

# The Effects of Family Structure and Socialization Influences on Compulsive Buying: A Life Course Study in Thailand

## 家庭结构和社会化对冲动购买的影响：在泰国的人生行路研究

가족구조와 사회화가 강박구매에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구:  
태국의 인생행로연구를 중심으로

Hung Vu Nguyen<sup>1)\*</sup>, George P. Moschis<sup>2)</sup>, Randall Shannon<sup>3)</sup>, Kristian Gotthelf<sup>4)</sup>

### Abstract

Compulsive consumption is regarded as a global phenomenon that can adversely affect consumer well-being. Although the topic has been studied in different cultural settings, we have seen relatively little theory development and explanations of compulsive behavior. Nearly all previous empirical studies attempt to explain this behavior by correlating measures of compulsive behavior with independent variables taken within the same time frame. However, recent developments in social sciences suggest that such a phenomenon may best understood in the context of the person's earlier-in-life experiences. Using the life course paradigm as an overarching framework, the present research extends previous work on this topic.

Following hypotheses were drawn from literature review:

- H1: The earlier in childhood and adolescence a person experiences family dislocation, the greater his or her likelihood of exhibiting compulsive behaviors in adulthood.
- H2: The earlier in life the young person experienced family dislocation, the greater the number of family disruption events the young person experienced prior entering adulthood years.
- H3: Family dislocation leads to (a) increased frequency of socio-oriented family communications and (b) decreased frequency of concept-oriented family communication.
- H4: Young adults who were raised in families characterized by a strong socio-oriented communication structure are more likely to exhibit compulsive consumption tendencies than those who were raised in families characterized by a weak socio-oriented family communication structure.

H5: Young adults who were raised in families characterized by a strong concept-oriented communication structure are less likely to exhibit compulsive consumption tendencies than those who were raised in families characterized by a weak concept-oriented family communication structure.

H6: The relationship between family disruption events experienced during adolescence and perceived stressfulness of these events is moderated by (a) global family support, (b) emotional family support, and (c) material family support. Those reporting higher levels of family support as teenagers are less likely to report experiencing stress due to family disruption events.

H7: Perceived stressfulness of family disruption events experienced during adolescent years are associated with compulsive consumption tendencies in early adulthood.

H8: The greater the number of family disruption events young adults experienced during their adolescent years the more frequent was their communication about consumption with their peers.

H9: The more frequent was the young persons' communication with their peers about consumption during their adolescent years, the more likely they are to report compulsive buying tendencies as young adults.

We use a sample of 120 Thai undergraduate students attending classes taught in English as part of a four-year international program. Product-moment correlations, hierarchical regression analysis and partial correlation were used to analyze data. Results of testing hypotheses showed that hypothesis 2, 4, 7 and 9 were supported and hypothesis 1, 3, 5, 6 and 8 were not supported.

Our study did not find a significant relationship between the age when a person experienced family dislocation and their compulsive behavior tendencies expressed as young adults. We did not find a significant relationship between family dislocation and family communication structures. But we found a significant positive relationship between socio-oriented communication structure and compulsive buying and a significant relationship between our peer communication and compulsive buying measures. Also we found perceived stressfulness due to the disruptive events to have a significant positive relationship between the perceived stressfulness and compulsive buying. Implications from these findings, limitations of this research and future research suggestions were discussed.

1)\* Corresponding author. Hung Vu Nguyen is Ph.D. student in Marketing, Georgia State University, 35 Broad Street, Atlanta, Georgia, USA 30303. Tel: +1 404 413 7670; fax: +1 404 413 7699. E-mail: mkthvnx@langate.gsu.edu

2) Alfred Bernhardt Research Professor of Marketing and Director of the Center for Mature Consumers Studies, Georgia State University, 35 Broad Street, Suite 1300, Atlanta, Georgia, USA 30303. E-mail: gmoschis@gsu.edu

3) Randall Shannon, Ph.D. Assistant Professor, Faculty and Program Chair of the Masters in Marketing Program, College of Management, Mahidol University (CMMU), 69 Vipavadee Rangsit Road, Din Daeng - Bangkok 10400, Thailand. E-mail: a.Randall@gmail.com

4) Kristian Gotthelf, Instructor of Marketing, Bangkok University, Rama 4 Road, Klong-Toey, Bangkok 10110, Thailand.

*Keywords:* Family structure, Socialization, Compulsive buying, Life course model, Stress

## 摘要

冲动购买已经成为一种全球范围内的普遍现象，它会影响到消费者权益。以往研究在同一时间框架下解释冲动行为和自变量的关系，但社会科学的最新进展显示，这一现象可以通过人的早年生活经历加以解释，本研究采用人生因果的研究范式，研究了泰国的青年人，为相关理论发展和未来研究方向提出了建议。

通过文献研究，我们提出下列假说：

- H 1: 个人在童年和青春期越早经历家庭破裂，在成年时越有可能发生冲动行为。
- H 2: 青年人在他人一生中越早经历家庭破裂，在他进入成年生活的早期发生家庭破碎的事件越多。
- H 3: 家庭破裂导致(a)社会取向的家庭沟通频率的增加(b)观念取向的家庭沟通频率的减少。
- H 4: 在具有很强的社会取向的家庭里成长起来的青年人比在具有较弱的社会取向的家庭里成长起来的青年人更会产生冲动消费。
- H 5: 在具有较弱的观念取向的家庭里成长起来的青年人比在具有很强的观念取向的家庭里成长起来的青年人更有发生冲动消费的趋势。
- H 6: (a)全面化家庭支持 (b)和睦家庭支持 (c)物质条件好的家庭支持能调节在青春期经历的家庭破裂的事件和因为这些事件所受的压力之间的关系。受到这些家庭支持的青少年比较不容易经受由于家庭破碎的事件而导致的压力。
- H 7: 由于青春期经历的家庭破碎事件所导致的压力大和成年初期的冲动消费有关。
- H 8: 青年人在他们青春期经历的家庭破碎的事件越多，他们和同龄人之间有关消费的沟通越频繁。
- H 9: 青年人在青春期和同龄人之间有关消费的沟通越频繁，在青年时期越有可能有冲动购物症的趋势。

我们用120名泰国本科学学生作为样本。这些学生参加了作为四年制国际项目一部分的英语课程。使用量表之间的相关，多层回归分析和部分相关来分析数据。假设检验的结果显示假设2, 4, 7和9被支持，假设1, 3, 5, 6和8不被支持。

我们的研究没有发现在个人经历家庭破裂的年龄和他们成年以后的冲动行为趋势之间存在显著关系。没有发现家庭破裂和家庭沟通结构之间存在显著关系。但是我们在社会取向沟通结构和冲动性购买行为之间存在显著关系，与同龄人的沟通和冲动购买之间有显著关系。而且我们发现由于家庭破碎事件所带来的压力在所受的压力和冲动购买之间有正的显著关系。本文探讨了这些发现的启示，研究的不足以及对未来研究的建议。

**关键词：**家庭结构，适应社会生活，冲动购物症，人生行路模型，压力

## I. Introduction

Researchers have had a long-standing interest in understanding the development of compulsive consumer behaviors (e.g., Hirschman 1992; Faber et al. 1995). This type of consumer

behavior has been found to relate to other forms of compulsive behavior such as alcoholism and eating disorders (Faber et al. 1995) which tend to have adverse effects on the consumer's well-being, including depression (Saunders and Munro 2000), physical ailments (Kasser 2002), and unmanageable debt (Dittmar 2004).

Compulsive consumption is regarded as a global phenomenon and has been studied in different cultures of the East and West (for a review of some studies, see Kwak et al. 2003). Although there is substantial amount of evidence in social sciences which points to the effects of life experiences in early childhood on maladaptive behaviors exhibited in adult life, nearly all previous empirical studies of compulsive consumption are cross-sectional and descriptive; they correlate measures of compulsive behavior with independent variables taken within the same time frame (e.g., Kwak et al. 2003; Roberts et al. 2003). Such studies do not show how earlier in life experiences affect present patterns of compulsive behavior because consumers are not examined relative to earlier stages of life within historical and cultural contexts (For a few notable exceptions see Rindfleisch and Burroughs 1997, Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Park and Ha 2001; Park and Kang 2002).

The life course approach can fill gaps in previous efforts that focus on time-and context-dependent consumer issues, such as compulsive consumer behaviors. This approach, which has flourished in recent decades as a framework that extends across substantive and theoretical boundaries of social and behavioral sciences (e.g., Abeles et al. 1980; Clausen 1986; Mayer and Tuma 1990; Elder 1995; Elder, Johnson and Crosnoe 2003; Lee et al., 2007) and is considered "one of the most important achievements in social science in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century" (Colby 1998), suggests that behavior cannot be studied in isolation from one's experiences or expectations; rather it is embedded with circumstances one has experienced and anticipates at different stages in life.

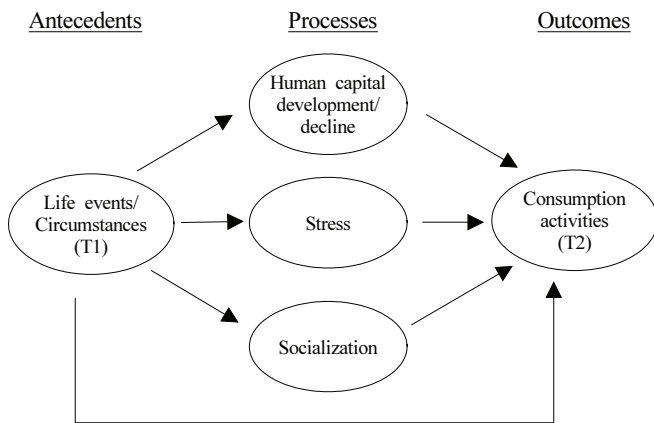
The purpose of the present research is to study compulsive consumer behaviors using the life course approach as an overarching framework. In this paper, we first present a general conceptual life course framework that serves as a blue print for discussing theoretical life course perspectives relevant to compulsive consumption. Second, we develop hypotheses derived from theories that link disruptive family events experienced in childhood to compulsive tendencies in adulthood. Third, we use data collected from young adults (ages 20 to 32) in Thailand to test our hypotheses. Finally, we discuss implications of the research findings for theory development and suggest directions for further research.

## II. Model and Hypotheses

### 2.1. Life Course Model

Figure 1 presents a general conceptual model that incorporates the types of variables and relationships that are

relevant to the main theoretical orientations of life course research. Model elements can be classified into three broad categories: events that occur at a specific point in time (T<sub>1</sub>) in the person's life course, processes triggered by these events, and outcomes that occur at later points in time (T<sub>2</sub>) which are the consequence or outcome of these processes and earlier in-time-occurred events. Events (T<sub>1</sub>) and outcomes (T<sub>2</sub>) can include various types of changes and behaviors; they can be studied by considering their timing, sequence, duration, spacing, historical contexts, and conditions under which people experience them.



Note: Adapted from Moschis (2007)

Fig. 1. A General Conceptual Life Course Model of Consumer Behavior

Development and change in patterns of thought and action may be viewed as an outcome of one's adaptation to various demands and circumstances, with adaptation entailing the processes of socialization, stress and coping responses, and development or decline. These processes, which are triggered by specific circumstances that occurred at earlier points in time or stages in life and moderated by contextual variables, are the underlying change mechanisms of the three most widely-accepted life-course perspectives (Abeles et al. 1980): human capital, stress, and normative.

Sherrod and Brim (1986) note that the various disciplinary approaches to life course research are neither conflicting nor mutually exclusive; they are complementary. In this context, the life course paradigm provides a *framework for integrating* diverse theoretical perspectives into a multi-theoretical conceptual framework (Figure 1), which is consistent with recent efforts of life course researchers to develop models that include variables derived from diverse theories (e.g., Elder et al. 1996; Pearlin and Skaff 1996; Mortimer and Shanahan 2003). We develop such a model for compulsive buying (Figure 2) that shows the specific hypotheses formulated based on the three main life course theoretical perspectives and relevant research, as presented in the next section

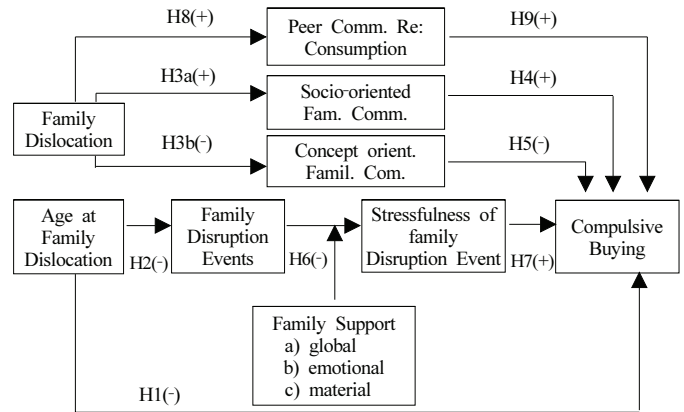


Fig. 2. A Model of Compulsive Buying Based on Life Course Perspectives

## 2.2. Theoretical Perspectives and Hypotheses

### 2.2.1. Human capital

Human capital refers to the resources, qualifications, skills, and knowledge that people acquire and “influence future income and consumption” (Frytak et al. 2003, p. 627). Theories of human capital development acknowledge that outcomes and processes are likely to change over the life course, with sources of change the natural unfolding of the life stages or developmental sequences such as Piaget's stages of cognitive development (organismic theories), the continual emergence of needs, potentialities, and successive “crises” that mark the transition between phases of the life cycle such as Erikson's theory (dialectical theories), and response to different environments such as Bandura's social learning theory (mechanistic theories). The latter theories allow for change in outcomes which may include maladaptive (e.g., excessive, compulsive) and deviant responses (Mortimer and Simmons 1978).

Family disruption events of divorce, separation, or lengthy discord may lead to impairment and delay in *human capital development* (Frytak et al. 2003). Uhlenberg and Mueller (2003) report that inadequate parental supervision in broken homes results in the ineffective inhibition of impulsive and antisocial behaviors by the children of these homes. Pechman and colleagues (2005) present results of studies which show that impaired or delayed development in human capital are likely to increase impulsive choices in response to stressful events and lead to the development of addictive behaviors. Deficit in human capital, in turn, may promote impulsive choices that are precursors to compulsive behaviors.

Organismic models of human capital suggest that psychological development and susceptibility are matters of cognitive development indexed by the person's age (John 1999; Moschis 1987). The attributes and skills that define human capital, such as adaptivity or behavioral plasticity, include “one's ability to cope with stressful events” (Baltes and Baltes 1990, p.6). Because these skills are likely to develop with age during a person's formative years, children at earlier states of

psychological development are expected to be more vulnerable to the stressful events of family disruption, which might increase the person's risk of developing compulsive behaviors. Some research appears to support this contention (Pechman et al. 2005), showing that the earlier youths initiate potentially addictive behaviors (e.g., use of alcohol and cigarettes), the greater the risk of addiction. Thus, the earlier in life a child experiences family dislocation the greater his or her risk of becoming compulsive buyer and the likelihood of experiencing additional family disruption events due to family dislocation (e.g., economic hardship, relocation) (Rindfleisch et al. 1997)

H1: The earlier in childhood and adolescence a person experiences family dislocation, the greater his or her likelihood of exhibiting compulsive behaviors in adulthood.

H2: The earlier in life the young person experienced family dislocation, the greater the number of family disruption events the young person experienced prior entering adulthood years.

The mechanistic view of human capital perspective places the emphasis on environmental influences on the development of skills. Studies have shown that a family communication environment that encourages children to develop their own views about the world and make their own decisions (known as "concept-oriented" communication structure) may facilitate human capital development. In contrast, a family communication environment that restrains youths from acquiring independence in decision making (known as "socio-oriented" communication structure) may deter capital development (Moschis 1987).

Changes in family structure affects the nurturing and support provide by parents (Hill et al. 2001). Parental divorce is associated with reduction in financial resources, which affects the way parents interact with their children. Research shows that parents who experience reduction financial resources adopt harsh and coercive parenting style, "using anger, violence, and other behaviors that undermine socially-integrative parent-child relationships and interactions." (Uhlenberg and Mueller 2003, p. 128). Divorced parents may also show a greater inclination to control their children's behaviors (Hill et al. 2001). Such coercive and controlling styles tend to characterize the socio-oriented family communication structure, which places emphasis on child's yielding to parents' requests and maintaining harmonious social relationships with them (Moschis 1987). In contrast, children in intact families receive more affection and support from their parents. Beyond their mere presence, both parents tend to have a level of commitment and involvement in the child's life (Uhlenberg and Mueller 2003); and parent-child interactions are aimed at enhancing the child's well-being. Such rearing practices tend to be embedded in the concept-oriented family communication style, which encourages the child to express his or her views without the fear of retaliation (Moschis1987).

H3: Family dislocation leads to (a) increased frequency of socio-oriented family communications and (b) decreased frequency of concept-oriented family communication.

Delayed development in cognitive skills has been found to

be associated with susceptibility to impulsive choices that are precursors to compulsive behaviors (Uhlenberg and Mueller 2003; Pechman et al. 2005). Thus exposure to a concept-oriented family communication is expected to foster human capital and rational decision making and deter compulsive behaviors. In contrast, a socio-oriented family communication structure, which is expected to impair or delay human capital development, increases the likelihood of development of compulsive behaviors. Recent empirical research by Gwin, Roberts, and Martinez (2005) found compulsive buying to be associated with socio-oriented family communication among high school and young adult students surveyed in Mexico, while concept-oriented family communication had a marginally negative association ( $p < .07$ ) with compulsive behavior. We expect to see the same result in the Thailand sample.

H4: Young adults who were raised in families characterized by a strong socio-oriented communication structure are more likely to exhibit compulsive consumption tendencies than those who were raised in families characterized by a weak socio-oriented family communication structure.

H5: Young adults who were raised in families characterized by a strong concept-oriented communication structure are less likely to exhibit compulsive consumption tendencies than those who were raised in families characterized by a weak concept-oriented family communication structure.

### 2.2.2. Stress

The *stress perspective* views short-term and long-term changes in patterns of thought and action as outcomes of the person's responses to stress. Life events, negative as well as positive and neutral ones, are treated as stressors that create a generalized demand for readjustment by the individual because they create psychological disequilibrium (Gierveld and Dykstra 1993; Cho 2006). The person builds a unique set of strategies (mental and behavioral responses) to cope with unacceptable and painful feelings produced by such events and restore control over life outcomes (Rothbaum et al. 1982; Heckhausen and Schulz 1995). Thoughts and behaviors that help reduce the stress are originally effortful and reflect coping, but over time they may be reinforced and become conditioned responses that result in the development of habitual forms of behaviors such as hobbies and a wide variety of compulsive disorders (e.g., Hirschman 1992; Faber et al. 1995)

Stress theory posits change in family life that affects children. Key aspects of family life for this theory are parental marital events such as divorce or (re)marriage which are viewed as stressful, leading to problem behavior due to weakening of emotional security and bonds (Hill et al. 2001). While family disruptions tend to deplete family resources, their impact is expected to vary by level of family support. Thoits (1995) reviews studies that show family support to help combat stressful experiences. Thus, while the study by Rindfleisch et al. (1997) treated family support as a mediating



variable, stress theory and research suggest that family support may also serve as a moderating variable that “buffers” stressful experiences that are viewed as causes of compulsive consumption habits. Extant research shows that cumulative life-event stress represents a strong predictor of compulsive disorders, such as binge eating, among children and adolescents (e.g., Johnson and Bradlyn 1988).

H6: The relationship between family disruption events experienced during adolescence and perceived stressfulness of these events is moderated by (a) global family support, (b) emotional family support, and (c) material family support. Those reporting higher levels of family support as teenagers are less likely to report experiencing stress due to family disruption events.

H7: Perceived stressfulness of family disruption events experienced during adolescent years are associated with compulsive consumption tendencies in early adulthood.

### 2.2.3. Normative

The *normative perspective* assumes that certain life events such as marriage, divorce, and retirement serve as markers of transition into important life roles (e.g., spouse, parent and retiree). Through the process of *socialization*, individuals acquire skills and attitudes compatible with the roles they enact. The person gradually changes his or her identity to fit the assumed or anticipated role (Wheaton 1990; McAlexander et al. 1993). Unlike prior views of socialization that were restricted to the socialization that takes place during different stages of life (e.g., childhood, adolescence, adulthood) (Moschis 1987), the life course view recognizes the importance of earlier-in-life experiences. Behaviors at a given stage in life relate to experiences (e.g., behaviors, socialization) at earlier stages, and “Behaviors can not be fully explained by restricting analysis to a specific life stage” (Elder and Johnson 2002, p. 57). Furthermore, whereas traditional socialization theories focus on outcomes that are either stable or fluid (Mortimer and Simmons 1978), the life course paradigm makes a distinction between processes that lead to stable and those that lead to fluid outcomes.

From a normative perspective, family disruptions such as divorce or family discord and economic hardship may result in ineffective parenting (Elder et al. 1996; Hill et al. 2001). Such disruptions weaken adult supervision and monitoring of children’s behavior as important means by which children are socialized to social norms and are kept from engaging in socially undesirable behaviors. Absence of parents and their distant relationship or infrequent contact with the child (e.g., divorce, parents increased time dedicated to outside careers) interfere with socialization (Uhlenberg and Mueller 2003); they alienate the young person, causing his or her gravitation toward non-familial socialization agents (i.e., peers), which are sources of influence on the initiation of several undesirable consumption activities (e.g., cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, gambling, shoplifting) (for studies, see Moschis 1987). Peers provide “arenas of comfort” or safe havens

where adolescents can relax and rejuvenate from the pressures and stress of family and school (e.g. Gecas 2003). The self-agency developed and fostered in peer groups may be directed toward constructive or destructive ends (Gecas 2003). An early onset of such age-inappropriate behaviors that are positively reinforced in group settings, and the initiation of (or experimentation with) such activities increases their likelihood of becoming coping responses during stressful times and subsequently developing into compulsive behaviors, in line with the stress perspective.

H8: The greater the number of family disruption events young adults experienced during their adolescent years the more frequent was their communication about consumption with their peers.

H9: The more frequent was the young persons’ communication with their peers about consumption during their adolescent years, the more likely they are to report compulsive buying tendencies as young adults.

## III. Methods

### 3.1. Sample

We use a sample of Thai undergraduate students attending classes taught in English as part of a four-year international program. To achieve a wide representation of our sample characteristics, one private and one state university were chosen. Because courses taught in this program also must use books written in English, the questionnaires were in English, which also reduced issues related to maintaining equivalence across translations. Students from several classes were asked to participate in the study by filling out a four-page self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered in-class to 144 students. Prior to completing the questionnaires, one of the authors went through the questionnaire using an overhead projector and explained each question to participants of the study to ensure validity in responses. Students were free to ask questions about any items that they did not understand; they were told that they could ask for clarification, if they did not understand a question.

The questionnaires were edited and those that were incomplete or improperly completed were eliminated from the analyses. The final sample consisted of 120 students whose age ranged from 20 to 32 (mean = 25.7 years, standard deviation = 3.11 years). Due to the convenience nature of the sample, females were over-represented (69.7%) because of the gender composition of the students enrolled in the two universities used as a sampling frame. This convenience sample was considered appropriate for testing our hypotheses due to the nature of our study. Wooten (2006) notes that young adults are ideally suited both to remember the circumstances of their adolescence and to report these circumstances honestly. This combination of accuracy and honesty is crucial given our retrospective study design. Kasser (2002) calls college students

“the backbone of much scientific research in psychology” (p.7), and many of his studies (and others published in top journals) used samples similar in size to the sample obtained for this research.

### 3.2. Measures

In constructing measures for the variables of our study, we relied on past research and used measures similar to those used in previous studies which suggested their desirability. The specific items used in these measures are shown in the Appendix. We used D’Astous et al.’s (1990) *compulsive behavior* measure which has been used in previous studies (e.g. Roberts et al. 2003, 2004) because, in comparison to the measure used by Rindfleisch and colleagues (1997), it was found more reliable in U.S. and non-U.S. cultures, including French-Canadian and Mexican (D’Astous et al. 1990; Roberts et al. 2004). The alpha reliability coefficient of this scale was acceptable ( $\alpha = 0.851$ ).

*Family support* may be in the form of *material and emotional support*, and these two dimensions appear to be distinct in previous studies (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Roberts et al. 2003). We used the same items and response format (three that measure material support and five that measure emotional support, shown in the Appendix), and we obtained the same dimensions as in previous studies. The alpha reliability coefficient of the eight-item global family support scale was 0.856, while for the sub-scales of emotional family support and material family support were 0.854 and 0.749, respectively. We used a measure of *peer communication about consumption* that had been used in previous consumer socialization studies (e.g., Moschis and Moore 1979, 1982) (see Appendix). This measure, which consists of eight items, had an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.837.

*Family dislocation* was measured in a similar way as in previous studies (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Roberts et al. 2003). Respondents were asked: “Up until your 18th birthday, did you live in the same house as both your biological mother and father for your entire life, not counting the times spent away at college or other temporary periods in which you were away from home?” (“yes” response = intact; “no” response = dislocated). Those who provided a “no” response were asked to write in their age(s) during which they lived without both parents. This information was used to determine the age at which the respondent had first experienced family dislocation.

We also collected information on the same 10 disruptive family life events used in previous studies (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Roberts et al. 2003). We used six *family disruption events* from previous studies (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Roberts et al. 2003) that suggested a direct impact of family on the person’s emotional well-being (see the Appendix) to develop a 0-to-6 point measure (index). These specific events were selected because of their relevance to a dislocated family, as opposed to the remaining four events excluded (e.g., difficulties with school work, establishing/keeping relationships

with friends) which may not necessarily relate to family disruption. *Perceived stressfulness of family disruption events* of the six family disruption events (Appendix) was measured using the same five-point scale that was used in previous studies (Rindfleisch et al. 1997; Roberts et al. 2003). From a psychometric standpoint, life event scales in general and the various events that comprise the two family disruption scales in particular, “are not expected to be estimates of a single underlying construct or characteristic and, therefore, should have nothing in common” (Herbert and Cohen 1996, p.304). In addition, because each event may occur independently from other events and there is no necessary expectation that the experience of one event increases the likelihood of another, we did not expect composite measures of stressful events experienced to display interval validity or consistency (e.g., Herbert and Cohen, 1996; Kim et al. 2003).

The two family communication structures—*socio-oriented and concept-oriented*—which were developed more than 40 years ago have been measured in various ways with respect to number of items used and response formats (e.g., Rubin et al. 1994). The number of items used has varied from one or two (Flouri 2000; Saphir and Chaffee 2002) to 15 (Richie and Fitzpatrick 1990), while response formats have been in the form of frequency (very often-never) and (dis)agreement with statements (Rubin et al. 1994). We decided to use the same items originally developed (shown in the Appendix) because longer scales have included these items and are part of the same factors (albeit disagreement in their interpretation—see Rubin et al. 1994). Previous research has validated the two family communication measures, but has provided variance in reliabilities depending on the number of items used and the nature of the sample (Rubin et al. 1994). The socio-orientation measure was purified and only four items were retained (see Appendix). Its alpha reliability coefficient was 0.54. The alpha reliability coefficient of the concept-oriented scale was 0.607. These relatively low figures are fairly consistent with reliability coefficient for this scale reported in the literature (e.g., Rubin et al. 1994).

## IV. Results

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics and product-moment correlations between the variables in our hypotheses. We used product moment correlations to test hypotheses that pertain to the sole effects of family dislocation and family structure (hypotheses 2, 3, and 8); we used hierarchical regression to test the moderating effects of family support on the relationship between the number of disruptive events the stressfulness of these events experienced (hypothesis 6), as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986); and we used both product moment correlations and partial correlations to test the remaining hypotheses pertaining to the expected correlates of compulsive buying (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 1 posits that the earlier a person experienced

family dislocation in his/her childhood and adolescence, the more likely he or she will exhibit compulsive behaviors in early adulthood. Table 1 shows a negative correlation between the age at which a person experienced family dislocation and compulsive buying behavior, as hypothesized, but the correlation is not statistically significant ( $r = -0.118$ , ns). The correlation coefficient is even weaker ( $-0.037$ , ns), after partialing out the effects of two family structure measures, peer communication about consumption, and perceived stressfulness of family disruption events experienced (see Figure 2). Thus hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 posits a positive relationship between the earlier age a person experienced family dislocation in his or her childhood and adolescence and the number of family disruption events he or she experienced before entering adulthood. The correlation between the two variables is negative, as expected, and approaches significance ( $r = -0.335$ ,  $p$ -value = 0.07). Thus, hypothesis 2 is supported at .07 confidence level.

Hypothesis 3 predicts that family dislocation will lead to (a) a greater frequency of socio-oriented family communication but (b) a decreased frequency of concept-oriented family communication. Contrary to our expectations, we find a positive relationship between family dislocation and frequency of concept-oriented family communication, and a negative relationship between family dislocation and frequency of socio-oriented family communication ( $r = 0.052$  and  $-0.014$ , respectively). However, these correlations are not statistically significant. Thus, hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b) are not supported.

Based on the mechanistic view of the human capital perspective, hypothesis 4 posits that young adults who are raised in families characterized by a stronger emphasis on

socio-oriented communication structure are more likely to exhibit compulsive consumption tendencies than those who were not raised in such families. The data produces a significant positive correlation between socio-oriented communication structure and compulsive buying ( $r = .223$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), providing support for Hypothesis 4.

In contrast to hypothesis 4, hypothesis 5 posits that young adults who are raised in families characterized by a stronger emphasis on concept-oriented family structure are less likely to exhibit compulsive buying tendencies. Contrary to our expectation, the correlation between concept-oriented communication structure and compulsive buying is positive but not significant ( $r = 0.079$ , ns). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is not supported.

In line with the stress perspective, hypothesis 6 predicts that the relationship between the number of family disruption events a person experienced in adolescent years and the perceived stressfulness due to the family disruption events will be moderated by the family supports the person received during these formative years. We assumed the linear moderation effects and followed the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test moderation effects. The moderators were analyzed with three different types of family support: global family support (H 6a), emotional family support (H6b), and material family support (H6c). As suggested by Cohen and colleagues (2003), to avoid collinearity between the main-effect variables and the interaction term, we mean-centered the variables before running regressions. The hierarchical regression results are reported in Tables 2, 3, and 4. The data suggest that neither global family support nor emotional family support moderates the relationship between the number of family disruption events experienced and the reported stressfulness of these events. For material

Table 1. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for Variables

	MEAN	STD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. COMPULSIVE BUYING	32.52	8.36	1										
2. YOUNGEST AGE EXPERIENCED FAMILY DISLOCATION b	9.47	6.12	-0.118	1									
3. NUMBER OF DISRUPTIVE FAMILY EVENTS EXPERIENCED	2.64	1.17	0.038	-0.335	1								
4. FAMILY DISLOCATION c	0.75	0.44	-0.106	.a	-0.026	1							
5. SOCIO ORIENTED COMMUNICATION. d	10.94	2.89	.223*	-0.093	-0.033	-0.014	1						
6. CONCEPT ORIENTED COMMUNICATION.	17.93	3.64	0.079	-0.15	-.200*	0.052	-0.116	1					
7. STRESS DUE TO FAMILY DISRUPTION EVENTS	15.83	1.81	.297**	-0.092	.372**	-.284**	0.1	-0.046	1				
8. PEER COMMUNICATION.	27.05	5.37	.420**	-0.105	0.172	-0.018	.312**	-0.045	.227*	1			
9. PARENTAL GLOBAL SUPPORT	31.57	5.30	0.103	0.049	-0.038	0.111	-0.076	.223*	-0.025	-0.049	1		
10. EMOTIONAL FAMILY SUPPORT	19.19	4.00	0.073	0.095	-0.068	0.155	-0.108	.257**	-0.062	-0.108	.942**	1	
11. MATERIAL FAMILY SUPPORT	12.38	2.03	0.125	-0.073	0.036	-0.016	0.014	0.075	0.057	0.084	.753**	.490**	1

N = 120 unless indicated otherwise.

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

b. Sample size for correlations with this variable is 30

c. Sample size for correlations with this variable is 119

d. Sample size for correlations with this variable is 114

family support, a significant interaction effect for material family supports emerged ( $p < .05$ ) (Table 4), but the sign of the interaction term is the opposite than expected direction. These results do not support Hypothesis 6 because they show that young people who experienced higher levels of material support also experienced higher level of stress due to family disruption events; and they suggest that parents may be providing tangible products to their children to help them cope with stressful family events.

Table 2. Test of Moderating Effects – Global Family Supports

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.825	.155		102.113	.000
	Family Disruption Events Centered	.578	.134	.371	4.323	.000
	Family Supports	-.004	.029	-.011	-.134	.894
2	(Constant)	15.828	.156		101.725	.000
	Family Disruption Events	.583	.134	.374	4.332	.000
	Family Supports Centered	-.005	.030	-.015	-.178	.859
	Family Supp. x Fam. Dis.	.011	.024	.041	.472	.638

Dependent Variable: Stress Due to Family Disruption Events  
 Model 1:  $F = 9.39$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$ ; Model 2:  $F = 6.292$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$

Table 3. Test of Moderating Effects – Emotional Family Supports

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.825	.155		102.188	.000
	Family Disruption Events	.575	.134	.369	4.295	.000
	Emotional Family Supports	-.017	.039	-.037	-.435	.665
2	(Constant)	15.822	.156		101.594	.000
	Family Disruption Events	.568	.136	.365	4.187	.000
	Emotional Family Supports	-.014	.040	-.031	-.350	.727
	Emo. Supp. x Fam. Dis.	-.011	.030	-.032	-.360	.720

Dependent Variable: Stress Due to Family Disruption Events  
 Model 1:  $F = 9.489$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$ ; Model 2:  $F = 6.322$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$

Table 4. Test of Moderating Effects – Material Family Supports

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.825	.155		102.217	.000
	Family Disruption Events	.576	.134	.370	4.315	.000
	Material Family Supports	.039	.076	.043	.506	.614
2	(Constant)	15.813	.152		103.709	.000
	Family Disruption Events	.542	.132	.348	4.097	.000
	Material Family Supports	.019	.076	.021	.248	.805
	Mat. Supp. x Fam. Dis.	.139	.064	.187	2.184	.031

Dependent Variable: Stress Due to Family Disruption Events  
 Model 1:  $F = 9.528$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$ ; Model 2:  $F = 8.146$ ,  $p$ -value  $< .01$

Furthermore, based on the stress perspective, Hypothesis 7 posits a positive relationship between perceived stressfulness of family disruption events of a person during adolescent years and his or her tendency to show compulsive buying behaviors in early adulthood. As expected, we find a significant positive correlation between perceived stressfulness due to family disruption events and compulsive buying ( $r = 0.297$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). After controlling for the effects of the other variables that are

expected to influence compulsive buying (Figure 2), the correlation between the two variables is 0.504 ( $p < 0.01$ ). Thus, hypothesis 7 is supported.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 are based on the normative perspective. Specifically, hypothesis 8 predicts that young adults who experienced family dislocation during their adolescent years would more likely to communicate about consumption with their peers. However, contrary to our expectation, our data produces a rather weak correlation between the family dislocation and peer communication about consumption ( $r = -.018$ , ns), providing no support for hypothesis 8.

Finally, hypothesis 9 posits that the more frequent a young person communicated with his or her peers about consumptions during his or her adolescent years, the more likely he or she is to report compulsive buying tendencies as a young adults. As expected, the correlation between the two variables is 0.42 ( $p$ -value  $< 0.01$ ). After controlling for the possible effects of the two family communication structures, perceived stressfulness of family disruption events experienced, and age at family dislocation, we also find a significant positive correlation between peer communication about consumption and the compulsive buying measure ( $r = 0.514$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.01$ ) Thus, hypothesis 9 is supported.

## V. Discussion and Direction for Further Research

Previous research has found that family dislocation experienced by young adults in their adolescent years may have negative influences in their later life, leading to the development of compulsive behaviors (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 1997). However, the mechanisms that link family structure to compulsive buying were not clear. The present study employs the life course paradigm that focuses on the effect of earlier-in-life experiences on the later life outcomes or behaviors and suggests the mechanisms via which such consumption orientations are likely to develop. The human capital view on the life course paradigm suggested a stronger effect of family dislocation on compulsive consumption behaviors when the youth experiences such an event earlier rather than later in childhood and adolescent years. On the basis of theory and research, we reasoned that family dislocation may lead to impairment and delay in human capital development which is likely to increase impulsive choices, the precursors to compulsive behaviors. Our study, however, did not find a significant relationship between the age a person experienced family dislocation and their compulsive behavior tendencies expressed as young adults. Moreover, we only found a significant relationship between the age at which a person experienced family dislocation and the family disruption events they experienced in adolescent years at 0.07 confidence level. Given the marginal results, we suggest the need for further research because the present findings may be attributed to the low power of significant tests as the number of young adults



who experienced family dislocation in adolescent years in this Thai sample is rather small (N=30).

In a similar vein, based on the same life course perspective, we posited the effect of family dislocation on the two family communication structures that, in turn, influence compulsive behaviors as a young adult. In this research, however, we did not find a significant relationship between family dislocation and family communication structures. The absence of expected relationships may also be due to the small number of our respondents who had experienced family dislocation in childhood and adolescent years. The high skewness in this family structure variable in our sample may have attenuated the true relationship between family dislocation and our communication measures with family and peers communication regarding consumption.

We found a significant positive relationship between socio-oriented communication structure and compulsive buying, and this product-moment correlation is in line with the Gwin and colleagues' (2005) findings. Although Gwin and associates found a significant relationship between concept-oriented communication structure and compulsive buying, our data did not produce similar results. The inconsistency in the results may be attributed to the low reliabilities of the scales of this family communication measure. Low reliabilities of measures will attenuate the true correlations of the constructs they measure with other constructs. The absence of a significant relationship between family dislocation and peer communication regarding consumption, an expectation based on the normative life course perspective, may be due to the small sample of the subjects who experienced family dislocation (N=30). However, we found a significant relationship between our peer communication and compulsive buying measures, a finding consistent with that reported by D'Astous and associates (1990) based on a French-Canadian sample of adolescents. Thus, normative perspective and the mechanistic view of human capital may account, at least in part, for the influence of the family and peers on the development of excessive forms of consumption behavior.

Our hypotheses based on the stress life course perspective focused on the impact of the stressful family disruption events. We found perceived stressfulness due to the disruptive events to have a significant positive relationship between the perceived stressfulness and compulsive buying. This finding is consistent with that reported by Rindfleisch and colleagues (1997). Our study, however, did not find a moderation effect of global and emotional family support on the relationship between disruptive family events and stressfulness of the events. Regardless the level of the family supports, more disruptive family events seems to always create more stressfulness for adolescents. Contrary to our expectation, though, we found a positive moderating effect of material family supports on the relationship between disruptive family events and stressfulness due to the events. This finding poses a challenge in our ability to generalize knowledge based on studies in the U.S. to different cultures, especially the Eastern

ones such as Thailand.

Our study is not without limitations. First, some of the measures we used in the Western cultural context are of questionable validity and reliabilities in Eastern cultures such as Thailand. Specifically, the reliabilities of socio-oriented and concept-oriented communication measures were rather low. Future research should focus on the development of more reliable measures which could be used in the Eastern cultural context. Second, the way that we form the index of family disruptive events may be an issue. Although summation of life events is a commonly-used approach in psychological studies (e.g. Cohen 1988), different events may create different levels of stressfulness. Specific events combined may also make a total effect distinctively larger or smaller than the simple summation of the effects of the individual events. The simple index created by summing up the number of events may not be appropriate to detect their effects on stress on compulsive behaviors. Also, our study used a student sample and a relative small sample size. Future research should focus on a more representative and larger sample. Finally, having respondents to recall their adolescence experiences, especially the effects of these experiences, will leave room for errors. Errors in their reported responses may affect the proposed relationships.

Despite these limitations, studies such as ours are needed to help us understand consumer behavior in different cultural contexts. Future research should attempt to identify possible moderators that may account for the contextual difference in explaining the relationship between disruptive family events and compulsive behavior. Self-esteem, for example, could be such a possible moderating factor. Self-esteem was found to be a strong resource in combating stressful life events (Thoits 1995). It has also been consistently found to be a strong predictor of materialistic attitudes, and it may explain the development of compulsive behaviors (e.g., Belk 1988). The difficulty, however, may lie in measuring a young adult's self-esteem at earlier stages in life. Thus, longitudinal research would be needed to accurately measure such psychological constructs over time.

Future research may also attempt to re-examine the relationship between family disruption and compulsive behavior. The relationship may not be simply linear. It is possible that family disruptive events are related to compulsive behavior in a non-linear fashion. Such relationships should be investigated in future studies. In a similar vein, variables that may mediate the relationship between family disruption events and compulsive buying should be examined, at least in Thailand or other Eastern country population. While previous research using U.S. samples found a relationship between family dislocation and compulsive buying, our insignificant finding may point to a missing construct operating in Eastern or Thai culture which correlates with family disruption events and compulsive buying in ways different from those found in the U.S. Finally, the impact of age on relationship between family disruption events and compulsive buying behavior also needs further research

using larger samples of respondents who experienced family dislocation during formative years.

(Received : February 26, 2009)

(Revised : May 25, 2009)

(Accepted : June 8, 2009)

## Appendix

### Items used in Measures

#### Compulsive Buying

Please circle one number to show the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement: (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

1. When I have money, I cannot help but spend part or all of it.
2. I often buy something I see in a store without planning, just because I've got to have it.
3. Shopping is a way of relaxing and forgetting my problems.
4. I sometimes feel that something inside pushes me to go shopping.
5. There are times when I have a strong urge to buy clothing, tapes, jewelry, etc.
6. I often have a real desire to go shopping and buy something.
7. I have often bought things that I don't need even when I knew I had very little money left.
8. As soon as I enter a shopping center, I want to go in a store and buy something.
9. I like to spend money.
10. At times, I feel guilty after buying something.
11. I buy some things I do not show to anybody because people may think I wasted my money.

#### Family Support

Respondents indicate adequacy of family support in the following areas, measured on a five point scale: Inadequate support (1) to Adequate support (5).

1. Spending money
2. Food
3. Clothing
4. Time and attention
5. Discipline
6. Life skills and instruction
7. Emotional support and love
8. Role modeling and guidance

#### Material Support

1. Spending money
2. Food
3. Clothing

#### Emotional Family Support

1. Time and attention
2. Discipline
3. Life skills and instruction
4. Emotional support and love
5. Role model and guidance

#### Socio-Oriented Family Communication

1. Say that their ideas were correct and you shouldn't question them.
2. Say that you should give in on arguments rather than making people angry.
3. Answer your arguments by saying something like "You'll know better when you grow up."
4. Say that you shouldn't argue with adults.

#### Concept-Oriented Family Communication

1. Emphasize that every member of your family should have some say in family decisions.
2. Say that getting your ideas across is important even if others don't like it.
3. Stress that you should make your own decisions on things that affect you.
4. Say that you should always look at both sides of an issue.
5. Admit that children know more about some things than adults do.
6. Talk at home about things like politics or religion, where one person takes a different side from others.

#### Family Disruption Events

The respondent's experience of the following events before their 18th birthday:

1. Did not live in the same home as both of their biological parents.
2. Frequent time periods in which one or both parents were absent.
3. Loss (other than death) or separation from a family member or loved one.
4. Arguments between parents or other family members.
5. Move (s) to a new place of residence.
6. Physical abuse by parents or close family members.

#### Peer Communication about Consumption

"Please think back to the time you were between the ages of 12 and 18, and circle one number for each of the following to show how often it was happening. How often did you..."

1. You ask your friends for advice about buying things.

2. You and your friends talk about buying things.
3. You and your friends talk about things you saw or heard advertised.
4. You wonder what your friends would think when you were buying things for yourself.
5. Your friends ask you for advice about buying things.
6. Your friends tell you what things you should or shouldn't buy.
7. You go shopping with your friends.
8. You try to impress your friends.

## References

- Abeles, R. P., L. Steel and L. L. Wise (1980), "Patterns and Implications of Life Course Organization: Studies from Project Talent," *Life-Span Development and Behavior*. New York: Academic Press (3), 307-337.
- Baltes, P. B. and M. M. Baltes (1990), "Psychological Perspectives on Successful Aging: A Model of Selective Optimization and compensation." *Successful Aging*. Cambridge: University Press, 1-34.
- Baron, R. M. and D. A. Kenny (1986), "The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Belk, R. W. (1988), "Possessions and the Extended Self," *Journal of Consumer Research* 15(September), 139-168.
- Bolger, N., A. Caspi, G. Downey and M. Moorehouse (1988), *Persons in Context: Developmental Processes*, UK: Cambridge University.
- Burroughs, J. E. and A. Rindfleisch (2002), "Materialism and Well-Being: A Conflicting Values Perspective," *Journal of Consumer Research* 29(December), 348-370.
- Chase-Lansdale, P. L., A. J. Cherlin and K. E. Kiernan (1995), "The Long-Term Effects of Parental Divorce on the Mental Health of Young Adults: A Developmental Perspective," *Child Development* 66, 1614-1634.
- Cho, Sang Hee (2006), "The Study of Tourist Stress on Overseas Traveling," *Journal of Global Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 16 No. 1, pp 27-43.
- Clausen, J. A. (1986), *The Life Course: A Sociological Perspective*, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Cohen, J. and P. Cohen (1983), *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cohen, J., P. Cohen, S. G. West and L. S. Aiken (2003), *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*, London, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Cohen, Lawrence H. (1988), *Life Events and Psychological Functioning*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publication
- Colby, A. (1998), "Foreword: Crafting Life Course Studies," *Methods of Life Course Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approach*. Eds. J.A. Giele and G.H. Elder, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Conger, R. D., X. Ge, G. H. Elder, F. O. Lorenz and R. L. Simons (1994), "Economic Stress, Coercive Family Process, and Developmental Problems of Adolescents." *Child Development* 65, 541-561.
- D'Astous, A., Maltais, J., and Roberge, Caroline (1990), "Compulsive Buying Tendencies of Adolescent Consumers," *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 17 (1), pp. 306-312.
- Elder, G. H. J. (1995), "The life course paradigm: Social change and individual development." P. Moen, G. H. Elder Jr., K. Luscher eds. *Examining Lives in Context: Perspectives on the Ecology of Human Development*. Washington, DC, APA Press, 101-139.
- Elder, G. H. J., L. K. George and M. J. Shanahan (1996), "Psychosocial Stress over the Life Course." *Psychosocial Stress: Perspectives on Structure, Theory, Life Course, and Methods*. Ed. Howard B. Kaplan. Orlando, FL: Academic Press, 247-292.
- Elder, G. H. J. and M. K. Johnson (2002), "The Life Course and Aging: challenges, Lessons, and New Directions." *Invitation to the Life Course: Toward New Understanding of Later Life*, Part II Ed. Richard A. Settersten, Jr. Amityville, NY: Baywood, 49-81.
- Elder, G. H. J., M. K. Johnson and R. Crosnoe (2003), "The Emergence and Development of Life Course Theory," *Handbook of the Life Course*. Ed. Jeylan T. Mortimer and Michael J. Shanahan. New York: Plenum Publishing, 3-19.
- Faber, R. J., G. A. Christenson, M. D. Zwann and J. Mitchell (1995), "Two Forms of Compulsive Consumption: Comorbidity of Compulsive Buying and Binge Eating," *Journal of Consumer Research* 22 (December), 296-304.
- Flouri, E. (1999), "An Integrated Model of Consumer Materialism: Can Economic Socialization and Maternal Values Predict Materialistic Attitudes in Adolescents?" *Journal of Socio-Economics* 28, 707-724.
- Frytak, J., C. R. Harley and M. D. Finch (2003), "Socioeconomic status and health over the life course." H. T. Mortimer, M. J. Shanahan, eds. *Handbook of the Life Course*. New York, Plenum Publishers, 623-643.
- Gecas, V. (2003), "Self Agency and the Life Course." *Handbook of the Life Course*. Eds. Jeylan T. Mortimer and Michael J. Shanahan. New York: Plenum Publishers, 369-388.
- George, L. K. (1989), "Stress, Social Support, and Depression Over the Life-Course," *Aging, Stress, and Health*. Eds. Kyriakos Markides and Cary L. Cooper. New York: John Wiley, 241-267.
- Gierveld, J. d. J. and P. A. Dykstra (1993), "Life Transitions and the Network of Personal Relationships: Theoretical and Methodological Issues," *Advances in Personal Relationships* 4, 195-227.
- Gwin, C. F., J. A. Roberts and C. R. Martinez (2005), "Nature

- vs. Nurture: The Role of Family in Compulsive Buying," *Marketing Management Journal*, 15(1): 95-107.
- Heckhausen, J. and R. Schulz (1995), "A Life-Span Theory of Control," *Psychological Review* 102: 284-304.
- Herbert, T. B. and S. Cohen (1996), *Measurement Issues in Research on Psychosocial Stress*. San Diego, Academic Press.
- Hill, M. S., W.-J. J. Yeung and G. J. Duncan (2001), "Childhood Family Structure and Young Adult Behaviors," *Journal of Population Economics* 14, 271-299.
- Hirschman, E. C. (1992), "The Consciousness of Addiction: Toward a General Theory of Compulsive Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Research* 19 (September), 115-179.
- John, D. R. (1999), "Consumer Socialization of Children: A Retrospective Look at Twenty-Five Years of Research," *Journal of Consumer Research* 26 (December), 183-213.
- Johnson, J. H. and A. S. Bradlyn (1988), "Life Events and Adjustments in Childhood and Adolescence," *Life Events and Psychological Functioning*. Ed. Lawrence G. Cohen, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, 64-95.
- Kasser, T. (2002), *The High Price of Materialism*. MIT Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Kim, K. J., K. D. Conger, G. H. E. Jr. and F. D. Lorenz (2003), "Reciprocal influences between stressful life events and adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems," *Child Development* 74: 127-143.
- Kot, L. A. and H. M. Shoemaker (1999), "Children of Divorce: An Investigation of the Developmental Effects from Infancy through Adulthood," *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage* 31(1/2): 161-178.
- Kwak, H., G. M. Zinkhan and M. R. Crask (2003), "Diagnostic Screener for Compulsive Buying: Applications to the USA and South Korea," *Journal of Consumer Affairs* 37(1), 161-169.
- Lee, Yong-Ki, Yong-Ju Kwon and Kyung Ah Lee (2007), "Investigating the Effects of Relationship Quality on Organizational Commitment and Prosocial Behavior in Hotel Food & Beverage Division," *Journal of Global Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp 109-132.
- Mayer, K. U. and N. B. Tuma (1990), "Life Course Research and Event History Analysis: An Overview," *Event History Analysis in Life Course Research*. Eds. Karl Ulrich Mayer and Nancy B. Tuma. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press, 3-20.
- McAlexander, J., J. W. Schouten and S. D. Roberts (1993), "Consumer Behavior and Divorce," *Research in Consumer Behavior*, 6: Eds. Janeen A. Costa and Russell W. Belk. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 153-184.
- Mortimer, J. and R. G. Simmons (1978), "Adult Socialization," *Annual Review of Sociology* 4, 421-454.
- Moschis, G. P. (1987), *Consumer Socialization: A Life-Cycle Perspective*, Boston: Lexington.
- Moschis, G. P. (2007), "Life Course Perspective on Consumer Behavior," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 35(2), 295-397.
- Moschis, G. P. and R. L. Moore (1979), "Decision Making among the Young: A Socialization Perspective," *Journal of Consumer Research* 6 (September), 101-112.
- Moschis, G. P. and R. L. Moore (1982), "A longitudinal Study of Television Advertising Effects," *Journal of Consumer Research* 9 (December), 279-287.
- O' Guinn, T. C. and R. J. Faber (1989), "Compulsive Buying: A Phenomenological Exploration," *Journal of Consumer Research* 16 (September), 147-157.
- Park, Eun Joo and Eun Mi Kang (2002), "Impulsive Buying Behavior of Apparel Products: Relating to Store Service Quality, Evaluative Criteria, Perceived Risk," *Journal of Global Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 9, pp 153-173.
- Park, Eun Joo and Soo Jeon Ha (2001), "Hedonic Motives in Apparel Buying Process," *Journal of Global Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 7, pp 303-320.
- Pearlin, L. I. and M. M. Skaff (1996), "Stress and the life course: A paradigmatic alliance," *Gerontologist* 36(2): 239-247.
- Pechman, C., L. Levine, S. Loughlin and F. Leslie (2005), "Impulsive and Self-Conscious: Adolescents' Vulnerability to Advertising and Promotion," *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing* 24(2), 202-221.
- Rindfleisch, A., J. E. Burroughs and F. Denton (1997), "Family structure, materialism and compulsive consumption," *Journal Consumer Research* 23(4), 312-325.
- Ritchie, D. and M. A. Fitzpatrick (1990), "Family Communication Patterns: measuring Intrapersonal Perceptions of Interpersonal relationships," *Communication Research* 17(August), 523-544.
- Roberts, J. A., C. F. Gwin and C. R. Martinez (2004), "The Influence of Family Structure on Consumer Behavior: A Re-inquiry and Extension of Rindfleisch et al. (1997) in Mexico," *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice* 12(Winter), 61-79
- Roberts, J. A., C. Manolis and J. John (Jeff) Tanner (2003), "Family Structure, Materialism, and Compulsive Buying," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 31(3), 300-311.
- Rothbaum, F., J. R. Weisz and S. Samuel S (1982), "Changing the World and Changing the Self: A Two-Process Model of Perceived Control," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 42(1), 5-37.
- Rubin, R. B., P. Palmgreen and H. E. Sypher (1994), *Communication Research Measures*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Saphir, M. N. and S. H. Chaffee (2002), "Adolescents' Contributions to Family Communication Patterns," *Human Communication Research* 28(January), 86-118.
- Sherrod, L. R. and O. G. Brim (1986), "Retrospective and Prospective Views of Life-Course Research on Human Development," *Human Development and the Life*



- Course: Multidisciplinary Perspectives.* Eds. Aage Sorensen, Franz E. Weinert, and Lonnie R. Sherrod. Hilldale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 557-580.
- Thoits, P. A. (1995), "Stress, Coping, and Social Support Processes: Where Are We? What Next?" *Journal of Health and Social Behavior* 36(March), 53-79.
- Uhlenberg, P. and M. Mueller (2003), "Family context and Individual Well-Being," *Handbook of the Life Course.* Eds. Jeylan T. Mortimer and Michael J. Shanahan. New York: Plenum Publishers, 123-148.
- Vaillant, G. E. (1977), *Adaptation to Life*, Boston: Little, Brown.
- Wheaton, B. (1990), "Life Transitions, Role Histories, and Mental Health," *American Sociological Review* 55(April), 209-223.
- Wooten, D. (2006), "From Labeling Possessions to Possessing Labels: Ridicule and Socialization among Adolescents", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33, 188-19.