Low residential mobility and novelty-seeking consumption

Ito, Kenichi; Tan, Terri Su-May; Lee, Albert; Li, Liman Man Wai

2019

Ito, K., Tan, T. S.-M., Lee, A., & Li, L. M. W. (2019). Low residential mobility and novelty-seeking consumption. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 50(10), 1242–1252.
doi:10.1177/0022022119886107

<https://hdl.handle.net/10356/144000>

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022119886107>

© 2020 The Author(s). All rights reserved. This paper was published by SAGE Publications in *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* and is made available with permission of The Author(s).

Downloaded on 26 Apr 2023 16:04:48 SGT

Low Residential Mobility and Novelty-Seeking Consumption

Kenichi Ito¹

Terri Tan Su-May¹

Albert Lee¹

Liman Man Wai Li²

¹Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

²The Education University of Hong Kong

Author Note

This research was supported in part by an NTU Start-Up Grant and MOE AcRF Tier 1 Grant, M4011406 awarded to Kenichi Ito and National Natural Science Foundation of China, 71701219 awarded to Liman Man Wai Li. We thank Jun Min Low for her help in data collection. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Kenichi Ito, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, 639798. E-mail: kito@ntu.edu.sg

Abstract

Cultural research using a socioecological perspective has shown that residential mobility fosters familiarity-seeking behavior. In particular, residentially mobile individuals tend to purchase from national chain stores, which offer the same products across different locations. Positing this process as a reaction to a rapidly changing high mobility environment, we investigated whether a low mobility environment—characterized by a more familiar, less stimulating environment—results in novelty-seeking consumptive behaviors. In testing our hypothesis, Study 1 used archival data to explore novelty-seeking consumption based on the sales of consumable brands in the U.S., Japan, and Singapore. Study 2 primed participants with either a high or a low mobility mindset to explore the effect of mobility on novelty-seeking consumption. The results supported our hypothesis that consumers in a relatively low mobility country (Japan) tend to purchase from newer and, thus, novel brands more than consumers in mobile countries (the U.S. or Singapore). Furthermore, compared to high mobility, priming participants with a low mobility mindset led them to select novel over traditional products.

Keywords: culture, novelty-seeking, residential mobility, residential stability

Low Residential Mobility and Novelty-Seeking Consumption

In the era of globalization, mobility in the environment rapidly increased such that people and their ideas are quickly passed around the world, which led to a surging research interest in the influence of different types of mobility (e.g., Grusky & Hauser, 1984; Heckman & Mosso, 2014; Oishi, 2010; Schug et al., 2010).

Residential mobility, which refers to the frequency of changing residence (Oishi, 2010), has received a tremendous amount of attention in psychological research. Residential mobility can be used to capture both individual experiences (e.g., Li, Li, & Li, 2019; Oishi, Lun, & Sherman, 2007) and societal characteristics that indicate the objective socioecological environment in a given context (e.g., Li, 2017; Talhelm & Oishi, 2018). Consequently, past research using such conceptualizations of residential mobility have documented great variations across countries, with researchers distinguishing high-mobility countries like the U.S., Australia, and Singapore, from low-mobility countries like Japan and Denmark (Oishi, 2010).

Previous work has provided consistent evidence that residential mobility, as an objective socioecological factor, substantially shapes how people think and act across different domains (for a review, see Oishi, Schug, Yuki, & Axt, 2015). For instance, residential mobility in environments influences interpersonal relationships. In a residentially mobile community where interpersonal relationships are generally transient, people tend to form relationships based on practical or functional concerns (Fiske, 1991; Fiske, Gatz, & Hannell, 2005), which leads to a weaker tendency for pro-sociality (O'Brien, Gallup, & Wilson, 2012) and lower community commitment (Oishi et al., 2007a; Oishi et al., 2007b). Conversely, in a residentially stable community where the same group of people interacts for an extended period, people tend to engage in pro-social behavior (Oishi et al., 2007b, Study 1) and report stronger ingroup identity (O'Brien et al., 2012).

Beyond observations within the interpersonal realms, previous work showed that residential mobility also affects people's tendency in seemingly unrelated domains such as consumer behaviors (Oishi et al., 2012). The effect of residential mobility on consumer behaviors, to our knowledge, is relatively underdeveloped compared to the work on the influence of residential mobility on other domains such as interpersonal relationship, self, and well-being (for a review, see Oishi, 2010). To further evaluate the influence of residential mobility on consumer behavior, the current research presents findings from two independent studies – a cross-cultural comparison study, and a manipulation study. Through these, we sought to examine how levels of residential mobility may influence people's tendency to engage in novelty-seeking consumption.

Residential Mobility and Novelty-Seeking Consumption

The most relevant study on the influence of residential mobility and consumption behavior was conducted by Oishi et al. (2012), who provided evidence that high residential mobility at the individual-level and the societal-level fostered familiarity-seeking in consumption. Specifically, they found that people from regions higher in residential mobility (or with more personal moving experiences) showed a greater preference for national chain stores over local stores compared with those from regions lower in residential mobility (or with fewer personal moving experiences). They concluded that the familiarity-seeking tendency was used as a coping strategy to reduce a higher level of anxiety provoked in residentially mobile environments.

Although Oishi et al. (2012) provided robust evidence showing that residential mobility fosters familiarity-seeking consumption, the question of whether residential stability fosters novelty-seeking in consumption remains unanswered. Because of their focus on familiarity seeking, the study paradigm of Oishi et al. (2012) mainly compared two options with one being more familiar. Some studies suggested that familiarity seeking and novelty

seeking are not necessarily opposite (Weaver, McCleary, Han, & Blosser, 2009) though these two dimensions are often considered as the opposite (Jang & Feng, 2007). Therefore, the findings in Oishi et al.'s studies (2012) may not be generalizable in understanding novelty-seeking consumption. To further explore the influence of residential mobility on consumer behavior, the present research examined people's tendency to engage in novelty-seeking consumption.

Here, we outlined the rationale of why residential stability (vs. residential mobility) may foster novelty-seeking consumption. The first rationale was formed based on findings in cognitive psychology. In regions with high residential stability, most people are exposed to familiar stable environments in terms of both social and physical environments. Some studies suggested that prolonged exposure to the same set of stimuli may motivate people to seek novel stimuli. For example, given that a pleasant stimulus gradually becomes less enjoyable over time after repeated exposure (Frederick & Loewenstein, 1999), individuals may direct themselves to a novel stimulus to maintain the level of enjoyment after being exposed to a familiar stimulus (Kahneman & Snell, 1990; Snell, Gibbs, & Varey, 1995). Following this rationale, it is likely that people from highly residentially stable societies may develop a stronger novelty-seeking tendency in consumption to counteract the adaptation due to prolonged exposure of the same living environment. The second rationale was formed based on findings in environmental psychology. High residential stability may provide a stronger sense of place attachment. Prior work found that a longer residential duration, which indicates higher residential stability, predicted stronger placement attachment (Gustafson, 2009). This stronger sense of place attachment may become a secure base that motivates people to explore novel ideas, which is suggested by previous work on interpersonal attachment (e.g., Elliot & Reis, 2003; Green & Campbell, 2000).

Taken together, residential stability in the environment may foster novelty-seeking in consumption. Indirect evidence also supports this possibility. It was found that conservative people, who tend to oppose changes in their physical, social, and political environments, tend to exhibit a stronger preference for novelty in consumption (Fernandes & Mandel, 2014). Although different theoretical frameworks collaboratively suggest the possible influence of residential stability on novelty-seeking in consumption, little has been done to explore the factors related to the demographic environment and mindset it fosters. The current research, drawing from the socioecological perspective on residential mobility, aimed to fill this gap by exploring the complexity of an environment and its impact on the desire for novelty.

The Present Research

We explored the possibility that individuals in a residentially stable society would be more likely to consume novel products than those in a more mobile society. To evaluate this possibility, we conducted two studies. Study 1, a cross-cultural comparison study, examined novelty-seeking consumption based on archival data documenting the sales performance of established brands in three countries varying in their level of national residential mobility. Study 2 sought experimental evidence in support of the effect of residential mobility on novelty-seeking consumption. We primed participants with a mindset of living with high or low residential stability.

Study 1

To explore how residential stability in an environment would affect people's preferences for novelty, we conducted a cross-cultural comparison of sales performance statistics of older versus newer brands. We used the brand age as a proximal indicator of novelty, as consumers often ascribe characteristics such as familiarity, or being classic or vintage, to older brands (Guillory, 2012). Therefore, older brands are likely to be perceived as relatively familiar, whereas younger brands are likely to be perceived as relatively novel.

Previous work suggested that societal levels of mobility can be correlated with societal-level collectivism and individualism (Oishi & Kisling, 2009). Hence, we controlled the level of collectivism by conducting a triangular-culture comparison. The sales performance statistics of older versus newer brands were analyzed in Singapore, Japan, and the United States, which systematically differ in terms of mobility and collectivism. Although previous research has found that the U.S. is a high mobility society while Japan is a residentially low mobility society (Oishi, Ishii, & Lun, 2009), the U.S. and Japan also differ markedly in their degree of collectivism (Hofstede, 2001). To disentangle the effect of low mobility from that of collectivism, we included Singapore—a highly mobile and collectivistic society—in our analyses. Based on each country’s proportion of foreign-born population (United Nations, Department of Economics and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2016), which indicates changes in residence, Singapore (42.9% of foreign-born population) and the United States (14.3% of foreign-born population) are both demographically mobile countries; conversely, Japan (1.9% of foreign-born population) is relatively more stable.

If the links between low mobility in one’s environment and preference for novel products manifest at the cultural level, then one may expect Japanese consumers to purchase more novel products than American or Singaporean consumers. If, however, differences in collectivism and individualism are the factors that drive the preference for novel products, then Japanese and Singaporean consumers would be expected to purchase more novel products than American consumers.

Method

In 2017, we obtained information from a market research database (Euromonitor International) for sales performance statistics of brands in the beauty and personal care industry (e.g., bathing and showering products, skincare, oral care) for a 10-year period from 2007 until 2016, which was the most recent year data were available at the time of study. The

dataset included statistics of 424 brands owned by multinational corporations and local companies. We removed brands that overlap across different markets from the analysis, which resulted in a total of 240 brands from American (165), Japanese (136), and Singaporean (123) markets.

Our analysis focused on the beauty and personal care industry for several reasons. One is that the industry is characterized by a good mix of both familiar brands and frequent entries of new brands (Euromonitor International, 2017) with consumers routinely making decisions between staying loyal to an existing brand and switching to something new (Meng & Pan, 2012). Another reason is that the beauty and personal care industry has a representative customer base with consumers from diverse demographic backgrounds as opposed to only representing a thin slice of the population (e.g., tobacco users, pet owners). Finally, beauty and personal care products are equally accessible in the three tested countries. We focused on the top 30 brands based on sales performance to include both multinational and local companies in our analysis.

Sales performance for each brand was calculated by brand shares; i.e., the amount consumers spent on a brand compared to the amount spent on competing brands. This index of sales performance indicates consumers' liking of a particular brand because consumers decided to purchase one product over the other (Diorio, 2019). We chose brand shares as an index of consumers' brand preference, as prior research indicates that shifts in brand preferences are correspondingly reflected in sales trends (Sriram, Chintagunta, & Neelamegham, 2004). Biel (1993) also noted that strong brands (which suggest brand preference) frequently possess high market shares.

In estimating the novelty of a brand, we calculated its brand age based on its chronological age (i.e., the number of years between the time a brand had launched its first product and the year of the sales performance). Although consumers might be unaware, they

often describe the chronologically older brand as familiar, classic, or vintage (Guillory, 2012), which led us to believe the brand age as an adequate index of novelty in Study 1.

Results and Discussion

A one-way ANOVA showed that the average brand age was marginally different across the three markets, $F(2, 87) = 2.44$, $p = .093$, $\eta^2 = .053$. Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons showed that the top 30 brands in the Japanese market consisted of marginally younger brands ($M = 44.45$, $SD = 18.26$) than the Singaporean market ($M = 54.59$, $SD = 20.12$), $p = .089$. The averaged brand age of American market ($M = 49.26$, $SD = 14.53$) fell in-between Japanese and Singaporean market and was significantly different from neither Japanese market ($p = .891$) nor Singaporean market ($p = .747$).

Subsequently, we performed two planned comparisons to assess the effects of mobility and collectivism. As hypothesized, the comparison based on mobility (Japan against Singapore and the U.S.) yielded a marginally significant difference, $t(87) = 1.88$, $p = .063$, $d = .403$, while the comparison based on collectivism (Japan and Singapore against the U.S.) were not significant $t(87) = .07$, $p = .949$. These results support our hypothesis that people in a less mobile country (Japan) tend to prefer novel products more than people in more mobile countries (the U.S. and Singapore). The planned contrast also showed that mobility fit our data better than collectivism in explaining differing degrees of the preference for novel products among the three markets.

The results of Study 1 provided some support for the possibility that residential stability fosters novelty-seeking consumption. However, there were some limitations due to the nature of the study. As an alternative to residential stability and mobility, for example, multiculturalism can explain these results, because both the U.S. and Singapore consist of multiple ethnic groups while Japan is more ethnically homogenous. In addition, brand age was used as a proximal measure of novelty-seeking in consumption. This means that the

characteristics associated with older vs. younger brand ages may not only differ in terms of their novelty. Furthermore, it takes time to develop into top-selling products in a country, which makes the brand age in our analyses relatively old. This may reduce the sensitivity to capture the preference of novelty seeking.

To address these concerns and test for the causal effects of residential mobility on preference for novelty, Study 2 experimentally manipulated the level of low versus high mobility within a controlled laboratory setting. Following the procedure in previous work (e.g., Oishi et al., 2012), we primed participants with either a residentially stable or mobile mindset, after which they completed a choice task requiring them to select between novel and traditional products.

Study 2

In Study 2, we examined the causal relationship between residential mobility and novelty seeking by measuring people's intention of purchasing novel vs. traditional products. To control for the influence of potential confounds, we also measured participants' extraversion and openness to experience, which were found to correlate with novelty-seeking consumption (De Fruyt et al., 2000; McCrae, 1987).

Method

Participants and procedure. In exchange for course credits, 40 undergraduates (21 females, 19 males, $M_{age} = 21.08$ years, $SD_{age} = 1.23$) from a large university in Singapore were tested individually in a laboratory. Each participant completed the study via an online survey. They were randomly assigned to either a high or low mobility condition. Then, as a measure of the preference for novel products, all participants completed the product choice task. Subsequently, participants rated their levels of extraversion and openness to experience on two scales for statistical covariation. Finally, we collected demographic information on participants, probed them for suspicion, and fully debriefed them.

Manipulation. Following the procedure of high versus low residential mobility manipulation in previous work (Li et al., 2019; Lun et al., 2012; Oishi et al., 2012), participants were randomly assigned to either low or high residential mobility condition (see Appendix A). In the low residential mobility condition, participants imagined receiving an offer of a dream job that required them to live in the same community for the next 10 years. In the high residential mobility, they imagined receiving an offer of a dream job that required them to move to a new community every two years. To reinforce the manipulation, all participants were instructed to write their thoughts and feelings about the lifestyles they had in mind thoroughly.

Measurements.

Product choice task. A main dependent variable for Study 2 was the preference for novel products, which through participants' frequency of choosing novel over traditional products. Here, participants saw 15 pairs of common household products, one pair at a time, in the form of images presented in a randomized order on a computer. For each product pair, there was a product with a novel design and the same kind of product with traditional design¹. Participants were told to assume that both products were comparable in quality, options, and price. Both products within a pair appeared next to each other, and the location of products (i.e., left or right) within a pair was randomized. For each product pair, participants first chose the version they preferred.

For each product, participants rated its familiarity (“*I am familiar with this product.*”) and perceived user-friendliness (“*This product is user-friendly.*”) for both novel and traditional versions of a product. Each of these product attributes was assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). We included questions about the familiarity and user-friendliness of products to verify our choice of stimuli because familiarity and user-friendliness are the key determinants in a decision to acquire novel

products, and consumers generally perceive existing products to be more familiar and more user-friendly than novel products (Rogers, 1995).

Extraversion and openness to experience. To account for the possible effects of extraversion and openness to experience on novelty-seeking consumption (De Fruyt et al., 2000; McCrae, 1987), we had participants rate (1 = *strong disagreement*, 5 = *strong agreement*) their levels of extraversion and openness to experience using subscales of the Big Five personality inventory (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991). Participants completed eight items for extraversion (e.g., “*I see myself as someone that is full of energy.*”) and 10 items for openness to experience (e.g., “*I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things.*”).

Results

Preliminary analysis. We first performed a series of reliability analyses. For the product choice task, we excluded three items from our analysis because their Item-Total Correlations were below .2 (Everitt, 2002)¹. As a result of this removal, the task showed an adequate level of reliability ($\alpha = .71$). The reliability of familiarity ratings was good for both novel ($\alpha = .88$) and traditional products ($\alpha = .89$). The reliability of user-friendliness ratings was adequate for both novel ($\alpha = .73$) and traditional products ($\alpha = .77$). Ratings of extraversion ($\alpha = .88$) and openness to experience ($\alpha = .80$) also showed good reliability.

As a manipulation check, we analyzed the contents of participants’ thought descriptions after reading the assigned relocation scenario (i.e., high or low mobility). Consistent with past work on links between residential stability and collective self (or residential mobility and personal self; Oishi et al., 2007a), participants in the low mobility condition reported more socially inclusive words (e.g., “*dependent*” “*agree*”), $F(1, 38) = 4.55$, $p = .039$, $\eta_p^2 = .107$ ($M_{low} = .29$, $SD_{low} = .07$ vs. $M_{high} = .07$, $SD_{high} = .07$), and somewhat fewer socially disengaging words (e.g., “*independence*” “*better*”), $F(1, 38) = 4.07$, $p = .051$,

$\eta_p^2 = .097$ ($M_{low} = 1.39$, $SD_{low} = .30$ vs. $M_{high} = 2.24$, $SD_{high} = .30$), than those in the high mobility condition, suggesting the manipulation successfully primed the target mindsets.

To ensure internal validity of the stimuli used in the product choice task, we also performed a 2 (Product Type: traditional vs. novel, within-subjects) $\times$ 2 (Manipulation: low mobility vs high mobility, between-subjects) mixed ANOVA with participants' familiarity and user-friendliness ratings as dependent measures. As expected, participants reported lower familiarity with novel products ($M = 2.73$, $SD = .71$) than with traditional products ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .45$), $F(1, 38) = 144.94$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .792$. They also reported lower user-friendliness of novel products ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .43$) than of traditional products ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .38$), $F(1, 38) = 76.36$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .668$. The interaction between types of product (novel vs. traditional) and experimental condition (residential stability vs. residential mobility) was not significant for familiarity, $F(1, 38) = 1.48$, $p = .231$, $\eta_p^2 = .038$, or user-friendliness, $F(1, 38) = 1.14$, $p = .293$, $\eta_p^2 = .029$. Following Roger's (1995) criteria, these results confirmed that the stimuli were perceived as intended.

Hypothesis testing. In testing the effect of the mobility manipulation on participants' preference for novelty, we performed a one-way ANCOVA with the high versus low mobility manipulation as the independent variable; the frequency of choosing a novel product as the dependent variable; and openness to experience and extraversion as covariates. As shown in Table 1, we found a significant effect of the mobility manipulation, $F(1, 36) = 5.76$, $p = .022$, $\eta_p^2 = .138$. More importantly, the results supported our hypothesis that participants in the low mobility conditions were more likely to choose novel products than those in the high mobility condition.

General Discussion

Our findings suggest that low mobility in environments may elicit a desire for novelty. Crucially, we found supportive evidence at the country level such that younger brands in the

beauty and personal care industry are more likely to make a profit in a low mobility country (Japan) than in high mobility countries (the U.S. or Singapore). Moreover, these results were not fully explained by cultural differences in collectivism (Study 1). Similarly, experimentally activating participants with a residentially stable mindset (vs. a residentially mobile mindset) increased their preference for novel products (Study 2).

There are some implications of the present research. First, the present research extended the research on mobility by showing evidence for the important role of residential mobility in a “less relevant” domain, i.e., consumer behavior. Previous work accumulated abundant evidence that supports the substantial role of residential mobility across different domains, including self (e.g., Oishi et al., 2007a), interpersonal and intergroup relationships (e.g., Li et al., 2019; Lun et al., 2012; Oishi et al., 2007b, 2009), and well-being (e.g., Oishi et al., 2007a). Although Oishi et al. (2012) provided evidence for the influence of residential mobility on the preference of national chain stores, the work regarding the role of residential mobility in other domains was relatively understudied. Extending the previous work, the present research provided further evidence supporting the significant role of residential mobility on consumer behavior, in which residential stability (vs. mobility) is more likely to foster a preference of novelty.

Second, the present research may provide some insights into the theories regarding stimulation in the physical and social environment. On the one hand, Oishi et al. (2012) found that residential mobility fostered stronger familiarity seeking. On the other hand, the present research found that residential stability fostered stronger novelty seeking. Collectively, these findings appear to lend support for optimal stimulation level (OSL) theory (Raju, 1980). According to this theory, individuals are intrinsically motivated to maintain the level of stimulation with which they are most comfortable (Zuckerman & Neeb, 1979). When stimulation falls under (or exceeds) the optimal level, people pursue (or cease) exploratory

behaviors (see Helm & Landschulze, 2009, for review). Given this, greater familiarity-seeking consumption in highly residential-mobility environments and greater novelty-seeking consumption in highly residential-stability environments can be regarded as compensatory mechanisms to deal with the challenges associated with different types of socio-ecological environments. The preference of familiarity helps to buffer anxiety evoked by changes in a high-residential-mobility environment; whereas the preference of novelty seeking helps to buffer a lower level of stimulation associated with the prolonged exposure of familiarity in high-residential-stability environments. Previous work on OSL theory examined individual factors such as personality (De Fruyt, Van De Wiele, & Van Heeringen, 2000; McCrae, 1987) and immediate situational factors such as repeated exposure to the same set of stimuli (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1992). However, it had not extended to factors related to the distal socioecological factors. The current research, drawing from the socioecological perspective on mobility, provided some insights into the important role of distal environmental factors in the desire for novelty.

Study 2 results may appear contradictory to the findings in consumer research. According to Wood (2010), personal experience of drastic life change makes the notion of change or novelty more accessible; thus, people choose novel products rather than familiar products when they recall their own drastic life change. In a subsequent study, Wood also manipulated the amount of change by having participants recall either a few changes or many changes in their lives. The results showed that participants who recalled many changes reported the preference for novel products over traditional products; however, those who recalled a few changes did not differ in their preference for traditional products and novel products.

We believe that the situational characteristics presented in Study 2 may provide an extension to Wood's (2010) study, possibly through a curvilinear relationship between life

change and novelty-seeking consumption. Specifically, the contents of participants' thought descriptions after reading the high mobility scenario showed that most participants in Study 2 reported only a few changes and adjustments, which is possibly comparable to participants who were instructed to report a limited number of changes in Wood's study. We speculate that novelty-seeking consumption is observable when life changes are close to absent in environments, decreases under moderate life changes, and reappears when under drastic life changes. Investigation of such a curvilinear relationship may thus sharpen our understanding of mobility and novelty-seeking consumption by identifying crucial boundary conditions.

There are several limitations to the current studies. One limitation in Study 1 was restricted sampling, as Study 1 only compared three cultures in one industry. It is thus unclear whether the observed patterns of results would emerge if more countries and industries were introduced to the analyses. Future research can systematically examine this possibility.

Another limitation is the duration of mindset priming. Study 1 assumed that people who grew up in a certain culture brought a mindset specific to that culture when they purchased beauty and personal care products. Also, Study 2 involved testing sessions that were relatively short in duration. It will be constructive, then, to consider whether the effects observed in Study 2 would extend from momentary imagination of low mobility to prolonged exposure to a stable environment. In the spirit of socioecology, future research can advance present findings with longitudinal studies that address the above-mentioned limitations arising from current cross-sectional designs.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current studies examined the relation between residential mobility in the environment and novelty-seeking consumption. Our results suggest that people in a relatively low mobility country such as Japan may compensate for their adaptation or the lack of stimulation in their environments through the consumption of comparatively novel

products. By contrast, people in a relatively high mobility country such as Singapore may compensate for their rapidly changing, stimulating environments through surrounding themselves with familiar, traditional products. This research highlights the importance of relatively distal socioecological factors, specifically country-level and individual-level mobility, on shaping people's consumer behavior.

Footnote

¹ Please contact the first author for the full list of stimuli.

References

- Biel, A. (1992). How brand image drives brand equity. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 32, RC6–RC12.
- De Fruyt, F., Van De Wiele, L., & Van Heeringen, C. (2000). Cloninger's psychobiological model of temperament and character and the Five-Factor Model of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 441–452. doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00204-4
- Diorio, S. (2019, January 22). *The financial power of brand preference*. Forbes Media LLC. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesinsights/2019/01/22/the-financial-power-of-brand-preference/#18ba604f701b>
- Elliot, A. J., & Reis, H. T. (2003). Attachment and exploration in adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 317 – 331. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.85.2.317
- Euromonitor International (2017, June). *Beauty and personal care global industry overview*. Retrieved from <http://www.euromonitor.com/beauty-and-personal-care-global-industry-overview/report>.
- Everitt, B.S. (2002) *The Cambridge dictionary of statistics*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Fernandes, D., & Mandel, N. (2014). Political conservatism and variety-seeking. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 24, 79–86. doi:10.1016/j.jcps.2013.05.003
- Fiske, A., Gatz, M., & Hannell, E. (2005). Rural suicide rates and availability of health care providers. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 33, 537-543. doi: 10.1002/jcop.20069
- Fiske, A. P. (1991). *Structures of social life: The four elementary forms of human relations: Communal sharing, authority ranking, equality matching, market pricing*. New York, NY: Free Press.

- Frederick, S., & Loewenstein, G. (1999). Hedonic adaptation. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 302-329). New York, NY, US: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Green, J. D., & Campbell, W. K. (2000). Attachment and exploration in adults: Chronic and contextual accessibility. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 452-461.
doi:10.1177/0146167200266004
- Grusky, D. B., Hauser, R. M. (1984). Comparative social mobility revisited: models of convergence and divergence in 16 countries. *American Sociological Review*, 49, 19-38.
doi:10.2307/2095555
- Gustafson, P. (2009). Mobility and territorial belonging. *Environment and Behavior*, 41, 490-508.
doi:10.1177/0013916508314478
- Guillory, M.D. (2012). *Perceived brand age and its influence on choice* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA, U.S. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/marketing_diss/24.
- Heckman, J. J., & Mosso, S. (2014). The economics of human development and social mobility. *Annual Review of Economics*, 6, 689-733. doi:10.1146/annurev-economics-080213-040753
- Helm, R., & Landschulze, S. (2009). Optimal stimulation level theory, exploratory consumer behaviour and product adoption: An analysis of underlying structures across product categories. *Review of Managerial Science*, 3, 41–73. doi:10.1007/s11846-009-0024-7
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Jang, S., & Feng, R. (2007). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 28, 580–590.

- John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). *The Big Five Inventory - Versions 4a and 54*. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.
- Kahneman, D., & Snell, J. (1990). Predicting utility. In R. M. Hogarth (Ed.), *Insights in decision making: A tribute to Hillel J. Einhorn* (pp. 295-310). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Li, L. M. W. (2017). Social class, social capital and residential mobility in China. *Social Indicators Research*, 132, 1117–1129. doi:10.1007/s11205-016-1339-9
- Li, W.-Q., Li, L. M. W., & Li, M. (2019). Residential mobility reduces ingroup favoritism in prosocial behavior. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 22, 3-17.
doi:10.1111/ajsp.12338
- Lun, J., Oishi, S., & Tenney, E. R. (2012). Residential mobility moderates preferences for egalitarian versus loyal helpers. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48, 291–297. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2011.09.002
- McCrae, R. R. (1987). Creativity, divergent thinking, and openness to experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1258–1265. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.52.6.1258
- Meng, J. & Pan, P. L. (2012). Investigating the effects of cosmeceutical product advertising in beauty-care decision making. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Healthcare Marketing*, 6, 250–266, doi:10.1108/17506121211259412
- O'Brien, D. T., Gallup, A. C., & Wilson, D. S. (2012). Residential mobility and prosocial development within a single city. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 50, 26-36. doi: 10.1007/s10464-011-9468-4
- Oishi, S. (2010). The psychology of residential mobility: Implications for the self, social relationships, and well-being. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 5, 5-21.
doi:10.1177/1745691609356781

- Oishi, S., Ishii, K., & Lun, J. (2009). Residential mobility and conditionality of group identification. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45*, 913–919.
doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2009.04.02
- Oishi, S., & Kisling, J. (2009). The mutual constitution of residential mobility and individualism. In R. S. Wyer, Jr., C-Y. Chiu, Y. Y. Hong, & S. Shavitt (Eds.), *Understanding culture: Theory, research, and application* (p.223-238). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Oishi, S., Lun, J., & Sherman, G. D. (2007a). Residential mobility, self-concept, and positive affect in social interactions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*, 131–141.
doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.93.1.131
- Oishi, S., Miao, F. F., Koo, M., Kisling, J., & Ratliff, K. A. (2012). Residential mobility breeds familiarity-seeking. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102*, 149–162. doi:10.1037/a0024949
- Oishi, S., Rothman, A. J., Snyder, M., Su, J., Zehm, K., Hertel, A. W., Gonzales, M. H., & Sherman, G. D. (2007b). The Socio-ecological model of pro-community action: The benefits of residential stability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*, 831–844. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.93.5.831
- Oishi, S., Schug, J., Yuki, M., & Axt, J. (2015). The psychology of residential and relational motilities. In M. J. Gelfand, C.-Y. Chiu & Y.-Y. Hong (Eds.), *Handbook of advances in culture and psychology 5* (pp. 221–272). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Raju, P. S. (1980). Optimum stimulation level: Its relationship to personality, demographics, and exploratory behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research, 7*, 272–282.
doi:10.1086/208815
- Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations*. New York, NY: Free Press.

- Sriram, S., Chintagunta, P., & Neelamegham, R. (2006). Effects of brand preference, product attributes, and marketing mix variables in technology product markets. *Marketing Science*, 25, 440–456. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mksc.1050.0188>.
- Schug, J., Yuki, M., & Maddux, W.W. (2010). Relational mobility explains between- and within-culture differences in self-disclosure to close friends. *Psychological Science*, 21, 1471-1478.
- Snell, J., Gibbs, B. J., & Varey, C. (1995). Intuitive hedonics: Consumer beliefs about the dynamics of liking. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 4, 33-60.
doi:10.1207/s15327663jcp0401_02
- Steenkamp, J. M., & Baumgartner, H. (1992). The role of optimum stimulation level in exploratory consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19, 434–448. doi: 10.1086/209313
- Talhelm, T., & Oishi, S. (2018). How rice farming shaped culture in Southern China. In A. K. Uskul & S. Oishi (Eds.), *Socioeconomic environment and human psychology* (pp. 53–76). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2016). International Migration Report 2015: Highlights (ST/ESA/SER.A/375).
- Weaver, P. A., McCleary, K. W., Han, J., & Blosser, P. E. (2009). Identifying leisure travel market segments based on preference for novelty. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26, 568-584. doi:10.1080/10548400903163129
- Zuckerman, M., & Neeb, M. (1979). Sensation seeking and psychopathology. *Psychiatry Research*, 1, 255-264. doi: 10.1016/0165-1781(79)90007-6

Table 1

ANCOVA results for the effect of residential stability on novel product choice while controlling for openness to experience and extraversion.

	<i>Stable</i> <i>M_{adjusted}</i>	<i>Mobile</i> <i>M_{adjusted}</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
DV: Novel product choice					
Residential stability	7.12(.59)	5.09(.59)	5.76	.022	.138
Openness to experience			1.72	.198	.046
Extraversion			.07	.794	.002

Note. Numbers in parentheses indicate standard error of adjusted means.

Appendix A: Residential Mobility Manipulation in Study 2 (adopted from Oishi et al., 2012)

Low residential mobility condition

Imagine that you have just graduated and are offered a job that you have always wanted. The job also involves living in one area for **at least the next 10 years**. Please use the space below to describe in as much detail as possible what it would be like for you to have such a lifestyle. What will it be like to live in one place for 10 years? What is good and bad about it? How do you think it will affect your relationships with other people? For example, what kind of friends will you have, or how it is going to affect your existing relationships with your friends and family? After you have finished writing, please click the button below to continue.

High residential mobility condition

Imagine that you have just graduated and are offered a job that you have always wanted. The job also involves moving to a different location **every other year**. Please use the space below to describe what it would be like for you to have such a lifestyle. What will it be like to live in a different place every other year? What is good and bad about it? How do you think it will affect your relationships with other people? For example, what kind of friends will you have, or how is it going to affect your existing relationships with your friends and family? After you have finished writing, please click the button below to continue.