have established conceptual equivalence of means-end theory in the cultures being studied.
Instrument and Data Collection	The study instruments should measure and/or test the same phenomena in each culture being studied and should be collected in a similar manner and time frame in each culture.	Study employed laddering interviews in the native language of respondents. Interviewers were trained in the same manner by the primary researcher. Interviews followed identical formats and procedures in each culture. The interview guide, probes, and biographical questionnaire were direct translated. Data collection occurred within a six-month time frame. The French transcripts were direct translated into English by two translators.

Research Design

This section describes in detail how the theoretical model was empirically tested. As stated earlier, the study compared customer value hierarchies for consumers from two diverse cultures - the United States and France. The study consisted of 60 in-depth interviews with consumers, 30 from the United States and 30 from France, using a laddering technique. Participants in the study were urban and suburban middle-aged and middle-class consumers.

Other than national culture membership, an attempt was be made to control all other potentially relevant factors (i.e., age, education, product usage, product involvement). Research has shown that when these factors are not controlled in comparative studies, cross-cultural differences decrease or even disappear (Ho 1994). Thus, differences that survive after controlling for these other factors can more confidently be attributed to cultural differences. Essentially, culture is treated as a residual variable; it explains the yet unexplained between-group variance.

Though the sample size was small by traditional quantitative sampling standards, qualitative researchers assert that in purposeful sampling the size of the sample is determined by informational considerations. For qualitative research, McCracken (1988) suggests anywhere between eight and twenty interviews. The exact number needed depends primarily upon the concept of information redundancy. Sampling is generally terminated when no new information is obtained from newly sampled respondents (Lincoln and Guba 1985). In order to be able to conduct simple t-tests for quantitative hypotheses, at least 15 respondents are needed for each cultural group. The use of a

small sample size and the fact that the samples were matched limited the generalizability of the findings, but facilitated examination of the theory. For example, the findings can only be generalized to the population that fits the matching criteria. However, by attempting to control for highly influential factors other than culture (i.e., matching criteria), the theory that culture influences the perception and importance of the customer value hierarchy could be examined. Given that the overall sample of two groups of 30 subjects met the criteria for both qualitative and quantitative analyses, the sample size was deemed adequate for testing the research propositions developed in Chapter 2.

Process for Conducting the Research

This section addresses the process that was followed in order to conduct the dissertation research. The following steps were employed in the research design:

- Recruiting participants
- Training interviewers
- Conducting interviews
- Transcribing interviews
- Translating interviews
- Coding interviews
- Analyzing the data

Each of these steps will now be discussed in detail.

Recruiting Participants

The French respondents were recruited from a list provided by a research organization in Paris, France. Because of inadequate response, the list was supplemented utilizing a snowballing technique, in which respondents identified other potential respondents at the end of their respective interview. Respondents were recruited by the

interviewer via telephone and/or in person. Respondents were offered a 40 French Franc coupon (equivalent to around $7) usable at a nationwide chain of wine shops as compensation for their participation.

The United States respondents were matched to the French respondents in an attempt to ensure sample equivalence. Key characteristics of the French sample were identified. First, the French respondents were urban and suburban residents of a major metropolitan area, Paris, in France. Second, the French respondents ranged in age from 30-60 years. Third, the French respondents' education level was high, with the majority having completed graduate school. Fourth, the French respondents dined in a restaurant at least once a month. Fifth, the French respondents, on average, consumed several glasses of wine a week at home and usually one to three glasses in a restaurant. Finally, the French respondents were moderately to highly involved with wine.

These characteristics guided the recruiting of American respondents from a mailing list, particularly with regard to metropolitan status, education level, and age groups of the French sample. Additionally, the United States metropolitan area chosen needed to have average annual per capita wine consumption that was similar to that of the French sample. Several metropolitan areas in the United States came close to, though none equaled, annual per capita wine consumption in France: Washington D.C., San Francisco, and New York. The Washington D.C. metropolitan area was chosen because, like Paris, it is the national capital and has a large suburban population and also because of the presence of a research contact in the area.

Once the mailing list was acquired, a market research firm was employed to screen and recruit potential respondents in the Washington D.C. area from the list via telephone (a copy of the screening questionnaire is in Appendix A). Respondents were matched with the French sample on the six matching criteria. Potential respondents were offered a wine journal valued at $30 for their participation.

Training Interviewers

Two interviewers were trained in each country. The interviewers were not aware of the specific research hypotheses, but they were educated as to the basic theory behind customer value. They were trained in the laddering technique. Moreover, they were trained to recognize and understand the various dimensions of the customer value hierarchy. The interviews in France were conducted in French by native French interviewers, and the American interviews were conducted in English by American interviewers (a copy of the training schedule is included in Appendix B).

Conducting Interviews

The interviews were conducted at locations convenient to each subject. The interviews followed a laddering format and were audio-taped (with permission of the subject) and transcribed verbatim. The interviewers explained to the subjects that the tape recorder was being used solely for note taking and to enable him or her to focus on what was being said. The interviewers also explained that the recording would be used solely for analysis purposes and individual names would not be linked with interview transcripts or audiotapes.

Subjects were provided an incentive for participation, which was given at the conclusion of the interview. Although subjects were assured of confidentiality, the interviewers provided subjects with written documentation of individuals that they could contact (via an informed consent form) should they have any questions or comments regarding the research (copies of the French and English Interview Guides are included in Appendix C).

Transcribing Interviews

Upon completion of each interview, a professional transcriber transcribed the interviews. The French interviews were first transcribed into French by a French transcriber, and the American interviews were transcribed into English by an American transcriber. The transcribers in both cultures were instructed to provide a verbatim transcript of the interview.

Translating Interviews

Following completion of the transcriptions, the French interview transcripts were translated into English. Considering the time and costs involved in translating entire depth-interview transcripts, the direct translation method was employed. However, two translators were involved in all of the translations, one a native English speaker and one a native French speaker.

Coding the Data

Following completion of the transcriptions and translations, the coding phase began. As summarized in Figure 3-1, two types of coding were undertaken - independent coding and primary coding. Independent coding was utilized to code the data in order to test the "importance" propositions (P4-P11). Primary coding was utilized to analyze and code the data in order to examine the "perception" propositions (P1-P3).

Independent Coding

For the independent coding, four independent judges, who had already been trained in customer value analysis, were specifically trained in regards to the dimensions relevant to this study. Each transcript was content analyzed and coded by two judges, blind to the research hypotheses (see Appendix D for the specific coding procedure). Upon the initial completion of coding, the codes were compared, and agreements and disagreements were logged. A third judge then resolved the disagreements and entered the codes onto coding sheets. The primary researcher then input the coding sheets into a computerized laddering program called Laddermap in order to facilitate the analysis. In addition, a researcher familiar with the study supervised and periodically reviewed the coders' work for thoroughness and consistency (Gardial et al. 1994).

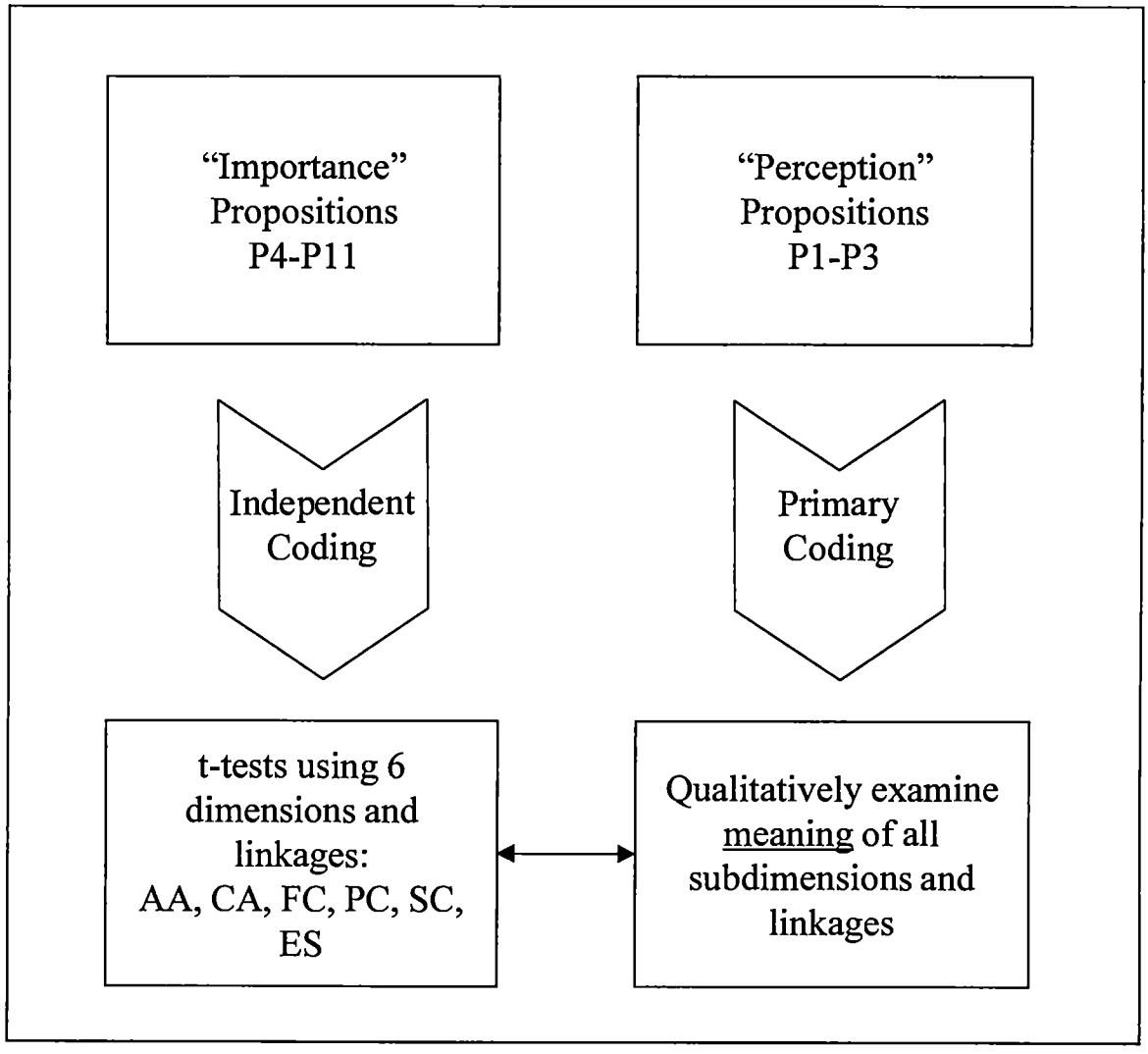


Figure 3-1: Coding/Analysis Summary

Primary Coding

Primary coding involved two steps:

Step 1 - Qualitative Coding

This step involved a qualitative investigation by the primary researcher of the individual transcripts. Text units within each individual transcript were inductively coded in NUDIST for specific meaning categories (i.e., attributes, consequences, and end-states). In addition to being coded as an attribute, the categories were given a dimension label (e.g., A-price; C-save money; E-security). A large number of meaning categories were generated, and as a result, they needed to be collapsed into broad enough categories of meaning in order to attain replications of more than one respondent perceiving a dimension. One key guide in identifying dimensions is that the categories be similar from the customer's point of view (Woodruf and Gardial 1996). For example, the categories "goes with red meat" and "matches the beurre blanc sauce" could be collapsed and labeled as "complements meal." The primary researcher and a peer reviewer collapsed meaning categories where appropriate until a list of specific value dimension labels were finalized (see Appendix E). The individual transcript text units were then coded in NUDIST with the appropriate dimension labels.

Step 2 - Dimension Summary Tables

For each dimension label, text units coded with the respective dimension label were printed for every interview transcript and reviewed for meaning, valence, and linkages. The meaning, valence, and linkages for each respondent were added to the respective dimension summary table, using respondents' actual words and phrases when

possible (Woodruff and Gardial 1996). A sample excerpt from a summary table is illustrated in Figure 3-2. Given that no established guidelines exist for judging the existence of a pattern in meaning, Woodruff and Gardial (1996) assert that the process is ultimately a subjective judgement. Thus, value dimensions that appeared in fifteen or more transcripts across the combined samples, or eight or more transcripts within either culture sample, were examined. Fifteen transcripts from across all 60 transcripts would represent 25 percent of the respondents, and eight transcripts from one culture sample would represent 25 percent of the respondents from that sample.

Analyzing the Data

The data involved both qualitative and quantitative analyses. The qualitative analysis of the data addressed propositions 1-3 and occurred separate from the independent coding and quantitative analysis. The quantitative analysis involved a qualitative coding procedure along with quantitative testing of propositions 4-11. Each analysis stage is described below.

"Importance" Analysis

The quantitative analysis focused on testing of propositions 4-11. As illustrated in Figure 3-3, upon completion of the independent coding, individual implication matrices and two country-specific implication matrices (Reynolds and Gutman 1988) were constructed. The appropriate cut-off level was determined along with the calculation of centrality statistics. When selecting a cut-off level, the objective is to

DIMENSION SUMMARY TABLE

Consequence Name: Complement Meal

Transcript #	Culture	Valence	Meaning	Linked To	Linked From
01	F	+	wines goes with the whole; light=fish; heavy=meat	discovery	color
03	F	+	coordinate wine with food; white=fish; red=red meat	please palate	color; waiter recommend
05	F	+	balance in the meal; white=fish and shellfish; red=Italian foods; match preparation	tradition; body comfort	color; region
06	F	+	white=fish	body comfort	color; region
08	F	+	match what eating; fish=white or rose	impress others; tradition	color
09	F	-	can drink red wine with fish		color
10	F	+	wine and food make complete meal; match preparation; dry white=shellfish; fruity white=fish	tradition; enhance evening; conviviality; hedonism	color
12	A	+	food and wine enhance each other	enhance evening	color
14	F	+	associate foods with wines; light wine=salad; heavy wine=meats with sauces	match season	flavor
15	F	+	agreement; red=red meat; white=white meat and fish		color
16	A	+	compliment and makes meal taste better; red Burgundy makes food taste better		color; region/country of origin
17	A	+	wine and food enhance each other; each becomes part of overall meal; Merlot or Cabernet=steak	enhance evening; relax; conviviality	color; grape
18	A	+	red meat=red wine; cream sauce=white wine; match preparation	tradition	color; flavor

Figure 3-2: Sample Dimension Summary Table

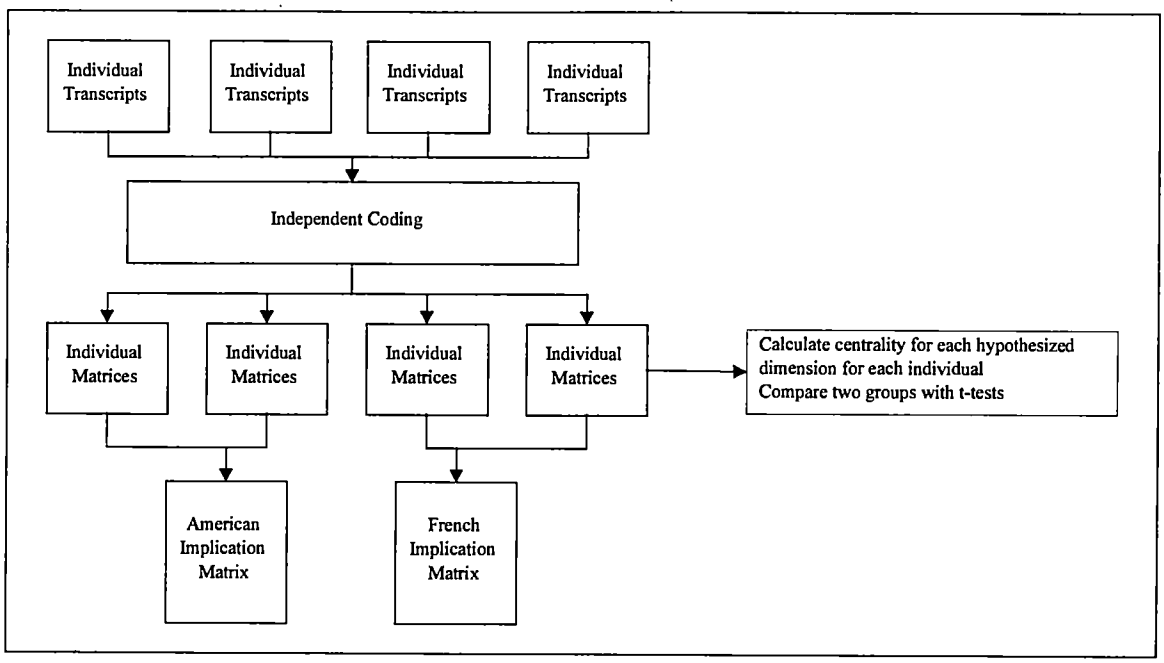


Figure 3-3: Independent Coding and Analysis Flowchart

account for a large percentage of cell entries with a relatively small number of active cells in the implication matrix (Pieters, Baumgartner and Allen 1995).

The centrality statistics represent the extent to which a value hierarchy dimension is connected to other dimensions within the implication matrix. These statistics were utilized to measure "importance." Pieters, Baumgartner, and Allen (1995) define centrality as the ratio of the row-sum of a particular dimension to the sum of all cell-entries in the implication matrix. A sample implication matrix incorporating both direct and indirect linkages is illustrated in Table 3-7. In this table, the centrality of functional consequences (FC) is 0.352, and is calculated as the sum of the number of linkages for which FC was the source (48 in the OUT column) and the number of linkages for which FC was the destination (55 in the IN column) divided by the sum of all cell entries (293). The centrality statistic can range from 0 to 1, where 1 indicates that the respective dimension is connected to all other dimensions, and where 0 indicates that the respective dimension is not connected to any other dimensions in the matrix. The centrality statistic was utilized to assess the importance of specific value dimensions (Pieters, Baumgartner and Allen 1995).

The matrices described were then utilized to test the propositions listed in Table 3-2. This table summarizes not only the research propositions and hypotheses, but also the unit of analysis and the statistical test to be employed.

"Perception" Analysis

Propositions 1-3 are broad, conceptually rich statements that were not amenable to statistical testing. As such, qualitative analysis appeared to be a superior means to

Table 3-7: Sample Implication Matrix

	CA	AA	FC	PC	SC	E	*OUT*		CENTRALITY
CA	0	30	29	26	27	18	*130*	**CA**	0.451
AA	2	0	22	17	13	9	*63*	**AA**	0.328
FC	0	1	0	13	20	14	*48*	**FC**	0.352
PC	0	2	4	0	13	16	*35*	**PC**	0.321
SC	0	0	0	3	0	13	*16*	**SC**	0.307
E	0	0	0	0	1	0	*1*	**E**	0.242
IN	*2*	*33*	*55*	*59*	*74*	*70*	*293*		

addressing them. As illustrated in Figure 3-4, the "perception" analysis did not involve pure quantification but rather the search for meaning in the data through comparative analysis. Woodruff and Gardial (1996) suggest summary tables and value hierarchy analysis as ways of understanding the meaning of what consumers value. Specifically, the following analyses were conducted with each summary dimension table in order to address propositions 1-3:

Proposition 1

1. Compare to see if similar or unique attributes are mentioned by consumers from the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar, and offer potential cultural reasons.
2. Compare to see if similar or unique consumption consequences are mentioned by consumers from the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar, and offer potential cultural reasons.
3. Compare and discuss whether the valences of these dimensions differ?

Proposition 2

1. For each attribute, compare to see if A~A and A~C linkages are similar or unique for the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar, and offer potential cultural reasons.
2. For each consumption consequence, compare to see if C~C and C~ES linkages are similar or unique for the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar, and offer potential cultural reasons.
3. Compare and discuss whether the valences of these linkages differ?

Proposition 3

1. Determine most important cultural values for France and the United States using findings from Schwartz studies.
2. Compare these values to the end-states on the respective summary table and hierarchy.
3. Using visual inspection, discuss the consistent correlation patterns.

As discussed in the coding section, each dimension summary table addressed a single value hierarchy dimension. An examination of each dimension summary table and the transcript text units associated with each summary table enabled the primary

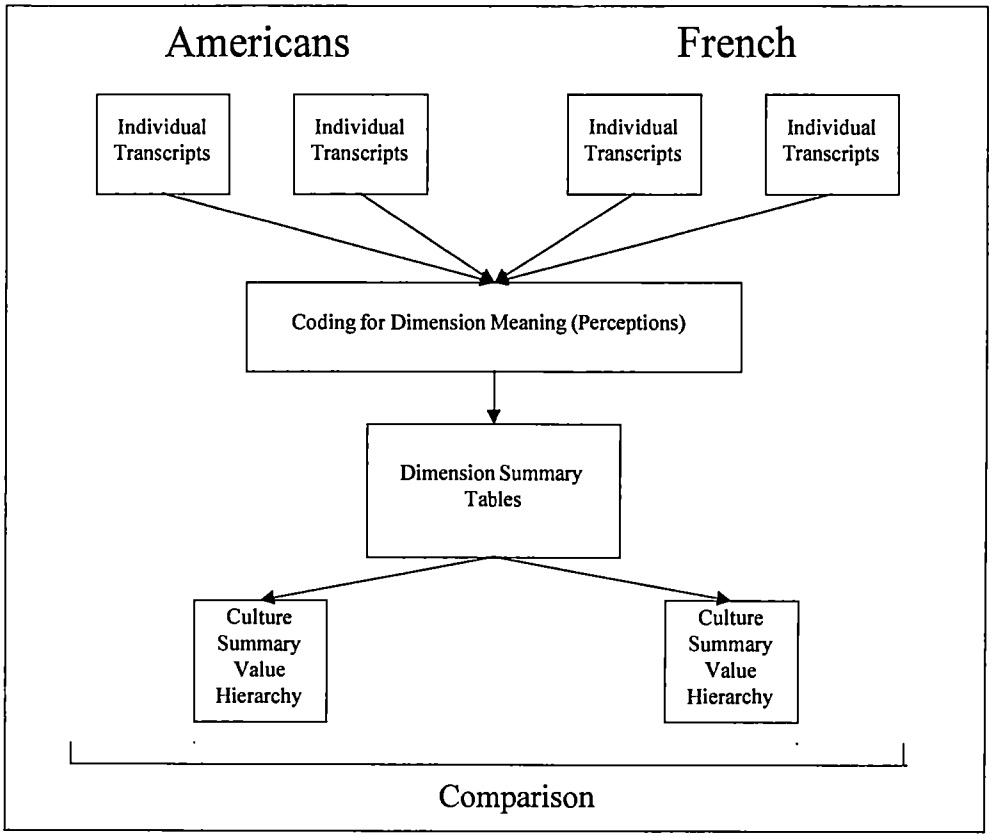


Figure 3-4: Primary Coding and Analysis Flowchart

researcher to observe differences between the two culture samples. For example, if most of the American respondents perceived a positive valence for a consequence but most of the French respondents perceived a negative valence for the same consequence, then a cultural difference was presumed to exist for that dimension. The presence of perceptual differences among the two samples in terms of meaning, valence, and/or linkages were then used to support the propositions posed. This process is described in greater detail in Chapter 4.

Assessing the Quality of the Data and Interpretations

The research design and methodology described in this chapter were developed in order to provide data that were trustworthy and appropriate for evaluating the cultural customer value hierarchy. This section outlines the criteria that were used to assess the overall quality of the data. In total, the discussion supports the assumption that the data used in this study were sound.

As described earlier in the chapter, the data utilized to examine the research propositions and hypotheses consisted of transcripts from sixty personal, in-depth laddering interviews. As such, the data was unstructured, or qualitative. The perception analyses involved essentially a qualitative investigation of the individual transcripts and dimension summary tables. The importance analyses, though they utilized statistical analysis techniques, were again based upon independent coding of qualitative data. For these reasons, it seemed appropriate to assess the overall quality of the data using the criteria that govern qualitative research.

Qualitative researchers argue that conventional validity and reliability issues are not applicable to qualitative research. So instead of traditional validity and reliability, Lincoln and Guba (1985) offer four alternatives to assess trustworthiness of qualitative data and analysis: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility, which is similar to internal validity, refers to adequate and believable representations of the constructions of the reality being studied. Transferability, which is similar to external validity, refers to the extent to which working hypotheses can be employed in multiple contexts. Dependability, which is similar to test-retest reliability, refers to the extent to which the analysis and interpretation are enduring. Confirmability involves the ability to trace the interpretation of a researcher by examination of the data and records kept.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) present a number of techniques to fulfill these criteria. However, some of their techniques are more applicable to naturalistic inquiry and ethnographic research than to the methodology implemented in this study. Therefore, Table 3-8 includes only those techniques that were implemented in this study to fulfill the trustworthiness criteria.

Table 3-8: Trustworthiness Criteria

Criteria	Technique
Credibility	Confidentiality Triangulation Negative Case Analysis
Transferability	Thick Description
Dependability	Coder Agreement
Confirmability	Peer Debriefing

Source: Adapted from Lincoln and Guba (1985)

Confidentiality. Assuring respondents of the confidentiality of their comments is meant to minimize the possibility that consumers will withhold information. In this study, researchers carefully explained the purpose of the study and answered any questions that the participant had before the interview started. Participants were also instructed to give their verbal permission before the interview was audiotaped.

Triangulation. Triangulation involves a comparative assessment of more than one form of evidence about an object of inquiry (Lincoln and Guba 1985). There are a number of ways that a researcher can triangulate the data, including multiple sources, multiple methods, and multiple investigators. Multiple methods were not implemented, as only one interview was conducted with each respondent. However, the coding and analysis involved two stages. The primary coding and analysis involved a qualitative analysis by the author. The independent coding and analysis involved quantitative and qualitative analysis by independent coders. It is expected that the data from the complementary analysis stages can enrich, and/or impose qualifications, on the analysis of the data (Lincoln and Guba 1985).

Negative case analysis. Negative analysis is also known as analytic induction. It involves the confirmation of hypotheses through an inductive process of constant comparison (Lincoln and Guba 1985). Essentially, field data are constantly compared as they are generated and put to the test of the hypotheses. If the new data disconfirms the hypothesis, the researchers must redefine or reject the hypothesis to accommodate the data. Although this technique is more applicable to theory-building research, it was

utilized during the perception analysis to question whether differences in the data were due to cultural values or other possible factors.

Thick Description. Thick description involves the use of extremely detailed recounts of interviews and observations along with the liberal use of exact quotations from subjects. Description should be detailed enough to allow readers to fully understand the thoughts and meanings of people described in the research study (Lincoln and Guba 1985). Patton (1987) also advocates detailed description while at the same time offering some cautions. First, he states that description should be balanced by analysis and interpretation and that description itself should not become *the* analysis. "An interesting and readable report provides sufficient description to allow the reader to understand the analysis and sufficient analysis to allow the reader to understand the interpretations and explanations presented" (p. 163). Second, the researcher should help stakeholders and readers of the research to understand the strength and credibility of specific patterns, rather than pretend that every finding and every quotation is equally credible. "When are patterns 'clear,' when are they 'strongly supported by the data,' and when are the patterns 'weak'?" (p. 163). Thick description was employed in this study and is evident in the perception discussion in Chapter 4.

Coder Agreement. Careful efforts were made to ensure that the coding process was conducted in such a way that it increased the dependability of the data. As a measure of dependability of the coding process, two coders independently reviewed each transcript and made the appropriate categorizations. The primary researcher identified areas of disagreement and provided the disagreements to a third coder who reviewed both

categorizations and served as a tiebreaker. A log of the agreements and disagreements was maintained. A summary of the log is provided in Chapter 4. As will be detailed in Chapter 4, the level of agreement, which was calculated from the initial log of agreements and disagreements, exceeded 88 percent.

Peer Debriefing. Peer debriefing represents the process of employing a competent colleague to review the researcher's analysis and interpretations. The colleague should be knowledgeable in the substantive area of the inquiry and the methodological issues (Lincoln and Guba 1985). This process, which is another technique for establishing credibility, was implemented after the data had been collected and during the "perception" analysis stages. If the researcher could not adequately defend his or her position, then the interpretation was reexamined.

Summary of Research Methodology

This chapter describes a research study that examined the impact of culture upon customer value. Specifically, two research questions were examined:

- Does culture impact upon the content of the customer value hierarchy?
- Does culture impact upon the structure of the customer value hierarchy?

In addressing these research questions, the coding and analysis included both quantitative and qualitative assessments of the data. This triangulated approach helped to support the significance of the findings. Additionally, four criteria for assessing the quality of the data were introduced and discussed. The knowledge that results may demonstrate the need for marketers to incorporate both consumer cultural similarities and differences into marketing strategic decisions.

There are potential limitations of the research as well. First, this study used qualitatively collected data to generate a number of quantitative evaluations. McCracken (1988) has been an outspoken critic of such approaches. However, much of the existing empirical literature on means-end theory has analyzed qualitative data in a quantitative manner. Second, the sample sizes in this study were small for statistical analyses. However, the qualitative analysis served as a method to triangulate the quantitative findings.

CHAPTER 4
ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter reviews the analysis undertaken to test the propositions presented in Chapter 3 along with a discussion of the findings. The chapter begins with a demographic profile of the two samples and addresses the equivalence issues necessary for comparing the two culture groups. The chapter then describes the process by which the data were collected, coded, and analyzed. Finally, the findings are presented and briefly discussed in terms of each proposition.

Sample Demographics and Equivalence

As discussed in Chapter 3, a key requirement for establishing cross-cultural equivalence is the utilization of matched samples. The respondents in this research were matched on six criteria: age, education, wine usage at home, wine usage in restaurants, frequency of restaurant dining, and involvement with wine. The equivalence of the two samples was tested utilizing statistical comparisons of the two culture groups, as seen in Table 4-1. The two samples were not significantly different ($p<0.05$) on any of the six matching criteria.

Both samples were highly educated - 80 percent of the French and 87 percent of the Americans had at least a college education. The two samples were also very similar in terms of age, frequency of restaurant dining, wine consumed at home and wine consumed in restaurants. Both groups were nearly equally divided between respondents

Table 4-1: Sample Demographics on Matching Criteria

Matching Criteria	French Sample	U.S. Sample	Findings
Average Age:	42.9	46.8	Differences are not significant *t*-test (58, N=60) = -1.310 Sig. = 0.196
Education: Less than high school High school Technical/trade school College/University Graduate/Professional School	 1 (5%) 3 (10%) 2 (7%) 3 (10%) 21 (70%)	 0 (0%) 1 (5%) 3 (10%) 8 (27%) 18 (60%)	Differences are not significant χ^2 (4, N=60) = 5.703 Asymp. Sig. = 0.222
Restaurant Dining: <1 time a month 1-3 times a month 4+ times a month	 7 (23%) 15 (50%) 8 (27%)	 4 (13%) 11 (37%) 15 (50%)	Differences are not significant χ^2 (2, N=60) = 3.564 Asymp. Sig. = 0.168
Average Wine Consumption at Home: None 1-4 glasses per week 5+ glasses per week	 3 (10%) 13 (43%) 14 (47%)	 2 (7%) 13 (43%) 15 (50%)	Differences are not significant χ^2 (2, N=60) = 0.234 Asymp. Sig. = 0.889
Average Wine Consumption During Dinner in Restaurant: None 1-3 glasses 4+ glasses	 0 (0%) 23 (77%) 7 (23%)	 0 (0%) 27 (90%) 3 (10%)	Differences are not significant χ^2 (1, N=60) = 1.920 Asymp. Sig. = 0.166
Involvement:	5.2	5.6	Differences are not significant *t*-test (58, N=60)= -1.240 Sig. = 0.220

*Significant differences between groups are indicated by p-values of less than 0.05.

who consume one to three glasses of wine a week at home and respondents who consume four or more glasses a week at home. Additionally, the majority of respondents from both samples consumed an average of one to three glasses of wine during a typical restaurant dinner. Finally, no significant differences emerged between the two culture groups for involvement. Respondents were measured utilizing five items selected from Zaichkowsky's (1985) involvement instrument. The coefficient alpha of the scale exceeded .95, so the subjects' responses were averaged. In general, these respondents were highly involved with wine during the dining experience, which should not be surprising given their above average restaurant patronage and wine consumption at home and in restaurants.

Though not officially utilized as matching criteria, a number of other demographic criteria were collected and analyzed in order to further examine sampling equivalence (see Table 4-2). The two samples were not significantly different in terms of gender, though the French sample contained more women and the American sample contained more men. The two samples also were not significantly different in terms of family status, though the French sample contained more single respondents and the American sample contained more married or cohabiting couples.

Household income was the one factor where significant differences existed. The American sample earned a much larger household income than the French sample. Disposable income statistics might explain the differences. Disposable income represents personal wages, interest, and social security less taxes and social security contributions. It is essentially the money available for spending or saving. Disposable per capita

Table 4-2: Other Sample Demographics

Criteria	French Sample	U.S. Sample	Findings
Sex:			Differences are not significant χ^2 (1, N=60) = 3.300 Asymp. Sig. = 0.069
Male	13 (43%)	20 (67%)	
Female	17 (57%)	10 (33%)	
Family Status:			Differences are not significant χ^2 (1, N=60) = 4.267 Asymp. Sig. = 0.071
Single	19 (63%)	12 (40%)	
Married/Couple	11 (37%)	18 (60%)	
Household Income:			Differences are significant χ^2 (4, N=60) = 29.092 Asymp. Sig. = 0.000*
Less than $25,000	13 (43%)	0 (0%)	
$25,000-$49,999	8 (27%)	5 (17%)	
$50,000-$74,999	6 (20%)	4 (13%)	
$75,000-$99,999	3 (10%)	9 (30%)	
$100,000+	0 (0%)	12 (40%)	

*Significant differences between groups are indicated by p-values of less than 0.05.

income in the United States for 1997 was $21,908 (U.S. Department of Commerce 1999). For France, disposable income for 1997 was 94,517 French Francs or around $15,753 (INSEE 1998). A much greater proportion of French income is lost to the national government than American income that is lost to the national government. This difference in per capita disposable income is about 40% less for the French population. Such national differences in income might explain the significant difference between the two samples on household income.

Measurement Equivalence and Coding Dependability

As described in Chapter 3, the interviews conducted for this research were audiotaped, transcribed, and translated where appropriate. The transcripts of the interviews comprised the raw data for the research. However, in order to examine and

test the propositions presented in Chapter 2, the raw data had to be coded to relate the respondents' thoughts and feelings to the cultural customer value hierarchy dimensions identified in Chapter 2.

As summarized in Figure 4-1, two coding stages were conducted, one by independent coders and one by the primary researcher. First, the independent coders coded for overall value dimension categories based upon the definitions provided in Chapter 3 (i.e., abstract attributes, concrete attributes, functional consequences, personal consequences, social consequences, and end-states). Then, the primary researcher coded the transcripts for specific value subdimensions, built summary dimension tables, and analyzed the transcripts and tables for similarities and differences in meaning, valence, and linkages.

Trustworthiness of Primary Coding and Analysis.

A number of approaches were implemented in order to ensure trustworthiness of the coding and analysis by the primary researcher. An audit trail was developed and maintained during the entire research process. This audit trail contained transcripts coded by the primary researcher and each independent coder, memos for each transcript, an analysis journal, summary dimension tables, interview cassettes, and biographical questionnaires. In addition, a peer debriefer essentially served as an independent auditor. The peer debriefer reviewed the researcher's analyses, codes, and interpretations throughout the analysis stages.

In addition to peer debriefing, the primary researcher also employed negative case analysis and thick description during the analysis stages to ensure trustworthiness. As

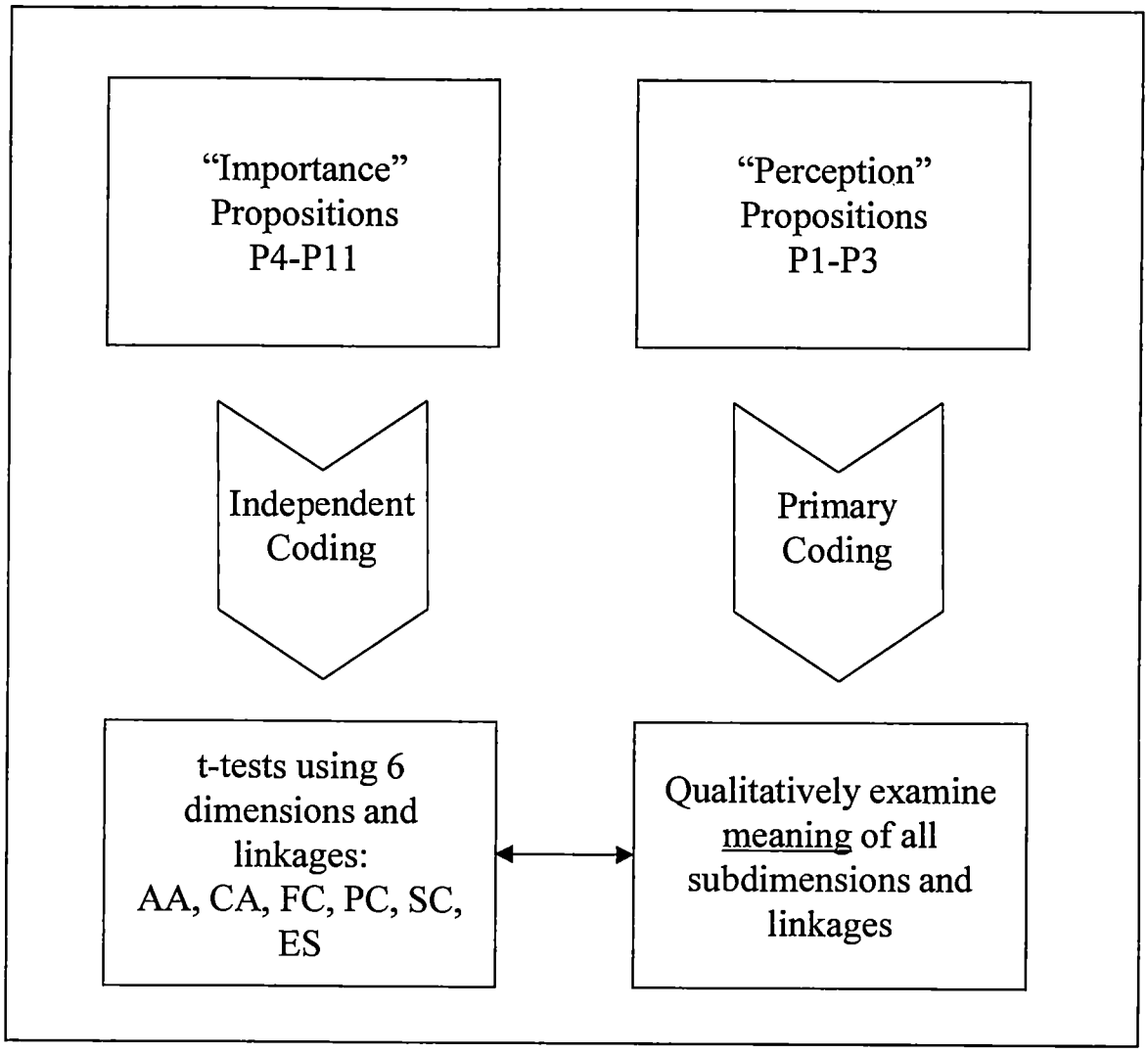


Figure 4-1: Review of Analysis Stages

will be evident in the discussion of the findings, detailed quotations and recounts were utilized in order to fully understand the thoughts and meanings of the respondents. The summary dimension tables further enabled the researcher to recognize distinct similarities and differences in the data. The primary researcher discussed potential interpretations and reasons behind these findings with the peer debriefer, taking care not to attribute all findings to simply cultural explanations. As will be evident in the Chapter 5 discussion of findings, negative case analysis facilitated this process through constant comparison and also through reviews of appropriate literature to support or refute findings.

Dependability of Independent Coding.

In order to ensure dependability in the independent coding process, two coders reviewed and independently coded each transcript for the value dimension categories defined in Chapter 3. The primary researcher then compared the category assignments to identify similarities and differences. Where differences occurred, a third independent coder reviewed both categorizations and served as a tiebreaker. Throughout coder training and the actual coding process, the coders were naïve regarding the specific propositions of the research. As part of the reconciliation process, coders recorded the number of assignments of each type of value dimension on which they agreed and disagreed. These results, as seen in Table 4-3, serve as a measure of intercoder dependability. Overall, the independent coders agreed on over 88 percent of the initial assigned codes, and thus exceeds the 80 percent figure recommended by Woodruff and Gardial (1996).

Table 4-3: Independent Coding Reliability

Dimension	French	Americans	Overall
Concrete Attribute	92.6% (646/698)	92.5% (628/679)	92.5% (1274/1377)
Abstract Attribute	92.5% (470/508)	93.1% (497/534)	92.8% (967/1042)
Functional Consequence	86.3% (563/652)	83.9% (561/669)	85.1% (1124/1321)
Personal Consequence	85.1% (308/362)	85.4% (462/541)	85.3% (770/903)
Social Consequence	82.0% (173/211)	75.9% (142/187)	79.1 (315/398)
End-State	73.1% (19/26)	82.5% (33/40)	78.8% (52/66)
TOTAL	88.7% (2179/2457)	87.7% (2323/2650)	88.2% (4502/5107)

Note: The percentages represent the number of codes on which the independent coders initially agreed (the numerator of the fraction in parentheses) in relation to the total number of codes eventually agreed upon after reconciliation (the denominator of the fraction in parentheses).

Multiple Investigator Triangulation

Although the "perception" propositions (P1-P3) were described before the "importance" propositions (P4-P11) in Chapter 2, the findings from P4-P11 will be discussed first. These "importance" propositions and analyses are quantitative in nature and deal with fundamental, broad patterns in the data. However, they do not facilitate a deep, rich understanding of the reasons behind the patterns. The "perception" propositions (P1-P3) and analyses, on the other hand, do facilitate a deep, rich understanding of the data, and naturally provide additional clarification and confirmation of the "importance" findings. Moreover, given that the "perception" findings clarify and confirm some of the findings from the "importance" findings, these two analysis approaches provide some degree of multiple investigator triangulation.

Tests of "Importance" Research Propositions 4-9

Propositions 4-9 address issues related to the importance of specific value dimensions and linkages. These propositions were restated as hypotheses that could be statistically tested (see Table 4-4).

Description of Data Used

The testing of the "importance" research propositions first required the development of implication matrices (Reynolds and Gutman 1988). In order to build implication matrices, individual summary ladders had to first be constructed. The coding sheets (described in Chapter 3) that were completed during the independent coding reconciliation process contained summary ladders for each respondent. A summary ladder represents one chain of consumer thoughts about an attribute that was frequently mentioned in the interviews. It essentially represents a set of linked thoughts (i.e., abstract attribute, concrete attribute, functional consequence, personal consequence, social consequence, or end-state) that were commonly described by individual respondents.

In total, the 60 respondents mentioned 590 ladders, for an average of almost 10 ladders per respondent. These ladders were then input into individual implication matrices and two culture-specific implication matrices, one for the French respondents and one for the American respondents. Each matrix contained six columns and six rows, each labeled as Abstract Attribute (AA), Concrete Attribute (CA), Functional Consequence (FC), Personal Consequence (PC), Social Consequence (SC), and End-State (ES). Each cell in the implication matrix represents the frequency that a particular row

Table 4-4: "Importance" Research Propositions

	Research Proposition	Unit of Analysis	Research Hypothesis	Mann-Whitney *U* test	*t*-test
P4	French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CAA_{France} > CAA_{US}$[1]	Z = -0.468 Asymp. Sig. = 0.640 **Not Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = 0.98 Sig. = 0.331 **Not Supported**
P5	American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CCA_{US} > CCA_{France}$	Z = -1.135 Asymp. Sig = 0.256 **Not Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = 1.46 Sig. = 0.150 **Not Supported**
P6	American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CFC_{US} > CFC_{France}$	Z = -2.844 Asymp. Sig. = 0.004 **Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = -2.23 Sig. = 0.031 **Supported**
P7	French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CSC_{France} > CSC_{US}$	Z = -2.564 Asymp. Sig. = 0.010 **Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = 2.70 Sig. = 0.009 **Supported**
P8	Value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(L + NL)^2_{France} > (L + NL)_{US}$	Z = -1.088 Asymp. Sig. = 0.277 **Not Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = -0.80 Sig. = 0.430 **Not Supported**
P9	There will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American and French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$CPC_{US=} CPC_{France}$	Z = -.148 Asymp. Sig. = .882 **Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = -0.81 Sig. = 0.424 **Supported**
P10	Functional consequences are more likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(\#(FC\sim PC)^3+\#(FC\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{US} > (\#(FC\sim PC)+\#(FC\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{France}$	Z = -0.110 Asymp. Sig. = 0.913 **Not Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = -0.252 Sig. = 0.802 **Not Supported**
P11	Attributes are more likely to link directly to psychological, social, and hedonic consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.	Consumer (n=30 per culture)	$(\#(CA\sim PC)+\#(CA\sim SC)+\#(AA\sim PC)+\#(AA\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{France} > (\#(CA\sim PC)+\#(CA\sim SC)+\#(AA\sim PC)+\#(AA\sim SC)/\text{Total Direct Linkages})_{US}$	Z = -2.783 Asymp. Sig. = 0.005 **Supported**	*t* (58, N=60) = -3.189 Sig. = 0.002 **Supported**

[1] $CAA_{France>}CAA_{US}$ is read "centrality of abstract attributes among French consumers is greater than centrality of abstract attributes among American consumers."

[2] (L-NL) is read "number of ladders plus number of linked dimensions."

[3] #(FC~PC) is read "number of functional consequence-psychological consequence linkages."

value dimension is followed by a particular column value dimension, aggregated across sample respondents and their ladders.

The matrix can include two types of linkages: direct and indirect. A direct linkage exists when one value dimension is mentioned directly after another value dimension in the same ladder. An indirect linkage between two value dimensions exists when the two dimensions are mentioned in the same ladder but are separated by one or more intermediary value dimensions. The researcher must decide whether to count only direct linkages or direct and indirect linkages combined, with the ultimate goal being to account for rich means-end meaning. Gengler, Klenosky, and Mulvey (1995, p. 247) argue for the use of total linkages (direct plus indirect) in order to "maintain the integrity of the means-end chain as a unit of meaning." Similarly, Reynolds and Gutman (1988) assert that examining only direct linkages can result in a significant loss of meaning. Given these arguments, both direct and indirect linkages were incorporated into the two implication matrices.

Next, a cutoff value was selected to determine which linkages should be included in the culture-specific implication matrices. The cutoff value should capture the dominant relations represented in the implication matrix (Pieters, Baumgartner, and Allen 1995; Reynolds and Gutman 1988). Researchers have suggested a number of heuristics to determine the appropriate cutoff value, including 3-5 linkages with samples of 50 respondents and 125 ladders (Reynolds and Gutman 1988) or linkages mentioned by at least 5 percent of the respondents (Gengler, Klenosky, and Mulvey 1995). For this

research, a cutoff value of six was selected. Thus, for each culture (n=30), a value dimension was included in the implication matrix only if it was mentioned by six respondents in the respective culture.

Following the above guidelines, the implication matrices were constructed. Centrality statistics for each dimension were calculated for each individual. These statistics were then input into an SPSS spreadsheet. As discussed in Chapter 3, centrality represents the extent to which a value dimension is connected to all other dimensions in the implication matrix. The centrality statistic represents a proxy for importance and was utilized to test the quantitative propositions.

In order to test the hypotheses, an appropriate independent samples statistical technique had to be selected. An examination of the distribution of the data revealed that several factors were not normally distributed for one or both samples. Although some researchers (Grimm 1993) argue that parametric tests such as *t*-tests should only be employed with normally distributed, random data, others (Boneau 1960; Cramer 1994; Downie and Heath 1983; Hays 1973) argue that with sample sizes greater than 15, *t*-tests are robust enough that even severe departures from normality have little impact upon the conclusions. For cross-cultural research, Schwartz and Ros (1995) recommend reporting both parametric results and nonparametric results. Given this discussion, both parametric *t*-tests and nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U*-tests are reported. The Mann-Whitney *U*-test is the nonparametric alternative to the independent samples *t*-test. The Mann-Whitney *U*-test assesses the hypothesis that two independent samples come from populations having the same distribution. Whereas the *t* distribution tests the centrality means, the Mann-

Whitney tests the centrality ranks. Table 4-4 illustrates the findings related to hypotheses 4-11.

Proposition 4

For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples *t*-test and Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide no empirical support for proposition 4. Although as proposed, the mean centrality for the French sample (0.34) was slightly greater than for the American sample (0.32), the difference was not statistically significant. It appears that both samples place a similar degree of importance upon abstract attributes.

Proposition 5

For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples *t*-test and the Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide no empirical support for proposition 5. Surprisingly, the mean centrality for the French sample (0.47) was greater than for the American sample (0.43), though the difference was not statistically significant.

Proposition 6

For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples *t*-test and the Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide empirical support for proposition 6. As predicted, the mean centrality for the American sample (0.43) was significantly greater

than for the French sample (0.37). It appears that the American sample placed a greater degree of importance upon functional consequences.

Proposition 7

For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples *t*-test and the Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide strong empirical support for proposition 7. As predicted, the mean centrality for the French sample (0.28) was significantly greater than for the American sample (0.19). It appears that the French sample placed a greater degree of importance upon social consequences.

Proposition 8

For the same product or service, value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples *t*-test and the Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide no empirical support for proposition 8. The mean complexity for the American sample (42.80) was greater than for the French sample (39.50). On average, the American respondents actually communicated more and longer ladders than the French respondents.

Proposition 9

For the same product or service, there will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American consumers and French consumers (though the actual subtype of personal consequence will likely differ).

As evident from Table 4-4, both the independent samples t-test and the Mann-Whitney test reveal that the data provide empirical support for proposition 9. As

predicted, the mean centrality statistics for the two samples were nearly equivalent (American 0.36; French 0.34). It appears that the two samples placed a similar degree of importance upon personal consequences.

Tests of "Importance" Research Propositions 10-11

Propositions 10-11 address issues related to the importance of specific value dimension linkages. It was proposed that Americans are more likely to cognitively link attributes through functional consequences to higher level consequences and end-states, whereas the French are more likely to cognitively link attributes directly to functional, personal, and social consequences.

Description of Data Used

Because these propositions deal only with linkages and not single dimensions, centrality statistics could not be calculated. Instead, the number of specific linkages as a percentage of total linkages was utilized to test the two hypotheses. These linkages were derived from the individual implication matrices utilized to test hypotheses 4-9. Only direct linkages were considered because the hypotheses address specific linkages.

Proposition 10

For the same product or service, functional consequences are likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, the independent samples *t*-tests and the Mann-Whitney tests reveal that the data provide no empirical support for proposition 10. The mean number of linkages is nearly identical for both culture groups (Americans 2.47;

French 2.40). Apparently, consumers from both culture groups are likely to first link attributes to functional consequences before moving on to more abstract consequences.

Proposition 11

For the same product or service, attributes are more likely to link directly to personal and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.

As evident from Table 4-4, the independent samples *t*-tests and the Mann-Whitney tests reveal that the data provide strong empirical support for proposition 11. The mean number of linkages is significantly greater for the French respondents (1.57) than for the American respondents (1.03). As predicted, the French are more likely than Americans to link attributes directly to personal and social consequences. These findings do not contradict the findings from proposition 11, but simply illustrate that consumers sometimes cognitively link attributes directly to more abstract consumption consequences.

Thus, while both groups tend to link attributes to functional consequences at a similar rate, it appears that the French respondents, in addition, have a greater tendency to link attributes to personal and social consequences directly (Americans are more likely to link through functional first, while the French link in a greater variety of ways).

Summary of Research Findings for Propositions 4-11

In total, the findings from the tests of hypotheses 4-11 suggest that national culture does indeed influence the importance that consumers place upon the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. The lack of support for hypotheses 4 and 5 suggests that cultural influences upon importance are not as strong at the attribute level as

they are at higher consequence and end-state levels. Furthermore, the support for hypotheses 6, 7, and 9 suggests that cultural influences do exhibit significant influence upon the importance that consumers cognitively place upon specific consumption consequences.

The lack of support for hypothesis 8 suggests the complexity of consumer value hierarchies may not be influenced by cultural influences as much as by the level of expressiveness, or lack thereof, of consumers. The lack of support for hypothesis 10 and the support for hypothesis 11 provide moderate evidence for the influence of culture upon the structure of the customer value hierarchy. However, an examination of the linkages between specific sub-types, which is addressed in the next section, might indicate stronger support for the influence of culture upon the customer value hierarchy.

The next section presents the findings for propositions 1-3. These propositions address the influence of culture upon consumer perceptions of the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. This examination of the meaning behind the content and structure reinforces the findings regarding importance discussed in the previous section.

Tests of "Perception" Research Propositions 1 and 2

Propositions 1 and 2 present an empirical examination of how culture impacts upon both the content and structure of customer value perceptions. As described in Chapter 2, cultural values were proposed to influence the perceived meaning of specific value dimensions and also the perceived linkages between those value dimensions.

Proposition 1: For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.

Proposition 2: For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute-attribute linkages, attribute-consequence linkages, consequence-consequence linkages, and consequence-end-state linkages) for the same product or service.

Description of Data Used

These two propositions were tested through an examination of dimension summary tables and raw data (as noted in Chapter 3, because these propositions were examined qualitatively, no specific research hypotheses were developed). Woodruff and Gardial (1996) suggest the use of summary tables for the purpose of understanding customers' value perceptions. The initial unit of analysis was at the dimension summary table level (n=25 dimension summary tables) and also at the individual level (N=60 respondents), as the summary tables were constructed from individual transcripts. However, upon completion of the summary dimension tables, the unit of analysis for identifying patterns was the at the culture level (n=30 French respondents and n=30 American respondents).

Given that no established guidelines exist for judging the existence of a pattern, Woodruff and Gardial (1996) assert that the process is ultimately a subjective judgement. Thus, value dimensions that appeared in fifteen or more transcripts across the combined samples, or eight or more transcripts within either culture sample, were examined. Fifteen transcripts from across all 60 transcripts would represent 25 percent of the

respondents, and eight transcripts from one culture sample would represent 25 percent of the respondents from that sample. These figures appear to be strong enough to represent a pattern in the data.

The specific meaning, valence, and linkages for each dimension were included in each dimension summary table using the respondents' own words and comments when possible. The primary researcher then compared respondent comments from each culture sample using the dimension summary tables and the respective dimension text unit printouts. As discussed in Chapter 3, this proceeded as follows:

Proposition 1
a. Compare to see if similar or unique attributes are mentioned by consumers from the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar.
b. Compare to see if similar or unique consumption consequences are mentioned by consumers from the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar.
c. Compare and discuss whether the valences of these dimensions differ?

Proposition 2
a. For each attribute, compare to see if A~A and A~C linkages are similar or unique for the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar.
b. For each consumption consequence, compare to see if C~C and C~ES linkages are similar or unique for the two cultures. Discuss those that are unique and discuss those that are similar.
c. Compare and discuss whether the valences of these linkages differ?

The existence of differences and/or similarities in meaning, valence, and linkages enabled the primary researcher to examine the perception research propositions (P1-P2) presented in Chapter 2. To further support the conclusions, three types of dimension patterns were examined, and these patterns are discussed in three sections. The first section identifies value hierarchy dimensions that appear to be unique to only one of the

two samples. These represent the most obvious examples of the influence of culture upon customer value perceptions (e.g., where a value dimension occurred in one culture's value hierarchy but not the other's). The second section identifies value hierarchy dimensions that were common to both samples on the surface, but upon further examination exhibited cultural differences either in perceived meaning, valence, and/or linkages. The third section reports dimensions that were common to both samples in terms of all three elements (i.e., perceived meaning, valence, and linkages). Within each section, attributes are discussed first, followed by consequences. As illustrated in Table 4-5, support was found for both propositions 1 and 2. It should be noted that, as one would expect, distinct differences *and* similarities were found across both culture groups.

Unique Dimensions

The following discussion addresses only value dimensions that were perceived by one culture sample, as illustrated in Table 4-6. The perceived meaning, valence, and linkages are discussed for each respective dimension. For each dimension, verbatim text units from the original transcripts are included in order to illustrate the similarities and differences in meaning, valence, and linkages.

Attribute - Grape

Meaning. Grape was entirely an American attribute. The most common grape types mentioned by the American respondents were Chardonnay, Cabernet Sauvignon, Merlot, and Sauvignon Blanc.

Valence. The valence attached to grape was primarily positive.

Table 4-5: "Perception" Research Propositions

	Research Proposition	Unit of Analysis	Research Hypotheses	Findings
P1	For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Supported.
P2	For two diverse cultures, there will be differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute-attribute linkages, attribute-consequence linkages, consequence-consequence linkages, and consequence-end state linkages) for the same product or service.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Supported.
P3	For the same product or service, important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.	Dimension summary tables (n=25) and individual transcripts (n=30 per culture)	This research proposition was tested qualitatively; thus, no specific research hypothesis was offered.	Limited Support.

Table 4-6: Unique Perceived Value Dimensions

Dimension	Subdimension	Unique to Culture
Attribute	Grape	Americans
Consequence	Match Price of Meal	French
Consequence	Loosen Senses	French
Consequence	Satisfaction	Americans

Linkages. The primary linkages from grape were to flavor (attribute to attribute) and complements meal (attribute to consequence). Each grape variety produces a different flavor, and these flavors go differently with different types of foods.

American 30: "To me Chardonnay is like a hardier wine than Sauvignon Blanc. Now I don't know how to describe that to you either, but it has more complex tastes in it than the Sauvignon Blanc...So if a wine has too strong an individual taste, it overpowers the rest of the combination and it's often not good."

American 43: "There are varieties of grapes, whether they are red or white. Merlot grapes are typically smoother. Even it it's a Merlot or a Cabernet, the bottle is varietel...It tells me things like Cabernet is a heavier wine, typically sometimes can be tannic, which is hot, spicy."

Consequence - Match Price of Meal

Meaning. This was an entirely French consequence. The price of the bottle of wine should equal the price of either one entrée or one meal.

Valence. The valence was positive.

Linkages. The most common perceived consequence of this match was a complete meal. For example, an expensive wine may be too good for a casual dinner. The wine and the meal are inseparable and should be considered as a unit.

French 02: "The price of the wine will be about the same price as another meal...I can't imagine eating well without drinking well too. Because there are two things that make up a unit. If you like eating well, if you have the tastes for good food, wine is part of this unit, it is inseparable."

French 25: "...if I order a bottle at 300 francs, it is too much for what I'm eating; there is not a balance. The main thing is to eat and drink...a bottle of wine will be the same as a main dish."

Consequence - Loosen Senses

Meaning. This was an interesting consequence that emerged only among the French respondents. They essentially define a loosening of the senses as a slight form of intoxication but not complete "drunkenness."

Valence. There appears to be a fine line between pleasant intoxication and unpleasant intoxication. Pleasant intoxication had a number of positive linkages, but unpleasant intoxication had a number of negative linkages.

Linkages. The primary linkage to loosening of the senses was from the attributes of alcohol content and quantity (attributes to consequence). Obviously, a bottle of wine will result in more alcohol being consumed than simply a glass or a half bottle of wine, and this is often perceived as one reason for ordering at least one bottle of wine by the French respondents.

Loosening of the senses linked to several higher-level consequences and an end-state, including relaxation, conviviality, self-direction, and pure pleasure (i.e., an end-state labeled "hedonism"). These concepts are all closely interrelated. Slight intoxication allows people to lose certain inhibitions and be more honest. This honesty facilitates better conversations and promotes sharing among family and friends. At the same time, it helps the respondents cast aside social constraints and really be themselves.

> French 14: "I don't have any desire to disguise myself or to hide myself. Wine helps me; it allows me to cross certain boundaries more rapidly…it is a light drunkenness, pleasant, just a little drunkenness, which makes it seem that life is more gentle, lighter, the people are more beautiful or ugly, it depends on your state of mind. In any case, things seem to you a little different."

French 15: "...so between a half bottle and a bottle there is a big difference...if you are in love, you are going to order a bottle so that you feel relaxed when you are really happy...because you are going to look for the drunkenness more...in any case, I am generally looking for this drunkenness."

French 26: "There is at the end of a glass or 1 1/2 half glasses a slight drunkenness that overcomes us and which, in one stroke, unties the tongue and stress leaves...there is a slight drunkenness at the table that becomes magical."

The French did not perceive crossing the line between slight and complete drunkenness as a positive experience. At that point, the intoxication becomes a barrier to conversation and sharing, and these are the primary goals of the entire dining experience.

French 26: "I say slightly because of course if you drink a whole bottle, there you are completely drunk...I find it uncomfortable being drunk...It means giving up charming moments, like a dinner, because you drank too much and you can't socialize and that's too bad."

Consequence - Satisfaction

Meaning. Satisfaction was entirely an American perception, though not as strong (strength is determined entirely by number of mentions) a consequence as some of the other perceived consequences. The American respondents stated that when they received the enjoyment that they wanted, they were satisfied. In this sense, satisfaction is slightly different from pleasure because it results more from the successful fulfillment of desires rather than purely from sensual gratification.

Valence. The valence was positive.

Linkages. Satisfaction evokes feelings of contentment and happiness for making a good selection.

American 16: "To me a good red Burgundy from the good regions of France comes out with a magnificent taste. It compliments and even

makes a meal taste better. It's satisfaction. It's gratifying to have. It makes me feel happy and contented. And I know whatever I eat will be good because I got a good wine."

American 21: "...It's pleasant, but I'm happy that I chose that particular wine. I'm getting you know a certain quality of wine for the price that I was charged."

Common Dimensions with Unique Elements

The following discussion addresses value dimensions that were perceived by both French and American respondents, but at the same time, exhibited some cultural differences in terms of perceived meaning, valence, and linkages are discussed for each respective dimension, These are illustrated in Table 4-7, and verbatim text units from the original transcripts are again included following the initial discussion in order to illustrate the similarities and differences in meaning, valence, and linkages. In selected instances, mini-ladders are included to further demonstrate the differences.

Attribute - Color

Meaning. This was one of the most common attributes mentioned by the French and the American respondents. Color signifies a red and white wine. However, the French respondents were much more likely than the American respondents to also mention rosé wines.

Valence. Valence was positive among both samples. However, as illustrated in the next section, the French also demonstrated negative perceptions (see Figure 4-2).

Table 4-7: Common Value Dimensions with Unique Characteristics

Dimension	Subdimension	Meaning[1]	Valence[1]	Linkages[1]
Attribute	Color	✓	✓	✓
Attribute	Price			✓
Attribute	Region/Country of Origin	✓	✓	✓
Attribute	Waiter Recommendation		✓	✓
Attribute	Name/Brand/Vine yard	✓		
Attribute	Container/Quantity	✓	✓	✓
Consequence	Complement Meal			✓
Consequence	Avoid Risk		✓	
Consequence	Cultured		✓	
Consequence	Enhance Evening			✓
Consequence	Health/Body Comfort	✓	✓	✓
Consequence	Discovery			✓
Consequence	Relax	✓		✓
Consequence	Conviviality	✓		✓
Consequence	Please/Impress Others	✓	✓	✓

[1]Check indicates element exhibiting some cultural uniqueness.

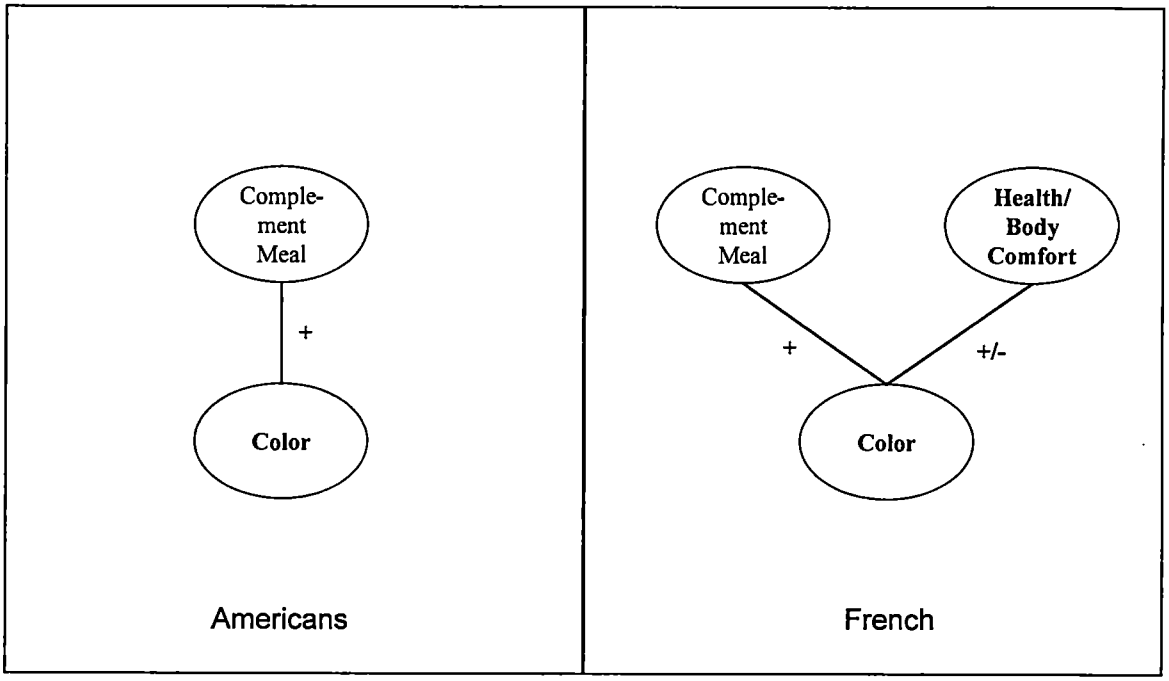


Figure 4-2: "Color" Mini-Ladder

Linkages. The most common linkage was from color to complementing the meal (attribute to consequence). This appears to be related both to taste and tradition. First of all, certain colors of wines apparently better match certain foods (i.e., red wine with red meat/white wine with fish and seafood). These matching rules are bound in tradition, and both the American and French respondents abide by these traditions for the most part.

American 18: "If we're having some sort of red meat, generally speaking, I'd pick a red wine...it's probably because I grew up doing that."

French 33: "It's a cultural tradition to order a white wine with fish, while meats with white wine or a light red wine, and red meats or meats in sauces with red wines that are heavier."

American 36: "When you order chicken with a red wine, not only does it not taste very well, but it raises eyebrows around the table kind of making me think twice about doing that."

The only area that revealed cultural differences was the linkage between color and body comfort (attribute to consequence). As discussed earlier, the French consistently cite perceptions that white wines and rosé wines are more likely to cause headaches and hangovers. They also attribute red wines to better digestion.

French 09: "I do not like white wines anyhow...it is a wine that makes you sleepy. I prefer the flavor of red wine."

French 23: "...white wine also gives you a headache...there are no good pink wines, even the pink wines from Provence. You have a bad hangover the next day."

Attribute - Price

Meaning. The average price that the American respondents were willing to pay was around $20 to $30 for a bottle. Similarly, the French respondents were in the range of 100 to 150 Francs ($20 to $30).

Valence. Valence was positive and negative for both samples.

Linkages. The linkages revealed a number of similarities and a few differences between the two culture groups (see Figure 4-3). Obviously price is perceived to link to monetary savings and financial stress (attribute to consequence). Respondents from both culture groups did not want to stretch their budgets and also want to have money left over for other dining experiences and other products and services.

French 05: "I have never ordered vintage wines. I do not swim in those waters. I like to drink them but I do not have the means to buy them."

French 40: "Because it is too expensive. It could be justified, for example, if you go to a restaurant where the food is special cuisine...but I do not have the means to do that, it's that simple. That doesn't bother me. I do not feel penalized."

American 45: "I'd rather spend my money on lift tickets for skiing. We try to cap it off at $30 a bottle."

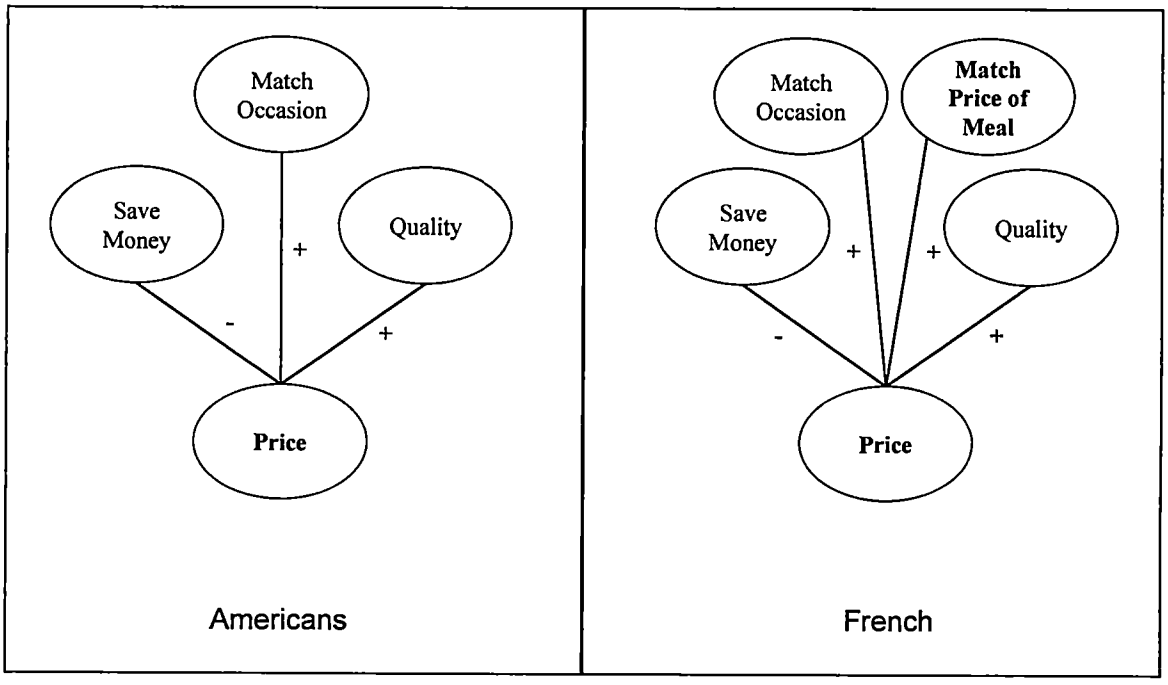


Figure 4-3: "Price" Mini-Ladder

For most respondents, price is a signal of quality (attribute to attribute), though not a perfect signal. For this reason, many people prefer to order wines in the middle price range rather than ordering a cheap, poor quality wine, or an expensive, exceptional quality wine.

American 22: "I think in general better wines cost more. That's not invariable, but as a rule of thumb in a restaurant that is honest about wines, paying an extra $10 or so will get you a better wine."

French 40: "Unfortunately the price is an important element that is directly related to the quality even though sometimes you really wonder."

Another strong pattern was the disgust with restaurant markups (attribute to consequence). Respondents from France and the United States condemned the large markups that restaurants add onto wine prices and were offended by the extent of the practice. For many respondents, it is difficult to justify spending $30 on a bottle of wine in a restaurant when one knows that the same bottle costs $7 in the grocery or liquor store.

American 30: "The price from restaurant to restaurant has little to do with the quality of wine. It has more to do with how much the restaurant thinks it can get for it...it makes me scowl."

French 33: "It's more a rip-off indicator, and that makes me angry."

Despite the concerns with price, both French and American respondents consistently spend more on special occasions (attribute to consequence). In fact, this is the one time that price becomes a non-issue for some people. It appears that spending too little on such occasions can send a negative message to others at the table. Price then is utilized as a message to others and to oneself. For example, it can be a signal of achievement, of respect, or of love to name a few.

American 16: "If I'm really in the celebrating mood, I'm really celebrating something worth it. Then I'll pay more. I'll want a better wine because I feel the wine makes the success..."

French 25: "If it is an extraordinary restaurant with a special occasion, then I will choose quality and too bad for the price."

One linkage that was common primarily to the French respondents was the idea of matching the price to the meal (attribute to consequence). Although exceptions exist, the French respondents appear to utilize a guide that the price of the wine should be equivalent to one person's meal.

French 02: "If my meal costs 120 Francs, I will pay 100 Francs for the wine. The price of the wine will be about the same price as another meal."

French 46: "...it's about the price of the meal. If the meal costs 150 Francs, the wine will be around that price."

A linkage that was more common to the American respondents was the linkage of price to diminishing returns (attribute to consequence). The Americans often stated that although quality increases with price, it does so at a diminishing rate. At some price point, the respondents cannot justify the additional investment.

American 43: "I don't mind going out do dinner and spending a lot of money. But you know what, I'm the kind of person, I'm not gonna get one bottle of wine. If I'm really having a good time, I'm probably gonna have two...You know your second and third bottle, they don't need to be expensive bottles of wine. They just don't. That to me I do find a waste of money."

American 45: "I think I could get a really nice sports car for about $40,000, a nice BMW Z3. I don't know if I'd get three times the enjoyment out of a $120,000 sports car. I think it's the same with the wine."

American 55: "I guess for me, there is diminishing returns for a meal...Part of getting out at a restaurant is trying to get value and enjoy it, but I would not be able to enjoy the meal if I didn't think that I was getting a value."

Attribute - Country/Region/Culture of Origin

Meaning. The country/region/culture of origin was a perceived attribute among both culture groups. French wines, especially the regions of Bordeaux, Burgundy, and Cotes du Rhone, were preferred by both French and American respondents. The American respondents were more likely than the French to also mention Californian,

Italian, and Chilean wines. The French were more likely to mention German and Portuguese wines.

Valence. The valence was positive among both culture samples. However, as illustrated in the next section, the French also perceived negative linkages (Figure 4-4).

Linkages. The most common linkage was to quality (attribute to attribute). Certain regions communicate reputations for quality and consistency, and respondents are looking for this consistency in quality in order to avoid the risk of a bad decision. Bordeaux and Burgundy wines appear to be perceived as the most consistent quality among both the French and the American respondents. These associations are used especially by respondents who claim that they do not have a great deal of knowledge about wine.

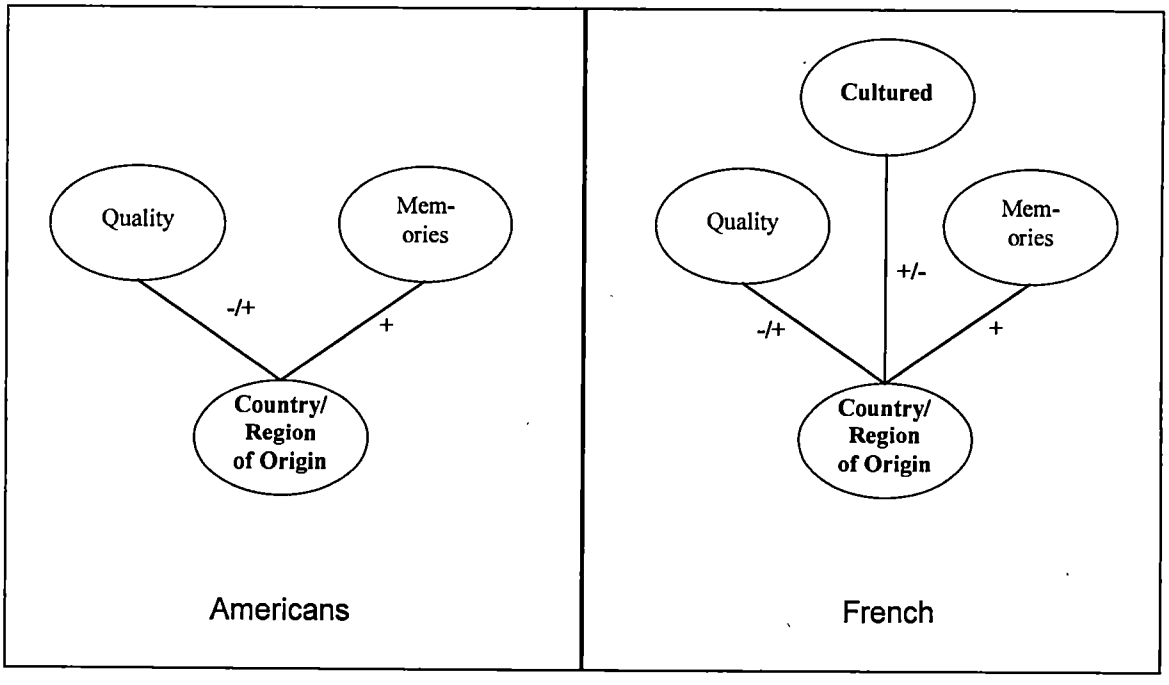


Figure 4-4: "Country/Region of Origin" Mini-Ladder

French 15: "Bordeaux, it is a region of France that produces the wine of an equal quality. It is difficult to find a bad Bordeaux. One is sure to more or less find a good quality wine."

American 22: "Well, the French have standards on export of wine. I mean they've much, much more stringent standards than I think about any other country in the world. So it's kind of hard to go wrong on a French wine...so there's a certain assurance of quality there."

Regions are also important because they evoke specific memories (attribute to consequence). Both the French and the American respondents had visited wine regions in Europe and in the United States, and they appeared more likely to order wines from the regions that they have previously visited. Doing so evokes positive memories of growing up in specific regions and/or of trips and vacations to those regions.

French 08: "It makes me feel secure, it's a security. A memory is linked to my family. I think about, for example, a bottle of Bordeaux, and then I think of my father."

American 49: "I love to travel so I'm linking up wines with regions...It brings me back to that good memory about something or place that I'm interested in."

American 52: "The California which I never used to buy, when we went out there and went to wine country, I really enjoyed it. And now I look for those names at the restaurants on lists of wines...Memories or winemakers, vineyards that we did like."

The most interesting linkage, however, existed among the French respondents. A wine is tied closely to the culture from which it comes. If the French did not like the culture of a country, they were more likely to dislike wines from that culture. For example, a number of French respondents do not like American wines, citing their dislike for American culture as the reason. For them, countries such as the United States and

Turkey have not established traditions of wine production or wine appreciation. Therefore, wines from such nations must not be good.

French 03: "All the Mediterranean countries, whether it be Greece, Italy, or any other country in that region, for me that is the starting of civilization, and that is why I have an association between wine cultures and rich civilizations. For me generally the people from the north are less civilized countries."

French 20: "...never an American wine; an American wine is bad...I must have an emotional relation to like the wine when I like the culture of the people...The people of Australia don't attract me, as is the same for Americans and the Chinese...I don't like them. I find the Spanish a little vulgar, it's a culture that I don't like. I prefer Portugal; it is tied to the emotional relation that I have with the country where the wine comes from."

Attribute - Waiter Recommendation

Meaning. Waiter recommendation represents both solicited and unsolicited advice from a waiter or wine steward regarding the choice of wine. The actual meaning attached to waiter recommendation was somewhat consistent across the two culture groups, although the French were somewhat more likely to mention a wine steward as opposed to simply a waiter.

Valence. There was a distinct pattern of differences in terms of the valence attached to waiter recommendation. The French respondents exhibited positive attitudes towards waiter recommendations, often referring to waiters as specialists. Conversely, the American respondents were much more skeptical of waiters.

Linkages. The reasons for these valence differences become especially evident when examining the linkages (see Figure 4-5). Both culture groups utilize the waiter recommendation to compensate for a lack of personal knowledge and to avoid the risk of

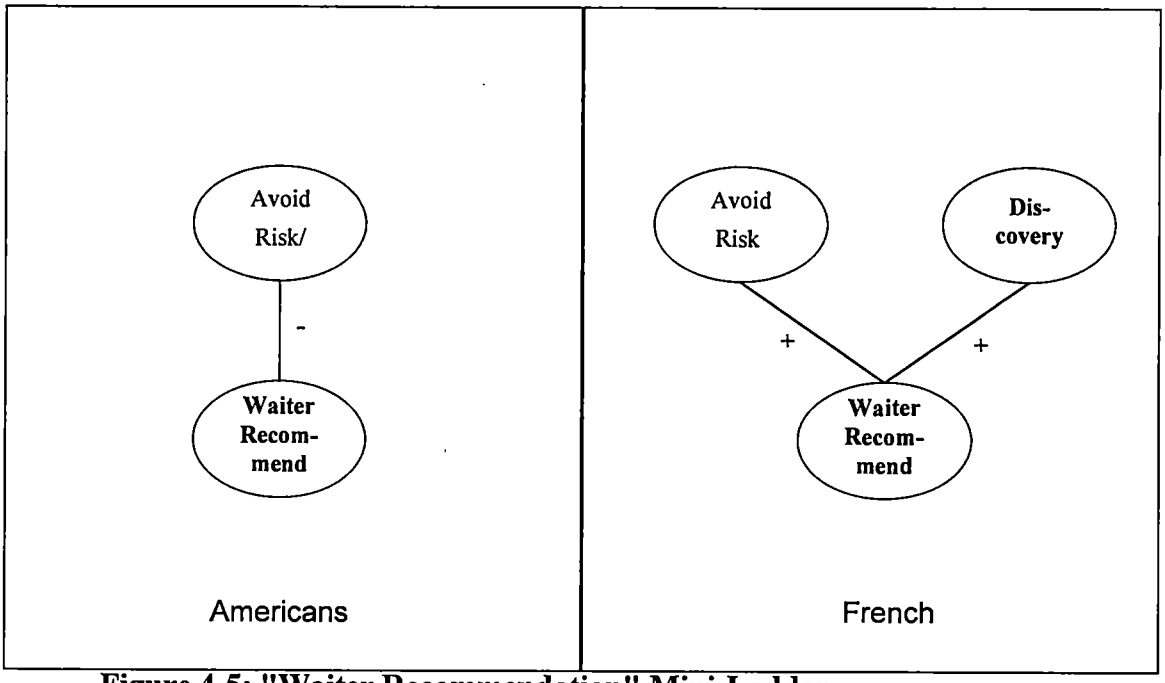


Figure 4-5: "Waiter Recommendation" Mini-Ladder

a bad decision. However, the French exhibit much more trust in the waiter, whereas the Americans often believe that they are being taken advantage of.

> French 38: "When you do not know what to order you can ask him (the waiter), it is a professional job, so they know how to give advice. They are not there to rip people off."
>
> American 49: "It's not that I have great trust in the waiters in the restaurants we go to, but it just makes the decision easier... Well, if I think about it, its probably because they're pushing a particular kind of wine that they got a good deal on. But, you know at that point I don't want to invest any more time in the decision, you know."

The French also link waiter recommendations to a sense of discovery (attribute to consequence), a linkage that did not exist among the American respondents. By asking for advice, they are often able to discover a new wine that they would not have ordinarily tried.

French 08: "I like to discover unusual wines...the wine waiter suggests some wines and you discover very good wines from the Loire."

Attribute - Name/Brand/Vineyard

Meaning. Both the French and American respondents utilize the names of vineyards in selecting a wine, though the pattern appeared to be stronger (strength is determined by number of mentions) among the Americans. The stronger American pattern may be partly explained by the fact that it is sometimes difficult to differentiate a brand or a vineyard from a region or even a grape type. French wines especially are known by the region from which they come, and buyers of French wines, whether they be French or American, often refer to the region rather than specific vineyards or producers.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. For both culture groups, the name/brand/vineyard of a wine, like the grape and region, are perceived to link to quality. Certain vineyards, such as Robert Mondavi or Chateau d'Yquem, are more renown than others. This assurance of quality provides respondents with a sense of security and risk avoidance that they value.

American 24: "It's just the wine should turn out, again consistency of wines...they have a reputation...Every time I've had a Kendall Jackson or whatever, it's been good. It's been what I expected."

French 37: "Year after year the producer makes one good quality wine, a wine in which the taste is the same year after year...I think that that is the art for the wine growers; to have the same quality from year to year. It is what made the Chateau d'Yquem fortune...Because the producer normally tries to make his cru the same from year to year and if the wine is good we will buy it again."

Attribute - Container/Quantity

Meaning. The French respondents had a tendency to drink more wine over dinner, but this fact is likely because they often dine in larger groups than the American respondents. For this reason, it appears that the American respondents were more likely to order by the glass than the French. The French were more likely to order half-bottles and pitchers of wine. This is likely a function of availability. In general, American restaurants are probably not as likely to offer half-bottles and/or pitchers.

Valence. Valence was positive for both samples. However, as illustrated in the next section, the French also exhibited negative perceptions (see Figure 4-6).

Linkages. The reason for considering a bottle or half bottle was related to more than simply the number of people dining, however. For the French, the quantity ordered

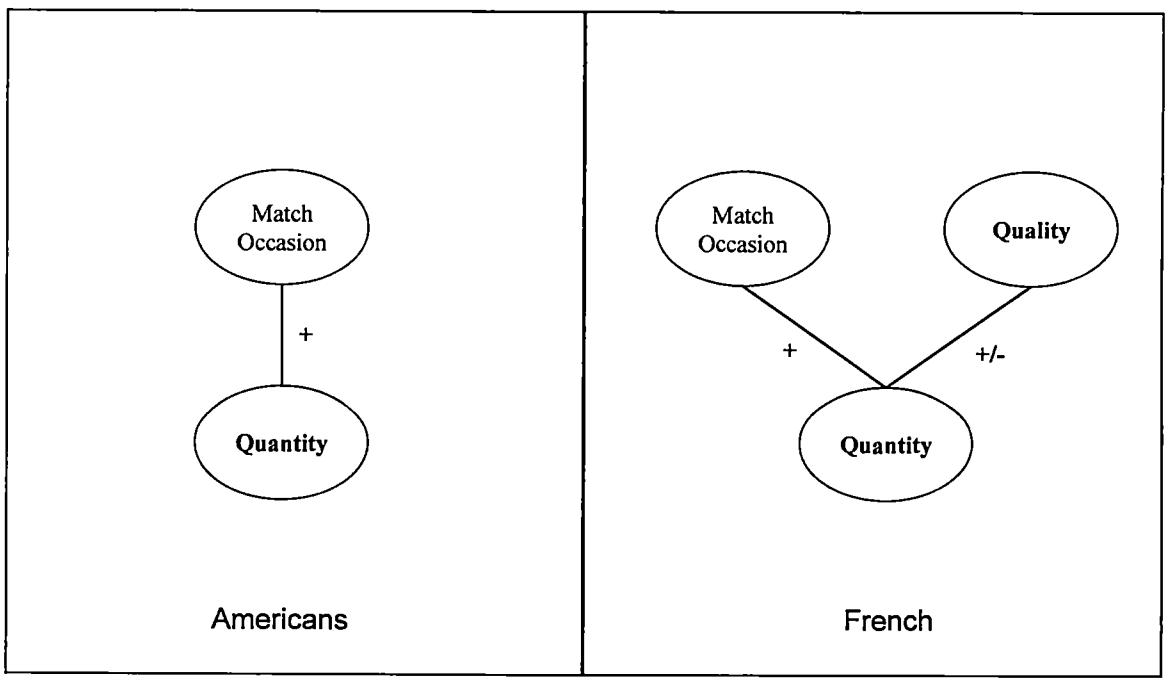


Figure 4-6: "Quantity/Container" Mini-Ladder

is a carrier of messages, and it should match the dining occasion (attribute to consequence). A pitcher is more likely to be ordered for casual, informal meals with very close friends, whereas a bottle is consumed for more formal, celebratory occasions. Though Americans may hold the same perceptions, the linkage did not emerge among the American respondents in this research.

French 20: "When you only order a glass, it means that you really do not want to drink...when you are with someone, if you take a half bottle you won't be intoxicated, whereas with one bottle you release yourself. The choice is not only a choice of quantity, you know very well what the effect of wine is going to do to you, so between a half bottle and a bottle there is a difference. If you are in love, you are going to order a bottle so that you feel relaxed when you are really happy."

American 58: "I mean if the other person is not going to have any wine, then I'm probably going to order a glass of the house wine. If we both drink wine, then we'll order a bottle."

For the French respondents, a pitcher often signals lower quality wine (attribute to attribute). As a result, pitchers are often consumed only in restaurants where the respondents have already established a sense of trust with the ownership.

French 23: "...if someone orders a pitcher, I will do like everyone else and drink a little bit...it is a social practice...so you don't want to insult the people around you...it's not that it is bad, it just doesn't have any taste...most wines in a pitcher, most of these are the wines that result from blending..."

French 33: "When I go to small restaurants, I almost always order a pitcher of wine...I order the house wine because I trust the owner and generally it's a cheaper wine, balanced for easy drinking."

Consequence - Complement the Meal

Meaning. The most common meaning of this dimension for both culture samples was that the wine and the food create a whole, each inseparable from the other. Wine

brings out certain tastes in the food and vice versa. The result is something greater than the sum of its parts. Another interesting definition that emerged among both samples was that wine should not only match the food but also the preparation of the food. For example, red wines are more likely to go with spicy foods and white wines with grilled foods.

Valence. Valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. As revealed in the "color" discussion, the strongest perceived attribute linkage to complementing the meal was color (see Figure 4-7). Most of the respondents order red wine with meats and white wine with fish and seafood. The linkage from complementing the meal to other consequences revealed some similarities but is also the area where greater diversity emerged.

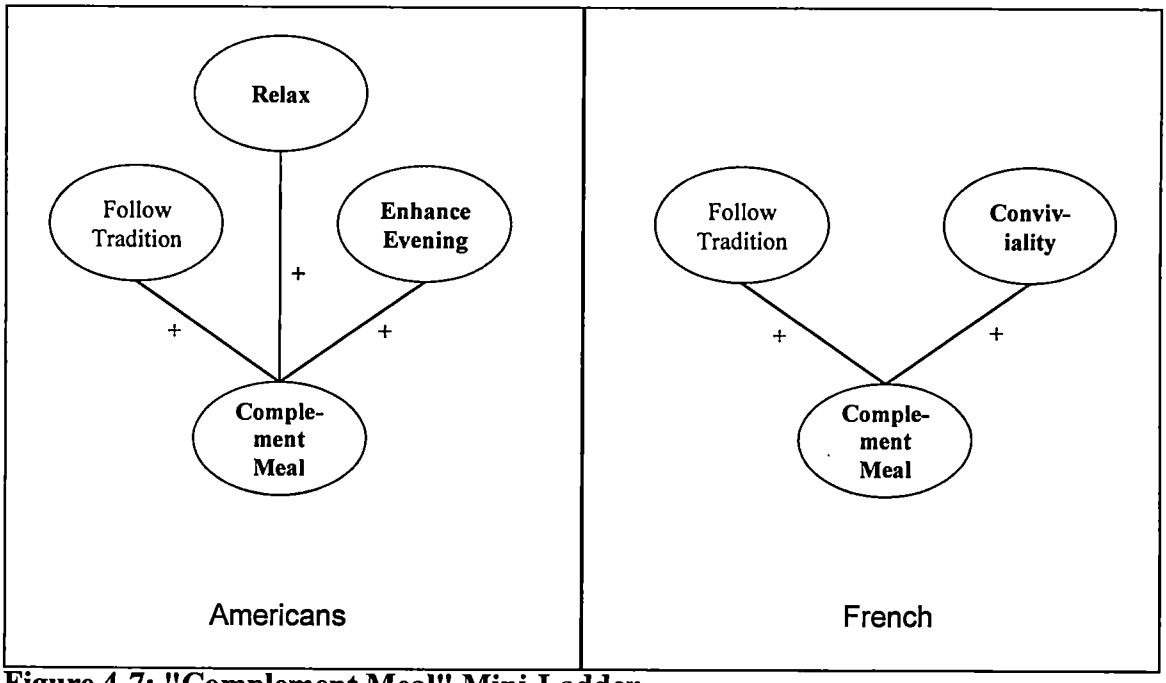


Figure 4-7: "Complement Meal" Mini-Ladder

French 10: "It depends on the dish that I have chosen, and according to the dish it would be either white, red, or rose."

French 35: "It's an agreement, the agreement of the wine and the food..."

American 17: "If we're having steak we would, we would most likely have either Merlot or Cabernet Sauvignon...I think it complements the food...Well, it makes me feel like everything is in order and everything is complementing one another, and everything is enhancing and adding to the overall pleasure..."

One common linkage for both groups was from complement meal to tradition (consequence to consequence). Many respondents follow traditional matching rules. They often defend this reasoning by arguing that it is because of taste. Thus, it becomes difficult to determine if decisions are made purely out of following established social rules or because taste is enhanced. A number of respondents stated that they do not make selections according to these pre-established rules, but then in the course of the conversation fell back to more traditional food-wine matches.

French 05: "I think there are certain rules, for example, for meats that are covered in sauces, or fish in wine sauces. Obviously, it would be better to drink the same wine that was used in the sauce...I am fairly traditional for wines."

French 08: "...if you order a red with fish that is somewhat redneck, you can do it, but you really shouldn't. So you wouldn't ever do that."

American 18: "It's passé, but I still believe in it. Also, if we're having light cream sauces, I might go with a white wine versus a red cream sauce or red sauce...It's probably because I grew up doing that and it's just kind of the way I am."

For the French respondents, a common perceived consequence linkage was to conviviality. The experience of a well-matched meal leads to a focus on conversation

and enjoyment of family and friends. It appears that this is the ultimate goal of the meal, and a well-matched meal facilitates this rather than distracts. A poor match, however, may be more likely to detract from the conviviality.

> French 46: "I look at what kind of wine goes with what kind of food...it is really complementary, it is a whole...when you are friends, when you are partying, wine completes the ensemble, wine is completely complementary...Wine is part of the whole thing, it is tied to the food and to my friends. It's a pleasure to be together."

For the American respondents, a common perceived consequence linkage was to relax and also to enhance the evening. Like the French, a well-matched meal creates a sense of balance that allows one to relax and enjoy the evening. Unlike the French, this is more for internal reasons than for external ones. Few American respondents discussed the impact on conversation or sharing with others. Rather, complementing helps them to forget their stressful lives and enjoy the evening.

> American 19: "...it's choosing a wine and a food that go together and then enjoying them, makes you feel happy...Like I said before, it helps me to relax, get away from my work."

Consequence - Avoid Risk

Meaning. This consequence was a common perception among the French and American respondents. The general meaning concerned not wanting to make a bad decision and avoiding feeling taken advantage of.

Valence. The valence was negative among both culture samples. However, the French also exhibited positive valence when discussing how waiter recommendations help one to avoid risk.

Linkages. The linkages reveal more specific meaning behind this dimension (see Figure 4-5). The primary attribute linkages were with quality, waiter recommendation, region/country of origin, and name/brand/vineyard. The consequence linkages were more diverse, though security emerged a number of times.

French 08: "...because I know I won't be disappointed. For example, I do not know much about Burgundies, I must have drank it once but I cannot remember, but it is important that I know it...It (waiter recommendation) makes me feel secure, it's a security."

French 34: "I usually always take what I have had before because when you do you're not disappointed. So I choose the same wines."

American 48: "...the brand gives me some kind of assurance that the quality is the same from place to place...but without information, I drop back to what I know. Safety in that I don't want to spoil the evening...Because I spend money to have an experience with people that are important to me."

American 54: "I've always had a good experience with Robert Mondavi's...I just don't want to mess up...so I'm looking for anything that's slightly familiar to me...Because I don't want to waste my money on food. Waste my money for my nice night out."

Consequence - Cultured

Meaning. A wine allows one to actually experience the culture from which the wine came. This perception was cited mostly by the French respondents, though a few American respondents also mentioned this dimension.

Valence. The valence was both positive and negative for the French respondents but only positive for the American respondents.

Linkages. Both the positive and negative linkages were between region/country of origin and cultured. The positive linkages reveal an inquisitive nature to experience local cultures and also provides evidence of the influence of use situation upon perceived

value. The French and American respondents frequently stated that they always order a local wine when traveling or when in an ethnic restaurant in order to experience the local culture.

> French 33: "I think that it is more important to order a wine from the region you are in; it seems logical to me to associate them together..."
>
> American 28: "...(ordering local wines) is to find out what these people are thinking, what these literatures are about, what these languages are about, what these foods are, how they prepare them, how they serve them...it's a part of your experience and the culture."

As discussed with region/country of origin, the negative linkages reveal that the French do not like certain cultures and often consider themselves to be culturally superior (e.g., such as in the arts, education, and intellectually). Consuming a wine from culturally "poor" region or country reflects upon one's own cultural status.

> French 02: "There are certain countries that have experience with great wines and there are others that do not. So I eliminate them. I am thinking among others about California...Because it is something relatively new, and they are vines that are imported from Europe...I find that completely stupid. There is not tradition...So the origin is important. You must limit yourself to these countries if you want to drink good wine, the people who know how to do it have a culture and the knowledge."

Consequence - Enhance Evening

Meaning. This consequence was perceived by both French and American respondents, and it concerned the dining experience as a whole. Many respondents discussed the overall dining experience as a nice atmosphere and a quality evening. This consequence is much more ephemeral than quality of life, which would likely be considered more of an end-state

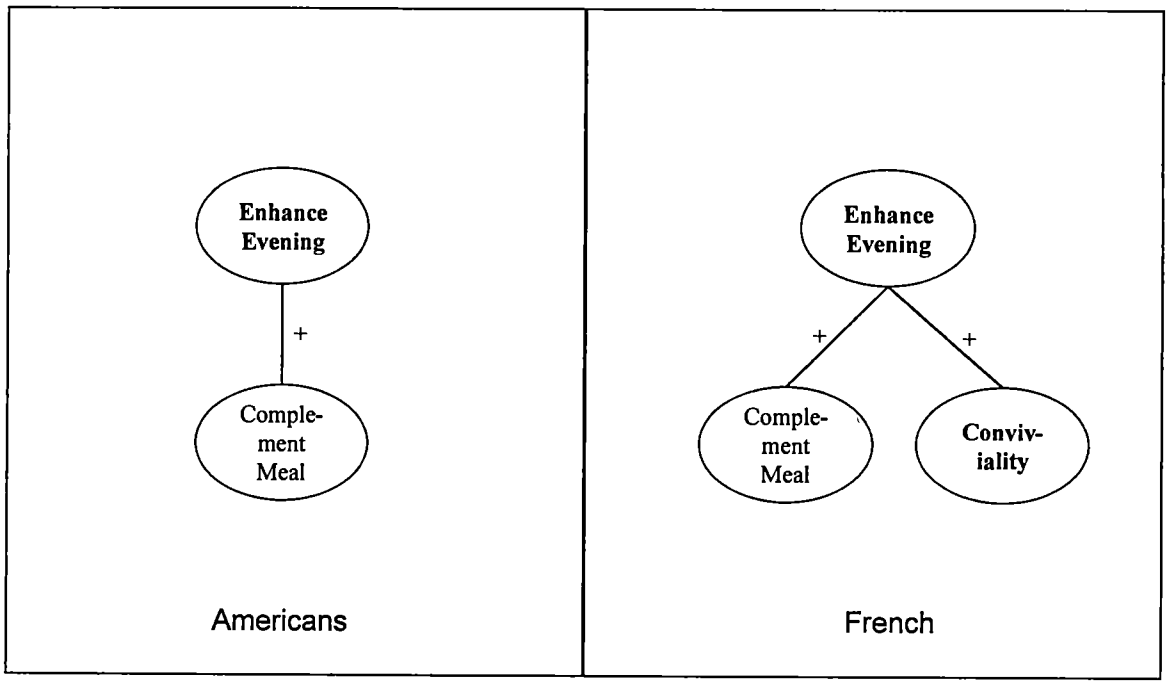


Figure 4-8: "Enhance Evening" Mini-Ladder

Valence. Both culture samples exhibited negative and positive valences (see Figure 4-8). For example, a nice wine can enhance the evening, but a bad wine can "ruin" the evening.

Linkages. The most common perceived linkage was from complement the meal to enhance the evening. Obviously, a well-matched food and wine contributes to the overall dining experience. However, this factor by itself does not equal a quality evening. Other factors, including the mood, the social interaction, and overall enjoyment, also help to enhance the evening. These perceptions were fairly consistent across both culture groups.

French 01: "Wine plays a part of an accompaniment of an atmosphere."

French 05: "At the extreme, that can ruin an evening because the wine is average and because the food is somewhat refined. I would rather not drink anything at all."

American 16: "I want a better wine because I feel the wine makes the success...I feel, I know that 99.9 percent of the chances I'm gong to have a good meal because I'm going to have a good bottle of wine...It's just another plus that makes the whole evening guaranteed to be a success, and that generally will enhance my happiness."

American 39: "It just adds to the quality of the experience like I said before. You're going out, you want to have a good time and enjoy the meal. The wine may be an addition or it may be a detraction. Hopefully, you make the right choices."

The one linkage that revealed some cross-cultural differences was the linkage from conviviality to enhance evening. Though some American respondents also mentioned this, the French respondents almost perceive conviviality as a prerequisite for enhancing the evening. If there is no sharing and deep conversation among friends and family, then the evening is not a success, regardless of the quality of the wine and food.

French 38: "It is very important to me, it is also the way you can judge if the dinner was successful by making the guests happy...Yes like all drinks, in the same way that you share a meal, you share a drink. It is an element that adds to the atmosphere..."

Consequence - Health-Body Comfort

Meaning. This was a strong consequence among the French respondents and a moderate theme among the American respondents. For both samples, health-body comfort is made up of a number of factors, including better digestion, avoidance of headaches, not feeling sleepy or tired, not hurting one's stomach, and not feeling weighed down. The French respondents also emphasized digestion benefits and the desire to

avoid headaches and feeling tired. The American respondents emphasized not feeling weighed down.

Valence. Most of the responses were negatively valenced with respondents from both samples desiring to avoid certain negative consequences (see Figure 4-2). However, some digestion responses cited by the French were positively valenced. Apparently, the French respondents perceive that wine actually facilitates the digestion of a balanced meal.

Linkages. The primary linkage to health-body comfort was color (attribute to consequence). The French respondents overwhelmingly attribute headaches and discomfort to the consumption of white or rose wines, and also to the mixing of wine colors during a meal. This linkage was nonexistent among the American respondents. In fact, one American respondent actually cited red wines as causing headaches. The linkages from health-body comfort to higher level consequences and end states were less clear. It appears that body comfort makes the evening more pleasurable and health benefits simply provide people with a greater sense of overall life security.

French 42: "My wife and I are careful with white wines because of their reputations of giving you a headache the next morning...combinations of wines also are not very good for the next day. No pink wine; it is a doctored wine, rotten, disgusting, a horror. It gives you a headache."

French 46: "I am somewhat biased because mixing white and red doesn't appeal to me...I get migraines. I have noticed however that when I mix the two I get sick, and as they say, 'White on red, everything's dead; red on white, everyone takes flight'..."

American 12: "I think even wine has some health benefits when consumed with food...and that it can help you, I think, digest and help your body to assimilate food."

Consequence - Discovery

Meaning. For both culture samples, the meaning attached to discovery was trying new, unknown wines. Though several American respondents mentioned the consequence, it only met the cutoff for the French respondents. There are two variations in this meaning - novelty and variety. For example, some respondents equate discovery to trying a wine in a restaurant that one does not normally drink at home, even though one may be somewhat familiar with it. Other respondents equate discovery to tasting new, unique wines that one has little to no experience with.

Valence. The valence attached to discovery was positive for all respondents.

Linkages. As discussed under waiter recommendation, the French often link discovery from waiter recommendation (see Figure 4-5). The waiter allows them to overcome their fear of a bad choice and achieve the need for discovering something new and unusual.

French 01: "I would ask for an opinion according to what I have on my plate. That would leave me free to try many wines."

French 25: "What we commonly do it to choose a wine that we do not know that we would like to discover; the wine waiter helps you."

Consequence - Relax

Meaning. Relaxation was a common consequence among both the French and the American respondents. However, there appeared to be a difference in the way it was perceived. For the French respondents, relaxation represents the moment when one is able to externally express oneself freely without worry or care. For the American respondents, relaxation represents the release of internal tension and stress.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. Although the two meanings appear very similar, the differences become more evident when examining the linkages (see Figure 4-9). The French respondents link alcohol content and loosening of the senses to relaxation (attribute to consequence to consequence). As discussed earlier, they openly admit that these are valued aspects of wine consumption. Relaxation then links to conviviality, but only for the French. Free expression with other people is extremely important. They want to feel that they can share, converse and debate openly without worry or care of what others will think of them, and wine and relaxation helps to facilitate this.

French 02: "...the wine relaxes the body and that leads to an easier explosion of freedom for the body and spirit and the conversation that follows becomes more fluid and real."

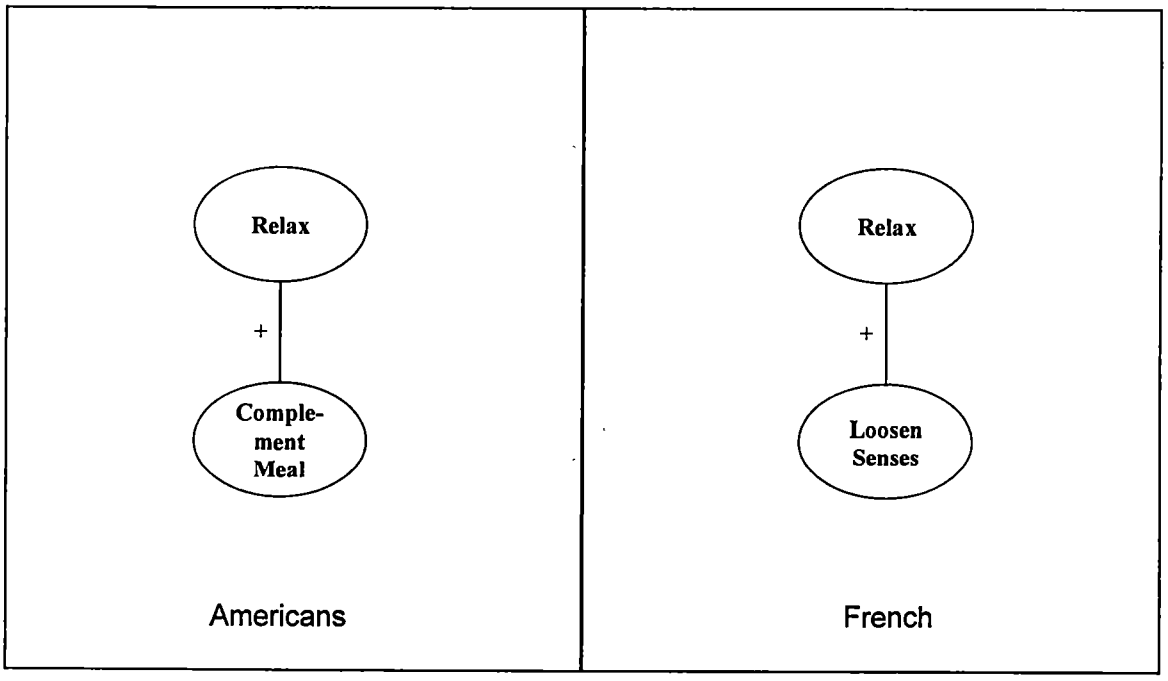


Figure 4-9: "Relax" Mini-Ladder

French 26: "Yes, to be honest this is what I am looking for. It relaxes me so much, and it is so nice if around me everyone is feeling the same. It's more fun, it's easier to crack jokes, you know, sometimes you're a little intimidated but with wine everything is so much more easy."

The American respondents link complementing the meal to relaxation (consequence to consequence). Apparently, the idea of wine and food create a sense of balance that then relaxes the diners. It seems to be less the alcohol and more the sense of balance that facilitates relaxation. Relaxation helps one to almost escape from reality and responsibilities. Although this was a theme for both the French and the American respondents, the Americans place a great deal of emphasis upon the fact that relaxing helps them to forget their high-stress jobs and lifestyles.

American 49: "And relaxation. I mean the alcohol relaxes. You come from work and you're sort of tensed up, and it relaxes me."

American 30: "More likely to relax a little bit and savor the rest of the flavors of the meal when I know I can sip the wine and it's not just there, but it tasted good, which a white wine is supposed to...Well it's part of the issue of going out, partly you go for entertainment and you go to have everybody else wait on you. And that's relaxing as opposed to staying home and doing it all and cleaning up afterwards...so it's important to be able to go out and relax and forget about your workday."

Consequence - Conviviality

Meaning. Conviviality is a word loaded with positive meaning. For both the Americans and French respondents, it means sharing and conversation among family and friends. However, the French take the meaning beyond simply sharing and conversation to mean a uniting and a wholeness among people, and wine is a significant facilitator in the creation of this wholeness.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. For the French respondents, loosen the senses links to conviviality (consequence to consequence) as does alcohol content (attribute to consequence). This loosening of the senses allows people to be themselves, which ultimately facilitates more genuine conversation and creates an atmosphere of conviviality. It also links from a complete meal (see Figure 4-7). The mixture of wine, food, and conversation all create conviviality. Conviviality, in turn, links to an end-state called benevolence. Everyone who is sharing the wine becomes part of some larger whole.

> French 15: "Eating is a moment of privileged conviviality, of conversation, of dialogue, and wine helps to create this ambiance of conviviality and dialogue, and of friendship that lends itself to discussion...Because exactly like all alcohol, it provokes a loosening of the senses, and this loosening of the senses permits a fluid conversation and social contacts that are more cordial and without regret."

For the Americans, as well, wine is closely tied to sharing and conversation. The interesting thing is that this sharing is often among spouses or partners, and less among large groups of friends. The Americans also appear less likely to admit that the relaxation created is due to the alcohol.

> American 17: "Well it makes me feel like everything is in order and everything is complementing one another...it's very relaxing for us...we have a nice you know conversation."

Consequence - Please/Impress Others

Meaning. This consequence, which was perceived by both culture samples, concerns influencing the perceptions of others. However, two slightly different perceived meanings emerged. First, for both samples there was a more altruistic perception that

selection of a wine will please other diners at the table. Second, for both samples there was a more self-centered perception that selection of a wine will impress others in a way that benefits oneself.

Valence. As one would expect, the altruistic perception was primarily positive in valence and was represented among both the French and American respondents. The self-centered perception was more common among the Americans and it revealed some negative linkages for American respondents.

Linkages. In terms of the more altruistic meaning, people often select a wine simply to show others that they care, to show respect and honor, or simply to make others happy.

> American 50: "I like pleasing her...I enjoy pleasing her. I enjoy, I suppose I could say, I love her."
>
> French 38: "...if there are two of you then it is better, more pleasant to share a bottle. It is about the wineglass and the exchange when you like something. When you like something you want to share it so it is automatically more pleasant with two people."

People also attempt to impress others for more self-centered reasons. This can have a positive valence when attempting to show others respect and honor in order to make oneself look good. However, this can also have a negative valence when people resent having to compromise during wine selection or simply when people feel intense pressure to make the proper choice. The positive form of impression was perceived among both the French and American respondents, whereas the negative form of impression was perceived primarily among the American respondents.

French 14: "...it can not be a disgusting cheap wine, you're not fifteen anymore, and your gesture shows the respect that you have for the people who have invited you."

American 51: "If it's a date, I'd like to impress the person I'm on a date with. Or if it will be second, third, or fourth date, I may want to honor what I know of that person."

American 55: "So it may be a status thing; sort of saying I know what I'm doing. I've been there. I mean I know about French wines. Not a tremendous amount, but I know more than the average Joe on the street or in the suburbs. It's a signal that I know."

Common Dimensions

The following value dimensions were perceived by both culture samples and exhibited few cultural differences, as illustrated in Table 4-8. The perceived meaning, valence, and linkages are discussed for each respective dimension.

Table 4-8: Common Value Dimensions

Dimension	Subdimension
Attribute	Quality
Attribute	Flavor
Consequence	Match Occasion
Consequence	Pleasing to Palate
Consequence	Save Money
Consequence	Follow Norms/Tradition

Attribute - Quality

Meaning. Quality was an important characteristic for both the French and the American respondents. For most respondents, quality signifies consistency of flavor. This attribute is perceived to link to a number of other attributes and consequences. For both culture groups, it links most notably from price, country/region of origin, and name of the vineyard/winery.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. Interestingly, the Americans respondents linked French wines with quality (attribute to attribute) as much as the French respondents. However, the Americans simply refered to French wines in general. The French refered more to specific French regions, such as St. Emilion, Bordeaux, and Medoc. As discussed earlier, a number of French respondents perceive that quality wines can come only from cultures that they like and not from cultures with little wine tradition. Both groups generally perceived that the more expensive the wine, the better quality of the wine. Quality links to a number of consequences. However, for many respondents, quality provides an assurance that one is making a good decision (attribute to consequence) and that it is going to complement the meal (attribute to consequence).

French 11: "I have never found a good wine for 15 Francs. You have to spend more like 40 Francs so that you get a good wine, and after that, if you double the price you start getting really good wine."

American 48: "I tend to go to the upper end just believing that there's a better quality wine if I spend more money...I don't want to take the risk of finding something that's not very good..."

Attribute - Flavor

Meaning. The attribute of flavor was referred to in several ways among the respondents, including dryness versus fruitiness, complexity, and body. Although individual exceptions existed, most of the respondents from both culture samples preferred the flavor of a dryer wine. Complexity refers to the fact that a wine exhibits multiple flavors rather than a flatter, single flavor. These perceptions were fairly consistent across the two culture groups.

Valence. The valence was positive across both culture samples.

Linkages. The perceived attribute linkages included color, region, and grape (attributes to attribute). The French respondents linked region and color to flavor, whereas the American respondents linked grape and color to flavor. The perceived consequence linkages were flavor to pleasing to palate (attribute to consequence) and flavor to complements the meal (attribute to consequence). This perception was consistent across the two groups.

American 17: "I think in my mind red wine with its different flavor and different less sweetness or dryness or whatever you want to call it plus its flavor compliments a red meat..."

French 23: "I don't like white wine. I drink it, but I find it less subtle compared to red wine. But in white wine, a white Bordeaux, it's flat. Muscadet is good for eating with oysters, it's an accompaniment."

Consequence - Match Occasion

Meaning. Both the American and French respondents consider the occasion when ordering a wine. Special occasions include events such as birthdays, anniversaries, and

promotions. Thus, the consequence is not the occasion but instead the *matching* to the occasion. Although one might argue that matching the occasion is not a consumption consequence, the respondents consistently stated that certain desired attributes were important to them (e.g., price, country of origin) because they matched the occasion. Hence, they actually perceive a "match." The occasion can influence the use situation. For example, respondents from both samples usually celebrate special occasions at more expensive, gourmet-type restaurants.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. This consequence was closely tied to price and quality of the wine (attributes to consequence). For one reason, the restaurant selected is often more expensive when dining out on special occasions. For a second reason, people feel that they should spend more when celebrating. In fact, the quality and price of a wine sends a message of celebration. If one is "cheap" on a special occasion, it may insult the other celebrants involved.

American 21: "...on special occasions a French wine which is clearly often in many ways superior...if it's a special occasion I might buy a nicer more expensive bottle."

French 07: "If it is a special occasion, a very good wine perhaps."

Consequence - Pleasing to Palate

Meaning. Though the culture samples perceived this consequence similarly, there was a stronger perception among the American respondents than the French respondents.

Wine evokes pleasurable feelings within the mouth, stimulating the taste buds, and going down smoothly.

Valence. This perception had a positive valence for both culture samples.

Linkages. The primary attribute linkage was from flavor and color to pleasing to the palate. Certain wines naturally evoke positive reactions. This is understandable, given that people prefer certain flavors over other flavors and certain colors over other colors. The most common consequence linkage was to complement the meal.

American 36: "If everything fits, it's very relaxing. It's very pleasurable to the palate...it makes sense to my palate, that you have red meat, steak, or I guess maybe lamb, you order red wine."

French 46: "I can like wines that are thicker like Bordeaux or wines from the south that are heavy, but I would say that in general I prefer lighter wines because they drink easier."

Consequence - Save Money

Meaning. Respondents from both culture groups desire to save money. The respondents continuously discussed not spending beyond their means and having limited resources.

Valence. The valence was negative for both culture samples.

Linkages. This consequence was linked to price. The only significant perceived linkage from this consequence was to buying other things, including wine. Because of their limited budget, the respondents do not want to spend too much on a bottle of wine because they want to be able to spend money on other things, especially less ephemeral things. The American respondents, especially, often talked in terms of monetary return. For a certain price, they expect a certain quality and a certain enjoyment. Several even

raised the concept of diminishing returns, stating that as the price of a bottle increases, the enjoyment does not.

> French 03: "Frankly, we would be very heartbroken if we put a large sum of money into a bottle, even if we appreciated it...because it seems a little superficial, that is burdensome and so it is not an important priority, we are going to choose other priorities."
>
> American 57: "Well, that's just all I can spend...It's just, I'd rather be able to order dessert and maybe coffee with the meal. If I spend too much on the wine, then I'll have to stop with the main course, and I hate to do that."
>
> American 30: "But you know I rarely buy the cheapest available, and I always shake my head at how much they cost because like I say we know how much they cost in a grocery store...You expect some return, you invest even if it's in a dinner. It would be just like paying a lot of money for a steak and it not being very good."

Consequence - Follow Norms/Traditions

Meaning. The meaning of this consequence was best defined by one American respondent who stated that following certain pre-established rules or traditions "places one in a time sequence" and this is important given today's hectic world and lifestyles.

Valence. The valence was positive for both culture samples.

Linkages. By following tradition, people seem to garner some sense of association with a social institution that, in turn, helps them to establish their own identity. Although many French assert that they follow tradition only because of taste, there appears to be other reasons, including establishing a sense of identity, identification with one's culture, conforming to social customs, and feeling closer to family and family traditions. The primary perceived linkage is from matching food and wine to following

traditions and norms. Even when respondents asserted that they followed this tradition because of personal taste, social pressure would still emerge as a factor. The social pressure to conform and not appear "ignorant" was also present among the Americans that did discuss tradition.

> French 42: "It comes from an education, from the past, it's what has been done historically that makes it that way. I know that some of it is because of habits, but there is the taste that is extremely important...It's true though that it's somewhat customary especially when you have friends over to the house and you are going to eat fish, you will have a white wine. There are things you do automatically..."
>
> American 24: "I just think it's tradition...I mean, you know, a proper person doesn't drink a white zinfandel which is actually pink."

Summary of Proposition 1-2 Research Findings

The findings from Propositions 1-2 indicate that national culture does indeed influence consumer perceptions of customer value dimensions and linkages. Moreover, national culture appears to influence these perceptions in a number of ways. Culture can influence the *meaning* that consumers attach to specific value dimensions, and how consumers cognitively *link* value dimensions. Similarly, culture can influence the *valence* attached both to specific dimensions and linkages.

Although attributes and consequences are influenced by national culture, the data again appear to indicate greater variation in the perception of consumption consequences than in the perception of product/service attributes. As illustrated earlier in Tables 4-6 and 4-7, a number of consequences were either unique to only one culture or at least exhibited characteristics (i.e., meaning, valence, linkages) unique to one culture.

Interestingly, the more abstract consequences exhibited greater variation in perceptions than the more functional consequences. Finally, the data reveal some cultural equivalents. A number of attributes and consequences were perceived in a similar way across the two culture samples. This was especially evident at the attribute level and the functional consequence level.

This discussion has centered primarily upon the attribute and consequence levels of the customer value hierarchy. The next section will address perceptions at the end-state level.

Test of "Perception" Research Proposition 3

Proposition 3 provides an empirical examination of how consumers' perceived end-states reflect the values important to the culture in which the consumer belongs. As described in Chapter 2, cultural values were proposed to influence the perceived end-states of consumers.

Proposition 3: Important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.

Description of Data Used

This proposition was tested through the examination of the dimension summary tables and the research findings of Schwartz (1992) and Schwartz and Ros (1995). Although the summary tables contained dimensions and linkages from individual transcripts (60 respondents), the unit of analysis for identifying patterns was at the culture level (30 French respondents and 30 American respondents). End-states that appeared in five or more transcripts across the combined sample (8.3%) were examined. These end-

states were compared to the percentages found by Schwartz and Ros (1995), and the patterns that emerged are revealed in Table 4-9. Schwartz and Ros (1995) conducted a study in 46 countries around the world and identified seven culture-level universals. These seven culture-level dimensions emerged from individual-level surveys. As argued by Schwartz and Ros (1995, p. 4), "the dimensions on which cultures vary may well be different from the value dimensions on which individual persons vary." Table 4-9 reveals the individual-level values identified by Schwartz (1992) and operationalized as end-states in the present research along with their equivalent culture-level value dimension. As is evident, only four perceived end-states met the cutoff for the value hierarchies, and these were consistent with the culture-level value dimensions identified by Schwartz and Ros (1995). This finding provides some support for Proposition 3. The end-states that emerged are discussed below.

End-State - Hedonism

Schwartz (1992) defines hedonism as desire for "pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself." His research placed France as the most hedonistic culture among all studied and the United States moderate to high on hedonism. Surprisingly, for the present dissertation research, hedonism was perceived by both American and French respondents. Most of the respondents defined it as a pleasure of the senses, the mind, and of life. The real difference existed in the perceived linkages.

For the French respondents, hedonism or pleasure, linked from conviviality (consequence to end-state). It seems that, for the French, true pleasure in life results

Table 4-9: Schwartz Cultural Values and Perceived End-States

Schwartz and Ros (1995)				Present Research	
Culture-Level Dimension	**France Mean[1]**	**U.S. Mean[1]**	**Individual-Level Equivalent**	**French Hierarchy**	**American Hierarchy**
Harmony	4.19	3.56	Universalism		
Egalitarianism	5.32	4.90	Benevolence	✓	
Conservatism	3.23	3.77	Tradition Security Conformity		
Hierarchy	2.04	2.25	Power		
Mastery	3.77	4.21	Achievement Self-Direction		✓
Affective Autonomy	4.29	3.51	Hedonism Stimulation	✓ ✓	✓
Intellectual Autonomy	5.03	4.07	Spiritualism		

[1]Mean scores represent importance ratings of values by matched teacher samples in France and the United States by Schwartz and Ros (1995). The higher the rating the greater the importance.

directly from sharing and communication with other people. There were very little "me-centered" references to pleasure.

French 02: "You must search for a state of happiness...they are found in food, which covers the stomach, in sex, the pleasures of the body, all these pleasures enrich and make up the human spirit through what it is fed all the time. So the goal of civilized man is to refine these pleasures with a food that is more and more refined and by a culture that must be composed of a better and better quality. So effectively the fact that we eat well and drink well, meaning the quality, remains a central pleasure in the life of man, in the social life. When I say life of man, I mean men in society."

French 10: "I like to indulge myself...To live for the moment and not to go halfway, but all the way."

For the American respondents, hedonism is perceived as much more of a "me-centered" phenomenon. This pleasure seemed somewhat more ephemeral than for the French respondents, and it was often perceived as being balanced by work and responsibilities.

American 36: "If everything fits, it's very relaxing. It's very pleasurable to the palate. I do take great pleasure from eating. It gives me pleasure to consume food. It's very satisfying, the whole process...Again it goes with the balance in life. Life can be difficult, but you need to balance difficult things which I'm not saying are all awful and not enjoyable. But it's just enjoyable in a different way. You need to balance working and pleasure."

American 43: "It gets back to working hard, playing hard kind of philosophy. You need to take care of your mind and body. It's like life's simple pleasures. That's what I feel like a good bottle or good glass of wine is. Good. I like it and appreciate it. It's like having a massage. Richer life, but not in a monetary sense. Deeper."

End-State - Benevolence

Schwartz (1992) defines benevolence as "concern for the welfare of close others in everyday interaction." Although Schwartz and Ros (1995) recognized both the United

States and France as being high on this end-state, France is recognized as being more egalitarian than the United States. This end-state emerged more among the French sample. However, respondents from both culture samples expressed a desire to make others happy and to establish long-term relationships in life. The overarching linkage with benevolence was with conviviality (consequence to end-state). The ability to share a wine and a meal enables people to unite and feel closer to one another.

French 33: "I like to make people happy...because I want to share, I want to be united with them...To get to know one another, to make connection, friendship, life! It's something that is very important for me."

French 38: "Sharing and conviviality are important elements in the life of society. It allows you to get to know each other better, to talk, and to be closer together to one another."

End-State - Achievement

Schwartz (1992) defines achievement as "personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards." His research identified the United States as being high on this value dimension and France as being low (Schwartz and Ros 1995). The findings from the present dissertation research provide further confirmation of the Schwartz findings. Achievement was a desired end-state only among the Americans respondents, though this desire was not necessarily intense among all the American respondents. These respondents expressed a desire to demonstrate their knowledge and ability.

The primary linkage was between please/impress others and achievement. By ordering a quality wine and/or expensive wine, the American respondents hope to

impress others around them. Impressing others, in turn, helps one to feel like they have accomplished something in life and thus fulfill their driving desire for achievement.

American 16: "...And then as you get older you come to know what is good...And at a stage where you can afford them. Well, I'm at that stage. So it brings me extreme pleasure to be able to afford a good bottle of wine which will make a good meal which will make me happy which will make people around me happy."

American 55: "So it may be a status thing; sort of saying I know what I'm doing. I've been there. I mean I know about French wines. Not a tremendous amount, but I know more than the average Joe on the street or in the suburbs. It's a signal that I know."

End-State - Stimulation

Schwartz (1992) defines stimulation as "the presumed organismic need for variety and stimulation in order to maintain an optimal level of activation." Schwartz and Ros (1995) classify both France and the United States as high on this value dimension. Although in total, this end-state did not emerge as strong as hedonism, benevolence, and achievement, there was still a pattern evident from the qualitative analysis for both the American and the French respondents.

For both culture-groups, this end-state is important because the respondents desire want to experience new and exciting things in life that help them to create a balance with work and other responsibilities. This end-state is linked closely with escape reality and discovery.

French 04: "You have to take advantage of life. Otherwise you get stale, you'll end up doing 20 mph in the left hand lane...Is taking advantage of life always doing the same thing? It's about passion, if some people like the same thing, good for them. Luckily we are all different."

American 43: "Because I work hard, and I feel like going out is a way to reward yourself...I find my work meaningful. But it doesn't mean as much when I don't get a reward for doing it. It's another aspect of my life that makes it balanced. Because you're not a lot of fun if all you do is work. And if all you do is play, that's kind of annoying too."

Summary of Proposition 3 Research Findings

These findings suggest tentative support for the proposition that important cultural values influence desired end-states of consumers within specific cultures. The fact that only four of the eleven Schwartz dimensions emerged makes it difficult draw stronger conclusions. However, the end-states that did emerge for each culture group are consistent with the important cultural values for the respective culture group as measured by Schwartz.

Other Findings

A number of other interesting patterns emerged that were not predicted, and these are examined in this section.

Use of Metaphors

The French respondents regularly utilized metaphors to explain their thoughts and feelings. Some of the metaphors employed were highly descriptive.

French 01: "...wine really takes the sense of dimension in a complete meal, of the same kind as when I leave on a journey; it is really the discovery, at this level it is something different."

French 02: "When you look at a beautiful painting and it is beautiful, it is because your visual senses are full of colors, images, ideas, and you tell yourself that you are content, happy...your body has this same sensation of the same quality...Wine is indispensable part

that allows the food to enchant, to reveal its splendor. It is the indispensable complement."

French 13: "Because when you like a woman, when you have a great connection with her, she produces something, this woman when you are in a relationship with her, she produces odors. It's the same thing, she produces perfumes, it's what she produces when you have a relationship of love with her...it's the same thing for the land and the wine, the earth also produces the wine..."

French 23: "There are no two wines that are the same...it is subtler, like painting, immediately it is an alcoholic liquid with a taste that changes very slightly, but in reality, there is more than that and it takes time...it is a pleasure, it is like painting...it is the same thing with music, there is subtle music and others that saturate...and then there is classical music or the jazz where you never finish your discovery. Whatever your level of knowledge, you discover and it is nice, and with multiple levels it is increasingly pleasing as long as you get better..."

French 33: "...let's say there's four different meals and what's going to unite us is that we will almost certainly have the same thing in our glasses...it's the poetry of wine...It's exactly the same thing as going and looking at a painting in Italy by de Vinci or Michelangelo and say to yourself, 'How did they do that, how did they get this perfection?' There is something divine about it. They came close to touching something from God. There is a magic in wine, in the discovery of all that there is, something divine."

French 46: "A good wine for me is not necessarily a good cru but a wine full of flavors, a wine that is balanced, that is good in the mouth...You compare wine to music. You have the great classical music that is grandiose and then you have other varieties. There are the good and the bad."

Though this pattern was not predicted, it actually seems consistent with high context communication as defined by Hall (1980; 1977). High context cultures are known to talk around topics and utilize a diffuse style. The use of metaphors may be just one tool for communicating in such a manner.

Gender Roles

Gender roles emerged throughout many of the interview transcripts for both culture samples. Although women in both cultures appear to be making the wine selection, there still appear to be gender differences that exist regarding the selection.

American 16: "If it's going to be French cuisine or fine cuisine, my wife normally let's me. But if we're in California, she picks. She's from California so she picks the wine."

American 19: "Well, if I ordered the wine and I'm there with a male, if I order the wine and the wine is brought to the table and he's asked to taste it, that irritates me. It doesn't happen too often. Usually, I'm the one that ends up ordering the wine, and they do give it to me to taste."

French 20: "It depends on who I am with...normally it is the man's role, but since I do not like that too much, I always suggest red wine, and then if I'm with a woman most of the time she will suggest that I choose, she will give me the role. Otherwise, with friends or with a buddy, I can choose just as well as they can choose..."

American 22: "...if we have guests, I ask, I suppose this is sexist in most cases, I ask the, the man if he would like to order it or if I know that the woman is a wine connoisseur...men seem more inclined to assert their connoisseurial prowess than women."

French 23: "There are several cultural rules that every French person learns, such as the oldest, the men, someone who claims they are an expert, otherwise the rule is the oldest and the person who is the manliest!"

American 24: "My wife (chooses)."

French 32: "Unless there's something between the man and the woman, I think that unconsciously I would have to say that the man knows more. It's important, I think, that a man knows a little about wine and appreciates it. It's true that a man who would never drink wine, I would say to myself, 'wow, that's weird.'"

French 33: "It's curious, often times it's the guy that decides on the wine, but I think that there are chicks who are much more sensitive to the flowers of wine that some men."

American 39: "Typically, I'm the one that orders the wine, if I'm with my wife. If we're with other folks, it'd be the other party or myself. But invariably, it's supposed to be the man that orders the wine."

French 46: "It doesn't happen very often with women, it is more the men who choose. It is annoying though..."

American 58: "Well, if I'm with a man, he orders it."

American 60: "I never taste the wine like they do in restaurants, it's always the men."

Even though exceptions existed, the Americans as a whole appeared more tolerant of women ordering the wine. The French still appeared more somewhat chauvinistic. These findings might, at first, appear somewhat inconsistent with the work of Hofstede (1984) who found the French to be a more feminine culture and Americans to be a more masculine culture. However, there are still male/female roles within a "feminine" culture. Moreover, an examination of Hofstede's feminism dimension reveals that this value type actually measures relationships and achievement motivation more than it does sex differences. In fact, even though the French are recognized as being feminine, Hofstede asserts that the French are socialized very early as to accepted sex roles. Wine selection is apparently a male sex role that is slowly being broken.

Influence of Use Situation and Occasion

Although examples of the influence of use situation and occasion were included in the perception findings, this issue deserves further examination. It appears from the transcripts that the occasion and use situation significantly influence consumer perceptions of specific value dimensions and even linkages between those dimensions.

Interestingly, however, there does not appear to be much cultural variation at the attribute level. Table 4-10 illustrates the situational influences that emerged from the transcripts. The analysis reveals several intriguing findings.

First, situation and occasion are different concepts. Based upon the transcripts, occasions include events such as a birthdays, anniversaries, or special meals. Situations include the type of restaurant (i.e., upscale, nationality), the number of diners (i.e., dining alone or in a large group), individual mood (i.e., celebratory, romantic), and location (i.e., traveling, local). The occasion actually appears to influence the situation more than vice versa. For example, the respondents often dine in nicer restaurants (situation) for birthdays and anniversaries (occasion). Occasions influence the type of restaurant chosen, the other parties present, and even the mood of the respondents. In turn, each of these situational factors influences desired value.

French 04: "...if it between friends we will order a cheap bottle, if it is for a special occasion, we will order a more expensive one..."

French 33: "I think that it is more important to order a wine from the region you are in; it seems logical to me to associate them together..."

American 51: "Especially, it depends on the occasion...If it's a date, I'd like to impress the person I'm on a date with."

American 56: "And, you know, most of the time when I'm speaking of these special occasion meals, I'm with people that I want to be with...my surroundings have a huge impact on like my mood, I guess. Like a beautiful place, beautiful surroundings, is like soothing to me, it totally works for me."

Table 4-10: Influence of Situation and Occasion

Respondent	Culture	Context	Attributes	Consequences
04	F	between friends	cheap bottle	signifies friendship
	F	special occasion	expensive bottle	makes occasion more special
06	F	special occasion	higher price; better quality	
07	F	special occasion	quality	makes occasion more special
10	F	restaurant	country of origin (nationality of wine matches food)	"short-lived pleasure"
16	A	special occasion → mood	higher price; better quality	"makes a special occasion more special"; enhance evening
19	A	special occasion	higher price	makes occasion "memorable"
		other diners	higher price	please others; don't feel bad about spending money
21	A	special occasion	higher price; better quality	
22	A	special occasion	country of origin (French)	enhance evening
23	F	other diners	quality	please others
25	A	special occasion → restaurant	higher price; better quality	conviviality
30	A	special occasion → restaurant	higher price	return on investment
32	F	restaurant	price	conviviality
33	F	restaurant	quantity (pitcher in casual restaurant)	
34	F	occasion	price	
37	F	restaurant	quality	discovery
40	F	restaurant	quantity (bottle in nice restaurant)	conviviality
43	A	other diners	quantity	
		mood	grape	
45	A	special occasion	higher price	enhance evening
46	F	restaurant	waiter recommend	
48	A	special occasion → restaurant	higher price	makes occasion more special
51	A	occasion	age of wine	impress others
52	A	mood	flavor	
		season	heavier wine in winter	
56	A	occasion → mood	quality	relax
58	A	special occasion → restaurant	quantity quality	enhance evening
60	A	restaurant	country of origin (nationality of wine match restaurant)	follow tradition

American 58: "Well, on special occasions, I'm generally going to be at a better restaurant and they'll have better wine selection. You know if you go to the old Italian dive down the street, you're gonna get a wine in a jug, so there's no point to try and order a nice wine."

"I usually ask the waiter for a recommendation if it's a nice place. If it's not, I usually order the house wine."

Second, it appears that occasions and situations evoke social norms more than cultural values. For example, whether dining with family, friends, or co-workers, the French appear to emphasize social consequences and end-states. However, these same dining partners greatly influence the social norm invoked. For example, one should spend more on a wine when dining with a connoisseur or one should order a better quality of wine when with a date. Similarly, the types of cultural values influencing consequences and end-states may not change according to the nationality of the restaurant, although social norms dictate that one should order wine of the same nationality.

French 10: "I was at a Romanian restaurant, and so I drank Romanian wine."

French 23: "...if you were invited, then you make the wine equal the importance of the invitation."

American 30: "...so we might go to a pricier restaurant where they charge more for the same bottle of wine as Outback...So if you're at a special occasion at a pricey restaurant, I wouldn't touch a twelve dollar bottle of wine."

French 33: "If I'm in New York because sometimes I go to New York, and if I go to a restaurant, I'll order an American wine, a Californian wine that will be okay. I try to adapt to my situation...I will try to adapt according to the place, the geographic situation I'm in."

French 34: "I like the beverage to be from the same country that the food is from."

French 37: "At a bistrot you order a good, small house bottle."

Third, several examples provide evidence that a consumption experience can actually add value to the occasion itself. For example, by ordering a nice wine on a special occasion, the occasion is actually made more special.

American 16: "If I'm really in the celebrating mood, I'm really celebrating something worth it...Then I'll pay more...I think a good wine will make a special occasion more special."

American 19: "...in cases like special occasions, a birthday or an anniversary or whatever, then I might be tempted to spend a little more just because it's a special occasion and not feel bad about spending that extra amount to have that nice bottle out...you want it to be memorable."

Finally, the situation itself may explain some of the cultural differences that emerged at the consequence level. For example, an interesting difference related to the size of the dining party emerged between the two samples. The French have a tendency to dine in groups of four or more people, whereas the Americans are much more likely to dine as a couple. This fact alone could support the emphasis by the French upon more social consequences. Several quotes illustrate these differences.

French 03: "It is about being among friends, sharing a moment together, so for me because I do not work, feasting is important."

French 08: "A bottle is really for celebrating something. A bottle for two is okay, but a bottle with lots of people is good and you are sure to finish it. Just the fact that you choose the bottle together makes you want to drink it together..."

American 12: "My wife and I go out to dinner on our own."

American 29: "Usually, it's just my wife and I."

Obviously, the context selected has a significant influence upon the value dimensions and linkages that emerge. Although one might expect the context of dining on a special occasion to evoke similar consequences among both culture samples, it did not. Again, the French focus on relationships and outer-direction relative to Americans (Hofstede 1984; Trompenaars 1993) may partially explain these differences.

Summary of Analysis and Findings

This chapter has reviewed the data collection and analysis undertaken to test the research propositions presented. The chapter has also detailed the findings related to each specific proposition. The data suggest that national culture influences the perception and importance of the content and structure of customer value hierarchy. Thus, there appears to be support for the theoretical model developed in Chapter 2.

An additional tool to summarize the research findings is an examination of the summary value hierarchies. As seen in Appendix F, two culture-specific summary value hierarchies were constructed. It should be noted that all of the dimensions and linkages discussed in the "perception" section are not included in the summary value hierarchies. The hierarchies include only those linkages that met the specified cutoff level of six. Therefore, although some value dimensions may have been mentioned multiple times, they were not included in the hierarchy if they did not link to at least one other value dimension at least six times. The shading in the circles represents the number of ladders that contained the respective dimension. It is possible for a dimension to be included in multiple ladders for the same respondent as long as the dimension links to different dimensions in each ladder for that respondent. Also, the specific types of dimensions that

were employed by the independent coders, are included in each circle. The line patterns represent the percentage of respondents in each culture sample that linked the two respective dimensions.

The two culture-specific summary value hierarchies reveal a number of interesting differences that provide further support for the "importance" and "perception" propositions tested throughout the chapter. First, national culture appears to influence the way value dimensions are linkages are perceived. Second, national culture also appears to influence the importance placed upon specific dimensions and linkages. Second, all three levels of the customer value hierarchy reveal cultural differences, though the consequence level appears to be the most sensitive to cultural influences. Third, one must go beyond broad, simplified dimension levels (i.e., CA, AA, FC, PC, SC, and ES) in order to truly understand how and where cultural influences emerge. A more detailed discussion of these overall findings is discussed in the next chapter along with both theoretical and practical implications.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the research findings described in Chapter 4. Following a discussion of how each of the specific findings from Chapter 4 support and/or diverge from the culture literature, overall patterns and implications for customer value theory are examined. Next, managerial implications are discussed. The chapter then concludes with a discussion of limitations and directions for future research.

Review of Research Questions, Propositions and Findings

As discussed in Chapter 1, this research addresses two important research questions:

3. *Does culture impact upon the content of the customer value hierarchy?*
   c. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
   d. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*

4. *Does culture impact upon the structure of the customer value hierarchy?*
   c. *Does culture influence consumer perceptions of linkages between attributes, consequences, and end-states?*
   d. *Does culture influence the importance placed by consumers upon linkages between specific attributes, consequences, and end-states?*

Specific propositions were developed to address these research questions. Tables 5-1 and 5-2 relate the research propositions to the original research questions and summarize the results of the empirical testing reviewed in Chapter 4. As concluded in Chapter 4, culture does appear to influence the content and structure of the customer

Table 5-1: Research Propositions Related to Perceptions

Research Proposition	Findings	Research Question Addressed
P1: For two diverse cultures, there will be consistent differences in consumers' perceptions of (a) attributes, (b) consumption consequences, and (c) end-states for the same product or service.	Supported	#1
P2: For two diverse cultures, there will be differences in consumers' perceptions of linkages between value dimensions (including attribute-attribute linkages, attribute-consequence linkages, consequence-consequence linkages, and consequence-end-state linkages) for the same product or service.	Supported	#2
P3: For the same product or service, important values specific to a culture will correlate with end-states that emerge from customer value hierarchies for that respective culture.	Limited Support	#1

Table 5-2: Research Propositions Related to Importance

Research Proposition	Findings	Research Question Addressed
P4: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on abstract attributes than American consumers.	Not Supported	#1
P5: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on concrete attributes than French consumers.	Not Supported	#1
P6: For the same product or service, American consumers will place more importance on functional consequences than French consumers.	Supported	#1
P7: For the same product or service, French consumers will place more importance on social consequences than American consumers.	Supported	#1
P8: For the same product or service, value hierarchies will be more complex for French consumers than for American consumers.	Not Supported	#2
P9: For the same product or service, there will be no significant difference in the importance placed on personal consequences between American consumers and French consumers (though the actual subtype of personal consequence will likely differ).	Supported	#1
P10: For the same product or service, functional consequences are more likely to intercede between attributes and personal and social consequences for American consumers than for French consumers.	Not Supported	#2
P11: For the same product or service, attributes are more likely to link directly to personal and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for French consumers than for American consumers.	Supported	#2

value hierarchy. This influence is in terms of how consumers perceive value dimensions and linkages and also in terms of the importance that consumers place upon specific value dimensions and linkages.

Discussion of Research Findings

This section examines the findings presented in Chapter 4 in terms of the cultural values literature. Specifically, the research of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Hall (1980, 1977), Hofstede (1984, 1980), Schwartz (1992), Trompenaars (1993), and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) are considered.

Discussion of the "Importance" Findings

Chapter 2 identified three cultural dimensions on which France and the United States appeared to be most dissimilar: implicit/explicit, achievement/ascription, monochronic/polychronic. These dimensions were utilized to justify the "Importance" propositions. Propositions 4-7 and 9 concern the influence of culture upon the importance of the content of the customer value hierarchy. Propositions 8, 10 and 11 examine the influence of culture upon the importance of the structure of the customer value hierarchy.

Propositions 4 and 5

No support was found for propositions 4 and 5, because both culture samples were found to place equal importance upon concrete attributes and abstract attributes. In fact, though not significant, the direction of the difference between the samples for

concrete attributes was contrary to the proposition. Although the lack of statistical support may at first seem opposed to the literature, the findings in fact may be congruent with the literature. For example, because the French are known to communicate in a more diffuse (i.e., circuitous and ambiguous) manner, they may have actually communicated more types of attributes than did the American respondents because of their verbosity. The product type may have also been a factor, as wine is very much a tangible product, and concrete attributes should be expected to be important to *any* wine consumer. Moreover, abstract attributes can be difficult to evaluate with a credence product such as wine. For example, flavor cannot truly be determined until one has actually tasted the wine, and as a result, may be more important for received value judgements than for desired value. Interestingly, the more qualitative "perception" analysis reveals significant differences between the two culture samples in meaning, valence, and linkages for specific attribute subtypes.

Proposition 6

The statistical analysis provided support for Proposition 6. As proposed, the American respondents did place greater importance upon functional consequences than did the French respondents. The American emphasis upon inductive analysis (Trompenaars 1993) and explicit cues (Hall 1977) appears to support this conclusion. It should be reiterated that this proposition examined relative differences, because overall, functional consequences appeared to be important to the French respondents as well the American respondents. Again, the "perception" analysis reveals greater detail as to the specific types of functional consequences considered. Both culture groups exhibit

similarities and differences in terms of the meaning, valence, and linkages for specific types of functional consequences.

Proposition 7

Proposition 7 was also supported by the data. This proposition stated that French consumers would place more importance upon social consequences than would the American consumers. This finding provides additional confirmation to the research of Hofstede (1984), Trompenaars (1993), and Schwartz (1992). For example, Hofstede (1984) finds that feminine national cultures such as France emphasize caring for others much more than more masculine national cultures such as the United States. And Schwartz (1992) asserts that egalitarian national cultures such as France emphasize respect for others more than achievement-oriented national cultures such as the United States.

These findings do not imply that Americans do not care about social consequences. Rather, they simply indicate that the French place relatively more importance than do Americans on social consequences. In fact, the "perception" analysis reveals significant differences between the two culture samples regarding the meaning, valence, and linkages for a number of specific subtypes of social consequences.

Proposition 9

The statistical analyses also revealed support for Proposition 9. Proposition 9 states that there will be no significant differences on the importance of personal consequences between French and American respondents. Though not statistically

tested, the theoretical reasoning behind this proposition argued that, although there would be no overall differences between the two cultures for the importance of personal consequences as a whole, there would be differences in the types of personal consequences emphasized. For example, achievement-oriented national cultures such as the United States emphasize achievement-oriented consequences, and ascription-oriented national cultures such as France emphasize more hedonistic consequences. These specific subdimension differences are evident in the "perception" analysis.

Propositions 10 and 11

Proposition 10 posited that attributes were more likely to link *through* functional consequences to higher level consequences (i.e., personal and social) for the American sample than for the French sample. Proposition 11 posited that attributes were more likely to link *directly to* personal and social consequences (bypassing functional consequences) for the French sample than for the American sample. Proposition 10 was not supported by the data, but Proposition 11 was supported.

The lack of support for Proposition 10 indicates that, to a great extent, both culture groups cognitively link concrete and abstract attributes with functional consequences. In fact, attribute~functional consequence linkages are the most common linkages that emerged from the two culture-specific implication matrices. Given that functional consequences often involve the most basic, utilitarian interaction between a consumer and a product, attribute~functional consequence linkages appear to be almost a "given" for any consumer, regardless of culture membership. Even though the structure appears to be similar between the two groups at a broad level, interesting differences

emerge when specific subtypes of dimensions are considered in the "perception" analyses.

Given the lack of support for Proposition 10, the existence of support for Proposition 11 is even more interesting. French consumers appear to be relatively more likely than American consumers to link concrete and abstract attributes directly to personal and social consumption consequences. This finding supports the literature (Hall 1977; Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 1993) by demonstrating that consumers from diffuse, polychronic cultures are much more likely than consumers from specific, monochronic cultures to link attributes directly to higher-level consequences. At the same time, consumers from both culture types appear likely to think linearly when considering product/service attributes and cognitively link these attributes to functional consequences. Even more interesting differences emerge when specific subtypes of dimensions are considered in the "perception" analyses.

Proposition 8

Proposition 8, which predicted more complex hierarchies for the French sample than for the American sample, was not supported. The culture literature appeared to suggest that French hierarchies would be more complex. However, the opposite was actually found. Rather than refuting the culture literature, this finding may actually reveal a limitation in the way complexity was operationalized. If complexity represents the number and length of ladders (as operationalized in this research), then the American respondents did indeed produce more complex hierarchies. However, if complexity represents ambiguity and unconventional linkages (i.e., concrete attributes directly to

high-end consequences), then the French respondents likely produced more complex hierarchies.

In hindsight, the fact that American respondents' hierarchies were more complex may actually be consistent with the literature. Highly specific, inductive analysis may actually result in more complex hierarchies, because one must consider all the facts (i.e., all appropriate attributes and consequences). Moreover, low context cultures (a cultural value that was not considered for this proposition) such as the United States, emphasize clear, explicit communication which might actually result in the elicitation of more value dimensions and ladders. In fact, although the French respondents as a whole were more verbose (an average five lines of text units per question as compared to an average two lines for the American respondents), the American respondents actually communicated more and longer ladders.

In addition to the explanations above, one other alternative explanation may support the surprising finding. The French respondents talked a great deal more than did the American respondents. Although the French ladders were fewer in number and shorter in length than for the Americans, the French respondents often elaborated a great deal more about each dimension and also about the overall importance of wine. This explanation might actually be consistent with the implicit/explicit dimension. By going around and around to communicate a thought, the French tendency for circular communication and analysis may have resulted in fewer and shorter ladders simply because the interviewers were unable to keep the respondents "on track". Conversely, the implicit/explicit dimension suggests that Americans are more efficient in decision

making, which initially would suggest simpler, linear ladders. However, efficiency also implies consideration of all the facts before making a decision, which could actually result in more overall ladders.

Summary of "Importance" Findings

Overall, the tests of the "Importance" propositions reveal several interesting findings. First, culture appears to impact the importance of the *content* of the value hierarchy at the consequence level more than at the attribute level. The lack of support for the attribute propositions (P4-P5) and the significant support for the consequence propositions (P6, P7, and P9) confirm this assertion. Respondents from both culture samples placed similar degrees of importance upon concrete attributes and abstract attributes.

Second, culture does appear to also influence the importance of the *structure* of the value hierarchy. The support for Proposition 11 but lack of support for Proposition 10 appear to indicate that Americans are more likely to cognitively employ one path (i.e., through functional consequences) between attributes and higher-level consequences, whereas the French are more likely to employ two paths. The French may cognitively link functional consequences between attributes and higher-level consequences, or they may cognitively link attributes directly to higher-level consequences.

Third, the lack of support for the complexity proposition (P8) appears to conflict with the culture literature. However, the conflicting findings may be more the result of poor operationalization of the construct rather than flawed theory, as the approach

employed simply measured length and number of ladders rather than the number and variety of unique linkages between value dimensions.

Finally, the cultural dimensions that address communication patterns (i.e., diffuse/specific, monochronic/polychronic) appear to explicate the broad patterns in the data that were tested in the "importance" propositions. However, other cultural dimensions appear to better explain more specific patterns in the data, especially in terms of content and perceptions of value dimension subtypes.

Discussion of the "Perception" Findings

Propositions 1-3 address the influence of culture upon the way consumers perceive the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. These propositions were examined in terms of the meaning, valence, and linkages between specific dimensions. These findings will now be discussed in terms of the culture literature.

In addition to the three cultural dimensions utilized to support the "Importance" propositions, a number of other cultural values have been identified in the literature. Although France and the United States have not been identified as being polar opposites on these dimensions of cultural values, they may help to explain some of the findings from the "Perception" analyses. These other cultural dimensions are briefly reviewed below.

Uncertainty Avoidance

"Uncertainty Avoidance" represents the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened and unsure about ambiguous and undefined situations. France is recognized

as being much higher than the United States on uncertainty avoidance. Cultures high in uncertainty avoidance often design rules and rituals to help reduce the level of uncertainty. Similarly, these cultures often exhibit higher degrees of nationalism out of the fear of losing their cultural identity (Hofstede 1984, 1980).

Inner-Direction/Outer-Direction and Individualism/Collectivism.

Though France and the United States are both recognized as being inner-directed and individualistic, France is recognized as being relatively less inner-directed and relatively less individualistic than the United States. These dimensions are closely related and, as such, should influence customer value perceptions similarly. For example, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) assert that inner-directed cultures are guided more by personal judgements and decisions, whereas outer-directed cultures are guided more by relationships and judgements of the outside world. Similarly, Hofstede (1984), Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993), and Schwartz and Ros (1995) all maintain that certain less individualistic cultures focus on duties and the enhancement of the group, whereas more individualist cultures focus more upon autonomy, pleasure-seeking, and enhancement of individual rights, motivations, and attitudes.

Propositions 1 and 2

Propositions 1 and 2 stated that cultural differences would be evident in the perception of the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. The findings indicate that there are indeed differences in how French consumers and American consumers perceive customer value dimensions. Many of these differences are consistent with the cultural values literature. However, there also some surprises that indicate

cultural values cannot always explain cultural differences. In these instances, negative case analysis helped to reveal possible alternative explanations. The two propositions are discussed for each culture sample individually. Specific themes that are consistent with the culture literature are examined.

French Sample

Social Pattern. The most powerful pattern among the French respondents was the social influence upon the perceptions of dimensions and linkages. As revealed in the "Importance" discussion, the French often attach social meaning to elements of the customer value hierarchy. Similarly, many hierarchy dimension linkages involved social consequences, and the valence of these linkages is determined by social perceptions. Two closely related social patterns were evident: 1) an altruistic desire to please others, and 2) a desire to follow social norms. These findings are especially consistent with the ascription/achievement research and outer-directed/inner-directed research of Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) and the femininity/masculinity research and collectivism/individualism research of Hofstede (1984).

Regarding the altruistic pattern, a desire for relationships and sharing among others was especially evident with the French "conviviality" perception. This consumption consequence is linked directly and indirectly with many of the dimensions in the French hierarchy, including quality, complement the meal, loosen senses, color, benevolence, and hedonism. The French respondents also expressed an altruistic desire to please others. Unlike the American respondents, there appears to be no associated dissonance with this desire. Even the negative linkages with "loosen senses" are

consistent with the literature. Over-intoxication is not linked with body comfort, as one might naturally expect. Rather, it is linked with the inability to interact socially.

Given these findings, one would also expect the French to be more collectivist than Americans in general. It is true that Hofstede (1984) found the United States to be the most individualist country in the world, but the French were found to be somewhat individualistic, too. However, Schwartz (1992, p. 107-108) argues that "a strong cultural emphasis on voluntary action to benefit others is compatible with a view of the person as an autonomous agent, not as an embedded member of a collectivity." In fact, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) actually found the French to be much more communitarian and more outer-directed than Americans. The French traditionally derive meaning and pleasure from social interaction and social hierarchy (Hofstede 1984; Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 1993), and this is consistent with the emphasis on social interaction that emerged in the present study.

Social norms were evident especially with the perceptions of "complement meal" and "loosen senses." The French respondents linked "complement meal" primarily to "follow tradition" and "conviviality." Social norms appear to greatly influence the French respondents and even the American respondents to a degree. This should not be surprising, given that humans are social beings and often follow pre-established social rules. The perception of "loosen senses" is interesting because it is totally absent among the Americans. Perhaps there is an American social taboo to admit that intoxication can be a positive state. This taboo could be the result of the Protestant influence on American society versus the Catholic influence on French society (Trompenaars 1933).

The French, in fact, appeared to be more honest about admitting that they are controlled by social barriers and that wine helps to overcome those barriers. This need for overcoming social barriers is consistent with the evidence of greater hierarchy in French society than in American society identified by Schwartz (1992), Trompenaars (1993), and Hofstede (1984). The idea of social norms is also consistent with uncertainty avoidance as discussed below.

Uncertainty Avoidance Pattern.

The second major pattern that emerged among the French respondents was an emphasis on avoiding uncertain situations and avoiding risk. The French cited a number of decision rules or norms, including "complement meal" (i.e., the matching of wine color to food choice), "match occasion," "match price of meal," and "match season." Though some of these consequences were present among the American respondents, they appeared to be more influential and of greater variety among the French respondents. Consistent with the uncertainty avoidance research of Hofstede (1984, 1980), the use of such rules, norms or traditions may actually represent a way of managing uncertain decisions. The use of norms and traditions is also consistent with other research that shows in high context cultures (Hall 1977) and high ascription cultures (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 1993), people define their identities based upon other people and their place in society.

Another example was the French emphasis upon waiter recommendations. When selecting the wine, the French respondents appear to be more willing to ask for help than do the American respondents. Again, this is consistent with Hofstede's (1984) findings

on uncertainty avoidance. Waiters may be perceived as having superior knowledge regarding wine and therefore are perceived as an authority figure. In turn, waiter recommendations help to reduce the anxiety that arises from the uncertainty associated with selecting a wine. The linkage of waiter recommendation to discovery is also consistent with uncertainty avoidance, as a waiter recommendation is actually a much safer method of discovering new wines than simply making choices based upon one's own knowledge.

One additional example consistent with the literature was the perceived negative linkage between "country/region of origin" and "cultured." If a wine is from a culture that the French do not like, they are likely to consider the wine of poor quality and drinking it would be uncultured. These findings portray the French as highly ethnocentric and nationalistic, confirming Hofstede's (1984) assertion that countries high in uncertainty avoidance are more likely to exhibit nationalistic tendencies.

Discovery Pattern. The French sample also exhibited an emphasis on the consequence "discovery", and they linked this consequence with the end-state "stimulation." At first, this pattern appears almost to be a paradox with uncertainty avoidance. At the same time the French respondents try and limit risks, they want to experience new and exciting things. However, discovery and stimulation seem to be necessary to enjoying life, which is somewhat consistent with polychronicism and feminism. Polychronic cultures such as France see life as a "dance," and discovery may be just one method of enjoying the dance (Trompenaars 1993)."

Hedonism Pattern. Closely related to discovery and stimulation is the end-state "hedonism." The French linked hedonism with conviviality. It appears that social interaction helps the French to fulfill an ultimate desire for pleasure. This French "joie de vivre" is very consistent with the Hofstede's (1984) feminism dimension and individualism dimension and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars' (1993) inner-direction dimension.

American Sample

Inner-Directed Pattern. One pattern among the American respondents was a "me-oriented" focus in the perceived meaning, valence and linkages of value hierarchy elements. For example, unlike the French, who linked "complement meal" with social consequences, the American respondents linked the same consequence to personal consequences such as relax, enhance evening, and hedonism. This finding is consistent with a cultural focus on oneself over others, as identified by Hofstede (1984), Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) and Schwartz (1992).

Even when social consequences were perceived, they were often desired in order to fulfill inner-directed goals, such as achievement and success. For example, the American respondents actually emphasized "please/impress others" more than did the French respondents. Initially, these findings were somewhat surprising, given the culture literature. However, some Americans expressed negative reactions to such conformity. Apparently, there is both pressure to conform and pressure to please oneself, and the result is dissonance. This is somewhat inconsistent with the strong individualist focus of Americans identified by Hofstede (1984) and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993).

However, Schwartz and Ros (1995) assert that individualism can actually be compatible with conformity and cite the United States as an example: "Because American individualism rejects tradition and authority, the individual must inevitably look to others to confirm his or her judgments. Refusal to accept established opinion leads to anxious conformity to the opinions of one's peers" (p. 20).

Achievement Pattern. Consistent with inner-direction, the most prevailing pattern among the American respondents was an emphasis upon personal achievement. This pattern emerged at both the consequence and end-state levels. For example, the consequence "satisfaction" was perceived only by the American respondents. This emphasis upon satisfaction is consistent with the American focus on achievement motivation and success through actions and decisions, as recognized by Hofstede (1984) and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961). In fact, Hofstede (1984) found that national cultures low in uncertainty avoidance and low in power distance, such as the United States, are more likely to value motivation through achievement, and emphasize wealth, rewards, and satisfaction relative to national cultures such as France.

Similarly, "waiter recommendation" revealed the American emphasis on achievement. When Americans perceived waiter recommendation, it was generally negatively valenced. Americans have little trust in waiter recommendations and prefer to select a wine on their own rather than take the risk of a poor recommendation. In fact, asking for a waiter recommendation almost appears to imply failure for some American respondents, and as a result, many respondents are unwilling to ask for help. Given Americans' traditional low uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1984), perhaps achievement-

oriented Americans believe that asking for help is a sign of weakness or lack of knowledge.

Another achievement linkage emerged with the perception of "price." The Americans respondents appear to be more value-oriented than do the French respondents. Whereas the French want to save money to avoid financial risk, the Americans desire a return. This again is consistent with the American desire for achievement and successful decision making.

Finally, even when social consequences were mentioned, the altruistic pattern evident among the French was not nearly as evident among the Americans. For example, Americans often emphasized impressing others as a way of furthering personal desires for status and/or to establish that one "knows" what s/he is doing, rather than simply trying to please others.

Other Cultural Influences

Other cultural influences were evident across the two culture samples, and thus are discussed as a group in this section. Cultural values are not the only transmitter of cultural differences. Culture influences society through many other factors, including customs, religion, education, and social institutions. For example, the decision rules discussed earlier represent forms of social customs or norms.

Another cultural influence that emerged includes that of social institutions, such as business organizations and the consumer marketplace. For example, the French respondents perceived waiter recommendations as a way to discover new wines while reducing the risk of a poor decision. One alternative explanation to the positive French

emphasis upon waiter recommendations may be that French waiters are much more experienced and better trained in wine than their American counterparts. Similarly, the differences between the two samples on quantity/container may actually be less the result of cultural values and more the result of industry characteristics. The availability of half bottles and pitchers of wine likely result from a more developed wine infrastructure among restaurants and the wine distribution industry in France, an unwillingness among American restaurants to offer comparable products, and/or simply a negative perception among American restaurant diners to accept such alternatives.

"Grape" was an attribute mentioned only by the American sample. Rather than represent any major differences in cultural values, this finding is likely due to differences in history, industry and established marketing practices. The French do not refer to grapes but rather utilize regions to represent grapes. For example, a red Bordeaux (i.e., region) is expected to be a Cabernet Sauvignon (i.e., grape), and the grape is simply understood when one orders a red Bordeaux. Similarly, both culture samples sometimes utilize name, brand, or vineyard interchangeably.

Finally, the French "health/body comfort" perceptions provide an example of cultural biases based upon rumors and myths. A number of the French respondents could not cite why they believed that white wine causes headaches; instead, they simply attributed it to "common knowledge." This perception raises the question as to whether the association between white/rosé wines and sickness is simply a myth or actually has some scientific justification. Members of both culture groups also cited the popular press when stating that wine in general has health benefits. These findings appear to reveal

how powerful word-of-mouth and the popular press can be when health issues are involved.

Proposition 3

Proposition 3 stated that cultural values important to a specific culture would emerge as desired end-states of that respective culture. As discussed in Chapter 4, several end-states emerged from the data, including hedonism (both samples), benevolence (French only), stimulation (French only), and achievement (Americans only). These desired end-states are somewhat consistent with the important cultural values for the respective culture group as measured by Schwartz and Ros (1995).

For example, the most common end-state among both culture samples was "hedonism." Though the linkages were different, the perception of this end-state is consistent with the work of Schwartz and Ros (1995) and also with the work of Hofstede (1984). Even if the culture literature was not consistent with the hedonism theme, this overall emphasis upon pleasure would likely be expected, given the product and consumption context employed. Fine dining and wine consumption both represent principally pleasure-oriented activities. Similarly, the emergence of "stimulation" for the French and "achievement" for the Americans also provide additional confirmation for the findings of Schwartz (1992). .

The one inconsistency involved "benevolence." Though Schwartz and Ros (1995) did not find the French to be a necessarily benevolent culture, the French respondents in the present research strongly emphasized this desired end-state. Though consistent with the cultural value dimensions (i.e., feminism, ascription) identified by

other researchers, the findings are not consistent with Schwartz' "benevolence" findings for France. One reason may be that Schwartz' benevolence measure actually appears to incorporate items that are similar to those in Hofstede's (1984) individualism/collectivism dimension. The United States is generally recognized as being the most individualistic country in the world, but France is also classified as individualistic. Individualism is based upon the principal of expressing independence and individuality. Collectivism stresses collective achievement and social harmony at the expense of individual freedom. As some might not expect, individualism does not imply selfishness. Individualism refers to how one defines his/her identity, but it does not refer necessarily to interaction. The masculinity/femininity dimension actually concerns interaction better, addressing the common problem - "do we interact *with* others or *for* others" (Usunier 1996). Typically masculine cultures favor assertiveness, achievement, and caring little for others. Typically feminine cultures favor nurturing roles, social welfare, and caring *for* others.

Summary of "Perception" Findings

Overall, the findings from "Perception" propositions 1-3 reveal that culture does impact the perception of specific value hierarchy dimensions. Culture influences not only the meaning of specific dimensions but also the linkages between dimensions and the valence of those linkages. Moreover, the findings for both samples are relatively consistent with the culture literature.

The French respondents emphasize social consequences and related linkages, a finding consistent with the work of Hofstede (1984, 1980), Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993), and Hall (1977). Wine consumption and selection appears to be

driven by the desire for social interaction and social relationships. In fact, positive social interaction often overrides other consumption consequences such as saving money and pleasing the palate. For example, a bad tasting wine does not ruin the dining experience if positive social interaction occurs.

At the same time, the French respondents are not exactly risk takers. Consistent with the research of Hofstede (1984, 1980), they invoke social norms and decision rules in order to manage uncertainty. These norms involves numerous matching rules, such as matching wine color to the meal, matching wine price to the price of the meal, matching the wine to the season, and following tradition. They also rely on waiter recommendations to minimize risk while at the same time allowing them to discover new wines.

Finally, the French exhibit a sense of "joie de vivre" which is reflected in their desire for social interaction, their desire for the liberating affects of alcohol, their desire for discovery, and their desire to simply enjoy a good wine and meal. This hedonistic theme is again consistent with the findings of Hofstede (1984), Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993), and Schwartz and Ros (1995).

The American respondents place relatively more emphasis upon self-centered and personal achievement-oriented consequences and linkages, a finding consistent with the work of Hofstede (1984, 1980), Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993), and Schwartz and Ros (1995). Wine consumption appears to be driven by the desire to prove one's ability to oneself and to others. Satisfaction and an enhanced evening often depend upon the selection of wine. In fact, for some respondents, a wine that is poorly matched to the

meal can result in an unsuccessful evening regardless of whether positive social interaction occurred. The desire to prove oneself while at the same time acting independently results in a conflict between following social traditions and impressing others. For example, the American respondents are reluctant to accept waiter recommendations partly because they believe that can make a choice on their own.

As a result of this fast paced, achievement-oriented lifestyle, the American respondents also express a desire to relax and escape from daily pressures. Similarly, they also express a desire to simply enjoy the pleasures of wine and dining out. Like the French, this hedonistic theme is consistent with the findings of Hofstede (1984), and somewhat consistent with the findings of Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993), and Schwartz and Ros (1995).

In terms of overall end-states, few actually emerged. This fact may be due to a number of factors. First, end-states are difficult for both consumers and researchers to access. Second, all types of end-states do not necessarily drive consumer perceptions and motivation. Although they may always be present in a person's makeup, their emergence may be highly context dependent. Finally, only certain cultural value types may emerge because they represent more consistent value types that have been confirmed across multiple studies and by multiple researchers. As such, these value types are likely to be more consistent predictors of consumer perceptions and possibly behavior.

In sum, all of the findings cannot be explained by cultural values. Other cultural factors, including social norms and social institutions appear to influence perceptions of the customer value hierarchy. Finally, a number of cultural similarities also exist.

Though these do not necessarily indicate the presence of cultural universals, they do appear to indicate the presence of segments of consumers who desire similar value from a wine.

Implications for Customer Value Theory

This section steps back from the details of each proposition and examines overall implications for customer value theory.

Culture and Customer Value

This research indicates that culture appears to weave its influence throughout all levels of the customer value hierarchy. The findings do appear to provide some confirmation that this influence begins at the end-state level and filters down indirectly throughout the hierarchy, especially in terms of importance. However, culture also appears to impact specific consequences and attributes directly through differences in the perceived meaning, valence, and linkages between hierarchy dimensions. For example, even the color of a wine can mean different things to different cultures.

Although the findings provide evidence that culture influences cognitive value structures of consumers, these cultural influences may not show up if one only examines attribute-level and low-level consequence cognitions. Researchers must attempt to understand all levels of customer value perceptions in order better understand and predict consumer perceptions and motivation. Moreover, researchers should examine both the *importance* and the *perceptions* of value dimensions and linkages.

Even though consumers may perceive a large number of dimensions and exhibit cultural differences in those perceptions, only certain dimension and/or linkages may actually influence behavior. For example, although cultural differences emerged in the perception of name/brand, this dimension may have little influence upon whether consumers actually select a wine since name/brand may not be the most important decision driver for all consumers. Conversely, consumers may place varying levels of importance upon dimensions and/or linkages even though they perceive those dimensions and linkages similarly. For example, both samples perceived a linkage between price and quality and between country of origin and quality, even though country of origin may be more important to consumers from only one of the sample groups.

Additionally, focusing upon consumption consequences may be more valuable for understanding and possibly even predicting consumer consumption behavior and motivation than simply focusing upon product and service attributes. In fact, a focus on the attribute level may actually mask cultural differences that can only be understood at the consequence level. For example, the consumers in this research desired similar attributes. However, the consequences of these attributes often revealed distinct differences in the value created by those attributes.

Consumption consequences also appear to represent a valuable tool for linking cultural values with product attributes. As argued by Lai (1995), consumption consequences may be a much more effective explanatory variable than simply correlating values with consumer behavior. Cultural values, in and of themselves, are sometimes difficult to grasp or explain for the consumer and may not always influence all members

of a society. It may be through the application of those values (i.e., when people interact with products and services) that cultural differences truly emerge.

Thus, these findings are in accord with much of current anthropological and consumer behavior theories, especially postmodernist theory. Postmodernism argues that although global cultural convergence appears to be occurring, it is only an illusion (Bouchet 1995; Costa 1998; Costa and Bamossy 1995; Ger 1997; Ger and Belk 1996). The reason is that even products that at first appear to be global may be used by consumers in very different ways and for very different reasons. Moreover, these findings may also support the arguments made by anthropologists that artifactual and observational research methods are important approaches for understanding cultural patterns.

Culture also influences the cues that people utilize when determining quality of a product, especially credence products. This may indicate that credence products and services are more vulnerable to cultural differences. Although both culture samples utilize price, region/country of origin, and name/brand/vineyard as quality cues, the meaning and valence of these cues can be very different. For example, the Americans believe that certain countries, notably France, produce high quality wines and other countries, Chile, produce high value wines. Conversely, the French have a tendency to utilize their feelings towards a culture as a signal of the quality of wine from that culture. These patterns may even be accentuated when consumers have limited knowledge or experience with the product.

Cultural Values and Customer Value

This research provides evidence that cultural values at least partially influence customer value perceptions and the importance of value dimensions and linkages. The nature of the literature on cultural values represents an interesting pattern. It appears that certain culture theories better explain the *structure* of the customer value hierarchy, and other culture theories better explain the *content* of the customer value hierarchy.

For example, the culture research of Hall (1977) and Trompenaars (1993) are especially valuable in explaining overall structure patterns. Hall's (1977) concepts of context, space, and time all relate closely to communication and analysis patterns. Similarly, Trompenaars' (1993) concepts of specific versus diffuse analysis concern communication and analysis patterns. These patterns, though a product of cultural values, represent a way that people communicate and analyze more than they represent goal structures. As such, they appear to explain and predict the overall structure of customer value hierarchies better than they explain and predict the meaning of individual elements of those hierarchies. For example, the French diffuse approach to analysis may partially explain the direct linkages between attributes and all three types of consequences. And the American emphasis upon specific analysis and low context communication may partially explain the greater complexity of the American hierarchies.

Conversely, the research of Hofstede (1984), Schwartz (1992), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), and Trompenaars' (1993) individualism/collectivism, inner-directed/outer-directed, and achievement/ascription dimensions are especially valuable in explaining content patterns. These studies address cultural value dimensions as goals that

guide societal behavior. As such, they appear to explain and predict the slight differences between cultures in meaning for specific value subdimensions and why specific dimensions link together.

Although the findings provide some confirmation that dimensions of cultural values do appear to explain differences in the content and structure of customer value perceptions, additional large-scale confirmation is needed to show how cultural values can be used to predict similarities and differences in the customer value hierarchy. It must not be forgotten that consumers are individuals and often think and behave in ways that are incongruent with the cultural values in which they find themselves immersed.

In fact, cultural values and evoked end-states may sometimes appear to be counter to each other. As a result, the pursuit of two contradictory end-states can result in dissonance. For example, the American respondents struggle with a desire to purchase a wine that will impress others while at the same time wanting to pursue their own personal preferences. Similarly, the French struggle with a desire for discovering new wines while at the same time avoiding the risk of a poor selection. These struggles result in a dissonance that consumers attempt to reduce. The Americans apparently reduce this dissonance by focusing on the personal achievement that results from choosing a wine that pleases and impresses others. The French apparently reduce the dissonance by relying upon waiter recommendations and social norms to enable discovery while at the same time avoiding risk.

Other Cultural Influences (Non-Cultural Values) and Customer Value

Culture does not influence the customer value hierarchy *only* through cultural values. Other cultural factors, including religion, education, social institutions and social norms play a part as well. Culture appears to greatly influence consumer decision rules. A number of rules emerged in this research, including: 1) the color of the wine should match the meal; 2) the price of the wine should match the price of the meal; 3) the quality and price of the wine should match the dining occasion; and 4) the color of the wine should match the season of the year. Although not necessarily evident in the hierarchies, these decision rules are all examples of social norms. For example, unlike many Americans, several French people stated that one should not drink a glass of wine when alone, stating that the only French who do so are alcoholics. Social norms are often invoked to help people reduce uncertainty and establish themselves as members of a distinct society. Although considered to be different from cultural values, social norms are often recognized as being a product of the cultural values in which they emerge.

Although not originally intended to do so, this research provides some empirical evidence to respond to Zeithaml's (1988) call for investigations of "the variation in value perceptions across evaluation contexts." The findings appear to indicate that use situation and/or occasion influences the customer value hierarchy in both cultures, and as a result, could represent a cultural universal. Interestingly, it appears that the occasion and resulting use situation evoke social norms to a greater degree than they evoke cultural values. For example, the French respondents emphasized social consequences in nearly every occasion and situation they discussed. However, social norms often dictated which

attributes were important for the occasion and situation. These findings indicate that situation, occasion, and social norms may need to be incorporated into the customer value model.

Given that cultural values and even social norms sometimes result in conflicting priorities for members of a culture, it may even be likely that the consumption situation dictates which value or end-state prevails. Certain situations, especially public consumption situations, may cause a person to behave more culturally appropriately than other situations. As argued by Hofstede (1984, p. 14), "for each prediction of behavior, we try to take both the *person* and the *situation* into account," in addition to culture. This assertion is somewhat consistent with Djursaa and Kragh's (1998) projection that consumers often behave congruently with prevalent cultural values when in a public consumption situation. The present research, however, did not test the opposite proposition that consumers behave more individually in culturally closed, private consumption situations. Additional research is needed to examine how the consumption situation might moderate the influence of culture upon consumer perceptions and motivation.

Finally, some evidence is offered to suggest that social institutions such as the consumer marketplace can influence behavior separate from cultural values, though in a way these institutions both influence and are influenced by cultural values. For example, the focus upon satisfaction among the American sample might indicate the emphasis placed by American marketers upon customer satisfaction rather than a cultural difference in the respondents.

Customer Value Hierarchy and Means-End Theory

In terms of the customer value hierarchy and means-end theory, the findings provide additional evidence that the existence of specific types of attributes (i.e., concrete attributes and abstract attributes) and consumption consequences (functional consequences, personal consequences, and social consequences), and the cognitive linking of those dimensions could be culturally universal, even though the importance, meaning, valence, and linkages of the dimensions may differ. This finding suggests the incorporation of broad categories of dimensions into the customer value model. Such dimensions allow one to observe overall patterns in customer value perceptions and also potentially to develop and test theory.

As previously discussed, consumption consequences appear to reflect cultural similarities and differences more consistently than attributes or end-states. For example, both culture samples place similar importance upon product attributes, and they often perceive attributes similarly. However, the level of importance and the perceived meaning, valence, and linkages vary significantly at the consequence level. In addition, consumption consequences were greater in number than emergent end-states, and they reveal significantly greater differences in meaning, valence, and linkages than end-states.

The findings also indicate that higher level consequences reflect cultural differences more than lower level functional consequences. Even though the importance propositions were supported for all three types of consequences (functional, personal, and social), the perception analyses reveal that the major differences in meaning, valence, and linkages occur at more abstract consequence levels, such as conviviality, loosen senses,

and satisfaction. For example, the French respondents appear to derive a social value from drinking wine that transcends the wine itself. It appears that even if a wine is not great, the overall experience is evaluated positively if the social interaction is good. Conversely, a number of Americans indicated that a bad wine choice can ruin an evening, causing the topic of dining conversation to move from relationship building to the bad wine. Respondents from both culture samples also indicate that drinking a wine from a certain region can evoke feelings and memories that actually override the taste perceptions.

This research also incorporated valence into the customer value hierarchy. Gutman (1982) asserts that values give consequences valence and importance. However, the findings in the present research demonstrate that valence is attached not only to attribute~consequence linkages but even to attribute~attribute linkages. For example, the French respondents perceived both positive and negative linkages between country of origin (attribute) and quality (attribute). Ultimately, the incorporation of valence into the linkages may actually represent a feasible approach for demonstrating preference tradeoffs within the customer value hierarchy.

By demonstrating that culture influences consumer perceptions, this research may also indicate that perception is determined by more than simply memory. Perception is recognized as a product both of memory and of one's socialization (Bock 1994). Therefore, means-end theory appears to be more than simply a perspective for examining memory models. Instead, it can be implemented to explore other consumer factors,

including perception and preference. And value judgments themselves appear to not only be memory-based, but they may also be perception-based.

Thus, an understanding of meaning and importance is crucial to examining cultural influences on the hierarchy. Much of the previous means-end research has not deeply examined the perceived meaning attached to hierarchy dimensions and how this meaning can differ across segments and/or cultures. Moreover, much of the previous research has not examined how meaning or perception and relative importance can differentially impact the customer value hierarchy. The examination of relative importance of value dimensions along with an understanding of similarities and differences in perceived meaning, valence, and linkages in this research represent a contribution to the body of knowledge for customer value theory and means-end theory.

Summary

As discussed in Chapter 1, cross-cultural means-end research to date has been primarily exploratory. By utilizing the customer value hierarchy to test theoretically-based propositions, this research has advanced means-end and customer value research. Moreover, by examining both importance and the rich meaning behind perceptions, this research has advanced our understanding of how culture influences consumers' cognitive goal structures. Thus, the present research serves both as an extension and an advancement of the previous body of knowledge.

One must be careful, however, to not attribute all cultural differences to differences in cultural values. Perhaps too much cross-cultural research has attempted to correlate cultural values with attitudes and behavior, while ignoring the possibility that

other cultural factors come into play, including language, religion, education, and social institutions. Although this research demonstrates the influence of social norms, additional research is needed to correlate these factors and to examine the situations in which other cultural factors, such as decision rules, are invoked.

In sum, this research indicates that the traditional definition of value as the interaction of person, product, and situation may not be broad enough. Instead, future conceptualizations should also consider the inclusion of culture. Additional refinements may include the categorization of specific attribute, consequence, and end-state subtypes, the expansion of the situation to include occasion, the inclusion of valence into value dimension linkages, and application to the study of memory, perception (i.e., meaning), and preference (i.e., importance).

Managerial Implications

These findings indicate that practitioners should implement customer value analyses in order to better understand how specific cultures are similar and different when developing marketing strategies. For example, the findings indicate that marketers should take into account the emphasis upon social relationships when designing strategies for the French marketplace and should consider an emphasis upon personal achievement when designing strategies for the American marketplace. Although an understanding of differences in overall cultural value patterns is a good first step, marketers must go beyond these broad cultural characterizations to understand where the true similarities and differences lie. For example, what specific types of social consequences will appeal to the French? Positioning a new automobile as a product that will impress others is far

different from positioning the same automobile as a product that will keep one's family safe.

This research also demonstrates the usefulness of measuring both consumer importance of value dimensions and consumer perceptions of value dimensions. Though consumers across multiple cultures may perceive a large number of similar product attributes and consequences, these same consumers may place varying degrees of importance upon these same attributes and consequences. For example, given that both the French and the American respondents perceive country of origin as signal of quality, a wine distributor might emphasize this attribute in a standardized marketing campaign only to find that Americans place more importance upon the price as a signal of quality than the country of origin.

Rather than simply focusing upon attributes, as many businesses have done in the past, these findings indicate that marketers must understand the reasons behind *how* and *why* consumers desire product and service attributes; hence, a focus upon consumption consequences. Given that consequences appear to reflect cultural differences more than attributes, a better understanding of the influence of culture upon desired consumption consequences can help global marketers to design better, more effective marketing strategies in markets around the world. For example, it could be a mistake for a watchmaker to promote it's watches around the world as being "accurate to the millisecond". Instead of this attribute focus, a focus on consequences might be more successful. The consequence of "never being late for a meeting" might be a more

effective approach in monochronic cultures, whereas the consequence of "never missing a meeting" might be more effective in polychronic cultures.

In addition to their advantage over a simple attribute focus, consumption consequences derived from customer value research may actually be much better segmentation tools than the use of cultural and personal values as well. In fact, the use of consumption consequences as a segmentation tool should facilitate the identification of important intermarket segments. For example, Robert Mondavi presently segments primarily around price. The Woodbridge brand is targeted as a quality, low-cost wine; the Robert Mondavi Winery brand is targeted as a high quality, mid-priced wine; and the Opus One brand is targeted as an exceptional quality, high-priced wine. Though Mondavi has been successful with this approach, other segmentation variables may be more successful when marketing across cultures. For example, alternative consequence segmentation variables might include targeting consumers who want traditional wines or consumers who want a wine for a special occasion. In addition to consumers, consequence segmentation variables could even be utilized to target distributors or restaurant chains. For example, Opus One could be targeted to high-end restaurants as a wine for special occasions.

Aside from a segmentation tool, customer value research represents a strategic tool for improving customer evaluation measurement (i.e., service quality, satisfaction, repurchase intentions). Traditional measurement approaches have utilized only attribute-level data, and as a result, may be highly inaccurate in cross-cultural settings. The findings from the present research indicate that cultural differences emerge at the

consequence level much more than at the attribute level. Therefore, a multi-national company measuring satisfaction with only attribute measures might reach entirely different conclusions than it would by measuring satisfaction with consequence measures. For example, measuring satisfaction with the "flavor" of Nescafé coffee in France and the United States could reveal very different implications for Nestlé than when measuring satisfaction with "the ease of serving multiple cups" in France versus the "the ease of making single cups" in the United States.

These research findings and the related discussion also raise the issue as to how much the consumption situation moderates the influence of culture upon customer value perceptions. Though no definitive answer is provided, the fact that "matching the occasion" even arose is important. Do marketers of non-publicly consumed products have more opportunities for cross-cultural standardization of the marketing mix than marketers of publicly consumed products? More research is needed, especially in terms of how consumers across multiple cultures interact with products and services. Moreover, alternative types of research are needed. Perhaps, practitioners should make greater use of anthropological research methods such as participant observation and ethnography to supplement traditional interviewing and survey approaches. For example, simple observation confirmed the findings from this research that the French typically dine in larger groups than do Americans. This simple fact could be utilized by American wine marketers not only in product promotion strategies but also could influence sales forecasting and logistics decisions for exports to France.

At the same time that marketers must be aware of cultural differences and not assume that all consumer segments are similar cross-culturally, they should also be careful of over-customization. All relevant factors should be considered when designing marketing strategies, including cultural values, norms, social institutions, and the consumption situation. In fact, this research has revealed that social norms such as decision rules appear to be highly influential upon consumer perceptions, motivation, and perhaps even behavior. Marketers must attempt to understand the rules present in a culture, how these rules evolve, and how to manage marketing strategy in the face of these rules. The evolution of social norms and decision rules pose interesting implications for product forecasting, distribution, and promotion strategies. For example, "casual Friday" norms are creating both opportunities and challenges to the fashion and retail industries, and the "match the season" norm should be taken into account by wine distributors when forecasting demand in France.

These constantly evolving social rules also pose challenges to traditional "one-time" customer survey techniques. Instead, marketers need to practice "continuous" surveying and observation to stay ahead of cultural trends around the world. Managing social norms and decision rules can be challenging. There are numerous examples in the popular press of how companies and industries have managed consumer decision rules. For example, the diamond industry suggests how much a person should spend on an engagement ring, and the orange juice industry has attempted to encourage consumers to not drink orange juice only at breakfast. The wine industry may want to encourage consumers to drink red wine with white meat or to spend a certain amount on special

occasions. The implications of these social norms are enormous for any industry that markets around the globe.

The dissonance caused by competing cultural values and/or norms can be confusing to consumers as they often face conflicting priorities, and it is important for marketers to understand how consumers resolve these conflicts. For example, French consumers appear to desire conflicting consequences, discovery and risk avoidance. French restaurants should insure that waiters are competent in order to facilitate French consumers' desire for discovery and risk avoidance. American restaurant strategists must make a conscious decision whether to attempt to build consumer trust in waiter recommendations or simply maintain the status quo. These findings also indicate that high-credence products are especially sensitive to cultural influences, such as consumer word-of-mouth. Marketers of such products should attempt to relate tangible cues (i.e., product descriptions, product recommendations, and customer testimonials) in order to alleviate consumer uncertainty.

As the findings demonstrate, the appropriate cues can differ significantly across cultures. For example, one product cue identified in the literature is country-of-origin. However, the present research reveals that marketers should go beyond considering *country*-of-origin effects and also consider *culture*-of-origin effects. A number of French respondents often referred to their dislike for certain national cultures, such as Americans, and these perceptions influenced quality perceptions. The "made in ..." effect appears to be highly influential, and marketers must design strategies to either manage existing perceptions or shape new perceptions. This issue holds important

implications especially in a multi-cultural society such as the United States or in societies filled with ethnic divides. For example, do consumers perceive Southern products differently from New England products, or African-American products differently from Asian-American products? Or do Northern Ireland consumers pay attention to the whether a product appears to be from a Protestant or Catholic region?

Directions for Future Research

The analysis and discussion reveal a number of important directions for future research. Although all of these issues are intriguing, some issues should be given priority over others. The author will utilize the strategic framework model developed in Chapter 1 to guide future research endeavors. This model (see Figure 5-1) places customer value within an overall strategic context, thereby integrating both consumer and managerial issues.

Including this dissertation, the initial research push will be at the consumer level. Customer value and the impact of culture must first be understood before moving on to strategic global issues. Therefore, a number of consumer research priorities are discussed in the order that they will be undertaken. Following these consumer priorities, a number of managerial research issues will assume priority.

Consumer Research Priorities

1. One obvious research need is the extension of the theoretical model into multiple products and cultures. As discussed earlier, the small sample size and the single product limit the generalizability of the findings. Alternative laddering

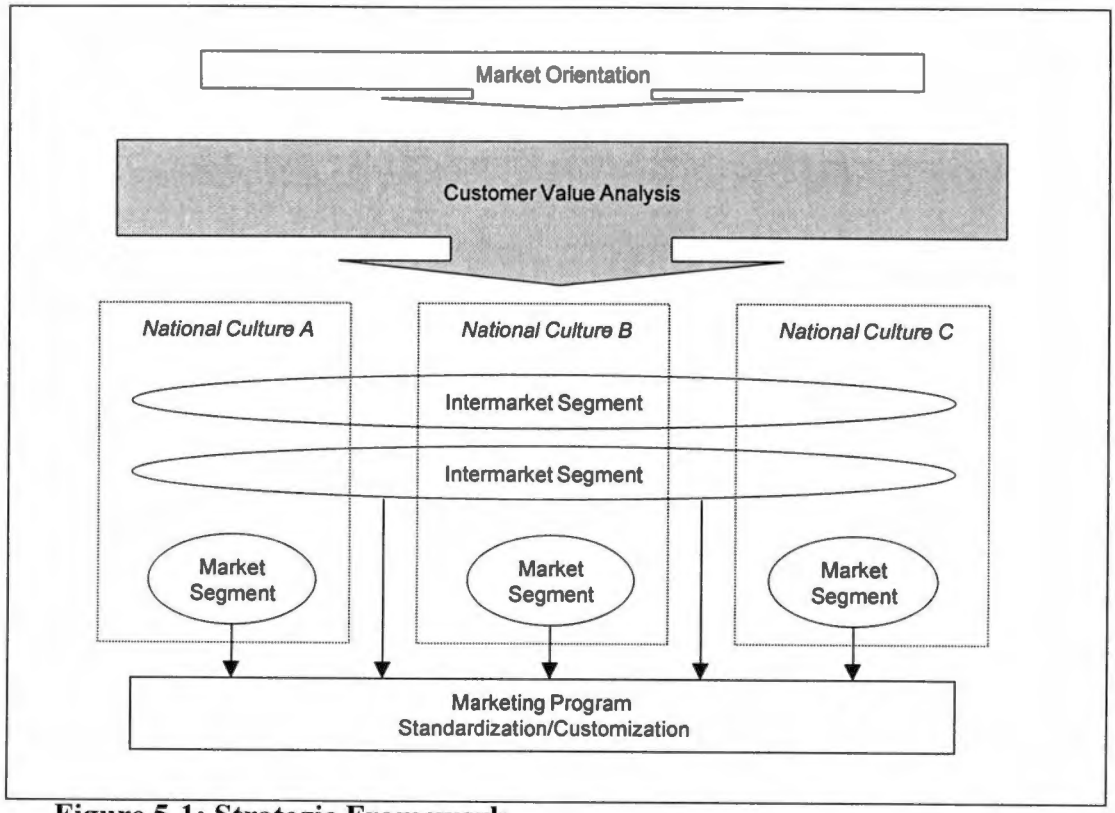


Figure 5-1: Strategic Framework

approaches are beginning to be developed, such as the Association Pattern Technique (Hofstede et al. 1998), that allow for large-scale data collection and testing. Ideally, at least two products should be examined in three or more diverse national cultures (e.g., the United States, France, and South Korea) in order to provide additional confirmation of the theoretical model and to advance the body of knowledge regarding culture and customer value. Rather than attempt to incorporate the immense body of culture research reviewed in the dissertation, this future research project should operationalize only selected cultural dimensions. Moreover, this research should posit propositions at more specific subdimension levels of the customer value hierarchy.

2. A second consumer issue in need of future research is the moderating influence of the consumption situation and/or occasion upon the relationship between culture and customer value perceptions. Djurssa and Kragh (1998) introduce the idea of central and peripheral consumption contexts and, utilizing depth-interviews, provide some evidence that context can explain cultural openness towards or closure against innovation in consumption habits. However, their research needs additional confirmation, and customer value research seems to be a natural application for examining the interaction of culture and consumption context. Although the present research examined only one consumption situation, a study employing a central and a peripheral context should present interesting implications for researchers and practitioners.

3. A third planned research project concerns the influence of culture upon consumer decision rules, a consistent theme that emerged in the dissertation. Much of the cultural research addressed in the marketing literature has examined the influence of cultural values upon customer and managerial behavior. However, the operationalization of culture utilizing norms and decision rules is an area in need of research. As evidenced in Chapter 4 and 5, these social norms hold important implications for both researchers and practitioners. An interesting question concerns whether and/or which social norms are highly product specific and whether they might have broader non-product specific implications.
4. One other planned consumer research project involves a large-scale review and/or meta-analysis of the means-end theory literature. As reviewed in Chapter 2, there now appears enough means-end research in marketing and related disciplines to support the question "what have we learned and where should we go?" For example, the review in Chapter 2 of this dissertation revealed the need for more cross-cultural application of means-end theory. A meta-analytic review would provide the marketing discipline with important conclusions regarding applications of means-end theory, methods for examining means-end theory. More importantly, such a review would provide the discipline with future research directions.

Managerial Research Priorities

1. Once these consumer-related issues are examined, research should turn to more managerial issues. One planned study relates to how marketers presently take

cultural similarities and/or differences into account when developing marketing strategies. For example, intermarket segmentation represents the identification of common market segments across national or multicultural marketplaces. Although a number of scholars (Jain 1989; Samiee 1997; Sheth 1986) have advocated the concept, there has been little conceptual, theoretical, or empirical examination of the concept, and there is no empirical evidence that firms actually seek to identify intermarket segments (Samiee 1997). A qualitative examination of current industry practices is first needed in order to understand why and how organizations examine cultural differences in the marketplace, how they select specific intermarket segments, and how cultural value findings used to facilitate intermarket segmentation.

2. A second planned project involves an examination of the influence of culture upon customer evaluations and behaviors. Woodruff (1997) argues that customer satisfaction approaches should focus more on the incorporation of elements from the value hierarchy. Given that culture appears to have a significant influence upon consumption consequences, service quality measures, satisfaction measures, and repurchase intention measures should incorporate consumption consequences to a greater degree. A study that examines the how satisfaction and other customer evaluations are influenced by cultural differences would represent a significant contribution. This study should examine both product quality and service quality factors, given that culture appears to be especially influential with experiential, high-credence products.

3. Recognizing that culture has a profound impact upon customer value, it is surprising that the vast majority of the literature on market orientation and customer value has been from a U.S. perspective. This fact leads to the question: is market orientation a universal phenomenon, and is it necessary for organizational success in all cultures? For example, is an understanding of customer value as important in a third-world culture where basic human needs may not even be met? Assuming that market orientation is a universal concept, the operationalization of the concept may not be universal. Another planned study will examine this issue by incorporating the work of Narver and Slater (1990), Kohli and Jaworski (1990), and Hofstede (1984). For example, using Narver and Slater's (1990) conceptualization, interfunctional coordination may not be appropriate or feasible in some cultures where there exists a substantial power distance. Power distance represents the extent to which a society and its members tolerate an unequal distribution of power in organizations and in society as a whole (Hofstede 1984). Hence, in a high power distance nation, power is often concentrated at the top of the organization. This hierarchical concentration can serve as an obstacle to delegation and more organic interfunctional decision making.
4. Given these questions regarding the applicability of a market orientation to international marketing, yet another question arises: does a new concept or construct need to be developed to address these issues - is there such a thing as an international market orientation? The domestic conceptualization of market

orientation may not fully tap the elements required to serve one or more foreign markets. For example, perhaps organizations must have a geocentric orientation (i.e., the domestic market is viewed as belonging to the world market in the same way as any other domestic market) in addition to the other traditional elements of a market orientation in order to be successful in foreign markets. The above issues are extremely important because the international philosophy of an organization affects that way it approaches international markets.

Other Research Questions

In addition to the planned research priorities discussed above, a number of other research questions arise from this dissertation. Although these are not immediate priorities for the author, they represent interesting research possibilities.

1. One interesting research possibility involves the extension of the customer value research approach to the subculture level. The United States is becoming a more diverse nation as more and more ethnic groups expand and emerge. Contrary to many who predicted homogenization of the U.S. melting pot, others predicted just the opposite (Costa and Bamossy 1995). In fact, this trend was predicted as early as 1963 by Glazer and Moynihan (1963), who argued that the American social landscape, and landscapes around the world for that matter, would be characterized by growing ethnicity and multiculturalism rather than assimilation and homogenization. Today, researchers consistently provide evidence of Glazer and Moynihan's prediction (Bouchet 1995; Costa and Bamossy 1995). In fact Costa and Bamossey (1995) assert that it is "the *differences* among groups rather

than the similarities that often govern both social interaction and personal identification." Marketing researchers and practitioners could obviously benefit from a better understanding of how ethnic differences influence value perceptions. A similar approach to that discussed for cross-national research should be applied within the United States, and perhaps, other nation-states.

2. Another research issue concerns the relative influence of established cultural values upon customer value perceptions versus the influence of personal values. As argued by Hofstede (1984), all consumer perceptions and behavior are not determined by culture. In fact, consumers often behave contrary to accepted cultural values. One reason may be that consumers hold some personal values that do not correlate with the cultural values of the society in which they live. Little research exists that examines the relative influence of these two value types. An interesting study would be to collect customer value data while at the same time measuring the personal values of respondents with an established value scale. This data could then be compared with cultural value related to that specific culture. Finally, various factors could be examined that explain why consumers do or do not perceive value dimensions congruently with their respective culture and/or ethnic group. As reviewed in Chapter 2, a significant body of means-end research has appeared in the marketing literature over the past twenty years. Means-end theory and research represent valuable approaches to understanding social phenomena at the consumer and at the business level. However, no known means-end meta-analysis has been published in the

marketing literature. By reviewing significant findings and patterns, discussing gaps, and offering priorities for future research, such an analysis would represent a significant contribution to the field.

3. Another potential research issue that emerged with the present research concerns the growing importance of luxury and status goods. This research revealed that some products such as wine are important to certain people because of the status attached to the product. In fact, status is often achieved by owning products such as wine and never actually consuming the products. Status and luxury good consumers appear to represent a segment common to many nations (i.e., intermarket segment) and, as such, represent an interesting marketing opportunity. An interesting research question concerns whether luxury good consumers are less influenced by national culture differences. Given the rise in luxury travel and tourism, this question should even be extended to services consumption for status value.

4. One other interesting issue that emerged is the relationship between product quality and *culture*-of-origin. As discussed earlier, a number of French respondents relate the quality of a wine to their regard for the culture from which the wine came. If they do not appreciate American culture, then they also think that American wines are of poor quality. This concept is slightly different from country-of-origin and may present new and unique implications for both researchers and practitioners. Although culture-of-origin has received a great deal of attention in the marketing literature (e.g., Bilkey and Nes 1982; Johansson,

Douglas, and Nonaka 1985), studies of culture-of-origin effects upon consumer perceptions are almost non-existent. This issue holds important implications especially in a multi-cultural society such as the United States or in societies filled with ethnic divides. For example, do consumers perceive Southern products differently from New England products, or African-American products differently from Asian-American products? Or do Northern Ireland consumers pay attention to the whether a product appears to be from a Protestant or Catholic region?

5. A final research issue results from with the recent explosion of Internet marketing. First of all, do Internet users represent a culture in themselves? Is the Internet producing a homogenized, global culture, or is it actually contributing to greater multiculturalism? A related questions concerns how Internet marketers are managing this revolution. A natural conclusion of the global convergence argument would be that marketers only need one culture-neutral web site. However, this does not appear to be happening. Many companies are developing web sites with different languages, content, and even structure for specific target markets around the world. Although anecdotal evidence appears in the popular press, there is a need for an understanding of how and why Internet marketers are customizing web sites. Moreover, research is needed to determine whether the standardized or customized approach is more effective in terms of consumer perceptions, attitudes, behavior, and ultimately business profitability.

Summary

In summary, the research possibilities are intriguing, diverse, and yet endless. As a result, this researcher must establish priorities, and Figure 5-2 summarizes the proposed research stream. This research stream incorporates the first eight research priorities discussed in this section and also reveals studies that are already completed or in progress.

Limitations

This research is not free of shortcomings and limitations. Although none appear to be fatal flaws, they should be addressed. The limitations involve theoretical issues, methodological issues, and analysis issues, and they are addressed below.

Theoretical Limitations

In terms of theoretical limitations, much of the culture research on which the theoretical propositions were based comes from the management literature. For example, Hofstede (1984) developed his cultural dimensions by exploring differences in thought and social patterns between members of 40 different modern nations. However, the data was derived from surveys collected within subsidiaries of one large multinational business organization. Similarly, the Trompenaars data (1993) was collected while conducting management training around the world. Despite these potential limitations, the cultural dimensions, especially the work of Hofstede (1984), have been applied and confirmed in numerous consumer studies.

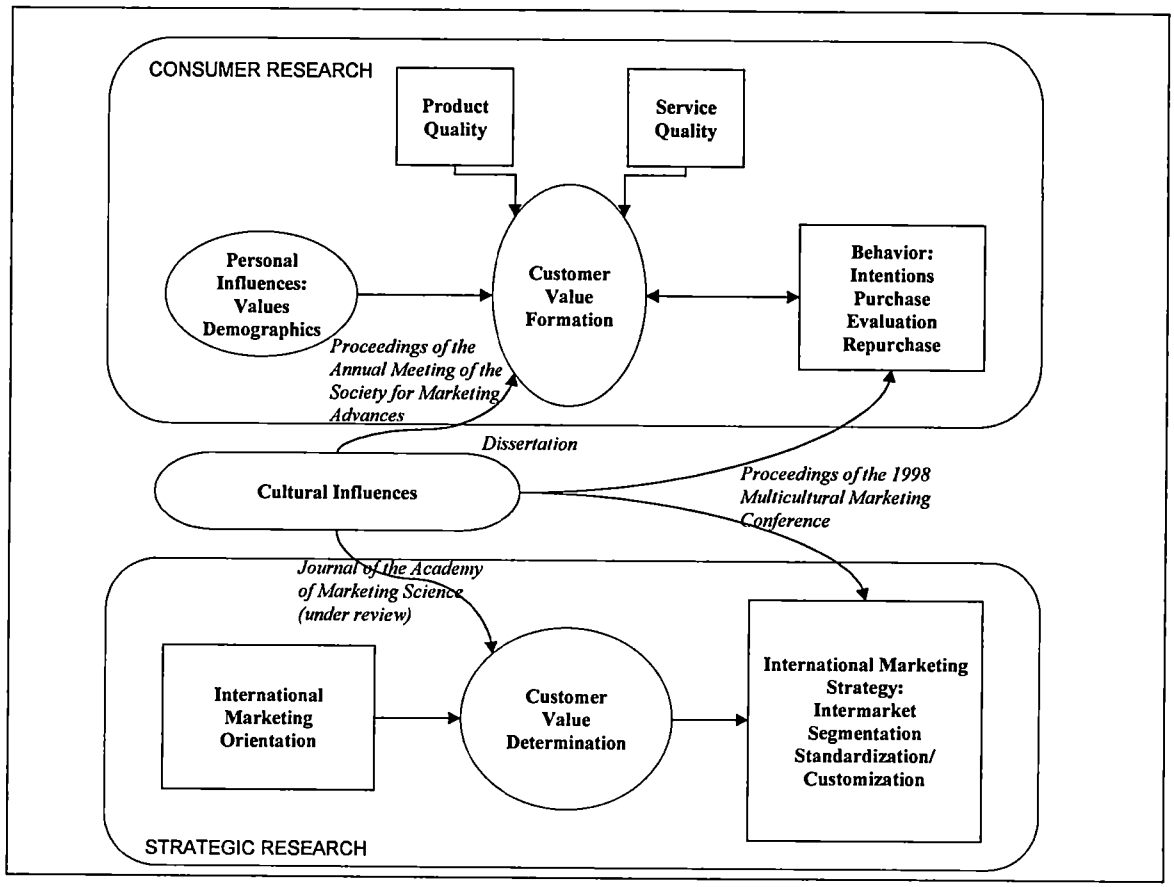


Figure 5-2: Research Stream

An additional theoretical limitation concerns the propositions presented and tested. The proposition statements are posed at a very broad dimension level (i.e., abstract attribute, functional consequence). One could argue that from a managerial perspective the findings might be more compelling had the propositions been posed at the subdimension level (i.e., flavor, complement meal). This is especially evident given the findings from the perception analysis that reveal distinct cultural differences among subdimensions. However, to test such subdimension propositions would actually have required two studies, one to derive dimensions and one to test propositions related to those dimensions. As they are, the propositions appear to be sufficient at the dimension level, and they may actually allow the researcher to better observe broad cultural similarities and differences in the data than would propositions stated at the subdimension level.

Methodological Limitations

In terms of methodological limitations, some paradigmatic purists would argue that the incorporation of hypothesis testing with qualitative data collection and analysis in a single research project is incommensurable. However, numerous researchers have argued for the contrary (Marshall and Rossman 1995; Patton 1987; Walker 1985). Purely qualitative studies are driven by hypotheses, even if unstated (Marshall and Rossman 1995). Walker (1985) argues that qualitative research can actually facilitate the establishment of "within-project validation" through triangulation in both quantitative and qualitative studies. Finally, Patton (1987, p. 62) asserts that a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches is "desirable" because "the practical mandate to

gather the most relevant possible information to inform decision makers and stakeholders outweighs concerns about methodological purity based on epistemological and philosophical arguments."

Another potential methodological limitation is the sample selection. Matched sampling is critical in cross-cultural research for drawing conclusions about the influence of culture. Although the two culture samples in this research were not significantly different on the matching criteria employed, they did exhibit a significant difference on income. Although a potential explanation for this difference was discussed, a more closely matched sample could strength the conclusions.

In fact, anthropologists suggest the use of samples from identical groups. For example, Hofstede (1984) surveyed members of one multinational corporation around the world. Schwartz (1992) surveyed teachers and students from around the world. Although these types of samples severely limit generalizability, they protect against the contamination of non-cultural factors. The present research did employ matching criteria, but the samples were not recruited in a similar manner and were not from identical groups. This may have allowed some contamination, but may also broaden the generalizability. The findings do not allow for generalization to the U.S. and French populations as a whole, but they do allow for generalization to high-involvement wine consumers in the U.S. and France.

Another potential limitation relates to sample size and analysis. The sample size chosen for this research (N=60) represented a challenge to both analysis procedures. While in-depth qualitative analysis usually occurs with small sample sizes, statistical

hypothesis testing demands larger sample sizes. Sixty transcripts are almost too many to be able to facilitate deep, rich analysis. However, the resulting sample size of 30 for each culture sample is close to the minimum number required for simple quantitative hypothesis testing. Moreover, this small sample size prevents the use of multivariate analyses. Multivariate analysis is important in cross-cultural research because it aids the researcher in ruling out non-culture factors when testing hypotheses.

The single product and consumption context employed also represent potential limitations. The product and the consumption context were chosen in order to maximize the cultural differences, and this is appropriate given that the purpose of the research is theory testing. However, the findings would be even more convincing if the same results were found with a less publicly-consumed product such as soap or a less public consumption context such as wine consumed at home. Similarly, the study examined only two national cultures. Again, the findings would be more convincing had they involved multiple cultures.

Data-Collection Limitations

Several limitations concern the data collection technique. The laddering approach itself may actually present an obstacle for propositions related to value structures. Laddering requires the interviewer to probe in a linear manner that often guides the respondent from attributes to functional consequences to higher level consequences and end-states. This fact may cause problems when testing propositions related to structure, such as P10 and P11. Although proposition 11 is supported, the highly structured, linear laddering approach might actually mask existing cultural differences.

The laddering approach may also cause difficulty for people who do not naturally think linearly. For example, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) present a dimension termed diffuse/specific. As discussed in Chapter 3, diffuse national cultures such as France have a tendency to talk in circles when discussing a problem. They tend to analyze "wholes," whereas national cultures such as the United States tend to analyze "specifics". This may explain the difficulty that the French interviewers sometimes had keeping the French respondents focused. When discussing a value dimension, the French respondents frequently proceeded to discuss a variety of tangential thoughts, and they also had a tendency to discuss the importance of wine in general rather than the factors important in selecting a wine. In these situations, the French interviewers struggled but usually succeeded in getting the respondents back on track. Despite these limitations, laddering was most likely the best alternative. Other less-structured approaches such as grounded theory might have made standardization of the data collection across two cultures nearly impossible.

Conclusions

Given the original research questions posed, the primary conclusion from this research is that culture does influence the content and structure of the customer value hierarchy. Cultural values influence the way that consumers cognitively perceive customer value dimensions and linkages. Cultural values also influence the relative importance that consumers place upon specific dimensions and linkages. The data appear to provide empirical evidence that cultural value dimensions can be utilized to theoretically predict similarities and differences in customer value. However, cultural

values alone are not the only influence upon consumer perceptions. In addition to personal characteristics, other cultural factors include norms, customs, socio-economics, and even industry characteristic.

This research represents a contribution to the body of knowledge by taking a significant step and addressing several gaps in the existing body of knowledge. First, this research extends existing means-end literature by examining the influence of both consumer and situational factors on *all* levels of the hierarchy (i.e., attributes, consequences, and end-states) simultaneously and in two culture samples. Second, this research extends existing cross-cultural means-end research by testing a priori propositions regarding the influence of culture. Third, this research provides evidence that the effects of cultural differences are most evident at the consumption consequence level. Fourth, this research goes beyond simply finding cultural similarities and differences and offers a deep *understanding* of why and how culture impacts the hierarchy. Finally, this research demonstrates that culture is intertwined throughout all of the levels of meanings that consumers construct for products and services rather than just at the end-state level.

For practitioners, this research provides additional confirmation that customer value analysis is an effective tool for understanding and possibly predicting consumer perceptions, especially across cultures. In addition to addressing cultural differences, this research provides some evidence of cultural similarities. These similarities may support the argument that intermarket segmentation based upon customer value segments is a feasible way to standardize elements of the marketing mix.

Finally, this research has raised a number of issues and questions that demand future research. Large-scale verification of these findings would further strengthen the conclusions. Future research should also focus upon factors that moderate the influence of culture upon customer value, along with possible antecedents and consequences for both consumers and marketers. In the end, this research process has proved provocative yet challenging. However, given the contribution that the findings represent, the rewards appear to be well worth the effort.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TELEPHONE SCREENING QUESTIONNAIRE

Telephone Screening Questionnaire

Respondent #_____
Name _____
Phone _____
Address _____
City/State/Zip _____

Hello. May I speak with _____?

This is _____, and I'm conducting a market research study on wine as part of a doctoral dissertation at the University of Tennessee. First let me state that I am not trying to sell anything. I am simply conducting a brief survey. This survey is not sponsored by any company. There are only four questions.

As I stated, the subject of the study is wine consumption. The objective of the study is to better understand what consumers desire in a wine when dining out. We're looking for a small number of people who consume wine regularly at home and in restaurant settings. Therefore, your participation is very important to us. Your input will assist with the completion of this dissertation research.

Q1. First of all, are you a wine consumer?

(IF NO) Thank you very much for your time. That will be all.
(IF YES, CONTINUE)

Q2. How often do you drink wine at home - everyday, a few times per week, a few times per month, or a few times per year.

1. EVERYDAY
2. A FEW TIMES PER WEEK
3. A FEW TIMES PER MONTH
4. A FEW TIMES PER YEAR

(IF ANSWER THE LAST CHOICE, #4, TERMINATE THE INTERVIEW WITH, E.G.: Those are all the questions that I have. Thank you very much for your time.)

(IF ANSWER ONE OF THE FIRST THREE CHOICES, #1-3, CONTINUE)

Q3. How often do you drink wine when eating at a restaurant for a special occasion - every time, usually, rarely, never?

1. EVERY TIME
2. USUALLY
3. RARELY
4. NEVER

(IF ANSWER ONE OF LAST TWO CHOICES, #3-4, TERMINATE WITH, E.G.: Those are all the questions that I have. Thank you very much for your time.)

(IF ANSWER ONE OF THE FIRST TWO CHOICES, #1-2, CONTINUE)

Q4. The final question concerns how much importance you place upon the choice of wine when dining out. Could you please complete the following sentence: "For me, when deciding on a particular wine while dining in a restaurant, the decision is....."

1. EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
2. SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT
3. NOT VERY IMPORTANT
4. NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT

(IF ANSWER ONE OF LAST TWO CHOICES, #3-4, TERMINATE WITH, E.G.: Those are all the questions that I have. Thank you very much for your time.)

(IF ANSWER ONE OF THE FIRST TWO CHOICES, #1-2, CONTINUE)

Thank you. This completes the formal interview. However, I have one additional question. Would you be willing to participate in a personal interview in the future about what you want in a wine when eating in a restaurant?

This would be a chance for you to share your thoughts on wine. Most of the people that we speak with have found that they really enjoyed discussing wine and they even learned a thing or two. The interview would last around one hour and could be conducted at a place that is most convenient for you.

Moreover, you will be given a nice book entitled Sip and Tell which is a journal used to record your favorite wine experiences and your taste preferences so that you may have some guidance towards future wine purchases. There is enough room to record 240 wine

selections. It also includes a wine-food table. In addition, your name will be entered into a drawing for $100. Since only 30 people are being interviewed, your chances are pretty good for winning the $100.

Two University of Maryland graduate students will be conducting the interviews.

Is there a time in the next three weeks that you would be available to be interviewed?

(IF NO, TERMINATE WITH, E.G.: Thank you very much for your time.)

(IF YES, STATE THE FOLLOWING)

"Great, I will have one of our interviewers call you and arrange a date, time, and location that works for you. Thank you for your cooperation."

ABOUT THE SURVEY

WHO IS SPONSORING (PAYING FOR) THE SURVEY?

It is sponsored by an International Marketing Ph.D. student at the University of Tennessee . It is being paid for by the student. It is not sponsored by any company.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS SURVEY?

This research is needed in order for the sponsor to complete his Ph.D. dissertation. Washington D.C. was chosen because per capita wine consumption in the metropolitan area is one of the highest consumption rates in the United States. Similar surveys were conducted in France this summer. The data will be compared in order to better understand how culture influences what consumers desire in a wine.

WHO IS THE PERSON RESPONSIBLE FOR THE SURVEY? MAY I TALK TO HIM?

The person is Mr. Jeff Overby, a Ph.D. student at the University of Tennessee. I am sure he would be happy to talk with you. I can have him call you, or if you prefer, you can call him at 423-974-0596.

HOW DID YOU GET MY NAME (TELEPHONE NUMBER)?

A phone list was purchased that included people with an interest in wines. Numbers were drawn at random from the phone list, and it is strictly by chance that your number was chosen.

CAN I GET A COPY OF THE RESULTS?

Yes, the sponsor would be glad to send the results to you, if you will give me your current address. The results will likely not be ready for 6-9 months.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEWER TRAINING FORMAT

Interviewer Training Format

Prior to arrival in Paris/Washington D.C.

- Have interviewers read Chapter 3 and Chapter 7 of *Know Your Customer* by Woodruff and Gardial (1996).
- Have interviewers read "Laddering Theory, Method, Analysis, and Interpretation" by Reynolds and Gutman (1988).

Day 1 of Training

- Discuss means-end theory and laddering procedure and work through the first 7 training sessions developed by the Customer Value Team.
- Watch video.

Day 2 of Training

- Conduct first practice interview.
- Review audiotape from practice interview and look for areas for improvement.
- Discuss areas for improvement.
- Refine interview guide, if necessary.

Day 3 of Training

- Conduct second practice interview.
- Review audiotape from practice interview and look for areas for improvement.
- Discuss areas for improvement.

Day 4+

- Conduct interviews

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW GUIDES

French Interview Guide and Biographical Questionnaire

Guide d'entretien

I- Construction de la relation enquêteur/enquêté

Je m'appelle _____, et j'étudie à la Sorbonne. Nous réalisons une étude sur le vin. L'objectif de cet entretien est de découvrir ce que signifie pour vous la consommation du vin au cours de dîners au restaurant. Cette recherche se situe dans le cadre d'une thèse doctorale pour un usage purement universitaire.

On ne révélera en aucun cas votre identité. De plus, cet entretien sera associé à d'autres entretiens. N'hésitez pas à m'interrompre si quelque chose ne va pas ou si vous avez d'éventuelles questions. L'entretien devrait durer environ une heure.

Je dois souligner le fait que vous êtes l'expert. Je ne sais rien de vous et pour cette raison, j'ai besoin que vous explicitiez le plus possible vos goûts, vos opinions, vos pratiques. Il n'est pas de mon intention de juger vos propos. Il est donc probable que je pose des questions évidentes ou que je me répète parfois. Prenez patience, s'il vous plaît. Je ne veux pas faire de suppositions hasardeuses.

Comme vous pouvez le constater, je voudrai enregistrer cet entretien. Il y a deux raisons :
1) afin que l'entretien se déroule plus rapidement car je n'aurais pas à prendre de notes simultanément.
2) pour conserver avec précisions vos réponses.

Encore une fois, cet entretien est réalisé pour une recherche universitaire, sa transcription restera confidentielle. Maintenant, m'accordez-vous la permission d'enregistrer cet entretien ?

Je vous remercie de votre participation.

II - L'Ouverture
- Combien de fois par mois est-ce que vous dînez au restaurant ?
Pourquoi ? De quel type ?
- Est-il possible que vous me parliez de votre restaurant préféré ?
- Qui choisit généralement le vin au restaurant, vous ou quelqu'un d'autre ?

III - Obtenir les attributs désirables du vin
Maintenant, imaginez une situation où vous dînez à votre restaurant préféré dans une occasion spéciale (par exemple, avec un époux, une épouse, un petit ami, une petite amie ou des amis).

Imaginez que vous préparez à choisir le vin. Dites-moi quels sont tous les éléments que vous considérez pour votre choix ?
Qu'est-ce qui est important pour vous dans le choix du vin ?
Quels sont selon vous les qualités d'un bon vin ?
Qu'est-ce qu'un repas réussi selon vous ? Et un repas qui n'est pas réussi ?
Qu'est-ce que vous ressentez quand un repas est réussi ? et vice versa.
Comment vous sentez-vous quand un repas n'est pas réussi ?
Quelles sont les différences selon vous entre un dîner au restaurent et un dîner chez soi ?

SI LE SUJET MENTIONNE DES CONSEQUENCES OU DES VALEURS, ESSAYER DE LE RAMENER AU NIVEAU DES ATTRIBUTS.

Maintenant, voici tous les attributs que vous avez mentionné. Discutons des attributs les plus importants. Existe-t-il des attributs que vous privilégiez plus les uns par rapport aux autres ?

Je voudrais que nous examinions à présent chaque attribut l'un après l'autre. Je voudrais comprendre les raisons pour lesquelles chaque attribut est important selon vous.

Premier attribut
Que signifie [NOM DE L'ATTRIBUT] pour vous ?
Je pense avoir compris ce que [L'ATTRIBUT] signifie pour vous.
Pouvez-vous maintenant m'expliquer pourquoi [CET ATTRIBUT] est important pour vous ?

CONTINUER LA CHAÎNE COGNITIVE ET UN QUESTIONNEMENT SI NECESSAIRE POUR DECOUVRIR LES CONSEQUENCES ET LES VALEURS.

Pour chaque attribut/conséquences, demander :

Que signifie pour vous [CETTE CONSEQUENCE ou CETTE VALEUR] ?
Toujours re-situer chaque attribut dans le contexte du restaurant.

Faire de même pour les cinq attributs.

Questions explicites (si nécessaire)

Au sujet des **attributs**
Si le sujet mentionne au début une conséquence ou une valeur, essayez de découvrir l'attribut(s) associé(s).

- "Comment savez-vous si un produit fournit [CONSEQUENCE OU VALEUR]?"
- "Quels sont les traits distinctifs des produits qui fournit [CONSEQUENCE OU VALEUR]?"
- "Si un produit fournit [CONSEQUENCE OU VALEUR], quels traits doit-il avoir?"

Eclaircissements:
- "Pouvez-vous m'en dire davantage ?"
- "Je souhaite en savoir plus."
- "Qu'est-ce qui vous fait dire ça ?"
- "Que signifie pour vous (adjectif, attribut, conséquence, valeur) ?"
- "Qu'est-ce que cela signifie ?"
- "Pourquoi est-ce que cela a de l'importance pour vous ?"
- "Qu'est-ce qui se passerait si [PRODUIT] n'avait pas [ATTRIBUT ou CONSEQUENCE] ?"
- "J'aimerais comprendre pour quelles raisons cela est important pour vous ?"
- "Qu'est-ce que vous entendez par.... ?"

Découvrir des **conséquences** et des **valeurs** (en partant des attributs):

- "Quand un produit a [ATTRIBUT ou CONSEQUENCE], comment est-ce que cela vous touche ?"
- "Quand un produit n'a pas [attribut ou consequence], comment est-ce que cela vous touche ?"
- "Pourquoi est-ce qu'un produit doit avoir [attribut ou consequence] ?"
- "Quel effet cela vous fait-il de recevoir [attribut ou consequence] ?"
- "Est-ce que les produits avec [attribut ou consequence] sont différents des produits sans ?" "Qu'est-ce qui les différencie ?"
- "Parlez-moi de vos expériences d'utilisation du produit avec [attribut ou consequence] ?"
- "Qu'est-ce que cela vous apporte de consommer ce produit avec [cet attribut] ?" ex : "Qu'est-ce que ça apporte de consommer un vin de 200 f plus qu'un vin de 100 f ?"

Découvrir **les plus hautes valeurs** :

1. "Dites-moi comment cela vous aide ou vous sert ?"
2. "Pourquoi est-ce que cela a de l'importance pour vous ?"
3. "Qu'est-ce que cela réalise pour vous ?"
4. "A quoi aboutit l'utilisation d'un produit avec [ATTRIBUT ou CONSEQUENCE] ?"

Si le sujet se sent menacé par des questions :

1. "Beaucoup des consommateurs ont exprimé le besoin de [ATTRIBUT ou CONSEQUENCE]. Qu'est que vous en pensez ?"
2. "Pourquoi est-ce que cela aura de l'importance selon vous pour des consommateurs ?"

Fin

Avez-vous quelque chose à ajouter en rapport à la sélection et la consommation du vin au restaurant ?

Fiche signalétique

Pour finir, pouvez-vous remplir ce bref questionnaire qui nous permet de réaliser des statistiques. Votre fiche sera agrégée à d'autres et restera anonyme.

1. Quel est votre sexe ?
   MASCULIN FEMININ

2. Quel est votre niveau d'étude ? (une réponse uniquement)
   Aucun diplôme
   CAP/BEPC
   BAC
   BAC à BAC+2
   BAC+2 à BAC+4
   BAC+5 et Grandes Ecoles

3. Quelle est votre profession (précisez le plus possible) ?
   _____

4. Quel âge avez-vous ? _____ ans

5. Quel est votre situation familiale ? (Pointez seulement un)
   Célibataire
   Marié ou vivant en couple
   Séparé/divorcé
   Veuf

6. Quelles sont les revenus de votre foyer ? (une seule réponse)
   Moins de 150.000 FF
   150.000 à 299.999 FF
   300.000 à 449.999 FF
   450.000 à 599.999 FF
   600.000 FF et plus

7. Combien de fois dînez-vous au restaurant pour une occasion spéciale (non-relatif aux affaires) ? (une seule réponse)
   Moins d'une fois par mois
   Une (1) à trois (3) fois par mois
   Quatre (4) ou plus fois par mois

8. Quelle est environ votre consommation de vin à votre domicile ? (une seule réponse)
   Aucune consommation
   Moins de cinq verres par semaine
   De cinq a dix verres par semaine
   De dix à quinze verres par semaine
   Plus de quinze verres par semaine

9. Quelle est environ votre consommation de vin lors d'un dîner au restaurant ? (une seule réponse)
   Aucune consommation
   De un a trois verres
   De quatre à six verres environ
   plus de six verres environ

10. Pour finir, cette question est au sujet de votre intérêt pour le vin. S'il vous plaît, remplissez la phrase suivante.
"Pour moi, faire une sélection de vin pendant un dîner au restaurant ...

Est important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Est sans importance
Est d'intérêt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N'est pas d'intérêt
Signifie beaucoup	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Signifie peu
Me touche	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ne me touche pas
Est significatif	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Est insignifiant

Cet entretien est terminé, je vous remercie encore de votre participation.
Donner le coupon

English Interview Guide and Biographical Questionnaire

Interview Guide

I. Rapport Building

My name is _____, and I am a student at _____. Today, we're going to be talking about wine. The purpose of this interview is to discover what you find important when selecting a wine while eating dinner in a restaurant and why you find that to be important. This is for a research project related to a doctoral dissertation.

Your responses will be examined purely for academic research purposes, and your name will not be revealed under any circumstances. Moreover, your responses will be combined with other people's responses. If at any time you do not feel comfortable with the interview, tell me to stop the interview, and I will. The interview could last around an hour.

Let me emphasize that YOU are the expert. I don't know your world, so your opinion is critical to this research. I have no idea why you like or dislike certain things, and I am not here to critique your responses. I might ask you some questions that seem very obvious or repetitive. Please be patient, as I don't want to assume anything.

As you have probably noticed, I would like to audiotape this interview. There are two reasons for this:

1) it will save time because I will not have to take notes.
2) it will allow me to capture your responses accurately.

Again, let me reiterate that this information is for research purposes and the interview will be kept confidential and will be stored without access to anyone but myself and my research colleague. Now, can I get your verbal permission to tape this interview?

Thank you for agreeing to help with this research.

II. Opening Questions

1. How many times per month do you eat dinner out at a restaurant? Why? What types of restaurants?
2. Could you tell me about your favorite restaurant?
3. Who usually orders the wine when you are at a restaurant?
4. How would you describe a good meal? And a not-so-good meal?
5. How do you feel when you have a good meal? How do you feel when you have a bad meal?
6. According to you, what are the important differences between dinner in a restaurant and at home?

III. Attribute Elicitation

Can you now think about being in your favorite restaurant for dinner on a special social occasion (such as dinner with a spouse, a date or friends). Now imagine that you are getting ready to select a wine.

1. What would you consider when selecting a wine?
2. What is important for you when choosing a wine?

IF CONSEQUENCES OR END-STATES ARE MENTIONED, LADDER DOWN TO OBTAIN ATTRIBUTES.

Now, looking at the complete list of attributes you just told me about, I'd like us to spend our time talking about the most important ones. Could you please rank the five that are most important to you when you are selecting a wine in a restaurant.

Good. I'd like to take some time now to explore what you think about each one of those five attributes and why it is important to you.

First Attribute

When you say [ATTRIBUTE NAME], could you tell me a little more about the kinds of things you are thinking about. What does [ATTRIBUTE NAME] mean to you?

Now I think I have a better understanding of [ATTRIBUTE NAME]. Next, can you tell me a little more about why [ATTRIBUTE NAME] is important to you?

CONTINUE LADDERING AND PROBING FROM HERE TO GET CONSEQUENCES AND END-STATES. PROBE EACH ATTRIBUTE UNTIL YOU FULLY UNDERSTAND THE CONSUMER'S LADDER.

For each attribute/consequence/end-state, ask:

What does [ATTRIBUTE, CONSEQUENCE or END-STATE] mean to you?
Always place each attribute in the restaurant context.

DO THE SAME FOR ALL FIVE ATTRIBUTES.

Additional Information

Is there anything else that you would like to share regarding your restaurant experiences with wine?

Biographical Information

Finally, would you mind completing this brief biographical questionnaire? The following questions will be used for statistical purposes only. Your answers will not be identified with you, but will be combined with those of others in the study to describe in summary fashion the kinds of people who participated in this study.

Probes

To Probe "Down" from a Consequence:
When a consequence is elicited first, try and determine if the consumer associates any product attributes with it. The following probes can be used.

1. "How do you know if a product has (a consequence)?"
2. "What are the characteristics of products which (provide a specific consequence)?"
3. "When you say that the product provides (consequence), what is it about the product that makes that happen?"
4. "What feature does a product have to have if it is going to provide (consequence)?"
5. "Describe, more specifically, what kinds of products provide (consequence)."

"Tell Me More" Probes (For Clarity and Probing Higher Levels):

1. "Can you tell me more about that?"
2. "What was that like?"
3. "That's really interesting. I'd like to know a little bit more about that."
4. "What does (that adjective; e.g. easy, friendly, tasty) mean to you?"
5. "Tell me more about products that have (attribute, consequence)?"
6. "What meaning does that (adjective, attribute, consequence) have for you?"
7. "Does (that attribute or consequence) have any particular meaning for you?"
8. "Why is that important to you?"
9. "What would happen if _____ didn't have (that value dimension)?"

Probes to Prompt Consequences and Experiences:

1. "When a product has (an attribute or consequence) what effect does that have on you?"
2. "When a product DOES NOT have (an attribute or consequence) what effect does that have on you?"
3. "Why does a product need to have (an attribute or consequence)?"
4. "How does it make you feel when you get (attribute or consequence)?"
5. "Are products that have (attribute or consequence) different in your mind from those that don't?"
6. "When you use a product that has (attribute or consequence), what do you experience?"

Probes to Get to Higher End States:

1. "Tell me how (that) is helpful to you."
2. "Why is (that) important to you?"
3. "What does that accomplish for you?"
4. "What do you get out of using a product that has (attribute or consequence)?"

If you feel that a subject is feeling threatened by the questions, you might make it less pointed by asking the question in terms of other consumers:

1. "A lot of consumers have mentioned the need for (a particular attribute or consequence). Why do you think that is?"
2. "Why would (that) be important to consumers?"

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONS

The following questions will be used for statistical purposes only. Your answers will not be identified with you, but will be combined with those of others in the study to describe in summary fashion the kinds of people who participated in this study.

1. What is your gender? *(Please circle)*
   MALE FEMALE

2. What is the highest level of your education? *(Please check one)*
   _____ Less than high school
   _____ High School Graduate/GED
   _____ Technical or Trade School
   _____ College or University
   _____ Graduate or Professional School

3. What is your occupation?
   _____

4. What is your age? _____ years

5. What is your marital status? *(Please check one)*
   _____ Single
   _____ Married/Couple
   _____ Widowed

6. Which of the following categories includes your total household income? *(Please check one)*
   _____ Less than $25,000
   _____ $25,000 to 49,999
   _____ $50,000 to 74,999
   _____ $75,000 to 99,999
   _____ $100,000 or more

7. How often do you eat dinner out at a restaurant for social (non-business related) occassions? *(Please check one)*
   _____ Less than once a month
   _____ One (1) to three (3) times a month
   _____ Four (4) or more times a month

8. What is your average wine consumption at home? *(Please check one)*
   _____ None
   _____ One (1) to two (2) glasses per week
   _____ Three (3) to four (4) glasses per month
   _____ Five (5) or more glasses per week

9. What is your average wine consumption during dinner in a restaurant? *(Please check one)*
   _____ None
   _____ One (1) glass
   _____ Two (2) to three (3) glasses
   _____ Four (4) or more glasses

10. And just to be sure we're representing all groups in our survey, what is your race/ethnic background?

    _____

11. Finally, this question concerns your interest in wine. Please complete the following sentence.
    "For me, the selection of a wine during dinner in a restaurant is…:"

Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unimportant
Of no concern	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Of concern to me
Means a lot to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Means nothing to me
Matters to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Does not matter
Significant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insignificant

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX D

CODING DEFINITIONS AND FORM

Definitions

End-States (ES)

End-states are defined as (a) a set of consumption goals or purposes, (b) held by an individual, (c) that transcend specific consumption contexts, (d) motivate selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance. These are often not even mentioned directly with a product.

Consumption Consequences

Consumption consequences are defined as (a) desired outcomes (including both desired benefits and the avoidance of undesired sacrifices), (b) perceived by an individual, (c) associated with the use of product(s) and/or service(s), (d) in attaining (or inhibiting) aspired evoked end-states, (e) in a specific consumption context. These consequences can result directly from consumption and/or indirectly during pre-purchase search and post-consumption. Consumers maintain an evoked set of desired consumption consequences in which certain consequences are more salient than others. Salience depends upon situational factors and the role being played by the consumer.

Three types of consumption consequences are distinguished using the following definitions.

- **Functional Consequences (FC)** -the (in)ability of a product or service to perform its utilitarian or physical purposes; often created by salient physical attributes. Functional consequences might include things such as the ability of a product to provide quality, flavor, comfort, convenience, or monetary savings.

- **Psychological Consequences (PC)** - the (in)ability of a product to satisfy important self-oriented goals. These consequences are often associated with emotional states and are often preceded by statements such as "Makes me feel..." Psychological consequences might include things such as the ability of a product to help one feel that s/he has gotten a good deal, feel happy, or express his/her own personality.

- **Social Consequences (SC)** - the (in)ability of a product or service to portray an image to others that is congruent with the norms of important others. These consequences often relate to changes (real or perceived) in the way that consumers believe that others will view them. Social consequences might include things such as the ability of a product to make people feel closer or to convey to the user that s/he has status, that s/he conforms, or that s/he stands out from the crowd.

Desired Attributes

Attributes are defined as (a) tangible and intangible features of a product or service, (b) perceived by an individual, (c) to help attain consumption consequences. Two types of attributes are identified:

- **Concrete Attributes (CA)** are features that can be directly perceived. These include product features such as color, size, price, country of origin, and weight.

- **Abstract Attributes (AA)** are features that are not directly measurable and may or may not be perceived as directly as characteristics inherent in a physical product. These include product features such as quality, reliability, and taste.

Examples

Hierarchy Level	Sample Comments
Evoked End-States	❖ I want to feel loved. ❖ I don't want to lose my job. ❖ Life is all about having fun.
Social Consequences	❖ Because it helps everyone to get along and just have a good time. ❖ Because of my husband's social position, it makes me think I should probably pay a lot more attention to how others perceive us. ❖ I don't want the waiter to think I have no taste. ❖ Because I want to impress my date.
Personal Consequences	❖ It makes me feel like I possess something valuable and sophisticated, even though in actuality I don't own much. ❖ A good wine makes me feel like I made a good decision. ❖ It makes me feel like I've had a good evening.
Functional Consequences	❖ Because it goes better with what I am eating. ❖ It just goes down smoother. ❖ I want to be able to buy more than one bottle.
Abstract Attributes	❖ I'd rather have something of better quality. ❖ I don't want a wine that is too aggressive. ❖ It has a good flavor.
Concrete Attributes	❖ I like Cabernet or Merlot. ❖ I always order California wines. ❖ I don't want to spend more than $20 on a bottle. ❖ I pay attention to recommendations.

Coding Sheet

Coder Name _____ **Transcript #** _____

		Ladder 1	Ladder 2	Ladder 3	Ladder 4	Ladder 5
1	Attribute Name (word)					
2	Attribute Type (CA, AA)					
3	Linked to Attribute (yes/no) - IF NO, GO TO LINE 7					
4	Attribute Name (word)					
5	Attribute Type (CA, AA)					
6	Type of A-A Linkage (CA-AA, etc.)					
7	Linked to Consequence (yes/no) - IF NO, GO TO LINE 19					
8	Consequence Name (word)					
9	Consequence Type (FC, PC, SC)					
10	Type of A-C Linkage (CA-FC, etc.)					
11	Linked to Consequence (yes/no) - IF NO, GO TO LINE 19					
12	Consequence Name (word)					
13	Consequence Type (FC, PC, SC)					
14	Type of C-C Linkage (FC-PC, etc.)					
15	Linked to Consequence (yes/no) - IF NO, GO TO LINE 19					
20	End-State Name (word)					
21	Type of C-ES Linkage (SC-ES, etc.)					

APPENDIX E

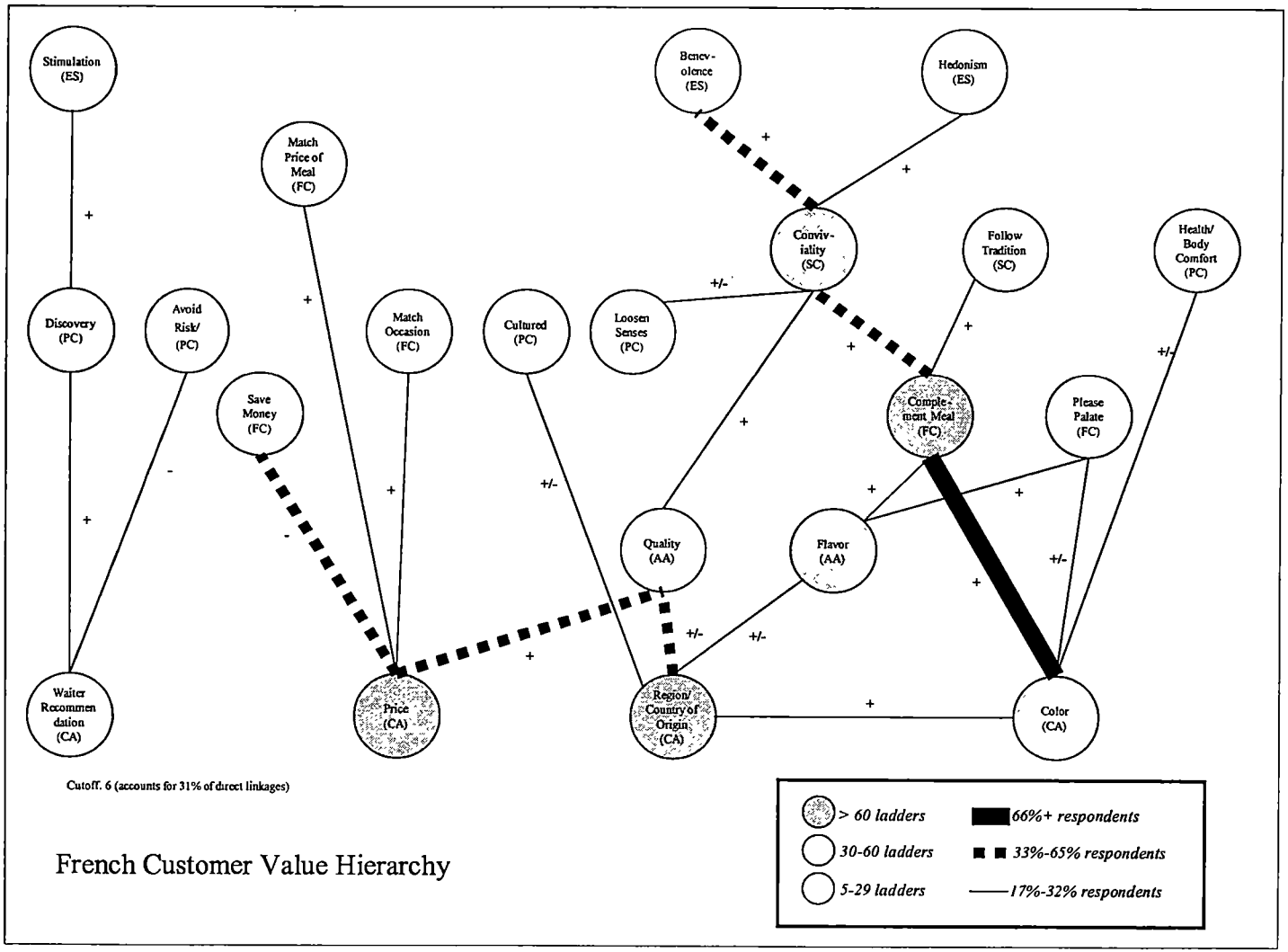
DIMENSION LABELS

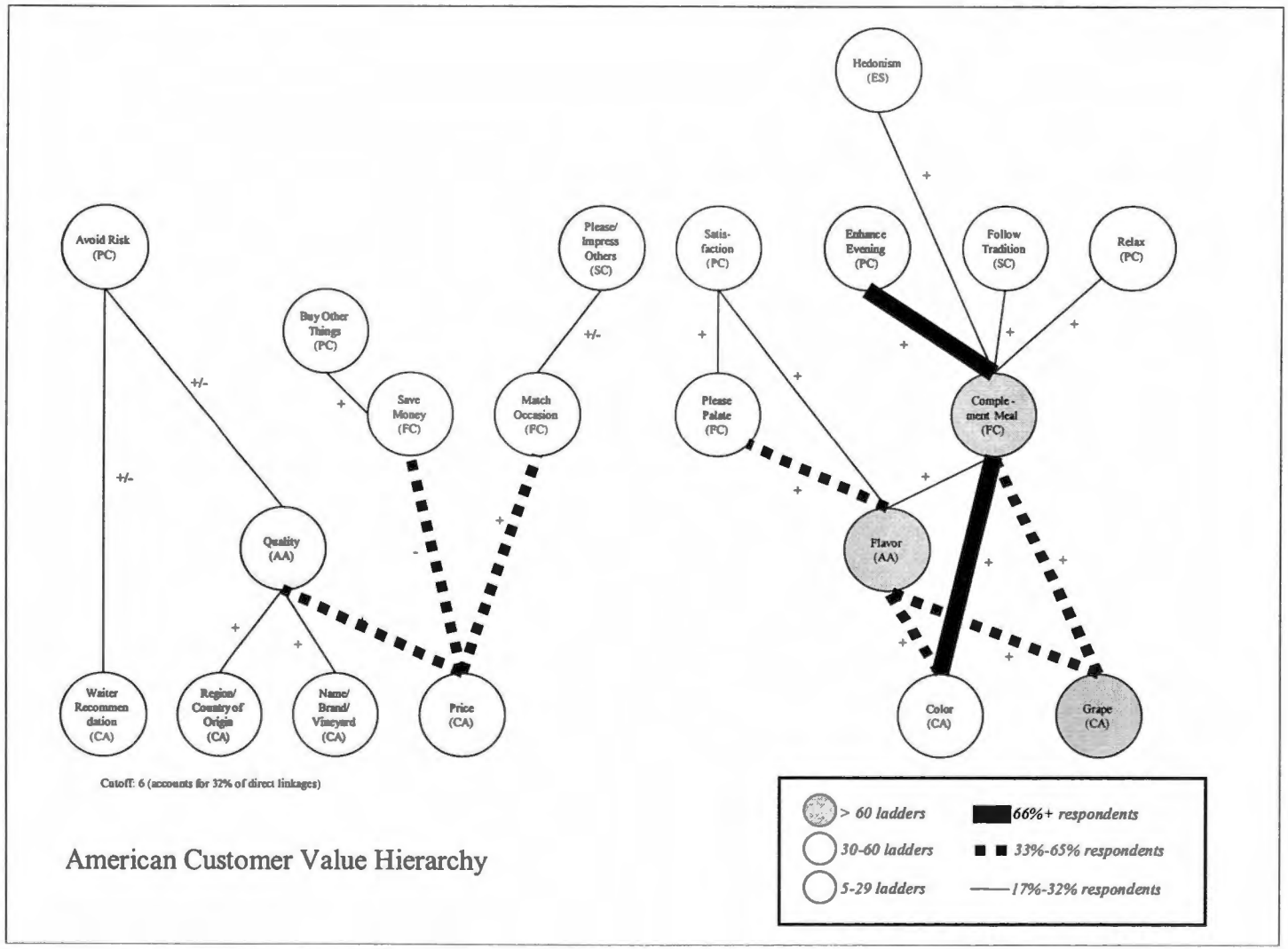
DIMENSION TYPE	LABEL
AA	Doctored/Mixed
AA	Flavor
AA	Popularity
AA	Previous Experience
AA	Quality
AA	Reputation
AA	Strength
CA	Alcohol Content
CA	Bottled at Chateau
CA	Color
CA	Container/Quantity
CA	Country-Region of Origin
CA	Government Regulated
CA	Grape
CA	Label
CA	Name/Brand/Vineyard
CA	Other Recommendation
CA	Price
CA	Waiter Recommendation
CA	Year/Age
FC	Avoid Mixing Colors
FC	Buy Other Things
FC	Complement Meal
FC	Health-Body Comfort
FC	Match Price of Meal
FC	Match Restaurant/Region
FC	Match Season
FC	Match Use Situation
FC	Monetary Savings-Return
FC	Pleasing to Palate
FC	Return Bottle
FC	Support Local Business
PC	Aesthetic Pleasing
PC	Avoid Risk/Ripped Off
PC	Cultured
PC	Discovery
PC	Enhance (Reduce) Evening
PC	Escape Reality/Responsibilities
PC	Evokes Memories
PC	Knowledge (Lack of)
PC	Loosen Senses
PC	Loyalty
PC	Match My Mood
PC	Patriotism
PC	Personal Achievement
PC	Relax

PC	Satisfaction
PC	Stay in Control
PC	Trust (Lack of)
SC	Conviviality
SC	Educate Others
SC	Follow Norms-Tradition
SC	Match Others
SC	Not Appear Pretentious
SC	Please/Impress Others
SC	Relax Others
E	Achievement
E	Benevolence
E	Conformity
E	Hedonism
E	Power
E	Security
E	Self-Direction
E	Spirituality
E	Stimulation
E	Tradition
E	Universalism

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY VALUE HIERARCHIES


Stimulation (ES)
Benev-olence (ES)
Hedonism (ES)
Match Price of Meal (FC)
Convivi-iality (SC)
Follow Tradition (SC)
Health/ Body Comfort (PC)
Discovery (PC)
Avoid Risk/ (PC)
Match Occasion (FC)
Cultured (PC)
Loosen Senses (PC)
Save Money (FC)
Comple-ment Meal (FC)
Please Palate (FC)
Quality (AA)
Flavor (AA)
Waiter Recommen dation (CA)
Price (CA)
Region/ Country of Origin (CA)
Color (CA)
+
-
+/-
Cutoff. 6 (accounts for 31% of direct linkages)
French Customer Value Hierarchy
> 60 ladders
30-60 ladders
5-29 ladders
66%+ respondents
33%-65% respondents
17%-32% respondents



American Customer Value Hierarchy

VITA

Jeff Overby was born in Jackson, Mississippi on May 28, 1966. He graduated from Richland High School in Richland, Mississippi in May 1984. He began his post-secondary education at Mississippi State University, Starkville, where in May 1988 he received the Bachelor of Science in French. A month later he began graduate school at Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi where he received a Master of Business Administration in May 1990. He also studied French in Clermont-Ferrand, France in 1987 and International Business in London, England in 1989. In March 1990, he began work as Marketing Research Analyst for Entergy Corporation in Jackson, Mississippi, and in 1992 he was promoted to International Project Manager, with responsibilities for Western Europe and Eastern Canada. After leaving Entergy Corporation in July 1996, he began his doctoral studies in the Department of Marketing of the College of Business Administration at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in August 1996. He received the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in August 2000.

He is presently an Assistant Professor in the Department of Marketing of the College of Business at Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, where he teaches courses in Multinational Business.