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심리학석사 학위논문

The Relationship between
Happiness and Perception of Purchases
: Experiential Versus Material

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The Relationship between
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Abstract

Despite much research indicating the benefits experiential purchases (buying to do) have on happiness compared to material purchases (buying to have), there are still unanswered questions about the material-experiential dimension. I posed two questions regarding the fuzzy boundary: 1) Do happy people perceive purchases as more experiential?, and 2) Will people be happier if they learn to think of their purchases as more experiential? Using a multi-method approach, including experimental and experience sampling methods, I found that those with higher levels of happiness viewed the same purchases as more experiential than did less happy people in both hypothetical setting and everyday life. More importantly, people reported increased happiness after a 1-week intervention in which they were asked to view their purchases as experiential, whereas control groups (one focusing on planning for their purchases and the other group only reporting their purchases) did not show any changes. The findings suggest that happy people enjoy more experiential aspects of purchases and that practicing such outlook contributes to enhancing one's happiness.

Keywords : experiential and material purchases, happiness, experiential perception, experiential framing

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Can money buy happiness? To answer this age-old question, scholars have delved into whether having more money makes us happier. Prior research has suggested that there is a threshold beyond which more money does not necessarily result in more happiness, though people with higher incomes tend to be happier than those with lower incomes (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Easterlin, McVey, Switek, Sawangfa, & Zweig, 2010). For example, Kahneman and Deaton (2010) found that earning more than \$75,000 per year does not further raise day-to-day happiness accordingly. Furthermore, scientists have often observed that the average happiness does not increase, or even decreases, in proportion to the substantial national income growth (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Diener & Oishi, 2000; Easterlin, 1995; Layard, 2003).

This paradoxical relationship between money and happiness has encouraged researchers to shift their question from whether money can buy happiness to how to spend money in better ways to increase individuals' well-being. Recent studies suggest a number of such spending ways, including spending more on others. The money spent on others was positively related with happiness even after controlling for individuals' incomes, and such benefits of prosocial spending were found across different cultures (Aknin et al., 2013; Dunn, Aknin, & Norton, 2008). Delaying consumption also promotes happiness by providing the pleasure of anticipation (Bryant, 2003; Loewenstein, 1987). In addition, making small purchases more frequently than occasionally splurging on big ones facilitates happier spending (Dunn, Gilbert, & Wilson, 2011; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Thaler, 1999). Past research has shown that the frequency of positive affect is more strongly associated with happiness than the

intensity of positive affect (Diener, Sandvik, & Pavot, 1991). Buying small pleasures frequently also helps individuals less adapt to the joy of purchases (Wilson & Gilbert, 2008).

In line with these recommendations, investing more in experiences (e.g., travel) than material goods (e.g., jewelry) was also identified as an effective way of spending to increase happiness (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). The distinction between material and experiential purchases depends on the buyer's intention. A material purchase is defined as "spending money with the primary intention of acquiring a material possession," whereas an experiential purchase is defined as "spending money with the primary intention of acquiring a life experience" (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003, p. 1194). A substantial body of research consistently demonstrated that greater happiness can be obtained by spending on experiential goods rather than material goods (Caprariello & Reis, 2013; Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Nicolao, Irwin, & Goodman, 2009; Van Boven, 2005; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003).

However, the distinction between experiential and material goods is "not always clear-cut" (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003, p. 1201), and "it can be risky to make precise claims about fuzzy categories" (Carter & Gilovich, 2012, p. 1314). Yet, little research has been conducted to systematically examine the fuzzy boundary between the two types of goods. Hence, it is not known, for instance, who is more likely to view a purchase as experiential rather than material. The present research aims to address this question. Specifically, it asks whether happy people are more likely than less happy people to view any purchase item as experiential, as opposed to material. Furthermore,

the present research attempts to examine whether people can be taught to view their purchases as experiential and whether such “experiential framing” leads to a boost in happiness.

Happiness and the Fuzzy Boundary between Experiential and Material Purchases

“Buy experiences rather than material things” became a modern adage, which suggests a practical way of enhancing our happiness in this affluent society. At Christmas, going on a vacation with beloved ones is more likely to lead to a flourishing life than going on a spending spree (Kasser & Sheldon, 2002). More than 1,000 Americans chose an experience over a material purchase when they were asked to indicate which type of purchase brought them more happiness (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003, Study 2). A number of studies have been conducted to identify the factors that make experiences more beneficial to well-being than material goods (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Van Boven, 2005; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). According to these studies, experiential purchases are *less comparable* to each other (Carter & Gilovich, 2010), more closely connected to *the self* (Carter & Gilovich, 2012), *shared* with others (Caprariello & Reis, 2013), and more likely to generate *regrets of inaction* instead of those of action than material purchases (Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012).

Importantly, however, there is a limitation in most of the previous research dealing with happiness and purchases. That is, although it is very difficult to draw a firm line between experiential and material purchases, most of the past research was based on

the assumption that the two types of purchases are clearly separable. For example, how would you categorize your Speedo? It could be regarded simply as a material item when merely considering the physical nature of the swimwear only, whereas it could be regarded as an experience when ruminating on the pleasure of moving through the water in your Speedo. Hence, it seems inevitable that the fuzzy boundary between experiential and material purchases allows individuals to interpret the very same purchase in different ways. Speedo is a material purchase for some people, but it is undoubtedly an experiential purchase for others.

Some research provides supportive evidence for the possibility that the very same item can be seen differently by different individuals. For example, Van Boven and Gilovich (2003) demonstrated that those with lower incomes responded that they felt happier by making material purchases rather than experiential purchases, which was contradictory to the experience recommendation. The researchers conjectured that this demographic difference may be due to “different evaluations of similar purchases” (p. 1196). It has been also found that materialism plays a moderating role of the experiential advantage, such that the benefits of experiential purchases were attenuated for highly materialistic people (Millar & Thomas, 2009; Zhang, Howell, Caprariello, & Guevarra, 2014), likely due to their reduced appreciation of the experiential aspect that the purchases entail. In other words, the materialists may “thingify” experiences as if they were objects (Tatzel, 2003, p. 420). These results suggest that the distinction between experiential and material purchases varies among individuals.

One important source of individual difference in making the distinction

between experiential and material goods could be happiness. As described above, there is ample evidence linking happiness and experiential purchases (Miller & Thomas, 2009; Nicolao et al., 2009; Van Boven, 2005; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). However, nearly all of the past research relating happiness to experiential purchases examined the link from experiential purchases to happiness without addressing the question of whether happiness has an influence on making the distinction between experiential and material purchases. Specifically, past research has not explored whether happy people would view an item as more experiential rather than material, which is the main goal of Studies 1 and 2 in the present research.

The Effect of Experiential Perception on Happiness

The fuzzy boundary between experiential and material purchases also raises the question as to whether “experiential framing,” or trying to view a product as experiential rather than material, increases one’s level of happiness. Previous research has shown that the same item can be construed in both experiential and material terms by manipulation (Carter & Gilovich, 2010, 2012; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). For example, in Carter and Gilovich’s research (2012), a 3-D television was considered an experience (e.g., how it would fit with other activities) or a possession (e.g., how well it would go with their other possessions) by participants. The result indicated that those in the experiential condition expected greater happiness from buying the very same object than did those in the material condition. This suggests that individuals can make the most of a material purchase and expect greater happiness by recognizing its experiential

aspects. Yet, we cannot determine whether the experiential framing *enhances* one's happiness since the study only demonstrated a comparative advantage of the experiential framing over the material framing. Furthermore, the study used a hypothetical scenario for just one item, which makes it difficult to draw a firm conclusion that an individual can actually increase his or her happiness by concentrating on the experiential aspect of a purchase.

The exercise of the experiential framing is similar to many existing happiness-enhancing strategies. For instance, attempting to view one's purchases as more experiential resembles savoring, one of the most well-known effective happiness-enhancing strategies (Bryant & Veroff, 2007; Jose, Lim, & Bryant, 2012). When individuals perceive their purchases as experiences, they would be more likely to direct their attention on the positive experiences of consumption that accompanies the purchases rather than on the purchased objects themselves, with more opportunities to acquire happiness. In this way, the experiential perception tends to involve recognizing, anticipating, and remembering positive events, which are the key elements of savoring (Lyubomirsky, Sousa, & Dickerhoof, 2006; Quidbach, Wood, & Hansenne, 2009).

The experiential framing also helps individuals to compare their purchases to others' purchases less, which is another strategy for sustaining happiness (Lyubomirsky & Ross, 1997). Acknowledging experiential elements out of a material good involves thinking about the good in one's own way, beyond the object per se. Thus, if an individual focused on doing rather than having, he or she would be more likely to associate personal experiences with the purchase. This practice is likely to transform

even a material purchase into a unique, irreplaceable experience. Subsequently, the distinct values given to purchases would allow individuals to gradually adapt to the joy acquired from their purchases, lasting for a longer period, in contrast to the instances when the purchases were only regarded in a material way.

Taken together, it seems highly plausible that the experiential framing leads to an increase in one's level of happiness, and Study 3 examines this question.

Overview of Studies

The present research mainly attempts to answer two questions. First, do happy people perceive purchases as more experiential than less happy people? Second, will people be happier if they learn to think of their purchases as more experiential (experiential framing)? Three studies were conducted to probe these questions.

In Study 1, after their levels of happiness were measured, participants were given a variety of hypothetical purchases and indicated the extent to which each purchase is experiential or material to them. To see whether the finding of Study 1 can be obtained in real life, Study 2 used the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983) in which everyday spending was recorded. Participants were signaled randomly during their waking hours through 8 consecutive days and were asked to immediately report their purchases and the extent of the experiential (or material) aspects of those purchases.

Finally, in Study 3, I conducted a 1-week intervention study to examine whether the experiential perception of purchases in turn increases one's happiness. To

substantiate the benefits of this particular perception, I investigated whether people would report increased happiness after the intervention in which they were asked to view their purchases as experiential, whereas the two control groups (one focusing on planning for their purchases and the other group only reporting their purchases) would not show any changes.

Study 1

The goal of Study 1 is to examine whether happy and less happy people differ in their categorization of a hypothetical purchase as an experiential or material purchase. Specifically, I tested the hypothesis that happy people would be more likely than less happy people to see any given purchase as an experience. In this study, participants reported their subjective levels of happiness and rated the extent to which given purchases were experiential or material.

Method

Participants

One hundred seventy-five undergraduates at Seoul National University (80 female, 95 male; $M_{\text{age}} = 19.32$, $SD = 1.58$, range = 17–25) were recruited and paid for their participation.

Procedure

To measure participants' chronic happiness, subjective well-being index (SWB) was used. The index was comprised of the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) and the *Positive and Negative Affect Scale* (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) representing cognitive and affective component of happiness respectively. SWLS has been broadly utilized as a means to gauge global satisfaction with one's life (Pavot & Diener, 1993). On a 7-point scale (1 = *strongly*

disagree, 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*), participants rated how much they agreed or disagreed with five statements asking about their overall satisfaction with life. Cronbach's alpha for the five items was .81. PANAS measured participants' recent affective states, which asked how intensely they had experienced 20 kinds of affect, 10 positive and 10 negative affect, within a month on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). Cronbach's alphas for both positive affect and negative affect were .85. Participants' responses on SWLS and PANAS (positive affect – negative affect) were standardized and summed to compute SWB score (SWLS + positive affect – negative affect).

Upon completing happiness scales, participants were given a description of experiential and material purchases. In accordance with Van Boven and Gilovich (2003), a material purchase was defined as “spending money with the primary intention of acquiring a material possession,” whereas an experiential purchase was defined as “spending money with the primary intention of acquiring a life experience” (p. 1194). In addition, the ambiguity of the distinction between the two types of purchases was highlighted. Specifically, the following instruction was added: ‘There are often the cases in which we have trouble distinguishing experiences from possessions. For instance, in case of a music CD, it can be thought of as an object that occupies a corner of your music collection, while you can also consider it an experience when thinking about enjoyment and relief that the music delivers.’

Participants were then asked to rate 37 different purchase items to the extent to which each purchase was experiential or material on a 9-point scale (1 = *definitely*

material, 5 = equally material and experiential, 9 = definitely experiential; counterbalanced). I carefully selected the 37 items, such that they would vary widely in the continuum of experiential and material dimension. Some of the items were clearly material (e.g., wallet), some were clearly experiential (e.g., a movie ticket), and some were ambiguous (e.g., TV).

Results and Discussion

In line with previous studies (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003), a movie ticket ($M = 8.30$, $SD = 1.00$) was ranked as the most experiential purchase, whereas a wallet ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.51$) was rated as the most material. Surprisingly, almost three-fourths of the purchases fell in the middle of the scale (4 to 6), suggesting that these products are prone to idiosyncratic definition.

First, I examined the correlation between the average of ratings for all the items ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 0.92$) and SWB score ($M = -0.02$, $SD = 2.21$). As expected, the happier participants were, the more experiential they thought a purchase was in general, $r = .26$, $p < .001$.

Second, to better understand the correlation, I grouped 37 purchases into three categories by the ratings: “material” (1–3), “ambiguous” (4–6), and “experiential” (7–9). Then, I ran a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with condition (material, ambiguous, and experiential) as a within-subjects factor and SWB as a covariate¹. There

¹ According to Girden (1992)’s recommendation, Huynh-Feldt correction was used for the analysis when the assumption of sphericity could not be met and estimates of sphericity (ϵ) were

was a main effect of the purchase type, $F(1.78, 307.43) = 1043.07, p < .001$. In addition, a significant interaction between the three types of purchases and happiness was revealed, $F(1.78, 307.43) = 7.62, p < .01$.

To explore the interaction further, I conducted separate correlational analyses on each type of purchase (See Table 1).

Table 1

Correlations between SWB and the Ratings for the Three Types of Purchases

	M (SD)	SWB	Material purchases	Ambiguous purchases	Experiential purchases
SWB	-0.02 (2.21)	—			
Material purchases	3.43 (1.20)	.26***	—		
Ambiguous purchases	5.04 (1.29)	.23**	.62***	—	
Experiential purchases	8.03 (0.90)	-.05	-.11	.20**	—

Note. $N = 175$; ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

There was a positive correlation between SWB and the ratings for ambiguous purchases, $r = .23, p < .01$. Even for the obviously material purchases, a positive relationship with SWB was found, $r = .26, p < .001$. Interestingly, however, there was no correlation between SWB and the ratings for experiential purchases ($p > .50$).

greater than .75.

Comparing the correlations between SWB and each type of purchase further revealed that the ratings for experiential purchases were more weakly related to SWB than were the ratings for ambiguous, $t(172) = -4.00, p < .001$, and material purchases, $t(172) = -3.79, p < .001$, respectively.

It is surprising that even an obviously material product is considered more experiential by happy people than less happy people. The gap between happy people (1 *SD* above the mean, $n = 28$) and less happy people (1 *SD* below the mean, $n = 28$) was the largest for a laptop. A laptop was clearly a material purchase for unhappy people ($M = 3.43, SD = 1.75$), whereas it was not so obvious for happy people ($M = 5.29, SD = 2.26$).

The results of Study 1 showed that the seemingly objective category of purchases can be represented quite differently depending on one's level of happiness. Not only ambiguous but also obviously material items were perceived as more experiential by happy people than less happy people. However, regarding the obviously experiential purchases, the categorization of the purchases did not vary with one's level of happiness. This finding reveals the boundary condition where the perception of purchases of happy people and that of unhappy people diverge. Happy people view their purchases in terms of experiences, and this tendency is particularly pronounced for indeterminate and material purchases. Such experiential outlook surely demonstrates the malleability of the distinction between experiential and material purchases and how one's happiness plays a role in recognizing this fuzzy boundary.

Study 1 indicates that happy people are more likely than less happy people to

perceive their purchases as more experiential, especially in regard to ambiguous and material purchases. However, we should be aware that the results were obtained in a hypothetical setting. A real purchasing situation may elicit a different pattern of results since participants in Study 1 were neither constrained to their own budgets nor to other circumstances. Therefore, Study 2 investigates whether happy people also maintain their experiential perception of purchases in everyday life.

Study 2

The aim of this study is to investigate whether those with higher levels of happiness perceive their purchases as more experiential than do less happy people in day-to-day life. To address this issue, I utilized the ESM with which I could expand the findings in Study 1 to where the real-money purchases occur.

It is worth noting that most previous research used a retrospective paradigm. In this spending recollection design, participants were simply asked to think of either an experiential or a material purchase that cost more than a certain amount of dollars (e.g., \$100, Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003) and to report how happy the particular purchase had made them feel (Millar & Thomas, 2009; Nicolao et al., 2009), or which type of purchase had made them happier (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003, Study 2). This method is not sufficient in reflecting actual spending in real life and examining the relationship between happiness and perception of purchases. Hence, in Study 2, the real-life examination on the impact of happiness on the perception of purchases through the ESM was conducted.

Method

Participants

Two hundred sixty-three adults (189 female, 73 male, 1 unstated; $M_{\text{age}} = 31.80$, $SD = 10.16$, range = 18–68) were recruited and participated in this study. Participants

with response rate higher than 70% received 30,000 won and participants with response rate between 50% and 70% received 20,000 won in exchange for their participation. Out of the 263 participants, 52 were excluded because their response rates were too low to analyze (lower than four responses for spending questions or lower than ten responses for the entire signals) or they did not answer the key questions for analysis, including the happiness scales. The final analyses were composed of 211 participants (159 female, 52 male; $M_{\text{age}} = 31.44$, $SD = 9.40$, range = 18–59).

Procedure

Introductory appointment and baseline assessments. A 60-minute introductory session provided participants with a verbal description of the study. They were told that the study was interested in investigating their emotions and purchasing patterns in daily life. Those who agreed with participating in the study and signed a consent form joined the study. After consent forms were submitted, participants' life satisfaction, affective states, and demographic information (e.g., age, gender, and monthly household income) were measured. The happiness scales were the same as ones used in Study 1. Cronbach's alphas for SWLS, positive affect, and negative affect were .86, .86, and .88, respectively. The monthly household income was measured to control for any variation derived from individuals' incomes. The income question had six options for participants to choose, ranging from "lower than 1,000,000 won" to "higher than 7,000,000 won."

Experience sampling. For 7 consecutive days, participants were signaled five times a day during their waking hours by a smartphone notification, and they were

asked to answer a variety of questions. From 10 a.m. to 10 p.m., a signal occurred randomly during each of five 150-minute blocks except for the last block (from 8 p.m. to 10 p.m.). Participants were instructed that each time they hear this signal, they should immediately access an online questionnaire through the link provided in the signaling text message. To prevent participants from responding to the same questionnaire without receiving notification, the address of the link changed each time, and each online questionnaire Website closed before the next signaling message was sent.

Participants first answered whether they have made purchases (“How many times have you made a purchase, including cash, debit card, and credit card payment, since you received the previous signal?”). If participants answered “0,” they were automatically directed to questions assessing basic psychological states. Otherwise, participants continued to provide information on one purchase that they considered important to report among their entire purchases since the previous signal. They were asked to report the amount of money spent on the purchase and the category of the purchase. There were seven purchase categories: “Food,” “Culture,” “Beauty & Health,” “Transportation,” “Household,” “Religion & Donation,” and “Other.” Next, they were asked to report a subcategory of the purchase. For example, if a participant bought a movie ticket, he or she would opt for “Culture” and continue to choose the “Movie/Concert” option.

Finally, participants were asked to answer the key dependent variable of this study: how experiential or material they thought of their purchase as. They were given a brief description of experiential and material purchases, which was used by Van Boven

and Gilovich (2003), and they rated the extent to which the purchase was experiential or material to them, using a slider that ranged from 0 (*definitely material*) to 100 (*definitely experiential*).

A day before beginning the experiential sampling, participants received a trial text message so that they could be trained for the ESM data-collection procedure.

Results and Discussion

The average signal response rate was 86.08%. Participants reported their purchases in response to 34.01% of all signals.

Since the daily spending-related responses were nested within participants, I analyzed the data across the 7-day period with multilevel modeling using the HLM software (Version 7.01; Raudenbush, Bryk, Congdon, 2013) to explain within-person (e.g., purchase categories) and between-person (e.g., the level of happiness) changes in the perception of purchases. In the hierarchical linear modeling, Level 1 ESM variable was group-mean centered, whereas categorical variables were uncentered and dummy coded (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Nezlek, 2012). At Level 2, all continuous variables were grand-mean centered. As in Level 1, categorical variables in Level 2 were uncentered and dummy coded. Only the seven purchase categories, not the subcategories of purchases, were used in the analysis. Six dummy-coded purchase category variables were created with the “Other” category as the reference group. The Level 1 and Level 2 models were represented by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Level 1} \quad & \text{Experiential perception}_{ij} \\
& = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\log(\text{expenditure})) + \beta_{2j}(\text{food}) \\
& + \beta_{3j}(\text{culture}) + \beta_{4j}(\text{beauty \& health}) + \\
& \beta_{5j}(\text{transportation}) + \beta_{6j}(\text{household}) + \\
& \beta_{7j}(\text{religion \& donation}) + e_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Level 2} \quad & \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{age}_j) + \gamma_{02}(\text{gender}_j) \\
& + \gamma_{03}(\text{monthly household income}_j) + \\
& \gamma_{04}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{0j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + u_{1j}$$

$$\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{2j}$$

$$\beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{3j}$$

$$\beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{4j}$$

$$\beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50} + \gamma_{51}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{5j}$$

$$\beta_{6j} = \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{61}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{6j}$$

$$\beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{71}(\text{SWB}_j) + u_{7j}$$

As indicated in the Level 1 and Level 2 equations above, I examined the effect of happiness on the experiential perception of everyday purchases after controlling for age, gender, monthly household income, the price of purchases, and the purchase categories. Additionally, I included the interaction terms between happiness and each category of purchase. Table 2 summarizes the results. According to the analysis, it was

revealed that happy people indeed were more likely to perceive their purchases as more experiential regardless of the purchase type, $\gamma_{04} = 0.23$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(206) = 1.99$, $p < .05$. There was no interaction between the level of happiness and purchase categories, which indicates that the effect of SWB on the experiential perception was not dependent on purchase categories. Although the effect of SWB on the experiential perception was not large, note that the reported purchases did not include all the purchases the participants made. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that even in this restricted condition, those with the higher levels of happiness tended to view their own purchases as more experiential.

Table 2

Hierarchical Linear Model Predicting the Experiential Perception of Daily Purchases

Fixed Effect	The experiential perception		
	Coefficient (SE)	t-Ratio	p-Value
Intercept, β_0			
Intercept, γ_{00}	56.24 (5.73)	9.82	< .001
Age, γ_{01}	-0.23 (0.15)	-1.53	.128
Gender, γ_{02}	-3.37 (3.12)	-1.08	.282
Income, γ_{03}	-0.81 (0.91)	-0.89	.375
SWB, γ_{04}	0.23 (0.11)	1.99	.048
Expenditure (log), β_1			
Intercept, γ_{10}	-0.17 (0.54)	-0.31	.755
Food, β_2			
Intercept, γ_{20}	-13.04 (1.91)	-6.84	< .001
SWB, γ_{21}	-0.11 (0.12)	-0.87	.384
Culture, β_3			
Intercept, γ_{30}	8.42 (1.92)	4.40	< .001
SWB, γ_{31}	0.10 (0.13)	0.80	.426

Fixed Effect	The experiential perception		
	<i>Coefficient (SE)</i>	<i>t-Ratio</i>	<i>p-Value</i>
Beauty & Health, β_4			
Intercept, γ_{40}	-12.63 (2.45)	-5.15	< .001
SWB, γ_{41}	-0.13 (0.17)	-0.76	.450
Transportation, β_5			
Intercept, γ_{50}	8.76 (2.65)	3.30	.001
SWB, γ_{51}	0.12 (0.17)	0.70	.482
Household, β_6			
Intercept, γ_{60}	-5.71 (2.58)	-2.21	.028
SWB, γ_{61}	-0.30 (0.16)	-1.81	.073
Religion & Donation, β_7			
Intercept, γ_{70}	19.52 (3.84)	5.08	< .001
SWB, γ_{71}	0.27 (0.21)	-1.32	.187
Random Effect	<i>Variance Component</i>	χ^2	<i>p-Value</i>
Intercept, u_0	338.29	8.19	> .500
Expenditure (log), u_1	9.74	2.92	> .500
Food, u_2	368.59	7.68	> .500
Culture, u_3	0.10	0.17	> .500
Beauty & Health, u_4	468.08	1.25	> .500
Transportation, u_5	340.35	5.85	> .500
Household, u_6	260.71	0.37	> .500
Religion & Donation, u_7	16.04	0.27	> .500
Level-1 effect	488.06		

Note. Expenditure (log) = the log-transformed amount of expenditure
(The original data was positively skewed).

Study 2 investigated the individuals' perceptions of actual purchases and found that in everyday life as well, those with higher SWB were more likely than less happy people to view their purchases as more experiential. One might ask that no interaction

between SWB and any purchase category is not aligned with the findings of Study 1, which indicated that SWB was correlated with indeterminate and material purchases, but not with experiential ones. However, it should be noted that the purchase categories in Study 2 were defined by the natural characteristic of each purchase, not by the material-experiential dimension. As a result, the interaction effect between each purchase category and SWB is not necessarily expected since items within a purchase category can vary in their material-experiential composition. Consequently, the interactions between SWB and purchase categories can be found by analyzing each purchase item or subcategories within the seven purchase categories.

The main advantage of the ESM is that it permits studying individuals' purchases and their perception of the purchases in the natural and spontaneous context. This ESM study supports the results in the hypothetical setting in Study 1.

Study 3

In Studies 1 and 2, the path of happiness having an influence on perceiving purchases experientially was probed. Now Study 3 aims to explore the opposite path: If individuals exercise to frame their purchases as more experiential, would their well-being and satisfaction with purchases be enhanced? A 1-week intervention study was conducted to address this issue. There were three conditions: experiential framing, purchase-planning, and control condition. The purchase-planning condition, where participants were guided to think of their upcoming purchases (e.g., price) beforehand, was designed to rule out the alternative explanation that just thinking of purchases, instead of perceiving purchases as experiential, caused any changes. The control group simply reported their daily purchases without any other tasks. Note that the task of framing a purchase as more material was not included in this design of the study. Such “material framing” condition would enable examining the effect of experiential framing on happiness in comparison to the effect that focusing on material aspects has on happiness. However, previous research has repeatedly shown that placing importance on acquisition is detrimental to individuals’ psychological well-being (Belk 1985; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Richins & Dawson, 1992). The documented evidence raises an ethical issue since asking participants to view their purchases as material may have a destructive impact on their happiness or well-being. Therefore, material-framing task was not assigned to any participant in Study 3.

In short, I conjectured that, relative to the purchase-planning and control task,

the practice to perceive one's purchases in terms of experiences would lead to improved well-being and satisfaction with purchases.

Method

Participants

One hundred thirty-four students at Seoul National University (73 female, 60 male, 1 unstated; $M_{\text{age}} = 22.07$, $SD = 2.68$, range = 18–30) were recruited and participated in this study. Participants were paid for their participation at the end of the intervention study, and the amount of compensation varied, from 10,000 won to 20,000 won, depending on their randomly assigned condition and response rates during the study.

Three individuals who failed to complete at least one of the intervention assignments were removed from the sample, leaving a final sample of 131 students (73 female, 57 male, 1 unstated; $M_{\text{age}} = 22.12$, $SD = 2.69$, range = 18–30). The average response rate of the participants was 96.56%.

Procedure

The study is comprised of three parts: baseline assessments, experimental manipulation, and post assessments.

Introductory appointment. Participants received a verbal description of the study. The description included what participants should do during the period of the intervention and how they can access the Internet survey every day to answer questions. The description varied depending on the condition to which participants were randomly

assigned. After receiving their instructions, participants were given a consent form to indicate their participation in this study.

Baseline assessments. Participants who agreed to take part were given a packet of questionnaires, which consisted of demographic information (e.g., age, gender, average monthly income and expenditure) and measures of the participants' well-being (life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect). Few days later, participants accessed a link provided through their e-mail and responded to the 1-week version of the well-being measures (e.g., "In most ways my past week is close to my ideal," "I am satisfied with my past week") and to satisfaction with their purchase and consumption over the past week (e.g., "I am satisfied with my purchase and consumption over the past week," "My purchase and consumption over the past week were meaningful"). This was done a day before beginning the intervention so that participants could be better acquainted with the overall processes of completing questions on the Web page.

Experimental manipulation. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions for a 1-week period.

In the *experiential framing* condition ($n = 41$), participants were asked to view all their purchases as experiential when both anticipating and making each purchase, during the intervention period. A detailed explanation for the experiential framing was provided: 'Framing a purchase as an experience does not mean just spending money and acquiring an object; instead, it is thinking of an experience that you consume or use what you buy. For example, when you purchase a song, you may think of the purchase as a delightful and enjoyable *experience* of listening to the music, rather than just

possessing a song.’ In addition to this explanation, two other exemplary cases (i.e., buying a book, purchasing a pair of pants) were given to participants to help their understanding of the experiential framing. A reminder text message, including a short description of the experiential framing, was sent to participants three times a day during the intervention period (i.e., 9 a.m., 1 p.m., and 6 p.m.), and they were asked to read the reminders to help cultivate the habit of perceiving their purchases as more experiential. At the end of each day during the intervention week, participants were prompted to complete a daily survey including the specifics of their purchases (e.g., a book “The Principles of Economics,” a sandwich for lunch), the cost of each purchase (i.e., won), how experiential they perceived each purchase was (1 = *definitely material*, 5 = *equally material and experiential*, 9 = *definitely experiential*), how satisfied they were with each purchase (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*), how well-spent they thought their money was (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*), and daily well-being measures (e.g., “How happy were you today?”; using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*)). The same process was repeated throughout the week.

In the *purchase-planning* condition ($n = 45$), participants were asked to foster a habit of planning their consumption. For planning, they were instructed to think of the three key elements of making a purchase—when, where, and how much—before and during every purchase. A detailed explanation for planning a purchase was provided: ‘In the case of buying a book at a bookstore in the afternoon, you may think of the price of the book (if you already knew the price of the book, just think of the price. Otherwise, you may presume an approximate price of the book.) Overall, you may picture how

much money you will spend (*how much*) at the bookstore (*where*) in the afternoon (*when*).’ An example of online shopping for a pair of pants was also given to participants to help their understanding of planning consumption. A reminder text message, including a short version of the description above, was sent to participants three times a day during the intervention period (i.e., 9 a.m., 1 p.m., and 6 p.m.), and they were asked to read the reminders to help develop the habit of planning their purchases ahead. At the end of each day during the intervention week, participants were prompted to complete the same daily survey used in the experiential framing condition, except for the question regarding how well-planned each purchase was (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*). The same process was repeated throughout the week.

In the *control* condition ($n = 45$), participants were told that the purpose of the study is to investigate the purchasing pattern of university students. They merely reported all of their purchases at the end of each day during the intervention week by accessing the Web survey, link for which was provided through e-mail. The daily survey consisted of the same questions as those used in the other conditions, except for specific questions in regard to the assigned tasks.

Post assessments. At the end of the intervention, participants completed the same 1-week version of the key well-being measures (e.g., “In most ways my past week is close to my ideal,” “I am satisfied with my past week”) and satisfaction with their purchase and consumption over the past week (e.g., “I am satisfied with my purchase and consumption over the past week,” “My purchase and consumption over the past week were meaningful”) as those used at the beginning of the study. This enabled me to

examine any changes that may have occurred in these outcomes before and after the intervention.

Material

The measures below were used both in pre- and post-questionnaire and daily survey. The two versions of the measures were exactly the same except for the wording indicating the time period (i.e., over the past week, today).

Life satisfaction. This measure was comprised of six items, three of which were adopted from SWLS; the remainder of the questions were regarding the level of meaningfulness (e.g., “My past week was a meaningful week”), pleasure (e.g., “My past week was enjoyable and pleasant”), and depression (e.g., “I was depressed over the past week,” reverse-coded). On a 7-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*), participants reported how much they were satisfied with their past week or a day. Cronbach’s alphas for the 1-week version of pre- and post-life satisfaction were .84 and .87, respectively.

Affect. Participants reported how intensively they had experienced 16 kinds of affect, 8 positive affect (*serene, fun, pleased, amused, cheerful, relaxed, excited, and proud*) and 8 negative affect (*bored, worried, depressed, irritable, sad, angry, afraid, and lonely*) over the past week or a day, using a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). The affect adjectives were chosen from the commonly administered adjectives that include PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) and *the modified Differential Emotions Scale* (mDES; Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003). Cronbach’s alphas for pre-positive, pre-negative, post-positive, and post-negative affect were .87, .82, .89, and .87,

respectively.

Happiness. One question was asked of participants to indicate the degree of their happiness over the past week or a day (i.e., “How happy have you been over the past week?,” “How happy were you during a day?”), using a 7-point scale from 1 (*not happy at all*) to 7 (*very happy*).

Satisfaction with purchase and consumption. Participants evaluated their purchase and consumption over the past week at the beginning of the study and after the completion of the intervention. The questions required participants to answer five questions (e.g., “I am satisfied with my purchase and consumption over the past week,” “My purchase and consumption over the past week were meaningful”) on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*). Cronbach’s alphas for pre- and post-measurement were .65 and .63, respectively.

On a daily basis, there were two questions measuring individuals’ satisfaction with each purchase (i.e., “How satisfied are you with each purchase you made today?,” “How well-spent do you think your money was for each purchase?”), using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*).

Effort. The self-reported degree of effort that participants put into performing assignments and completing the study in general was also assessed. Each day, the participants, except for those in the control condition, were asked to indicate how much effort they put into the exercise (i.e., perceiving their purchases as experiential, thinking of the price, time, and place for each purchase), using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*).

The post assessments included two effort questions: 1) the same effort question as the one used daily, and 2) how much effort participants placed into completing online questionnaires during the intervention period. Participants answered both of the questions on a sliding scale from *not at all* (0) to *very much* (100).

Results and Discussion

Participants, on average, made 3.17 purchases a day ($SD = 1.58$), and their average amount of expenditure was 23,694.15 won ($SD = 61657.42$). There were no differences in SWB and average monthly income and expenditure across the three conditions ($p > .31$).

To examine the differences in well-being and satisfaction with purchase before and after the intervention period between conditions, I conducted separate repeated measures ANOVAs with each psychological or financial well-being measure (life satisfaction, affect balance, happiness, and satisfaction with purchase and consumption) as the dependent measure, time (Pre vs. Post) as a within-subjects factor, and condition (experiential framing, purchase-planning, and control) as a between-subjects factor. To better understand the interaction, I also performed separate paired-samples t tests for each condition.

There was a main effect of time ($ps < .01$) across all of the dependent variables except for the satisfaction with purchase and consumption.

Life satisfaction. The analysis revealed an interaction between life satisfaction and condition, $F(2, 128) = 7.07, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .10$. Figure 1 summarizes the

results.

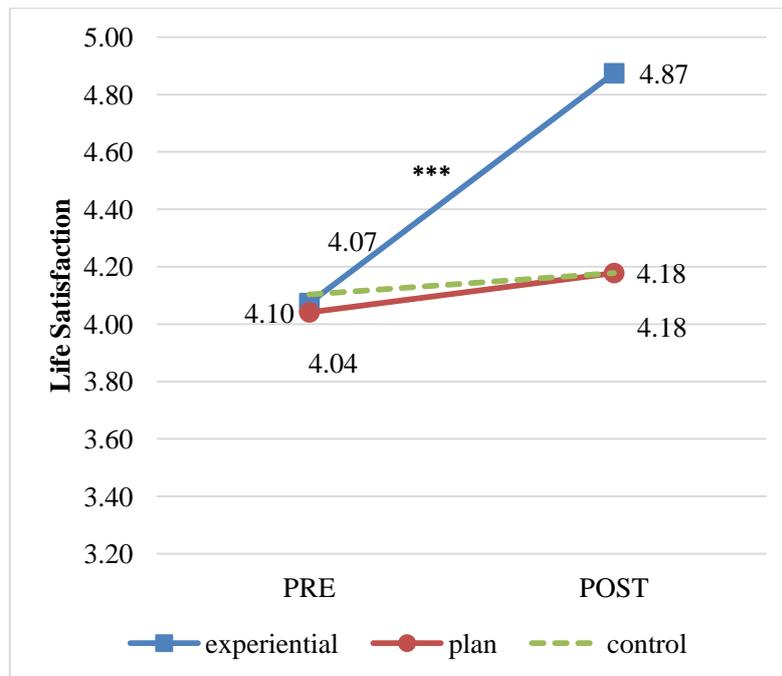


Figure 1. Changes in life satisfaction between the three groups (***) $p < .001$.

There was no difference in the score of pre-life satisfaction across conditions ($F < 1$, *ns*). To examine changes in life satisfaction in each group, paired-samples *t* tests were conducted. The analyses revealed a significant change in life satisfaction in the experiential framing group only, $t(40) = 5.01$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.78$, but not in the other groups ($ps > .30$).

Affect balance. Affect balance was computed by subtracting the standardized mean score of negative affect from that of positive affect. As expected, there was an interaction between affect balance and condition, $F(2, 128) = 3.97$, $p < .05$,

$\eta_p^2 = .06$. Figure 2 demonstrates the results.

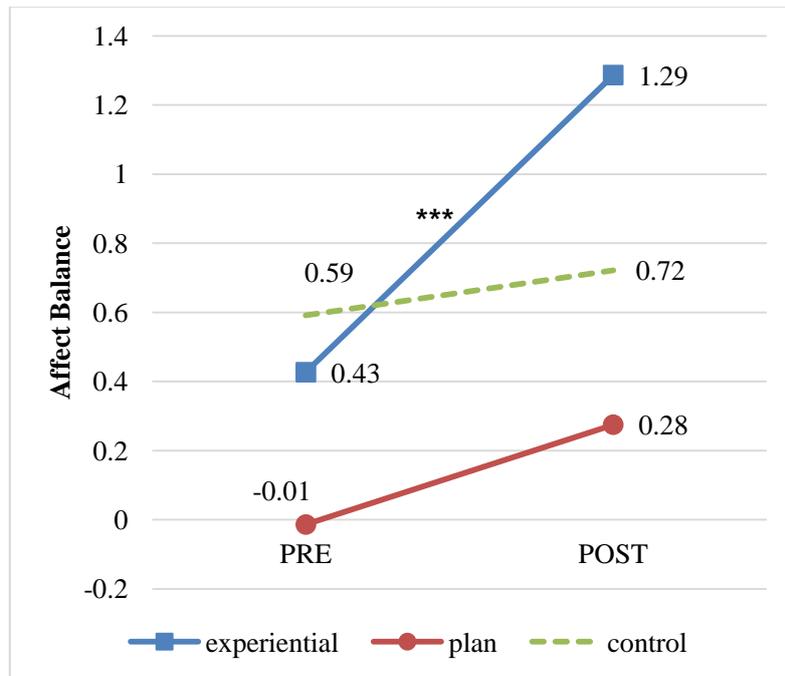


Figure 2. Changes in affect balance between the three groups (*** $p < .001$).

The effect of study condition on the pre-score of affect balance was only marginally significant, $F(2, 128) = 2.58$, $p = .08$, $\eta^2 = .04$. As expected, only those who learned to view their purchases as experiential showed an enhanced affect balance, $t(40) = 3.90$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.61$, whereas the other groups showed no changes ($ps > .10$).

Happiness. A significant interaction between happiness and condition was found, $F(2, 128) = 5.30$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. The results are illustrated in Figure 3.

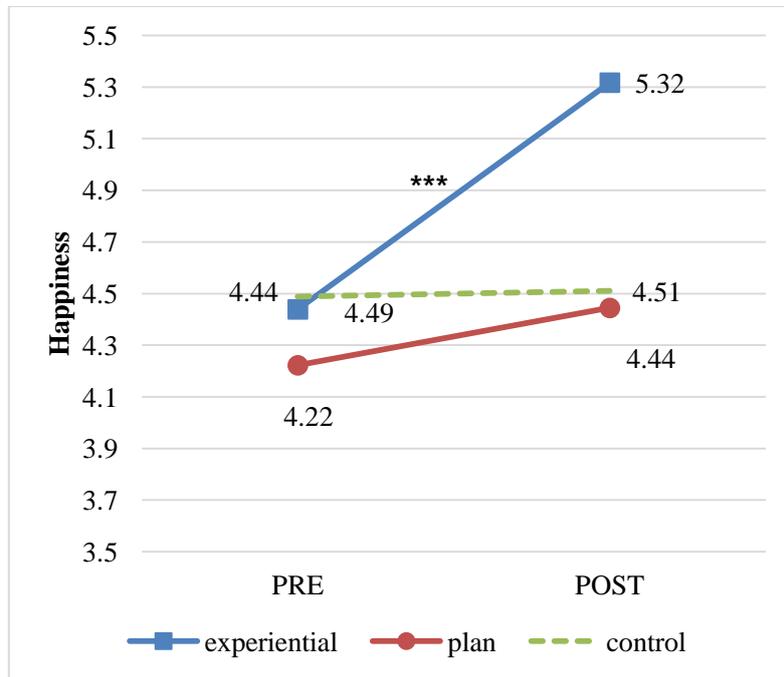


Figure 3. Changes in happiness between the three groups (** $p < .001$).

A one-way ANOVA indicated that there was no significant difference in the initial levels of happiness between the groups ($F < 1$, ns). The positive effect of the intervention was, as predicted, found in the experiential framing condition only, $t(40) = 4.30$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.67$, in comparison to the other groups ($ps > .20$).

Satisfaction with purchase and consumption. The analysis indicated that there was no significant interaction between purchase-related satisfaction and condition, $F(2, 128) = 1.65$, $p = .20$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. The results are presented in Figure 4.

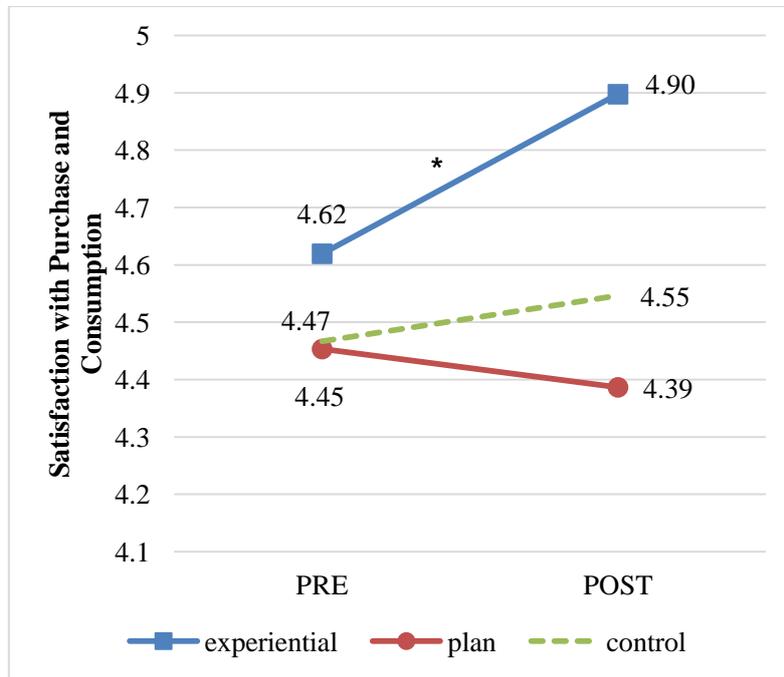


Figure 4. Changes in satisfaction with purchase and consumption between the three groups (* $p < .05$).

No significant effect of condition on initial purchase-related satisfaction was found ($F < 1$, ns). Although the interaction was not significant, further analysis showed that the increased satisfaction with purchase and consumption was found in the experiential framing condition only, $t(40) = 2.08$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.32$. In contrast, neither the purchase-planning nor the control group reported any changes ($ps > .50$).

In short, Study 3 confirmed that learning to perceive one's purchases as more experiential helps an individual to enhance his or her well-being even within a short period of time. Interestingly, this perception-changing exercise brought more benefits than did planning purchases or tracking daily purchases. Additionally, in regard to the

satisfaction with purchases, only the participants in the experiential framing reported increases in their satisfaction. One may raise an alternative explanation that the benefits of the experiential framing were derived from the participants' higher efforts since the task was relatively new. However, the effort measured at the end of the intervention rules out this explanation. There was no difference in the efforts put into performing the given tasks between the experiential framing and purchase-planning condition, $t(84) = -0.77$, $p = .45$, $d = 0.16$. Furthermore, participants in the experiential framing assessed their overall effort in completing the daily online questionnaires significantly lower than those in the other conditions, $F(1, 128) = 11.41$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. Similar to Study 2, this study examines everyday purchases and suggests a practical method to lead a fulfilling life by a change in the perception of purchases in daily life.

General Discussion

Summary

The present research confirmed the two hypotheses set at the beginning of the study. Namely, individuals' higher levels of happiness led them to consider their purchases as more experiential. In addition, cultivating a habit of perceiving experiential aspects of purchases helped increase the happiness of participants in a short period of time.

In a hypothetical setting in Study 1, it was found that happy people are more likely than less happy people to perceive material purchases as well as ambiguous purchases as more experiential. For obviously experiential purchases, however, no correlation with happiness was found. I presumed that this may be attributed to the ceiling effect, which likely made it difficult to think of purchases already established as experiential purchases in an even more experiential light. Another possibility is that perceiving material aspects of an experience may be much harder than finding experiential aspects of a material good. If this is indeed the case, it is likely that there was little variation in the perception of experiential purchases, whereas larger variations were found in the perception of ambiguous and material purchases. In fact, in Study 1, the average of the standard deviations of the ratings for experiential items (0.90) was smaller than both the mean standard deviations of the ratings for material (1.20) and ambiguous (1.29) items.

Study 2 corroborates the results of Study 1, indicating that in everyday life as

well, purchases were perceived more experiential by those with greater levels of happiness than those who were less happy. This tendency was consistent across a variety of purchase types. The ESM allows a stronger support for my hypothesis since it reflects individuals' actual processes of spending without any constraints used in the previous research. This is a way to ensure the generalizability of the finding in Study 1.

Lastly, Study 3 demonstrates that the exercise of the experiential view when making a purchase has positive impacts on life satisfaction, affect balance, and happiness. I was able to find that merely thinking of purchase-related information by planning purchases and recording down daily expenses did not have a significant effect on increased level of happiness. Although there was no significant interaction, positive changes in the satisfaction with consumption were found in the experiential framing group only. The study suggests a new practical method to enhance the happiness of people.

Implications

The most important implication of this present research comes in recognizing that this fuzzy boundary, though not highlighted previously, is a key aspect of purchasing patterns. The perception of purchases tends to be set at the incipient phase of the entire consumption experience (i.e., before making a purchase) and influences all subsequent stages of that experience—consumption and future purchases. Therefore, it is essential to examine what individual differences affect the perception of purchases and consequences of such perception.

Happy people may represent purchases in a meaningful way in their minds, which might help them perceive the purchases as more experiential. For them, even things typically considered as material products are seen as having aspects that can be experienced in some way. They look ‘inside’ the things they buy, accentuate experiential aspects of the purchase, and enjoy what they derive from their purchase. For instance, even when buying a pencil, happy people are more likely to focus on the experience of using pencils, such as the sensation in the hand, the sound made when writing on paper, and past memories associated with pencils. In other words, they can acknowledge the real value of the pencil by combining all the qualities the pencil has, such as the graphite inside, which is an essential part of the pencil to be ‘experienced,’ as well as its tangible wooden appearance. Focusing on the valuable is exemplified in the characteristic of happy people to perceive the same objects or events in more positive and integrative ways (Isen, Niedenthal, & Cantor, 1992; Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998), which leads to drawing experiential facets from purchases. Recognizing the unobvious meaning is not always easy, but happier mind makes it easier. Objects are not just things for happy people.

Positive effects of the experiential framing of purchases have practical implications. Specifically, in the field of marketing, focusing on experiential aspects of a product may be a lucrative way to convey a strong positive impression of the product to customers, considering that experiences are more likely to be embellished over time than possessions (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003, Study 4), and that prior consumption experiences influence future expectations and satisfactions (Verhoef, Lemon,

Parasuraman, Roggeveen, Tsiros, & Schlesinger, 2009). The accentuated experiential facets can also contribute to building customer loyalty by making customers feel closer to the products, since experiential facets are more likely to be perceived as a part of their identity (Carter & Gilovich, 2012). In other words, the products become less substitutable and singular. This may influence consumers' future decision making when they choose from large product assortments.

In reality, we see numerous cases of commercials emphasizing experiential aspects of a product. The iPhone commercials, for example, do not merely boast specifications and advertise superiority of the gadget. Rather, they show how the product can be experienced by showing intimate friends connected by the iPhone and exercising people trying hard to get rid of their chicken fat while using the iPhone. The smartphone is obviously tangible material, but it has the potential to be experienced. This type of experiential products (Guevarra & Howell, 2014) provides memories to consumers and may encourage repurchase of the same item at the future stage of consumption. It appeals to customers in that a purchased item can potentially be transformed into a unique experience.

Furthermore, the perception of the two purchase types may influence the perceptions of price and quality. Compared to the actual price, the perceived price of a product reflects the consumer's subjective interpretations (Jacoby & Olson, 1977). If the customer perceived a material good as more experiential, he or she may place more value on the product, think of the price of the product as relatively reasonable, and thus be willing to pay more when buying that product than do other customers who do not

perceive experiential aspects. The impact on the perceived price is critical for purchase decision because the objective price becomes meaningful only after the perceived price is processed (Oh, 2000).

Post-consumption behavior can also be affected by the experiential framing. Relying more on the experiential aspects of a product may have an influence on product recommendations among customers. In comparison to individuals with lower need for uniqueness, those with higher need for uniqueness would be less likely to talk about their purchases and recommend them to others if they realized the unique experiential features of the products (Cheema & Kaikati, 2010). To encapsulate, recognizing such ambiguous border between experiential and material purchases will aid in generating beneficial marketing strategies and handling unexpected consequences from the perception of purchases.

Another practical implication is that this research demonstrated the powerful impact of changing one's perception. In line with previous research, the current studies emphasize that what is important is not how much you have, but what you do with what you have (Dunn et al., 2011). According to the present research, changing the perception of one's purchases can be a more effective spending strategy compared to investing in experiences more than possessions. For example, people may also gain the hedonic benefits through making inexpensive material purchases as much as through expensive experiential purchases (e.g., travelling abroad). Thus, there is no need to make costly, experiential purchases if you do not know how to appreciate them.

However, note that the results of the study caution that even experiences can be

perceived as material depending on how the purchases are considered. In these days, many young people posting their photos on Instagram are concerned about how to get more followers and likes. Only after several retouching can the photos taken at the beach during the vacation be uploaded to Instagram. This illustrates how people “thingify” their experiences with extrinsic motives to show off to others, which may deteriorate the experiential benefits from the enjoyable journey. Therefore, it is important for us to utilize the fuzzy boundary in a way that promotes our satisfaction with consumption and that maintains our overall happiness.

Limitations and Future Directions

Regarding the relationship between happiness and experiential/material purchases, there are still interesting pertinent issues that future studies could address. First, the participants in Study 3 were recruited from a university. Although not all of them were undergraduates, it is likely that they were in a tight budget relative to middle-aged adults. The single most expensive purchase, which was made for a Sony mirrorless camera, cost 1,480,170 won. A greater variety of reported purchases would have been expected with a wider range of participants. However, the characteristics of the sample, the similarity of purchases between the participants and low prices of purchases, rather emphasize the effects of the experiential framing, indicating that the value of the experiential aspect outweighs that of making a big purchase.

A second limitation is regarding the duration of the intervention study. I found the impact of the experiential framing in a week, but it is strongly required to examine

whether this has enduring effects on well-being. It would be hasty to determine the enduring impact of the perception based on the 1-week intervention only. Future research can also be expanded to examine how the perceptions of purchases affect other physiological well-being measures such as stress, doctor visits, and other health indicators. Nevertheless, the results of the study suggest a way to improve one's psychological states, at least in the short term.

The material framing condition could be included in future research. However, this should be done cautiously since adjusting to frame one's purchases as more material induces materialism and deteriorates satisfaction with his or her purchases and well-being. Prior research has been replete with the evidence indicating the negative relationship between materialism and happiness (Ahuvia & Wong, 1995; Belk, 1985; Cohen & Cohen, 1996; Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996; Richins, 1994; Richins & Dawson, 1992). Additionally, as Study 3 showed, even in a short period, the material framing may be effective enough to affect one's life satisfaction, affect balance, and happiness. To avoid any concern, the material framing condition was excluded in the present research.

Furthermore, more elaborated research on cultural differences is expected. Self-oriented feature in independent cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) may facilitate the tendency to perceive experiential aspects of purchases since those with independent self are more likely to have their own framework that is unaffected by social contexts, and consequently bestow unique stories on their purchases. Additionally, it was found that Koreans have coherent preference structure for brands but not for generic items (Park, Choi, Koo, Sul, & Choi, 2013). This finding raises a possibility that in the Eastern

culture, the experiential perception would be particularly strong when luxurious brands, rather than generic material goods, are taken into account.

Taken together, future studies are expected to further elucidate the relationship between happiness and the experiential perception of purchases so that they can explicitly address the remaining issues and find other factors that affect consumer experiences and ultimately the well-being of people.

Conclusion

“Ceci n’est pas une pipe (This is not a pipe).”

The contradiction between these words and an image which obviously is a pipe makes the viewer puzzled. René Magritte’s renowned painting *The Treachery of Images* (1929) challenges our perception and leads us to question what is real. The present research also aims to question the perception of the flexible categorization between experiential and material purchases and to suggest that more genuine—experiential— aspects of purchases are significantly associated with happiness and decision making processes.

Experiences are neither tangible nor visible; they fleet in a moment no matter how hard we try to retain them. However, experiences are engraved in our minds forever in diverse forms. Happy people are those who can place more values on what they purchase, and thus they have more memories to be accumulated. Through their lenses, they see the world filled with experiences, which is different from unhappy people’s point of view. Happy glasses make happy people look on the *experiential* side. In turn,

experientially-colored lens makes individuals find meanings in their consumption, instead of merely buying things. Their purchases become more significant and valuable. This makes all the difference.

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Appendix 1. Satisfaction With Life Scale (Study 1, 2, and 3)

아래의 글을 읽고, 평소에 여러분이 스스로의 삶에 대해 생각하는 것과 일치하는 정도에 가장 가까운 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다 보통 이다 매우 많이 그렇다						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	전반적으로 나의 삶은 내가 생각하는 이상적인 삶에 가깝다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	나의 삶의 조건은 매우 훌륭하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	나는 나의 삶에 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	지금까지 살아오면서 나는 원했던 것들을 모두 얻었다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	만약 다시 태어난다면, 지금 그대로 아무것도 변하지 않았으면 좋겠다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 2. Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Study 1, 2, and 3)

다음의 단어들은 감정이나 기분을 나타내는 것입니다. 각 단어를 읽고 현재를 포함한 최근 1개월 동안 당신이 느끼는 기분의 정도를 가장 잘 나타낸 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다	약간 그렇다	보통 이다	많이 그렇다	매우 많이 그렇다
1	흥미진진한	1	2	3	4	5
2	짜증난	1	2	3	4	5
3	괴로운	1	2	3	4	5
4	정신이 맑게 깨어있는	1	2	3	4	5
5	신나는	1	2	3	4	5
6	부끄러운	1	2	3	4	5
7	화난	1	2	3	4	5
8	감명받은	1	2	3	4	5
9	강인한	1	2	3	4	5
10	불안한	1	2	3	4	5
11	죄책감 드는	1	2	3	4	5
12	단호한	1	2	3	4	5
13	겁에 질린	1	2	3	4	5
14	집중하는	1	2	3	4	5
15	적대적인	1	2	3	4	5
16	조바심 나는	1	2	3	4	5
17	열정적인	1	2	3	4	5
18	활기찬	1	2	3	4	5
19	자랑스러운	1	2	3	4	5
20	두려운	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 3. Experiential/Material Rating Questionnaire (Study 1)

다음은 본 실험의 목적과 물질재와 경험재에 대한 내용입니다.

구매 의도 혹은 목적에 따라 세상에 존재하는 재화나 서비스를 두 가지로 분류할 수 있습니다. **물질재(Material good)**와 **경험재(Experiential good)**가 바로 이 두 가지 범주입니다.

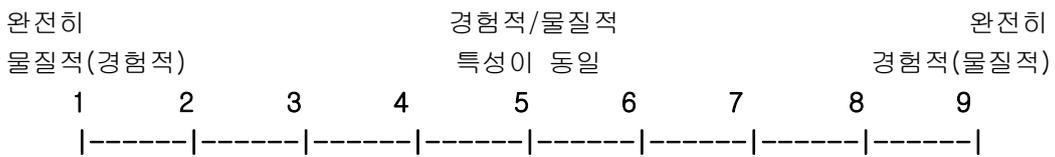
물질재(Material goods) 구매는 돈을 주고 구입했을 때 소유물이 생기는 것을 목적으로 합니다. **경험재(Experiential goods)** 구매는 구매의 과정이나 결과를 통해 경험을 얻기 위한 것입니다. 소유물이 생기는 것보다는 이를 통한 경험이나 추억을 얻기 위한 의도에서 구매를 하는 것을 일컫습니다.

즉, 물질재는 갖기 위해서(to have), 경험재는 무엇인가 하기 위해서(to do) 구매하는 것입니다. 하지만 종종 물질재와 경험재의 구분이 애매모호한 경우가 생기게 됩니다. 예를 들어, 음악 CD의 경우 자신의 음악 CD 컬렉션 중의 한 자리를 차지할 물질재로 볼 수도 있지만, 음악을 들음으로써 느끼는 즐거움, 감동 등을 생각하면 이를 경험재로 생각할 수도 있습니다.

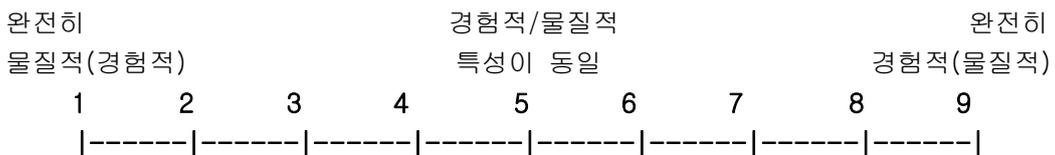
소비자의 구매 형태를 파악하고 그에 맞는 마케팅을 하기 위해서는 사람들이 상품이나 서비스를 어떻게 바라보는지 파악하는 것이 중요할 것입니다. 따라서 본 실험에서는 각 재화나 서비스에 대한 사람들의 시각을 알아보고자 합니다.

※ 앞서 제시된 경험재와 물질재에 대한 내용에 근거하여, 다음 제시되는 각 구매에 대하여 얼마나 경험재로 혹은 물질재로 생각하고 구매하는지(구매할 것 같은지) 생각해보시기 바랍니다. 각 구매에 대해 생각한 바를 아래 **9점 척도**에 따라 표시해주시기 바랍니다.

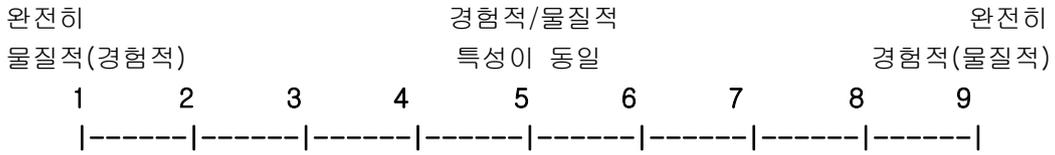
· 연필



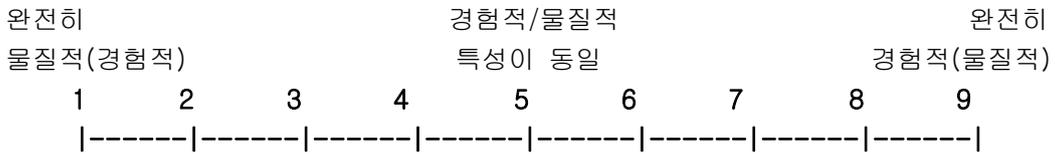
· 영화 관람권



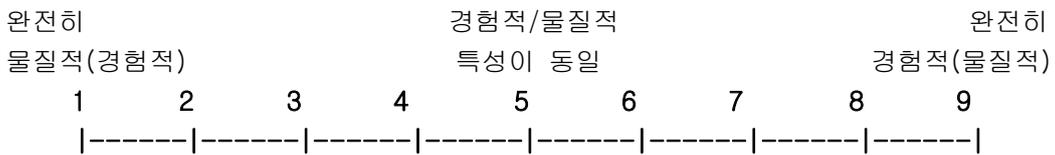
· 아이스크림



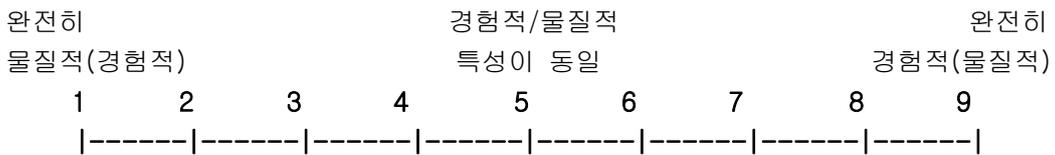
· 자동차



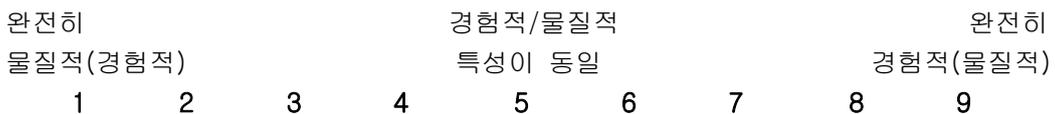
· MP3 플레이어

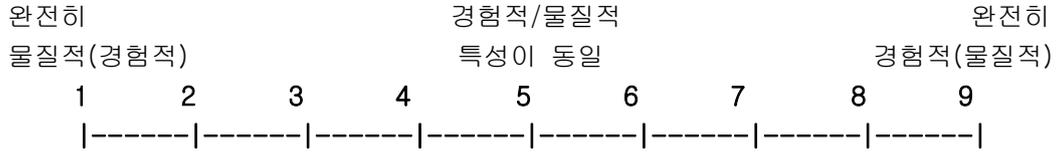


· 허브 화분

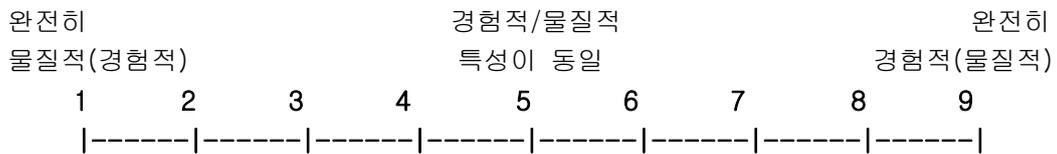


· 책

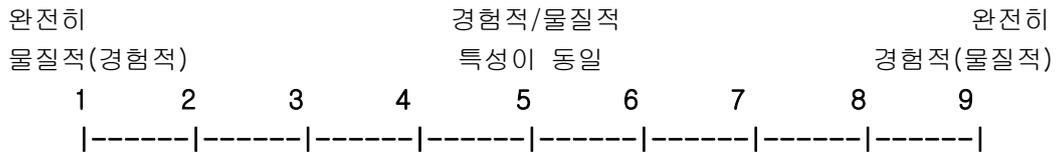




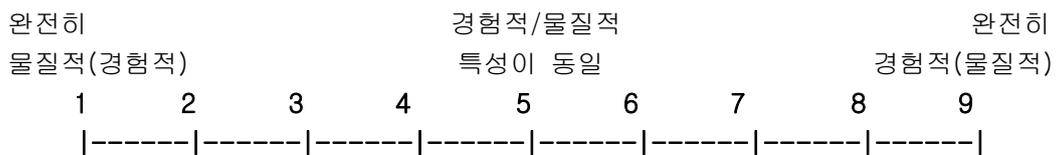
· 스포츠 마사지 이용권



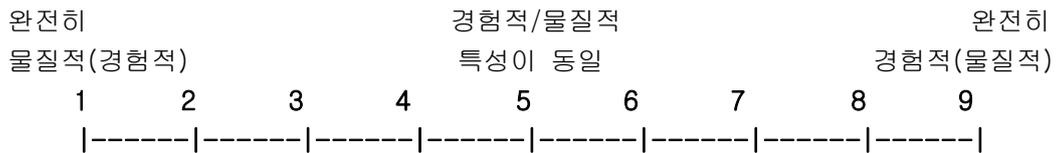
· 텔레비전



· 노트북(laptop)



· 소파(가구: sofa)



|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

· 여행 패키지 상품

완전히					경험적/물질적				완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일				경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	

· 아이폰(i-Phone)

완전히					경험적/물질적				완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일				경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
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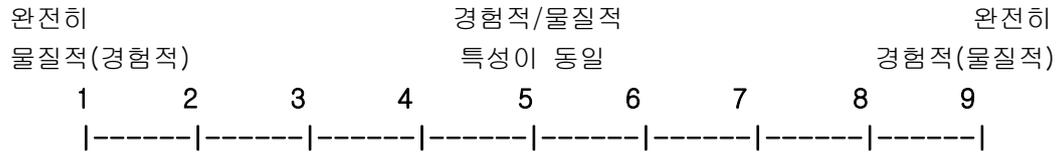
· 몽블랑 만년필

완전히					경험적/물질적				완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일				경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
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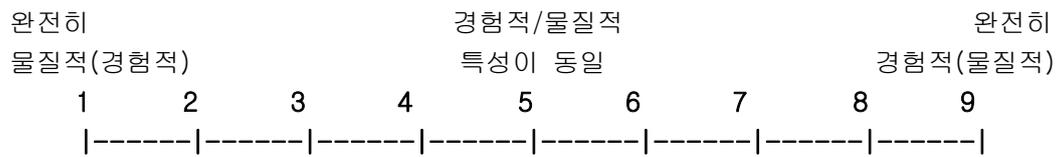
· 백화점 상품권

완전히					경험적/물질적				완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일				경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
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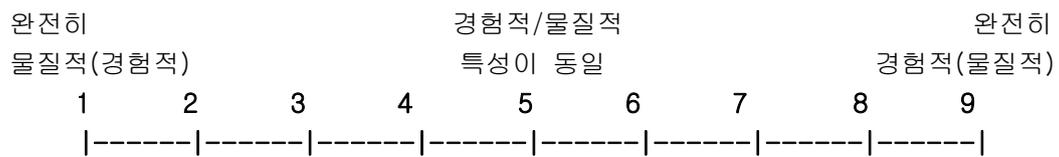
· 전자 피아노



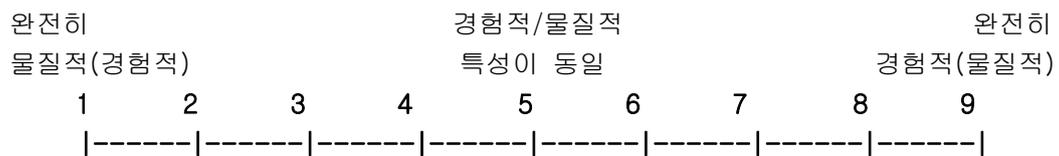
· 풍선



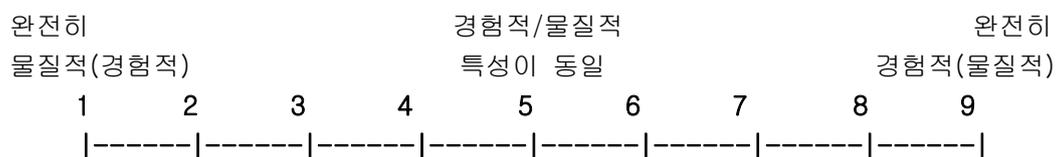
· 비누



· 이어폰(earphone)



· 시계



|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

· 향수

완전히					경험적/물질적					완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일					경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
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· 기타(악기: guitar)

완전히					경험적/물질적					완전히
물질적(경험적)					특성이 동일					경험적(물질적)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
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Appendix 4. Demographic Measures in Study 2

본인의 나이를 만으로 적어주십시오.

본인의 성별을 선택해 주십시오

남성 여성

월 평균 가계소득

100만원 미만

100-299만원

300-399만원

400-499만원

500-699만원

700만원 이상

Appendix 5. ESM Questionnaire (Study 2)

"본인이 지금 설문 문자를 받았을 때까지 한 지출 내역을 잠시 떠올려 주십시오."

"지금 설문 문자를 받았을 때까지 몇 번 돈을 지출(현금, 신용카드, 직불카드, 계좌이체 등을 모두 포함하여) 하였습니까? 지출 횟수는 본인이 실제 돈을 지출한 횟수로 계산하시면 됩니다."

(예: 설문 문자를 받기 전까지, 휴대전화 요금 자동이체 확인, 성당에서 현금, 해외빈곤아동들을 위한 기부금 지출을 한 경우, 총 3번의 지출 횟수로 응답 해주시면 됩니다.)

_____번

이 지출의 금액은 얼마입니까? (예: '청바지 체크카드로 구매' 지출에 대해 응답하는 경우, 청바지 금액에 대해 입력. 100000원인 경우, '원'을 제외하고 100000으로 입력하시면 됩니다.)

_____원

이 지출은 어떠한 종류의 지출입니까?

- 예 1) 자녀의 영어 학원비를 신용카드로 결제한 지출: "교육"에 표시
- 예 2) 친구 선물을 위해 옷을 현금으로 구매한 지출: "의류 미용"에 표시
- 예 3) 집 화장실 청소를 위한 욕실세제를 현금으로 구매한 지출: "주거생활"에 표시
- 예 4) 저녁 식사 재료를 직불카드로 결제한 지출: "식비 및 기호품"에 표시

- 먹거리 및 기호품 (식사, 차/커피/간식, 식재료/과일, 담배)
- 문화생활 (영화/공연, 게임, 음악, 전자제품, 도서, 사회생활, 유흥)
- 미용 & 건강 (의류/잡화, 화장품, 미용시술 및 관리, 운동, 병원비/약값, 기타요양)
- 교통 (대중교통비, 택시비, 장거리 경비(기차, 비행기))
- 주거 및 가정생활 (집세, 관리비, 생활용품, 차량유지, 교육)
- 종교 & 기부 (현금, 기부)

Appendix 6. 1-week version Satisfaction With Life Scale (Study 3)

※ 아래의 글을 읽고, 오늘을 기준으로 지난 일주일 동안의 귀하의 일상과 일치하는 정도에 가장 가까운 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다 보통 이다 매우 많이 그렇다						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	전반적으로 지난 한 주는 내가 생각하는 이상적인 일주일에 가깝다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	나는 나의 지난 일주일에 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	만약 다시 지난 일주일을 시작한다면, 그대로 아무것도 변하지 않았으면 좋겠다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	나의 지난 일주일은 즐겁고 유쾌했다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	나의 지난 일주일은 의미있는 한 주였다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	나는 지난 한 주간 우울했다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 7. 1-week version Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Study 3)

※ 다음의 단어들은 감정이나 기분을 나타내는 것들입니다. 각 단어를 읽고 현재를 포함하여 오늘 기준 지난 한 주 동안 본인이 느낀 기분의 정도를 아래 5점 척도에 따라 가장 잘 나타내는 숫자에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다	약간 그렇다	보통 이다	많이 그렇다	매우 많이 그렇다
1	평온한	1	2	3	4	5
2	재미있는	1	2	3	4	5
3	기쁜	1	2	3	4	5
4	즐거워	1	2	3	4	5
5	신나는	1	2	3	4	5
6	여유로운	1	2	3	4	5
7	설레는	1	2	3	4	5
8	당당한	1	2	3	4	5
9	지루한	1	2	3	4	5
10	걱정이 많은	1	2	3	4	5
11	우울한	1	2	3	4	5
12	짜증난	1	2	3	4	5
13	슬픈	1	2	3	4	5
14	화난	1	2	3	4	5
15	불안한	1	2	3	4	5
16	외로운	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 8. 1-week version Satisfaction with Purchase and Consumption Scale (Study 3)

※ 오늘을 기준으로 지난 일주일 동안 귀하의 구매 및 지출에 관련된 물음입니다. 일치하는 정도에 가장 가까운 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다			매우 많이 그렇다	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	나는 지난 한 주간의 구매 및 지출에 대해 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	지난 한 주간의 구매 및 지출 중에는 후회되는 것이 많다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	나는 지난 한 주 동안 구매 및 지출하는 데 돈을 잘 사용했다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	지난 한 주간의 구매 및 지출은 의미 있었다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	지난 한 주간의 지출 중에는 타인을 위한 혹은 타인과 함께 하기 위한 지출이 많았다 (예: 선물, 함께 식사하기 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 9. Demographic Measures in Study 3

본인의 나이를 만으로 적어주십시오.

본인의 성별을 선택해 주십시오

남성 여성

※ 다음 수입 및 지출 관련 물음에 답해주시기 바랍니다. (단위: '원'. '만원'
단위 아님.)

숫자만 입력해 주세요.

1. 본인의 개인적인 한 달 평균 총수입(용돈, 아르바이트, 과외 등) (단위: 원)

_____ 원

2. 본인의 한 달 평균 총지출 (단위: 원)

_____ 원

행복과 구매 인식의 관계: 경험 구매와 물질 구매

서울대학교 사회과학 대학원
심리학과 사회심리 전공
오혜원

최근 많은 연구들을 통해 경험 구매 (경험하기 위한 소비)가 물질 구매 (소유하기 위한 소비)에 비해 행복에 더 유리하다는 것이 밝혀져 왔으나, 아직 경험/물질 구매의 구분에 대해서는 해결되지 않은 문제들이 남아있다. 본 연구에서는 경험 구매와 물질 구매 사이의 애매한 경계에 대한 두 가지 질문들을 다루고자 한다. 첫째, 행복한 사람일수록 같은 구매라도 더 경험재에 가깝게 인식하는가? 둘째, 자신의 구매를 경험재에 가깝게 생각하면, 실제로 더 행복해지는가? 실험 방법과 경험 표집법(Experience Sampling Method)을 통한 연구 결과, 행복 수준이 높은 사람들일수록 낮은 사람들보다 같은 구매라도 더 경험재에 가깝게 바라보는 것으로 나타났다. 또한, 일주일의 중재 기간(Intervention) 동안 본인의 구매를 경험하기 위한 대상으로 인식했던 연구 참가자들이 실제로 더 높아진 행복도를 보고하였다. 이러한 변화는 다른 통제 집단 (자신의 구매를 계획하는 연습을 한 집단, 자신의 구매 내역만을 보고한 집단)에서는 나타나지 않았다. 본 연구 결과는 행복한 사람들이 구매의 경험적 측면을 더 즐길 줄 알며, 이러한 관점을 연습하는 것이 실제 행복감 증진에도 기여함을 보여준다.

주요어 : 경험 구매, 물질 구매, 행복, 경험적 인식, 경험적 관점 바꾸기
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