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published in
Journal of International Consumer Marketing
2023

DOI (link to publisher)
10.1080/08961530.2021.2023829

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To link to this article:  https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2021.2023829

Published online: 06 Jan 2022.

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The Interaction of Product Attractiveness and Decision-Making Style on Consumer Purchase Intention: A Cultural Moderation Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This article examines how product attractiveness in interaction with decision-making style influences purchase intentions. Participants in four different conditions rated their likelihood of buying an experiential product, showing that when using an emotional decision-making style condition, they have higher purchase intentions for the high attractive product than the low attractive product. A reverse effect was found when using a reasoned decision-making style. Moreover, these differences disappeared when included a cultural element, suggesting that collective mental group programming shapes learned ways to act in consumer fields at a higher level, including the decisional way to respond and approach perceived product characteristics. The inclusion of cultural factors with an adequate way to conceive the construct is discussed.

During each 30-minute supermarket visit, consumers are exposed to at least 20,000 products (Keller 2013). How can individuals choose what to purchase or intent to purchase, especially when each product relates to different needs and desires? Decades of research have shown that consumers have a limited ability to attend to all stimuli (Simon 1955, 1957, 1990), and hence they turn to mental shortcuts (“heuristics”) when making decisions (Payne, Bettman, and Johnson 1993; Tversky and Kahneman 1974). Some of these mental shortcuts are related to a reliance on emotions when choosing (e.g., Finucane et al. 2000; Zeelenberg et al. 2008). Some others are related to physical perceptions (e.g., Schnurr, Brunner-Sperdin, and Stokburger-Sauer 2017). This extensive theory is based on an individualist perspective where preferences and choices are closely seen (e.g., Hastie and Dawes 2010; Stigler 1987).

Nevertheless, decisions may also depend on the context and cultural orientations learned through socialization and enculturation. Such is the case of what was identified by Iyengar and Lepper (1999), where individuals from cultures with interdependent orientations like Asian cultures present higher intrinsic motivation scores when someone else decides for them, compared to individuals from cultures with independent orientations like Anglo-U.S. On the other hand, personal choice improves individuals’ motivation from Anglo-U.S. cultures compared to individuals with interdependent orientations. The present article proposes identifying if reliance on emotional and physical shortcuts impacts purchase intentions while controlling cultural orientation.

A globalized incursion in the market has been one of the main goals of many companies. Some have successfully established their products and services in different market regions, but others have failed to expand. For instance, in its intent to introduce the product in India, the iconic bike maker Harley Davidson has sold less than 30,000 units in 10 years (Banerji 2020). Harley Davidson consumers have identified the brand as a U.S. icon of cultural identity (Swaminathan, Page, and Gürhan-Canli 2007). One possible reason to backfire when the company explores new places is not considering cultural symbols and orientations. In this case, a substantial failure was to set...
an iconic individualist symbol into a collectivist culture.

Cultural context influences have been identified in consumer behavior scenarios, such as storybook purchases. Tsai et al. (2007) analyzed best-selling storybooks for children between 5 and 8 years. It was determined that US bestselling preschool storybooks differ from Taiwanese storybooks. The latter preferred storybooks that contained more calm expressions, while the former included more exciting expressions, wider smiles, and more arousing activities. Studies previously mentioned have tried to approach the cultural understanding of choices and decisions. Nonetheless, it has been limited by differentiating demographic contexts, not cultural orientations, using inadequate methods to reach cultural explanations. For instance, research trying to assess the cultural impact on purchase intentions have failed on having equivalence on cultural measurements (e.g., Bong Ko and Jin 2017), and some others have failed while considering different regions as cultural index without having a proper cultural measurement of the sample according to his cultural levels (e.g., Bian and Forsythe 2012; Oliver and Lee 2010; Peña-García et al. 2020). Due to this, a gap in the study of culture on decisions and consumer responses is found. The present article is proposed to tackle the lack of specificity gap in the construct conception by including cultural orientation measurements with their respective dimensions to explain the effect of culture on purchase intentions.

Purchase intentions have been among the most essential and proximal variables to explain how consumers buy products and services (e.g., Ganguly et al. 2010; Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo 2008; Morwitz, Steckel, and Gupta 2007; Spears and Singh 2004). For that reason, purchase intention is a fundamental variable in understanding consumer outcomes (Morrison 1979). Purchase intentions are typically defined and measured as a perceived likelihood to buy a product in the future (Lusk, McLaughlin, and Jaeger 2007), for example, by identifying how close you are to buying a product and the correspondence with a current or future consumer behavior.

Purchase intentions and general consumer responses are typically studied from a marketing and psychological perspective, helping to understand the way products impact consumer perceptions and buying patterns. First, marketing factors are vital because they are involved directly in consumer activities approaching how companies sell their products and how consumers buy them. For instance, in 2018, distribution channels such as airport terminals were involved in $76 billions of global sales of duty-free and other travel retail channels, 9.3% more than in 2017 (Kang and Terlep 2019). Not only have distribution channels been involved in consumer responses, but also products have had a significant role in it. Amazon's Alexa is an example of a device that has changed and influenced the way consumers behave. The device's voice assistant tool has been involved in tripling purchases in holiday seasons in 2018, compared to 2017 (Simms 2019).

Among thousands of product marketing strategies, the attractive look of the product has been one of the most important marketing factors, within contextual product factors like packaging, availability, popularity, etc. (e.g., Patwardhan, Flora, and Gupta 2010). Product attractiveness is defined in relation to product quality perception (e.g., Schnurr, Brunner-Sperdin, and Stokburger-Sauer 2017; Wang, Minor, and Wei 2011) and product design like silhouette, shape and pattern (e.g., Patwardhan, Flora, and Gupta 2010; Eckman and Wagner 1994). The evidence of product attractiveness perceptions on consumer responses like the effect of angular shapes enhancing taste sensations, color saturation of the product impacting on a perception of expensiveness on the product (see Becker et al. 2011) and, packaging design evoking impulse buying (see Cahyorini and Rusfian 2011) highlight the importance of this category in consumer research studies. In the same way, higher purchase intentions have been associated with higher ratings of product attractiveness (Schnurr, Brunner-Sperdin, and Stokburger-Sauer 2017). Some other studies highlight to which degree product attractiveness can act in a reverse way in consumer behavior. It is the case of an atypically shaped packaging; this identified improving cognitive processing, impacting a low
intention to pay for the product (van Ooijen et al. 2016).

Product attractiveness is not the only factor impacting consumers’ responses. Also, personal factors, such as the individual’s decision-making style, have an impact on how consumers react (e.g., Soler Anguiano et al., 2019). The seminal work of Katona (1951) distinguishes an irrational behavioral style, characterized by being emotional, random, not understandable, and a rational behavioral style, which is deliberate and with understandable behavior. These notions foreshadowed the ideas of Kahneman (2011), who distinguishes a fast and more intuitive decision-making style (System 1) and a slower and more deliberate style (System 2). In consumer research, similar ideas go under the names of reasoned and emotional dimensions of purchase decision-making styles (see Soler Anguiano et al., 2019).

This differential way to decide can be reflected in recent evidence, suggesting an interplay regarding consumer behaviors. For instance, in the differential effect in the availability of process information resources when making a buying decision, the effect of the resources in the processing information interplays with presented emotions. Shiv and Fedorikhin (1999) identified that when information resources are low, consumers choose an alternative that scores well on the affective dimension, like chocolate cake. However, in scenarios in which information resources are high, the cognitive dimension plays a more important role, resulting in a choice for, for example, fruit salad. Regarding purchase intention responses to decision-making, some evidence highlights the differential effect where said decisions are emotional or reasoned. On the one hand, emotional aspects that shape decisions relate to higher purchase intentions (Nkaabu, Saina, and Bonuke 2017). On the other hand, irrespective of the product type (hedonic or utilitarian), the experiential thinking style (versus rational) is the only thinking style impacting purchase intention. Hedonic products positively predict this purchase intention, while utilitarian products negatively predict it (Zhu and Meyer 2017).

On the grounds of intuitive decision perspective, the motivational model of decision-making (Zeelenberg et al. 2008) is proposed to highlight how situational factors can evoke in specific behaviors, upon a goal-based perspective, it emphasizes the motivational function of emotions, where emotions are tools to respond and to achieve a goal. The differences and improvements about the motivational model of decision-making focus, on the one hand, the shifted focus on intuitive responses more than in a process, element continually found it involves in behaviors like ethical decisions regarding eco-friendly purchases (e.g., Zollo et al. 2018), cooperation (e.g., Rand 2016), and political elections (e.g., Sheffer et al. 2018). On the other hand, emotions and cognitions are seen as elements involved in behavioral responses, maintaining a bounded rationality perspective, where in recent studies have highlighted the importance of emotions (e.g., Bandyopadhyay, Pammi, and Srinivasan 2013; Lerner et al. 2015; Loewenstein 1996; Wang et al. 2017), but also the interplay between emotions and cognitions (Gutnik et al. 2006).

Along the same lines, a strong relation between emotions and cognitions may be seen as an interplay founded upon a collective mental group programming where actions, feelings, and thoughts are constantly differentiated between groups, making us act in the way we do (Hofstede 2001). In the specific case of consumer domains, the way we approach products could be determined by this collective mental group programming. Building on this idea, the independent and interdependent self-construal theory from Markus and Kitayama (1991) emphasizes how conceptual self-perceptions tend to vary according to the cultural context by influencing experiences, cognition, emotion, and individuals’ motivation. In this perspective, behaviors reflect cultural backgrounds where personal orientations are constructed, generating differences in behaviors due to the background. Interdependent self-construal (Markus and Kitayama 1991) considers seeing oneself as part of social relationships and recognizing that behaviors are determined by others’ thoughts, feelings, and actions. People with this orientation are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant people and be part of various interpersonal relationships. Therefore, people with this
self-construal orientation are commonly identified as socio-centric, holistic, allocentric, constitutive, contextual, connected, and relational. On the other hand, people with independent self-construal orientation conceive their behaviors regarding an internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and actions. Thus, this independent perspective involves concepts commonly identified as autonomous, individualistic, egocentric, separate, idioscentric, and self-sufficient.

Culture has helped explain how consumers approach products and services in the consumer field, shaping the relationship between preferences and consumer choices. For instance, Indians and U.S. people differ on social perspectives. In the case of Indians, they are less likely to choose based on their individual preferences than U.S. people (see Savani, Markus, and Conner 2008). This way to differ is called individualism and collectivism. At an individual level, it refers to definitions of the self which can have a personal or a collective focus (Triandis 1995), and being interdependent or independent (Markus and Kitayama 1991). This construct is presented with vertical and horizontal attributes, where vertical individualists are identified with strong competition desire and highly hedonists, while horizontal individualists with highly self-reliance, vertical collectivists more authoritarians, and horizontal collectivists highly interdependent (Triandis and Gelfand 1998). Configuration replicated on recent studies (Díaz-Loving et al. 2018; Soler Anguiano and Díaz Loving 2017).

Individualism and collectivism have shown influence on purchase intentions, proving that individualism-collectivism is the only cultural syndrome that has an effect on purchase intention (Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo 2008; Sreen, Purbey, and Sadarangani 2018). As well, individualism-collectivism has shown a moderator effect between trust in online shopping and purchase intention (Ganguly et al. 2010), in which individualists emphasize more trust in online shopping upon purchase intentions compared with collectivists. Said differential ways to interact in shopping environments may reflect specific mindsets culturally created that may explain better than individual perceptions, emotions or decision styles. Some studies may support the hypothesis of a differential way collective mental group programming has when discussing consumer responses, precisely elements describing individualism and collectivism essence. For instance, Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo (2008) identified higher purchase intentions in individualistic than collectivistic consumers (e.g., Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo 2008).

In the same line, Wu et al. (2020) identified, on the one hand, that perceived social risk negatively impacts collectivists’ purchase intentions but not on individualists. On the other hand, positive emotions positively affect individualists’ purchase intentions but not collectivists. In another study, Ali et al. (2020) identified that perceived control predicts purchase intentions for individualistic consumers, whereas motivation to comply with others predicts purchase intentions for collectivist consumers. The evidence previously cited emphasizes two main elements. First, consumer exchanges, specifically purchase intentions, are influenced mainly by others’ thoughts, and focus on maintaining adequate social interactions in collectivists like the perception of social risk and motivations to comply with others. In contrast, purchase intentions are mainly influenced by the internal repertoire of thoughts and feelings, like positive emotions and perceived control, in individualists. According to Markus and Kitayama (1991) and Triandis (1995) postulates, both elements are described.

These findings show the effect of individualism on purchase intentions and show different characteristics belonging to each dimension of this cultural pattern. This collected evidence also points out the impact of individualism-collectivism on the consumer field. A gap has been identified while several studies have not included the vertical and horizontal dimensions as evaluation of the construct with reference of purchase intentions, dimensions identified as a fundamental approach of the construct of individualism and collectivism (see Díaz-Loving et al. 2018; Soler Anguiano and Díaz Loving 2017; Triandis and Gelfand 1998).

The present article has tested the idea that cultural orientations can shape the way consumers approach products. We believe that differences in purchase intentions due to product
attractiveness and decision-making style may be diluted when cultural orientation, measured with individualism and collectivism vertical and horizontal, is incorporated.

**Method**

**Participants and design**

Students from various universities (N = 71; 52 females, 19 males; 17–31 years, M_age = 19.84, SD = 2.64) were selected via nonrandomly accidental sampling. All participants gave verbal and written informed consent and voluntarily agreed to participate.

**Materials**

Ten money tokens – 5 × 3 centimeters, 50 centimeters of diameter tray, and 20 different chocolates (Appendix A), were used. To pretest the product attractiveness of the chocolates, we asked 30 people selected via accidental nonrandom sampling (17 females, 14 males; 18–34 years, M_age = 20.90, SD = 3.85) to individually write down the types or brands of chocolate they knew. Next, they were asked to rank them from 1 to 10 (10 being the most valuable), taking into account their product attractiveness. The participants identified 39 different chocolates, on average 14 chocolates per person. The lowest evaluated chocolate was Vaquita® (M = 6.73), and the highest evaluated chocolate was Ferrero Rocher® (M = 9.68). These two chocolates were selected as lower and higher product attractiveness conditions based on these evaluations.

**Instruments**

We used the Individualism and Collectivism Scale (Díaz-Loving et al. 2018), composed of 16 items from 4 dimensions. Horizontal collectivism (α = .739), horizontal individualism (α = .775), vertical collectivism (α = .681), and vertical individualism (α = .614). An example question is, “My happiness depends on others’ happiness.” All questions were answered on scales ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (a lot). A sociodemographic data section was also included in which participants were asked about their age, sex, education level.

**Procedure**

When participants were approached and agreed to participate in the study, they were asked for their e-mail address, via which they received a link to the online survey and a random code. The code made it possible to link their survey data to the actual experiment later.

One week after completing the survey, participants took part in the on-campus experiment. They were seated in a cubicle of the School of Psychology or the School of Higher Studies Zaragoza of the National Autonomous University of Mexico. The cubicles were equipped with two chairs and a tray with 20 different chocolates (See Appendix A). Participants could buy one of the chocolates with the token money (10 bills) given to them as acknowledgment for the help in completing the survey.

Participants were randomly allocated to one of the four conditions of the 2 (Product Attractiveness: Low vs. High) × 2 (Decision Making: Reasoned vs. Emotional) design. The product attractiveness conditions, a black bag was presented to the participants while were told by the experimenter: “In this bag, I put the name of every chocolate that you could see in the tray on a piece of paper. You will randomly choose one piece of paper, and I will offer you the chocolate on it. Please take one piece of paper from the bag and tell me which chocolate is on it”. Unknown to the participants, in the high product attractiveness condition, every paper in the bag said “Ferrero,” and all participants ended up evaluating that chocolate (that according to a pretest was of high quality). Similarly, in the low product attractiveness condition, every paper in the bag said “Ferrero,” and all participants ended up evaluating that chocolate (according to a pretest, was of low quality).

In the reasoned decision-making conditions, after being presented with the chocolate (Ferrero or Vaquita), participants were asked to write down at least five reasons why they would buy the product and then at least five reasons why they would not buy the product. Next, they were
asked to read the reasons aloud, indicate the most important one, and keep it in mind to make the decision. In the emotional decision-making conditions, participants were then told, “Take the chocolate, smell it, imagine the taste, the crunching, how it is melting in your mouth, imagine how good you will feel when you are eating it. Smell it intensively again”.

Once participants were exposed to one of the four conditions, they were asked to pay the number of bills they would be willing to pay for the chocolate they had just evaluated. Then, participants were asked to indicate their purchase intention assessed by asking participants to answer, “How likely are you to purchase the chocolate? on a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is definitely will not buy, and 10 definitely will buy” (adapted from Lusk, McLaughlin, and Jaeger 2007). Finally, the chocolate was given to the participants, after which they were fully debriefed and probed for suspicion.

Data analysis
Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics version 25 (IBM Corp. 2017), and statistical power was assessed employing G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al. 2007). First, the multivariate assumptions were assessed, identifying normality and homogeneity of variances and the homogeneity of regression slopes assumption for the ANCOVA. Then, a two-way ANOVA was performed in order to identify the effect of product attractiveness and decision-making on purchase intention. Pearson’s correlations between all the dimensions of the individualism and collectivism scale (Díaz-Loving et al. 2018) were performed to identify a possible moderator effect of culture on purchase intention, assessing previously internal consistence index (Cronbach’s alpha) for every subscale. In the end, a two-way ANCOVA was performed with factors that correlated with purchase intention.

Results
Sample characteristics
To assure the assumptions, first we assessed the skewness and kurtosis Z-values (Cramer 1998; Cramer and Howitt 2004; Doane and Seward 2011), and a visual inspection of their histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that purchase intention scores were normally distributed for the four groups, with $Z_{\text{skewness}} = 0.623$ and $Z_{\text{kurtosis}} = -1.476$ for reasoned/low attractiveness condition, $Z_{\text{skewness}} = 0.272$ and $Z_{\text{kurtosis}} = 0.423$ for reasoned/high attractiveness condition, $Z_{\text{skewness}} = 0.843$ and $Z_{\text{kurtosis}} = -1.483$ for emotional/low attractiveness condition, and $Z_{\text{skewness}} = -1.038$ and $Z_{\text{kurtosis}} = 0.423$ for emotional/high attractiveness condition. Then, we verified the equality of variances in the samples (Martin and Bridgmon 2012) with $F(3, 67) = 1.949$, $p = .130$ Levene’s test. With this, normality and homogeneity of variances were assured.

Purchase intention
A 2 (Product Attractiveness: Low vs. High) × 2 (Decision Making: Reasoned vs. Emotional) ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of product attractiveness $F(1, 67) = 6.036$, $p = .017$, $1 - \beta = .53$, $f = .30$. Participants in the High Product Attractiveness conditions ($M = 6.31$, $SD = 2.55$) reported a higher purchase intention than participants Low Product Attractiveness conditions ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 2.87$). There was no main effect of Decision-Making style, $F(1, 67) = .024$, $p = .877$, $1 - \beta = .87$, $f = .01$, but there was a significant Product Attractiveness × Decision Making interaction, $F(1, 67) = 9.455$, $p = .003$, $1 - \beta = .53$, $f = .37$. Pairwise contrasts indicated that the purchase intention for the Low Attractive product was higher in the Reasoned condition ($M = 5.82$, $SD = 2.78$), than in the Emotional condition ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 2.67$), $t(34) = -2.176$, $p = .037$, CI 95% $[-3.832, -1.131]$, $1 - \beta = .51$, $d = 0.73$. The opposite was the case for the High Attractive product, that was higher in the Emotional condition ($M = 7.24$, $SD = 2.68$), than in the Reasoned condition ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 2.14$), $t(33) = -2.187$, $p = .036$, CI 95% $[-3.832, -1.131]$, $1 - \beta = .50$, $d = 0.74$ (See Figure 1).

Culture as a moderator of purchase intention
The next step was to ensure that the effects of product attractiveness and decision-making style
hold despite cultural differences in purchase intentions. To reach that purpose, first, the internal consistency of every subscale of the individualism and collectivism scale (Díaz-Loving et al. 2018) was assessed. Moreover, the association of the scale with purchase intention was tested to identify relations and, if that happens, ensure the linearity and the homogeneity of regression slopes assumption. Finally, a two-way ANCOVA was analyzed.

Analyzing the internal consistency of every subscale, was identified that Vertical individualism (α = .775) maintain the original number of items, but one item was deleted to enhance internal consistency in vertical collectivism (α = .558), horizontal individualism (α = .858), and horizontal collectivism (α = .792). After ensuring adequate internal psychometric properties, Pearson’s correlations were computed. We found significant correlations of purchase intention with vertical individualism, \( r (69) = .267, p = .024, 1 - \beta = .51 \), but not with vertical collectivism, \( r (69) = -.136, p = .267, 1 - \beta = .52 \), horizontal individualism \( r (69) = -.036, p = .768, 1 - \beta = .77 \), or horizontal collectivism, \( r (69) = .134, p = .274, 1 - \beta = .52 \).

To identify the effect moderator of culture on purchase intention, an ANCOVA was analyzed with vertical individualism as a covariate. First, homogeneity of regression slopes was assured, \( F (1, 61) = 0.081, p = .778 \). The two-way ANCOVA identifies that vertical individualism has a statistically significant main effect, \( F (1, 64) = 4.102, p = .047, 1 - \beta = .54, f = .25 \). Moreover, the Product Attractiveness main effect remained significant, \( F (1, 64) = 5.988, p = .017, 1 - \beta = .54, f = .30 \), where the purchase intention was larger for the High Attractive Product (\( M = 6.24, SD = 2.54 \)), than for the Low Attractive Product (\( M = 4.63, SD = 2.76 \)). There main effect of Decision-Making style remained insignificant, \( F (1, 64) = 0.006, p = .937, 1 - \beta = .93, f = .01 \). Finally, Product Attractiveness \( \times \) Decision-Making interaction remained significant \( F (1, 64) = 7.106, p = .010, 1 - \beta = .54, f = .33 \). Pairwise contrasts confirm the significant effect of the vertical individualism covariate in the Low Product Attractiveness conditions, \( F (1, 32) = 4.269, p = .047, 1 - \beta = .54, f = .33 \), but not in High Product Attractiveness conditions, \( F (1, 31) = 1.008, p = .323, 1 - \beta = .54, f = .36 \). Including the covariate, pairwise contrast of decision-making style in Low and High Product Attractiveness conditions showed non-significant effects on purchase intention (See Table 1).

**Discussion**

The present experiment finds that product attractiveness and decision-making are variables that, in interaction, can explain consumer purchase intentions. Specifically, it was assumed that on the grounds of intuitive decision perspective, consumers act according to goal-based reference points where product characteristics act as a

![Figure 1. Mean Purchase Intention for all Four Conditions in the 2 (Product Attractiveness: Low vs. High) x 2 (Decision Making: Reasoned vs. Emotional) Design. Error Bars Represent 95% Confidence Intervals.](image-url)

**Table 1.** Estimated means for purchase intention from the product attractiveness \( \times \) decision-making ANCOVA, with vertical individualism as covariate (\( N = 71 \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product attractiveness</th>
<th>Decision-making style</th>
<th>( M )</th>
<th>( SD )</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( 1 - \beta )</th>
<th>( f )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Reasoned</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>3.480</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Reasoned</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>3.673</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Purchase intention runs from 1 = definitely will not buy, to 10 = definitely will buy.
situational cue that in interaction with a decisional style motivate a higher or lower purchase intention. However, when cultural orientation is included, these differences disappear.

To tackle this issue, we have novelty designed decision-making manipulations with a basis on dual general dimensions being these emotional defined by being evoked automatically, intuitive, with a higher charge of hedonic emotions, and on the other hand, reasoned decisions defined by being more deliberate and rational with a high charge of cognitive elements. These elements are consistent with conceptualizations of the construct in general dimensions (see Kahneman 2011; Katona 1951), even in the consumer behaviors field (Shiv and Fedorikhin 1999), and also in specific consumer dimensions of purchase intentions (Zhu and Meyer 2017). In our emotional manipulation, we primed hedonically through taking, smelling, imagining the taste and the sensations that would provoke the product. At the same time, we evoked deliberated elements like listing and keeping in mind the pros and cons of decisions in the reasoned decision style. This manipulation has shown convergence with the previous finding regarding decision style and purchase intentions tackled from self-report instruments showing similar patterns (see Zhu and Meyer 2017). Even with this evidence, it is proposed to assess the present manipulation with different measures to strengthen the evidence of functionality and know its use boundaries.

Contextual marketing variables are one of the most important dimensions regarding external elements of the consumer perspective (Patwardhan, Flora, and Gupta 2010). Our present study has identified and tested said effect, wherein purchase intentions are higher when a high product attractiveness (versus low), in interaction with an emotional decision style (versus reasoned). Specially, product attractiveness has shown different pattern effects on purchase intentions, where on the one hand, higher product attractiveness perceptions are associated with higher purchase intentions (Schnurr, Brunner-Sperdin, and Stokburger-Sauer 2017) and associated with lower purchase intentions when some product characteristics are irregular like an atypically shaped packaging (van Ooijen et al. 2016). In addition, personal factors like decision-making style are more representative of the emotional dimension in consumer behaviors (Soler Anguiano et al., 2019), but also in specific situations of purchase intentions (Nkaabu, Saina, and Bonuwe 2017; Zhu and Meyer 2017), showing a positive effect, but no evidence has been stated with an interaction effect of these two variables. These results can be understood in the light of an intuitive activation of emotional responses where product characteristics and attractive product perceptions act like situational factors. Consumers rely on intuitive cues and anticipated emotional outcomes in interaction with those situational activations to pursue preferred emotions in this activation. This study, showing high purchase intention, reflects the need to have the product to show the anticipated emotional outcome of pleasure.

Studying structural factors where decisions are made can increase understanding behaviors and actions in several fields. Upon this conception, actions, feelings, and thoughts are constructed as personal orientations having a common denominator in several groups based on their background to elicit behaviors. Studies trying to incorporate cultural variations using Individualism and collectivism (e.g., Ganguly et al. 2010; Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo 2008; Sreen, Purbey, and Sadarangani 2018; Wu and Jang 2008) have a gap that in the present paper has tried to fill incorporating vertical and horizontal dimensions to explain consumer behaviors, specifically purchase intentions. On the one hand, our findings support the evidence of individualism having a significant positive relation to purchasing intentions (Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo 2008). On the other hand, extend the effect of individualism on purchase intentions upon a vertical and horizontal conception finding a differential way to act depending on this configuration. The significant positive relationship between vertical individualism and purchase intention and not in the same way with horizontal individualism points out the differential and specific way to act of individualism, highlighting the need to include horizontal and vertical conceptions in the study of individualism and collectivism in consumer fields. In the same way, the positive relation of vertical individualism with purchase intention lay upon the high goal-achievement orientation, self-perception as
uniqueness, and being highly hedonic and highly self-focused of vertical collectivist (Díaz-Loving et al. 2018; Soler Anguiano and Díaz Loving 2017; Triandis and Gelfand 1998). Individuals are guided by their hedonic needs to have a product learned by the socialization and enculturation process, which is reflected in a high likelihood of buying an experiential product.

On the other hand, the moderator effect of vertical individualism on purchase intentions can reflect a macro element that includes relations between emotions and cognitions with behaviors. This collective mental group programming shapes learned purchase intentions in which personal orientations are created based on the background. In this way, differences found due to the product attractive and decision-making interactions are diluted when we include vertical individualism, where the shared and learned hedonist orientation can have inside of the cultural orientation the way that consumers approach products in interaction with physical characteristics of said products. According to this conception, the interiorized cultural orientation act as a goal-oriented way to respond to consumer products, where for example, hedonic anticipated emotion culturally learned explain the stronger desire for the product reflected in high purchase intentions.

Acknowledgments

The first author thanks the Mexican Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología for founding the research. This research was conducted according to the APA Code of Conduct.

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