

Psychographics Defined and Discussed

Just as the term demographics refers to certain physical and social characteristics of people, the term “psychographics” refers to people’s lifestyle characteristics. Psychographics gained popularity among marketers beginning in the late 1960s and became a staple of marketing by the mid 1970s. Marketers realized that the emotional and psychological connections people make with particular brands often arise from how well the brands fit into the lives of consumers. As such, market researchers were presented with the challenge of measuring consumer lifestyles, and the term psychographics was born.

Psychographics was never intended to replace demographics as a means of predicting and explaining consumer marketplace behavior. Instead, psychographics supplement demographics by adding the richness of the social and behavioral sciences to standard demographic descriptions of people. This way marketers could not only describe the types of people that buy their products, they could also consider more systematically the reasons why those people buy them.

In the following sections, we discuss two main aspects of psychographics. First, we consider what comprises consumer lifestyles. Certainly, such an endeavor could quickly become too complex and cumbersome for straightforward discussion. However, early in the history of psychographic study, marketers zeroed in on

three variables that neatly categorize and summarize the dimensions of consumer lifestyle that are most relevant to marketers. Second, we turn to some social and psychological factors that help predict and explain consumer lifestyle choices, and in particular how those lifestyle choice affect their marketplace behaviors.

Lifestyle Variables: Activities, Interests, and Opinions

What is lifestyle?

Lifestyle is one of those terms that we understand intuitively but may find difficult coming up with our own definition. One definition states that lifestyle is “the patterns in which people live and spend time and money.” This definition is useful to marketers because it casts lifestyle in terms of consumption patterns. In other words, the definition is largely behavioral. Behind the behaviors that encompass lifestyle, however, lie a myriad of complex influences, particularly from consumers’ personalities and values.

In most people, the relationships between personality, values, and lifestyle behaviors are relatively stable, which suggests that the relationships are also predictable to some degree. Thus, by establishing reliable connections between the social, psychological, and the behavioral, many marketers have come to rely heavily on lifestyle information as an important component to predicting and building brand loyalty.

The Lifestyle Variables

To make lifestyle useful to marketing strategy, marketers have over time focused on a three dimensional conceptualization of lifestyle. The three sets of variables that operationalize lifestyle are activities, interests, and opinions. In other words, to marketers, lifestyle is comprised of what consumers do, what consumers like, and what consumers think. Among marketing professionals, activities interests, and opinions are frequently referred to as the “AIO variables.”

Activities. Activities represent the behavioral portion of lifestyle. Because the range of human activities seems virtually limitless, the variable may seem too broad to be of real value to marketers. However, to the extent that engaging in many human activities requires some kind of purchased good or service, then studying activities represents a valuable means of understanding consumers.

Think about virtually any activity in which you participate. From taking a walk, to cooking a meal, to studying for an exam, to relaxing after a hard day, even the most mundane and ordinary activities may require purchased products. Walking requires shoes; meals require food; study requires course materials, and so on. Therefore, one fairly obvious way marketers can use lifestyles to help identify customer needs is through studying activities.

Regarding any particular activity, marketers should view consumer participation in that activity from the perspective of a “total market offering.” Too often marketers view fulfilling consumer needs strictly in terms of products and give little attention to other components of the marketing mix. However, depending on the activity in question, modifications to any of the marketing mix components may help consumers to engage in desired

activities. This is because not only does a given activity reflect consumer lifestyle, but so too do the means by which consumers learn about, acquire and pay for the products they use.

For example, consider two golf enthusiasts who use identical brands of clubs. Here the activity (golf) and the equipment necessary to play (clubs) are the same. Suppose one golfer made his club brand selection after consulting with a golf professional who custom fitted the clubs’ handles and grips. The other may have seen advertisements in a golfing magazine and then bought the clubs off-the-shelf from a sporting goods store at a considerably lower price. Though the two hypothetical golfers play the same sport with the same brand of clubs, lifestyle differences affect their acquisition of brand information and actual purchase of the golf clubs.

The lesson for marketers in this example is to consider consumer activities not only in terms of requisite products, but to consider all marketing mix components as part of a total market offering that meets consumer needs.

Interests. Consumer psychologists define interests as the degree of excitement and arousal that comes from anticipated or continuing participation in some endeavor. Given this definition, one could correctly assume that interests are generally good predictors of activities. Market research can use interests to gauge potential participation in certain activities by measuring interest in the activity, especially among consumers who have not yet participated in it.

Depending on the circumstances, marketers may wish to examine consumer interests by varying degrees of specificity. As you might expect, general consumer interests may predict a participation in a very broad range of activities, while specific interests predict a narrower range of

activities. Marketers may find examining both to be useful.

For example, consider how a manufacturer of kayaks and whitewater rafting equipment might estimate growth potential. On one hand, they could survey consumers specifically about interest in these activities. While this approach might seem the most obvious and accurate means of gauging demand, it may overlook many otherwise potentially interested but uninformed consumers. Many of these consumers might believe that rafting or kayaking is too dangerous for them and as such, would express little interest in the activity. On the other hand, these consumers could be surveyed for their general interest in outdoor activities and their general interest in exciting vigorous physical activities. A high interest in both these activities might indicate a potential interest in kayaking or rafting, which, with education and information through advertising or other marketing communication, might be cultivated into future sales.

Opinions. To consumer psychologists, opinions and attitudes mean largely the same thing. Opinions are formed when people evaluate the importance of things they believe to be factually correct. We all hold views of what is true and not true about a particular subject, and whether or not that subject is important to our lives. The intersection of factual beliefs and importance evaluations comprise opinions or attitudes about a particular subject.

Opinions constitute one of the lifestyle variables because they form the basis of our interests and our activities. In other words, before an activity can be pursued, an individual must develop a favorable enough opinion to at least try it. Obviously, people respond favorably to those things about which they hold positive opinions and negatively to those things

about which they hold negative opinions. The positive or negative responses translate into interests and ultimately activities. Importantly, not all opinions produce activities but all activities were preceded by opinions.

Given its foundational role in shaping consumer behaviors, you will study opinions in much greater detail when we consider the formation of attitudes in the consumer decision making process. How opinions are formed and the strength with which they are held may have very large implications for how products are marketed. That they represent a combination of factual beliefs and evaluations of importance suggests that marketers can do much to either inform consumers of the factual truth about market offerings or suggest the importance with which those facts should be regarded.

Predictors of Consumer Activities, Interests and Opinions

As noted earlier, different social and personal characteristics influence consumer lifestyles. The characteristics of greatest interest to marketers and their relationships to lifestyle are shown in Exhibit 1. Two of these characteristics, reference groups and social class are shown as being the result of consumer demographics, which are discussed in separate Web Notes. Personality is shown exerting an independent influence on lifestyle. These three predictors of lifestyle are explored below.

Reference Groups

Consumers take many of their cues about what to buy from a variety of groups that exert influences on the consumer decision making process. We call these groups “reference groups” and they’re

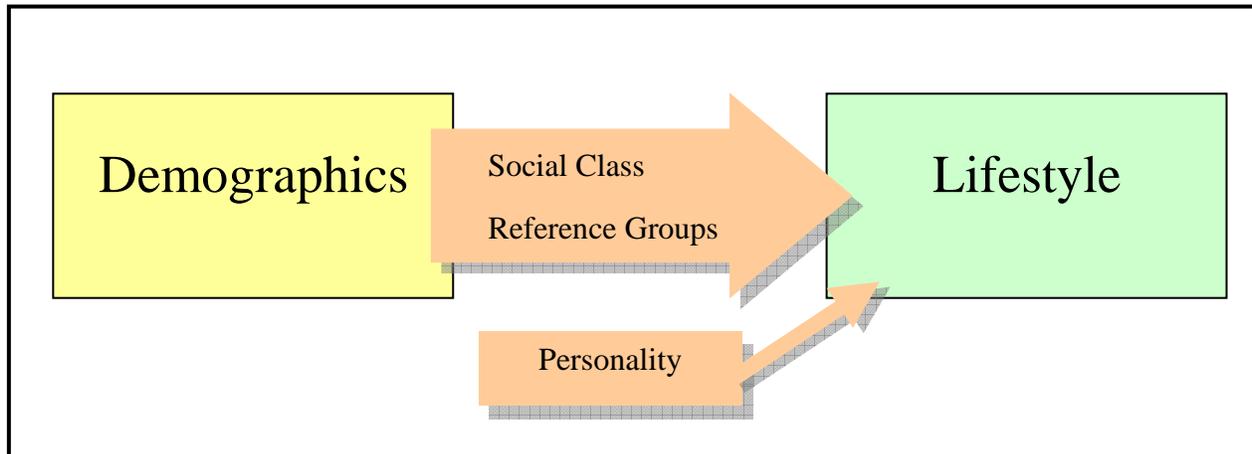


Exhibit 1. Predictors of Consumer Lifestyles

defined as “any group of people that influences consumers’ purchase decisions.” Reference groups assume great importance to marketers because consumers frequently receive important cues on how and what to buy from reference group influences.

Reference group types. Reference groups can be categorized into several types, which are given in Exhibit 2. Examining the exhibit might give you some insight into why reference groups can be so useful to marketers. Individuals look to reference groups for cues about acceptable or preferred behaviors, including purchase behaviors. Therefore, marketers may use reference group influences as a means of attracting customers. We’ll discuss some of the specific ways they do this later in these notes and in class.

A couple of comments about the reference group types shown in Exhibit 2 are in order. First, more than one label can simultaneously apply to a single reference group. For example, we would certainly expect that many of our membership reference groups will also be primary reference groups. Consider your family. You’re certainly a member of this group, making it a membership group, and you probably have regular face-to-face interaction with them, making them a

primary reference group. Here on campus, consider someone who belongs to a fraternity or sorority. For that person, the fraternity or sorority would be a membership group, a primary reference group, and a formal reference group because of the formal requirements and initiation involved in joining.

Second, the reference groups that influence an individual’s purchase behaviors need not be very well-defined to that person. The examples of family, and fraternity or sorority illustrate reference groups that are well-defined sets of people. However, the people in other reference groups may not be so easily identified, yet they can be highly influential. Consider someone who runs to stay fit. This person may consider himself or herself a “runner,” and therefore a member of the informal group of all runners. He or she may look to other runners for cues about how to dress, shoe selection, diet, and other running related purchases. Yet, the group, “runners,” is certainly less clear in its composition than one’s family.

Process of reference group influences. Reference group influences follow a relatively straightforward process through which they exert influence on behavior. The steps of this process, which is illustrated in Exhibit 3, apply to all reference

Type	Description
1. membership group	any group to which a person belongs irrespective of whether formal membership is required
2. formal membership group	group for which some degree of formal application and initiation is required such as a club, fraternity or sorority
3. informal membership group	group that has no formal requirements for membership such as a circle of friends or neighbors
4. primary reference group	reference group with whom a person has much face-to-face interaction such as family or coworkers
5. secondary reference group	group with whom one has little face-to-face interaction such as professional colleagues who are not coworkers
6. aspirational group	group to which a person wishes to belong but does not belong such as a young person’s emulation of celebrities
7. dissociative group	group to which a person does not wish to belong or be associated

Exhibit 2. Types of Reference Groups

group types, though they are more extensive and better-defined for primary membership reference groups than others.

The first step in the process is “socialization.” Socialization simply refers to the learning of group norms, values, and desired behaviors. How these norms, values, and behaviors are learned depends on the reference group in question. In family settings, children learn from their parents through instruction, example, reward, and discipline. Learning norms of

behaviors at work may come from some combination formal training, informal conversations from those “in the know” and simple observation of the behaviors of others. People frequently learn about the norms, values, and desired behaviors of other less accessible or less well-defined groups through the media, which includes advertising and other marketing communications.

The second step in the reference group influence process is a “comparison to self-concept” of what’s learned during socialization. As people learn what’s valued and desired by a particular reference group, they make comparisons to what they themselves value and desire. Because people generally wish to protect or enhance their self-concept, they will embrace reference groups whose values and expectations are consistent with their own.

Note that embrace does not necessarily mean join. It’s common for people to be influenced by reference groups to which they don’t belong. The point is that as people learn reference group values and norms of behaviors, they will react favorably to those that appear consistent with their own individual self-concepts.

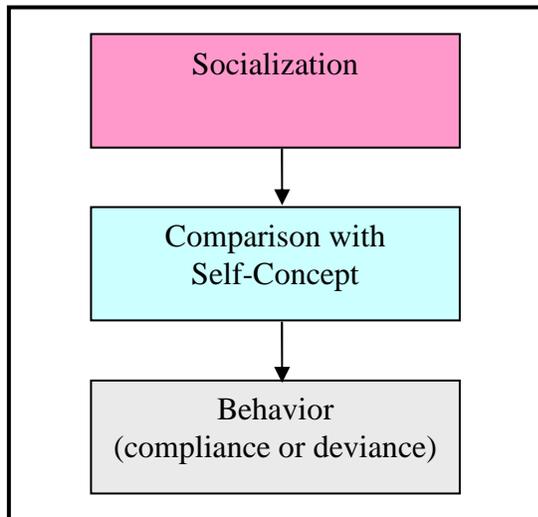


Exhibit 3. Process of Reference Group Influence

The third step is behavior itself, which generally means either “compliance” or “deviance.” To the extent that group norms and values are consistent with one’s own, an individual will behave in ways that promote those norms and values. This is compliance. From a consumer standpoint, compliant behavior simply means that a reference group influenced purchase behavior because the consumer believed a purchase would be consistent with the group. To the extent that an individual perceives a reference group’s norms and values to contradict his or her own, then the individual will behave in ways inconsistent with the group. This is deviance. In terms of purchase behavior, deviance is a consumer’s attempt to distance himself or herself from a particular reference group.

In many cases, the products people buy or the brands they select become a behavioral means by which they internally strengthen and clarify their self-concept and a means through which they express their self-concept to others. An individual clarifies or strengthens his or her own self-concept by purchasing products or brands believed to be consistent with the values and norms of important reference groups, thereby more closely aligning his or her own self-concept with impressions of the group. Certain particularly visible purchases (clothing, for example) help a person communicate those values to important audiences.

Mechanisms of reference group influences. Three basic mechanisms of influence exist for reference groups to affect purchase behavior. First are “informational influences.” Informational influences occur when people look to reference groups to learn about brand performance. In such circumstances, consumers consider the reference group particularly knowledgeable about the product or brands in question. For example, a novice runner in his or her first

5K race might look to other runners to see what brands of shoes they wear.

Second are “utilitarian influences.” Utilitarian influences occur when individuals look to reference groups for information that will help them either attain or maintain membership in the group. For example, new employees in an organization frequently look to coworkers or bosses for cues about how to dress, what kinds of cars to drive, and other purchase information that will help them fit in or advance in the organization. Utilitarian reference group influences occur in other group settings as well. Seeking membership to clubs or trying to assimilate into a particular circle of friends prompts people to seek information about acceptable purchases.

Third are “value expressive” influences. Value expressive influences occur when an individual purchases a brand because it represents the values of certain groups that the individual admires. The difference between value expressive and utilitarian influences can be subtle, but the difference is important as a means of distinguishing between reasons for purchase. The primary difference is that value expressive influences do not occur in order to gain or maintain membership in a particular group. They occur because the consumer identifies with the particular value or values associated with a group, not because they wish to become a member.

Social Class

Closely related to reference groups is social class. That’s because one’s social class greatly influences an individual’s values and norms, as well as the groups he or she looks to for behavioral cues. As a feature of society, social class is not an easy concept to deal with. For one thing, although easily defined, it’s not terribly precise. For another, it’s one many people

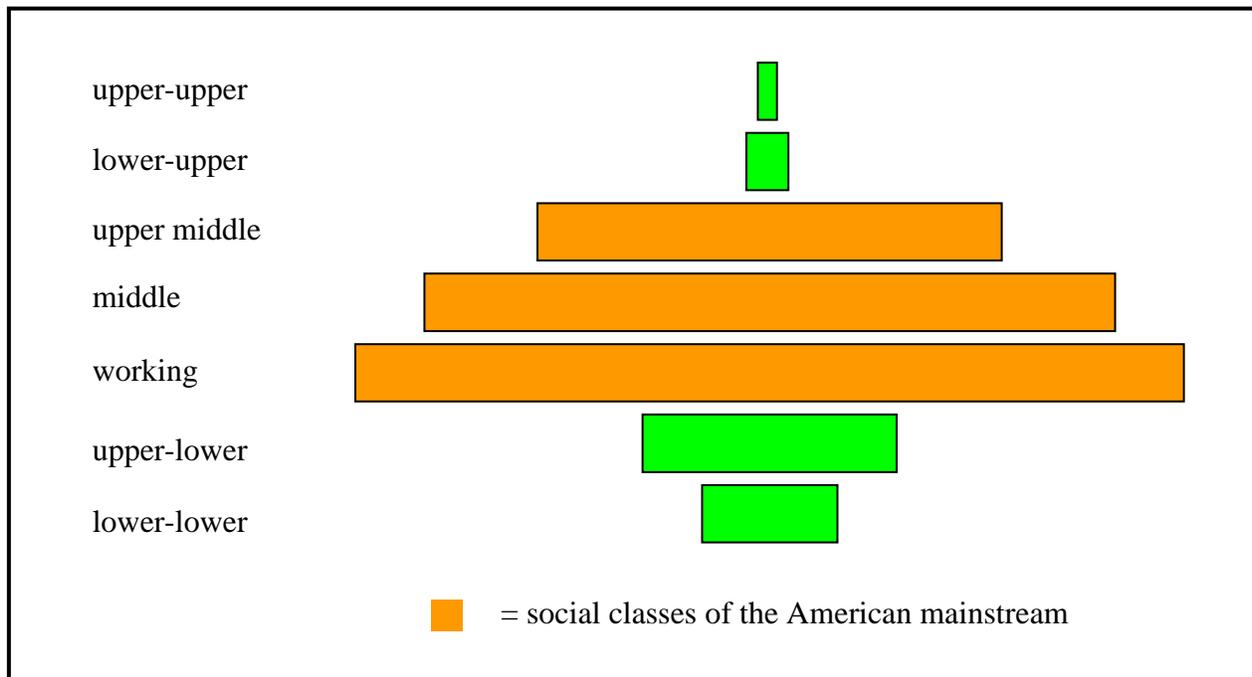


Exhibit 4. U.S. Social Class System

feel uncomfortable with because it involves a sort of social ranking, which may conflict with American society's traditionally egalitarian view of itself.

What is social class? As noted above, social class is based on a system of ranking members of society. We define a "social class system" as an "ordered and hierarchical division of society into distinct groups with respect to norms, attitudes, values, and lifestyles." An individual's social class would be the division of the social class system to which he or she belongs. Social class systems stratify societies in part to divide the privileges, rights, and other resources offered by the society.

In some countries, social class systems are very well defined and even formalized. For example, India has for years struggled with the injustices of a rigid caste system under which people were placed into a particular social class based solely on their birth. As India became more industrialized, it outlawed caste based

discrimination. However, the problems of an entrenched discriminatory social class system persist.

For most Western industrialized nations, social class systems are far less formal, far less rigid, and far less well-defined than in developing nations. In the United States, we might think of our system of social stratification less in terms of distinct classes and more as a continuum of social ranks. Moreover, social mobility in industrialized countries is far easier than in countries with formalized social class systems such as the caste system.

In industrialized democracies, social rank derives from some combination of "achievement dimensions" and "ascribed dimensions." In the United States, achievement dimensions are the dominant determinant of social class. These include such factors as education, income, occupation, and to a lesser extent, assets such as place of residence. Ascribed dimensions play an important role in social rank determination in the U.S., but not the

dominant role. These include such factors as race, gender, surname, and community longevity.

The U.S. social class system. As noted above, the U.S. social class system is best thought of as a continuum of social ranks rather than distinct sets of classes. Still, for explanatory purposes, many writers describe the U.S. social class system as a series of points on the continuum that can be labeled as social classes and serve to illustrate the social differences that exist between groups of Americans. We will adopt the most common view of the American social class system, which divides the population into seven social class groups. These social class groupings are shown in Exhibit 4 on the preceding page.

At the top of the social class hierarchy is the “upper upper” class, which comprises approximately only about 0.3% of the total population. Individuals in this social class tend to be extremely affluent, with most of their wealth inherited. Many carry aristocratic names suggesting “old money.”

Just below this group is the “lower upper” class. People belonging to this class also tend to be very wealthy. Indeed, in terms of income or assets, they can be substantially wealthier than the upper uppers, however, but their wealth may be somewhat more recent. Corporate executives and the professional elite in the country frequently belong to this social class. As you might expect, this social class is rather small as well, comprising only 1.2% of the population.

The third social class from the top is referred to as the “upper middle” class. People in this social class also enjoy affluent lifestyles but tend to lack the overall levels of assets found in the two top social classes. Members of this social class occupy mid to upper managerial positions in the corporate world or may be professionals such as doctors, lawyers, or engineers. This social

class comprises about 12.5% of the population.

Fourth is the “middle class,” which makes up 32% of the population. The middle class is made up of college educated mid-level managers and other average pay white collar workers.

The fifth social class is called the “working class.” People in the working class may hold skilled and semi skilled blue collar jobs. Many in this social class may earn more than those in the middle class but are categorized in the working class because they may lack a college education and because they do not hold white collar jobs. This social class makes up about 38% of the total.

Sixth is the “upper lower” class. People in this social class live at or just above the poverty level, may lack a high school diploma, and frequently hold unskilled service sector jobs that pay minimum wage or only slightly better. The upper lower class is about 9% of the population.

At the bottom of the U.S. social hierarchy is the “lower lower” class. People in this social class are poverty stricken. They may be unemployed or underemployed and frequently receive some sort of public assistance. They make up about 7% of the population.

As shown in Exhibit 4, the most striking feature of the U.S. social class system is the large proportion of people falling into the middle range. In fact, over eight in ten Americans occupy the upper middle, middle, or working classes. Collectively, these three social classes are referred to by some sociologists as the “American mainstream” because they represent such a large majority of Americans.

The presence of the American mainstream as a feature of our social structure adds much to America’s way of

Working Class	Middle Class	Upper Middle Class
<p>Tend to be “family folk;” more than half live within five miles of close relatives.</p> <p>Prefer local news to national newscasts relative to other mainstream classes.</p> <p>Tend to take vacations within two hour drive of home.</p> <p>Very patriotic and supportive of American industry; many union members belong to working class.</p> <p>Family tends to structured traditional sex roles.</p> <p>Close affinity to neighborhood.</p>	<p>More interested than working class in investing time and resources on future improvement (education, retirement, etc.)</p> <p>Money tends to be more important to middle class than other mainstream classes, in part because they see opportunity to move up in social status.</p> <p>Strongly prefer home ownership.</p> <p>Tend to purchase national brands more than store or economy brands.</p> <p>Strong interest in being seen as “respectable.”</p>	<p>Compared to other mainstream classes, work plays a major role in social interactions; friends are those from work or in similar professions.</p> <p>More likely than other groups to be involved in charitable work, though often not directed at poor (PTA, Chamber of Commerce)</p> <p>Watch less TV than other mainstream social classes.</p> <p>Prefer prestige brands, tend to spend with “good taste.”</p> <p>Travel more often and further than other mainstream classes, in part due to higher incomes.</p>

Exhibit 5. Characteristics of the American Mainstream

life. That so many Americans live in such comparative affluence – at least by world standards – and enjoy a comfortable standard of living plays a major role in the general social stability of our country and our economy.

Because they make up such a huge proportion of the population and because they enjoy a materially comfortable standard of living, the American mainstream comprises a rather large target for marketing efforts. And as you might expect, some notable differences exist in the general values and purchasing habits of the three social class groups that make up the American mainstream. These differences are summarized in Exhibit 5.

As noted in the exhibit, broadly defined differences in brand preferences, motives for purchasing, and shopping

behaviors exist between groups. Some but not all of these differences can be explained by differences in income. It’s worth noting again that many skilled blue collar occupations associated with the working class pay more than some white collar managerial occupations associated with the middle class. As such, many of the marketplace differences between groups are more attributable to values and beliefs within social classes than strictly to income.

Personality

Over the years, the study of personality as a predictor of shopping behavior has met with mixed results. One reason is because of the disparate views of personality that exist in psychology; some views predict consumer behavior better than

others. Therefore, we will utilize one of the more successful views of personality called the “trait view” of personality. The trait view suggests that all people contain greater or lesser amounts of a set of personality traits. In combination, they create an individual’s personality. In turn, that personality produces reasonably predictable marketplace behavior. In this section, we briefly examine several personality traits that have been shown in various studies to affect such behaviors.

Self-confidence. People with high degrees of individual self confidence are those who feel comfortable with their product and brand selection decisions. As such, they frequently do not hesitate to try new stores, products, or brands. People high in self-confidence present something of a double edged sword to marketers. While an attractive target for new product or brand introductions, many highly self-confident people do not tend to develop strong or long lasting brand loyalties.

Importantly, self-confidence manifests itself in a variety of ways. It can be a highly generalized personality trait, meaning that people may feel self-confident in virtually all situations. It can also be situation specific, where people have great confidence in some situations and not others. This suggests that they may feel confident buying certain types of products but not others.

Dogmatism and rigidity. Dogmatism can be described simply as “closed-mindedness.” Dogmatic people tend to view change negatively, in large part because they frequently view the world in relatively simple terms. While dogmatism refers to the mental state of closed-mindedness, rigidity can be thought of as its behavioral side. That is, rigidity refers to how much people resist change behaviorally. While the two almost always go hand-in-hand, technically, they need not.

Dogmatists can dislike change, but when faced with its inevitability, adapt their behaviors to the change quite easily.

As you might expect, dogmatic and rigid people do not easily adopt new products nor do they venture into new experiences. Marketers find such people unattractive targets for new products, but once they feel comfortable with a brand, dogmatists tend to stick with them. Unlike self-confidence, dogmatism tends to be a rather pervasive personality trait. It’s rarely situation specific; dogmatists tend to be dogmatic in all areas.

Compliance, aggressiveness, and detachment. These three personality traits pertain to how people cope with stress or anxiety. People with compliant personalities tend to move toward (i.e., get closer to) the source of stress or anxiety and may even develop dependencies on the source of the stress, particularly if the source is another person. Research has shown that those with compliant personalities respond more favorably to products or brands that help build social relationships. Compliant people also tend to complain less than others in the face of dissatisfaction or product failure in part because compliant people also tend to avoid conflict.

People with aggressive personalities tend to move against the source of their stress or anxiety and seek to eliminate it. Research shows that aggressive types respond well to brands that emphasize status and control as product benefits. As you might expect, those with aggressive personalities complain easily and may be difficult customers to satisfy. Other studies have shown a correlation between aggressiveness and the number of people told of a dissatisfying consumption experience. In other words, aggressive personality types tell more people about their unhappiness than nonaggressive types.

People who tend to detachment will move away from the source of any stress or anxiety, perhaps to assert their independence from it. Indeed, research has shown a preference by detached personality types for brand appeals that emphasize independence.

Need for cognition. An interesting line of research has focused on the degree to which people need to think about decisions before making them. This personality trait has direct application to advertising and other forms of marketing communication. This is because people with high needs for cognition respond well to advertisements that contain well reasoned arguments and solid evidence in favor of buying the product. Conversely, people with high needs for cognition tend to respond less favorably to advertisements that focus heavily on emotional appeals and do not present rational, reasoned arguments and evidence.

Affect intensity. The trait of affect intensity simply means that one responds very emotionally to environmental stimuli. As such, according to theory, an individual can possess high levels of both need for cognition and affect intensity. In other words, it's theoretically possible for a person to think heavily and deeply about decisions and to respond with great emotional intensity to environmental stimuli. In practice, however, these two traits tend to correlate negatively. That is, people with low needs for cognition are less likely to be affectively intense than people with low needs for cognition.

This suggests that people with strong affect intensity respond more favorably to marketing communications that emphasize emotion in their appeals. Research supports that assumption. Just as need for cognition produces a preference for rational evidence based arguments in favor of buying a product, affect intensity produces a

preference for emotional appeals in favor of purchase.

Self-consciousness and self-monitoring. These personality traits pertain to how individuals feel about and respond to the image they present to others. Self-consciousness refers to how keenly aware a person is of himself or herself in social situations. Commonly, self-consciousness is thought to mean feeling uncomfortable in given situations, though this need not be so. The trait simply refers to the awareness one feels of his or her public image in certain situations. The discomfort arises when that public image conflicts with one's desired self-concept.

A related personality trait is "self-monitoring," which refers to the degree to which individuals adapt their behavior to fit the situation at hand. High self-monitors look to their immediate social surroundings for cues on how to behave. In the extreme, high self-monitors may actually contradict themselves depending on the situation. For example, a person may claim to hate country music when among a group of rock fans, then later claim to love country music when in the midst of country music fans. However, high self-monitors need not be so blatantly inconsistent. Instead, they may look for more innocuous ways to fit into the circumstances of the moment.

As you might expect, high self-monitors tend to also be highly self-conscious. That is, they are keenly aware of the public image they present, which is why they frequently put forth the effort to adapt it situationally. However, the converse is not always true. That is, highly self-conscious people may not be high self-monitors. They may be aware of their public image, but do little to alter it to fit the needs of the moment.

Extraversion and introversion. These two well known personality traits anchor two extremes of a continuum. The

extroversion-introversion continuum refers to how much stimulation people seek from their environments. While we're all pretty aware of the definitions associated with these traits (extroverts as socially active, introverts as loners), the sources of these characteristics are not as well known.

Where an individual falls on the continuum between extroversion and introversion is in part determined by the sensitivity of one's nervous system to environmental stimuli. The nervous systems of introverts tend to be highly sensitive to environmental stimuli. As such, they avoid situations filled with loud or intrusive noises and bright lights or colors, which frequently describe social gatherings. Avoiding such situations often means being alone or in small controlled groups. Extroverts, on the other hand, possess nervous systems that are less sensitive to loud, active, and rapidly changing environmental stimuli. Therefore, they feel more comfortable in unstructured social situations and often seek out such stimulations.

Using AIO Predictors in Marketing Research and Strategy

By way of conclusion, you should note that researching lifestyle connections to social class, reference groups, and personality can be difficult and time consuming. Quick, easily applied, and valid questionnaire items do not exist for all of these variables because of their complexity and somewhat enigmatic nature. Still, many firms do invest heavily in researching how these variables influence lifestyle, and how lifestyle in turn affects purchase behavior. We will discuss some quantitative measurement techniques for these variables in class.

That said, you should be aware that qualitative research is frequently the most effective and efficient means of addressing

these relationships. While qualitative research may lack the generalizability of well-executed quantitative studies, studies of these variables often requires delving into consumer feelings and emotions in ways not well captured by surveys and experimentation.

Often, marketers simply rely on intuition when utilizing lifestyle variables and their predictors. While the intuitive approach can be effective and certainly inexpensive, marketers should make certain that they understand the dimensions of the lifestyle variables and not overlook important possibilities. For example, if marketers believe personality may affect lifestyle in ways important to consumption of their brands, they should consider as many personality traits as possible before exercising their judgment.

Sources

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