

How power increases preference for experiential purchases but not for material purchases

Jerry J. Han¹  | Myungjin C. Smale² | Jiyoung Lee³

¹Sungkyunkwan University Business School, Seoul, South Korea

²College of Business, University of Akron, Ohio, Akron, USA

³University of Technology Sydney, New South Wales, Ultimo, Australia

Correspondence

Jiyoung Lee, University of Technology Sydney (UTS), Bldg 8, 14/28 Ultimo Rd, Ultimo, NSW 2007, Australia.

Email: jiyoung.lee@uts.edu.au

Funding information

Sungkyunkwan University

Abstract

While recent research indicates that experiential purchases lead to greater happiness than material purchases (i.e., experiential advantage), we have a limited understanding of when and why consumers prefer experiential purchases. In this paper, we address this topic and find that consumers' feelings of power play a significant role in their preference for experiential purchases. Across four experimental studies, using multiple manipulations and stimuli, we demonstrate that feelings of high (vs. low) power lead to increased consumer preference for experiential, but not material, purchases. Mediation (Study 3) and moderation (Study 4) analyses revealed that this phenomenon is driven by greater expected happiness from experiential purchases for consumers feeling high (vs. low) power. We contribute to the experiential purchase literature by identifying consumer power as an important antecedent of consumers' preference for experiences and also add to the consumer power literature by documenting how perceived power affects consumer evaluations and decision-making. Furthermore, our paper suggests that managers should target people in powerful positions or seek to facilitate feelings of greater power in potential customers when marketing experiential products.

KEYWORDS

experiential advantage, experiential purchase, happiness, material purchase, power

1 | INTRODUCTION

The market for consumer experiences has grown tremendously over the past decade. For instance, the global travel and tourism industry was estimated to be \$716 billion in size in 2022, the global live music industry revenue was around \$5.55 billion in 2019, and the global box office revenue was worth \$13 billion in 2019.¹ Recent changes in consumer lifestyles have also boosted meal kit delivery services,

over-the-top content services (e.g., Netflix), and virtual reality (VR) tourism.² Moreover, previous studies indicate that experiential purchases contribute significantly to consumer happiness (Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Gilovich & Kumar, 2015; Nicolao et al., 2009; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). That is, people feel happier after thinking about a previous experiential (vs. material) purchase (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003), when anticipating future

¹<https://www.statista.com/outlook/mmo/travel-tourism/worldwide>; <https://www.statista.com/statistics/380120/global-music-tour-gross-revenues/>; <https://www.statista.com/outlook/274/100/cinema-tickets/worldwide#market-revenue>

²<https://www.theverge.com/2020/4/21/21229587/netflix-earnings-coronavirus-pandemic-streaming-entertainment>; <https://www.dal.ca/sites/agri-food/research/covid-19-online-food-activity.html>; <https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2021/feb/06/virtual-reality-tourism-ready-for-takeoff-as-travellers-remain-grounded>

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2023 The Authors. *Psychology & Marketing* published by Wiley Periodicals LLC.

experiential (vs. material) purchases (Kumar et al., 2014), and during the consumption of experiential (vs. material) purchases (Kumar et al., 2020).

Given the market size of experiential products and the rich literature on how experiential purchases affect consumer happiness (Weingarten & Goodman, 2021), some scholars have begun exploring factors that influence consumer preferences for experiential purchases. For example, Howell et al. (2012) found that extraversion, openness, and reward-seeking tendencies were correlated with greater preference for experiential purchases. Furthermore, Ma et al. (2021) found that greater work–family conflict leads to higher preference for experiential purchases. Finally, regarding the timing of consumption, Kumar and Gilovich (2016) found that consumers prefer to consume experiences later, whereas they prefer to consume material goods immediately.

While these studies are valuable in that they provide a starting point for additional research, they have several limitations. First, the research has often been limited to correlational methods (e.g., Howell et al., 2012), making it difficult to discern causal relationships. Second, even in studies that employed an experimental approach (e.g., Ma et al., 2021), the focal antecedent factors were less generalizable or controllable in a marketing context (e.g., work–family conflict). Due to these limitations, the literature does not provide clear or specific guidance to managers. Moreover, from a public policy standpoint, it is important to further extend our understanding of when and why people purchase experiential products, as this may have implications for individual welfare and happiness (Weingarten & Goodman, 2021).

We address such limitations in the literature by experimentally investigating how an important consumer variable—perceptions of power—affects preference for experiential purchases. We argue and find that feelings of high (vs. low) power lead to greater consumer preference for experiential, but not material, purchases. Moreover, we show that feelings of high (vs. low) power lead to greater expected happiness from experiential purchases and that this drives the increase in preference for experiences.

By demonstrating that consumers who feel higher power prefer experiential (vs. material) purchases, we contribute to both marketing literature and practice. First, building on prior research on the experiential advantage (Bastos, 2020; Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021), we extend the literature on experiential purchases by identifying an unexplored antecedent factor—consumer power—that affects consumer preference for experiential purchases. We further add to the literature by showing that this effect is driven by the expected happiness from experiential purchases. Second, we contribute to the consumer power literature by examining the downstream consequences of perceived power on consumer preferences and expectations. Third, we provide practical implications for marketing managers by highlighting consumer segments that may be more interested in experiential products and suggesting strategies to encourage experiential purchases. Finally, our study has public policy implications, given that our results suggest that people feeling low power,

such as those with lower socioeconomic status (SES; Rucker et al., 2012) or in lower ranks at the workplace, may spend less on experiences. Such low spending may have further detrimental effects on their overall happiness and life satisfaction.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. We first review prior research on experiential purchases and the experiential advantage. Next, considering the three major sources of the experiential advantage (Gilovich & Gallo, 2020; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003), we discuss how feelings of greater power may increase consumers' expected happiness from experiential purchases, thus leading to a greater preference for experiential purchases. Finally, we present the results of four studies that support our predictions.

2 | THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 | Experiential purchases and the experiential advantage

The literature distinguishes between experiential and material purchases based on consumers' motivations to acquire them. Experiential purchases are made with the intention of obtaining life experiences, whereas material purchases are made with the intention of obtaining material goods (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Experiential purchases include events that one can live through (e.g., concert tickets, massages), whereas material purchases include objects that can be kept in one's possession (e.g., furniture, jewelry). An extensive body of work compares experiential and material purchases and their impact on consumer well-being, including satisfaction (Carter & Gilovich, 2010), regret (Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012), intrinsic (vs. extrinsic) motivation (Ho & Wyer, 2021), and happiness (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021). The general consensus from this research stream is that consumers tend to derive greater satisfaction and happiness from experiential consumption than from material possessions (Caprariello & Reis, 2013; Carter & Gilovich, 2010, 2012; Howell & Hill, 2009; Kumar et al., 2014; Nicolao et al., 2009; Razmus et al., 2022; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021). The greater positive impact that experiential purchases have on one's happiness has been termed the *experiential advantage* (Gilovich & Gallo, 2020; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021).

Research comparing material and experiential purchases has also examined when and why experiential purchases contribute more to consumer well-being (Caprariello & Reis, 2013; Carter & Gilovich, 2010, 2012; Gilovich & Kumar, 2015; Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012). In their seminal paper, Van Boven and Gilovich (2003) proposed three possible causes for the differential influence of material and experiential purchases on happiness: Experiences tend to be more social in nature, are less comparable against alternatives, and are more central to one's identity than material possessions (see also, Gilovich & Gallo, 2020).

First, experiences tend to be more social in nature. Although material possessions are usually consumed individually, experiences tend to involve more human interaction and are more enjoyable

when involving more people (Caprariello & Reis, 2013). Moreover, even after the initial purchase and consumption, experiences tend to be conversationally shared (i.e., discussed with others) more than material purchases (Bastos, 2020; Bastos & Brucks, 2017). The social nature of experiences significantly contributes to meaningful feelings of relatedness and social belonging (Gilovich & Kumar, 2015; Howell & Hill, 2009), thus facilitating greater happiness (Gilovich & Gallo, 2020; Reis et al., 2000; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021).

Second, unlike material goods, experiences are less comparable to alternatives and tend to be unique (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012). Due to the tangible nature of material products, the attributes of such possessions tend to be objective and quantifiable in terms of size, weight, and the inclusion of technology. This makes it easier to compare material goods across specific dimensions. However, because experiences are often intangible and involve the combination of various incidental factors (e.g., social surroundings, weather, location), they are difficult to compare with other experiences and are perceived to be one-of-a-kind (Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012). Thus, information about other alternatives has little impact on satisfaction from experiential purchases, whereas comparison with other options leads to decreased satisfaction from material purchases (Carter & Gilovich, 2010).

Third, experiences are seen as more central to the self (Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). One's life is essentially the sum of all of one's experiences (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Moreover, researchers have argued that experiences become part of one's life memory once consumed. Such memories profoundly affect how we view ourself and identity. In contrast, material possessions either exist outside the memory or are usually featured only as minor parts within our memory. Indeed, Carter and Gilovich (2012) found that people mentioned experiences (vs. material goods) more prominently when telling their life story and that experiential (vs. material) purchases reflected who they were to a greater degree.

The finding that experiences (vs. material possessions) lead to greater enjoyment and happiness because they are more social in nature, less comparable, and more central to the self is important as it hints toward a consumer variable that may influence preferences for experiential purchases: perceived level of power. In the next section, we discuss findings from the power literature to provide support for the notion that consumers feeling high (vs. low) power should find experiential purchases more appealing because they expect to feel greater happiness.

2.2 | How high power increases expected happiness from experiential purchases

Power is defined as the amount of control one has over valued resources in social relations (Fiske, 1993; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Individuals with high power are able to control others' outcomes, whereas the outcomes of those with low power often depend on others (Goodwin et al., 2000). As power is associated with influence

over others (Lammers et al., 2016), the experience of power shapes people's lives significantly (Fiske, 2010). Powerful individuals tend to be more confident, optimistic, and approach-oriented than the powerless (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Galinsky et al., 2003; Rucker et al., 2011).

Germane to our discussion, the literature on consumer power shows that there may be several reasons why powerful individuals may expect and actually derive greater happiness from experiential purchases, but not necessarily from material ones.

First, prior research has found that people who feel greater power perceive themselves as socially competent (Lee & Tiedens, 2001). High (vs. low) power individuals are more likely to rate themselves as more competent and likable (Humphrey, 1985; Lambert et al., 1960) and often overestimate their closeness to others (Brion & Anderson, 2013). Other studies have found that high (vs. low) power individuals have better communication skills and are more persuasive (Hall et al., 1997; Schmid Mast et al., 2009; Sypher & Zorn, 1986). Indeed, recent work found that when job interview applicants recalled a prior experience of high (vs. low) power, they experienced better interview outcomes, as they were perceived to be more persuasive (Lammers et al., 2013). As experiences tend to be more social in nature compared with material possessions, we believe that high (vs. low) power individuals will expect to derive greater happiness from experiences. Additionally, high-power consumers will expect to obtain greater additional value and benefit from experiences by engaging in conversations with others and sharing the memories of these experiences with them (Bastos, 2020; Bastos & Brucks, 2017). Specifically, people who feel high power are less disinhibited and are more likely to express themselves with others (Keltner et al., 2003). Thus, high-power individuals are more likely to engage in conversations with others and share their prior experiences as conversational pieces. This is especially likely given that high-power individuals tend to focus on the self and because experiences figure more prominently in people's self-narratives and stories (Carter & Gilovich, 2012).

Second, high-power individuals tend to prefer purchases that allow them to differentiate themselves from others. Powerful people see themselves as more distinct from others (Lee & Tiedens, 2001) and respond more favorably to uniqueness appeals (Liu & Mattila, 2017; Murali & Pons, 2012; Zou et al., 2011). For instance, Liu and Mattila (2017) found that participants who felt high (vs. low) power were more likely to click on Airbnb ads that emphasized the uniqueness and atypicality of the place. Similarly, Y. Kim (2018) found that among consumers with high desire for exclusivity, powerful (vs. powerless) consumers evaluated luxury experiences more positively. Given that experiences are perceived as more unique and distinct than material goods, we predict that feelings of high (vs. low) power will lead to greater expected happiness from consuming experiences.

Finally, the literature suggests that consumers who perceive high power would prefer purchases that allow them to express their true selves better. Previous research has found that powerful individuals tend to focus on the self (Galinsky et al., 2006), where they are more likely to express their emotions (Hecht & LaFrance, 1998), show

greater consistency between inner traits and behaviors (Chen et al., 2001), and have a more consistent and authentic view of the self (Kraus et al., 2011). Such findings are important since research on experiential purchases shows that experiences are more reflective of one's self and identity (Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021). For instance, Kim et al. (2016) found that individuals who were motivated to search for true self-knowledge preferred experiential purchases over material ones, as experiences are more relevant to self-knowledge. Given high-power individuals' interest in the self, we believe that they will show greater preference for experiences and expect greater happiness, compared with low-power individuals.

In short, building on prior research (summarized in Supporting Information: Appendix A), we propose that feelings of high (vs. low) power will increase consumer preference for experiential purchases, but not for material purchases. We formally hypothesize the following:

- H1:** Feelings of power will moderate consumer preference for experiential (vs. material) purchases.
- H1a:** Individuals feeling high (vs. low) power will exhibit a greater preference for experiential purchases.
- H1b:** Feelings of power will lead to no difference in preferences for material purchases.

Moreover, we predict that this effect will be driven by greater expected happiness, which high (vs. low) power individuals expect to derive from experiential purchases:

- H2:** Individuals feeling high (vs. low) power will expect greater happiness from experiential purchases and this difference will mediate the effect of power on preference for experiential purchases.

3 | OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We conducted four studies to test our theoretical model and hypotheses. In Study 1, using common purchases, such as a sofa (material purchase) or music festival (experiential purchase), we found that participants who perceived high power from an unrelated prior event preferred experiential purchases more than those who perceived low power. Power had no effect on preference for material purchases. Given that there were many uncontrolled differences between the everyday products used in our first study, in Study 2, we replicated our basic finding by using a single product (a barbecue grill) framed as either an experiential or material purchase. This helped us rule out alternative explanations which could arise from any potential natural difference between the products used in Study 1. After establishing the core effect of power on preferences for experiential purchases in Studies 1 and 2, we investigated the underlying mechanism in Studies 3 and 4. In Study 3, we found that expected happiness mediated the effect of power on preference for

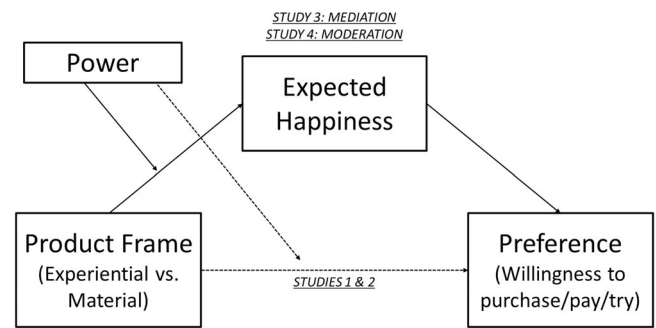


FIGURE 1 Conceptual model.

experiential purchases, where high (vs. low) power participants expected greater happiness from experiential purchases. In Study 4, we tested a theory-driven moderator for this effect: if the difference in expected happiness drives the effect of power on experiential purchases, as we theorized, then we can expect that reinforcing the belief that experiences will lead to happiness should eliminate the difference in preference that high versus low power individuals show. We found support for these predictions in Study 4. Throughout our studies, we used multiple power manipulations and experimental stimuli to increase the robustness of our findings. We present our conceptual model (Figure 1) and highlight which elements each study tested.

4 | STUDY 1: THE EFFECT OF POWER ON PREFERENCE FOR EXPERIENTIAL PURCHASES

Study 1 aimed to garner support for our proposed effects using everyday products that consumers are familiar with. We aimed to show that individuals who feel high power exhibit a greater preference for experiential purchases than those who feel low power (H1a). In contrast, we did not expect to observe any difference in preference for material purchases (H1b).

4.1 | Materials and methods

4.1.1 | Participants and design

A total of 196 participants (45.65% female; mean age = 40.98) from Amazon Mturk participated in the study in return for a small monetary reward. The study had a 2 (power: high vs. low) \times 2 (product: experiential vs. material) between-subjects design.

4.1.2 | Procedure

The survey started out by explaining to participants that they would be answering some questions that they might face in their daily

experiences. After reading this introduction, participants first completed the power manipulation task. Power was manipulated using an episodic prime task adapted from Galinsky et al. (2003), wherein participants were asked to recall and write about a time when they felt high power over another individual (high power condition) or a time when someone else had power over them (low power condition; see Supporting Information: Appendix B for details). On the next page, participants saw what they wrote on the previous page and were asked how powerful they felt in the situation that they wrote about (1: Extremely powerless, 7: Extremely powerful) as a manipulation check.

Following the power manipulation task, participants were next shown either a picture of a music festival (experiential product) or a sofa (material product) based on the condition. The stimuli were chosen based on a pretest we had run, which confirmed that people view festivals as an experiential product ($t(59) = 15.03, p < 0.0001$) and sofas as a material product ($t(59) = -11.07, p < 0.0001$). After viewing the pictures, all participants answered the question "How much would you be willing to purchase a festival ticket/sofa?" (1: Not at all, 7: Very much). Finally, the participants were asked to provide demographic information.

4.2 | Results and discussion

4.2.1 | Manipulation check

To confirm the validity of our power manipulation task, we conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with power (high or low) as the between factor and our power manipulation check item as the dependent measure. The results showed that participants in the high power condition reported having felt significantly more powerful compared with the low power condition ($F(1, 194) = 226.2, p < 0.0001; M_{\text{HighPower}} = 5.65, SD = 1.07$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 2.33, SD = 1.90$).

4.2.2 | Willingness-to-purchase

We conducted a two-way ANOVA with power (high or low) and product type (material or experiential) as between-subjects factors and willingness-to-purchase as our dependent measure. The results indicated a significant main effect of power ($F(1, 194) = 4.35, p = 0.04; M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.33, SD = 1.80$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 3.73, SD = 1.88$). More importantly, there was a significant interaction effect of power and product type ($F(1, 194) = 4.45, p = 0.04$; see Figure 2). Simple effects analyses found support for H1a, where, for the experiential product, participants in the high power condition reported a significantly greater willingness-to-purchase than those in the low power condition ($F(1, 194) = 8.53, p = 0.004; M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.47, SD = 1.94$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 3.36, SD = 2.03$). In contrast, for material purchases, power did not have any impact on consumers' willingness-to-

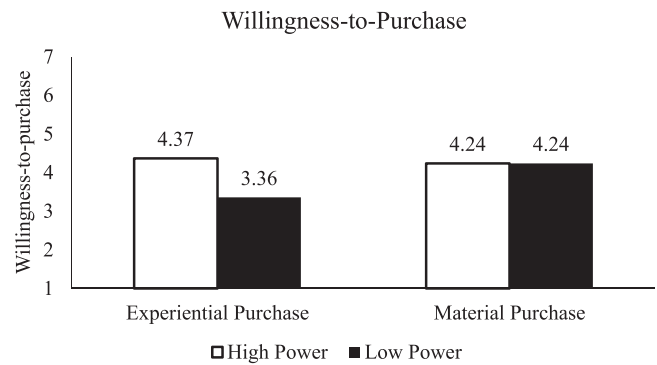


FIGURE 2 The effect of power on willingness-to-purchase for experiential versus material purchases

purchase ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.24, SD = 1.71$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 4.24, SD = 1.51; F < 1, NS$), supporting H1b. No other significant effects were observed.

Study 1 supported H1, as we found that people who felt high (vs. low) power showed a higher willingness-to-purchase for experiential products (H1a), while there was no difference in their purchase intentions toward material purchases (H1b). Having gained preliminary support for our proposed effect, we aimed to add robustness to our findings and rule out alternative explanations in Study 2.

5 | STUDY 2: FRAMING THE SAME PURCHASE AS EXPERIENTIAL OR MATERIAL

While Study 1 showed that our effects hold for real purchases that consumers often make in their lives, we could not control for the natural differences that occur due to the products themselves being different. For instance, one might argue that the perceived longevity of a purchase could have driven our findings (Tully et al., 2015). To address this, we used the same purchase as the experimental stimulus but framed it as either more experiential or material in nature (Bastos & Brucks, 2017). This procedure ensured that any potential effects we observed were due to differences in consumers' perceptions of the material or experiential aspect rather than any inherent differences between the products.

Framing the same stimulus differently also provided a conservative test of our hypotheses. Specifically, Weingarten and Goodman (2021) found that the experiential advantage was stronger when researchers compared two different products that were inherently experiential or material in nature, but the advantage was weaker when they tested the same purchase framed as an experiential versus material purchase. As we propose that high (vs. low) power individuals have a greater preference for experiential purchases because high power amplifies the expected happiness for experiential purchases, finding support for our effect while using the same purchase should demonstrate the robustness of the effect.

5.1 | Materials and methods

5.1.1 | Participants and design

A total of 121 university students (47% female; mean age = 22.3) participated in the study in return for extra course credit. The study used a 2 (power: high vs. low) \times 2 (purchase frame: experiential vs. material) between-subjects design.

5.1.2 | Procedure

Participants first completed the same power manipulation task from Study 1. Each participant was then randomly assigned to one of two conditions: material purchase frame condition versus experiential purchase frame condition (see Supporting Information: Appendix C for details). The former was designed to motivate participants to think and write about the barbecue grill in terms of its material properties, whereas the latter asked them to describe the product in terms of its experiential properties (adapted from Bastos & Brucks, 2017). Specifically, participants in the material frame condition were asked to think and write about “the first aspects of owning a grill that come to mind,” while participants in the experiential frame condition were asked to think and write about “the first experience you can imagine having with this new grill.” Next, participants were asked how much they would be willing to pay (WTP) for the barbecue grill on a scale of \$100–\$800. Participants concluded the experiment after responding to demographic questions.

5.2 | Results and discussion

5.2.1 | Willingness-to-pay

A two-way ANOVA revealed significant main effects of power ($F(1, 117) = 6.37, p < 0.05; M_{\text{HighPower}} = 376.09, SD = 145.51$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 319.05, SD = 161.32$) and purchase frame ($F(1, 117) = 5.29, p < 0.05; M_{\text{ExperientialFrame}} = 374.38, SD = 174.03$ vs. $M_{\text{MaterialFrame}} = 322.06, SD = 138.01$). More importantly, the results revealed a significant interaction effect of power and purchase frame ($F(1, 117) = 5.33, p < 0.05$; see Figure 3). Simple effects analyses first supported H1a, where high (vs. low) power participants were WTP significantly more when they thought about the barbecue grill as an experiential purchase ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 452.55, SD = 137.69$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 318.90, SD = 177.67; F(1, 117) = 10.26, p < 0.01$). H1b was supported again, as there was no difference in WTP between the power conditions when participants thought about the grill as a material purchase ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 325.12, SD = 128.81$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 319.17, SD = 147.98; F < 1, NS$).

In Study 2, we replicated the findings of Study 1, where we again found support for H1a and H1b. Specifically, participants feeling high

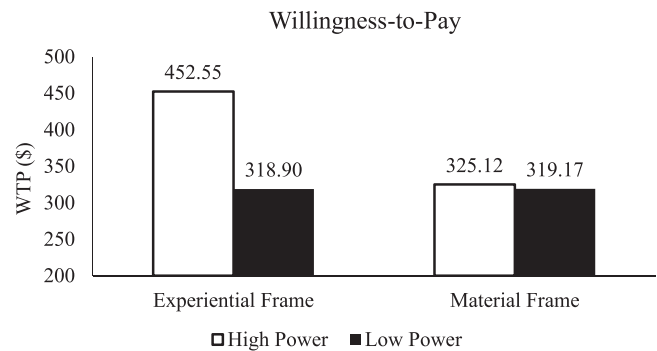


FIGURE 3 The effect of power on willingness-to-pay for a barbecue grill.

(vs. low) power were WTP more for an experiential purchase, but not for a material purchase. An additional contribution of the study is that we found support for our proposed effects while using the same product, which was framed only to feel experiential versus material in nature. This allowed us to rule out any alternative explanations based on differences arising from different products. Having found support for our basic effect across two different experimental contexts, we next aimed to gain process evidence for our proposed theory.

6 | STUDY 3: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EXPECTED HAPPINESS

Study 3 had two goals. First, we sought to provide process evidence for our proposed effect. Specifically, we theorized that feelings of high (vs. low) power will increase the happiness that consumers expect to derive from experiential purchases (H2) and that this is why high (vs. low) perceived power leads to greater preference for experiential purchases (H1). Thus, we measured expected happiness from potential purchases and tested whether this underlies the effect of power on preference for experiential purchases. Second, to further increase the generalizability of our prior findings, we used a different power manipulation and purchase stimulus. Here, we used a role-playing exercise to manipulate power and framed a tablet device as either an experiential or material purchase (Briñol et al., 2007).

6.1 | Materials and methods

6.1.1 | Participants and design

A total of 194 participants (50.79% female; mean age = 43.96) were recruited via Amazon Mturk for a small monetary compensation. The study had a 2 (power: high vs. low) \times 2 (purchase frame: experiential vs. material) between-subjects design. Similar to Study 2, we framed a single object (iPad mini) as either an experiential or material purchase to manipulate the purchase frame.

6.1.2 | Procedure

Participants first completed a power manipulation task in the form of a role-playing exercise (Briñol et al., 2007). They were asked to imagine themselves as a “leader” (high power) or a “subordinate” (low power) in a company and were told to briefly write about how they would feel, think, and behave in such a role. After completing the power manipulation, the participants read a purported ad for a product (iPad mini). Participants in the experiential purchase frame condition read an ad that highlighted the product’s experiential qualities (“You can take high quality photos and videos, edit videos ..., practice a foreign language...”). Those in the material purchase frame condition read an ad that highlighted the product’s material qualities (“Height: 8.0 inches, Width: 5.3 inches...2048-by-1536 pixel resolution at 326 ppi and newly designed CPU chip with 64-bit architecture...”). The ads were based on actual information from the company’s website and other product reviews (see Supporting Information: Appendix D for details).

After reading the ad, all participants indicated their WTP for the new iPad mini on a scale ranging from \$150 to \$500. Next, we measured participants’ expected happiness using four items: “When you think about this purchase, how happy does it make you?,” “How happy do you think you’ll be when you purchase the product?,” “Please indicate the level of happiness you expect to get from this purchase,” and “How much happiness will you feel when using this product?” (1: Not at all/Extremely low, 7: Very much/Extremely high).

6.2 | Results and discussion

6.2.1 | Willingness-to-pay

A two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of power ($F(1, 190) = 5.17, p < 0.05$) and, more importantly, a significant interaction effect of power and purchase frame on WTP ($F(1, 190) = 4.05, p < 0.05$; see Figure 4a). When the iPad mini was framed as an experiential purchase, participants in the high-power condition reported a significantly greater WTP than those in the low-power condition ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 321.62, SD = 101.31$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 260.88, SD = 86.69$; $F(1, 190) = 8.29, p < 0.01$). However, when the same product was framed as a material purchase, there was no significant difference in people’s WTP between the two power conditions ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 276.31, SD = 104.02$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 272.63, SD = 99.57$; $F < 1, NS$).

6.2.2 | Expected happiness

We averaged the four expected happiness items to form a happiness index ($\alpha = .96$) and conducted a two-way ANOVA on the expected happiness index. We observed only a significant interaction effect of power and purchase frame ($F(1, 190) = 7.57, p < 0.01$; see Figure 4b). Specifically, in the experiential purchase frame condition, participants

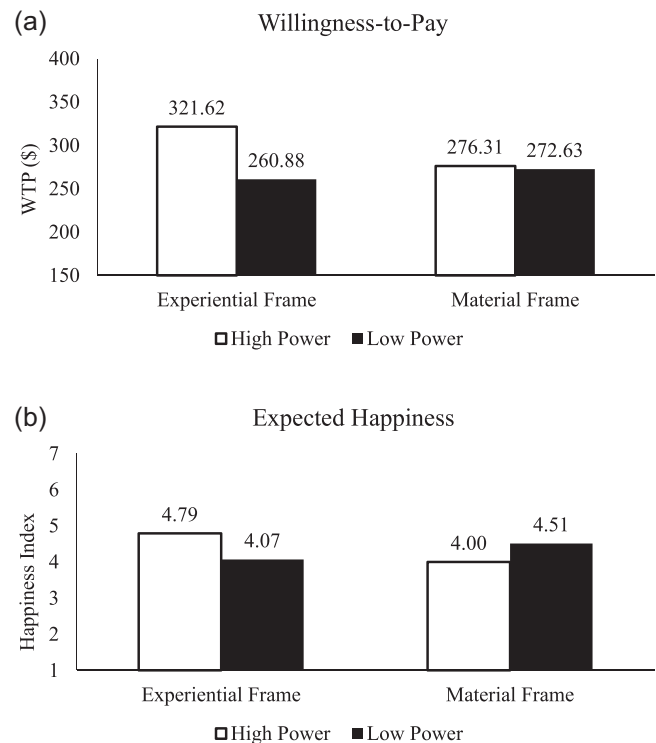
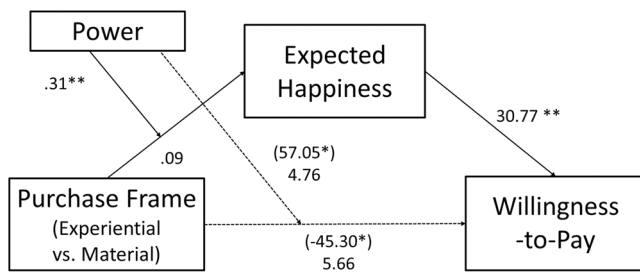


FIGURE 4 Effect of power on (a) WTP and (b) expected happiness. WTP, willing to pay.

in the high power condition expected to feel greater happiness from the purchase than those in the low power condition ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.79, SD = 1.05$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 4.07, SD = 1.81$; $F(1, 190) = 4.67, p < 0.05$). Within the material purchase frame condition, there was an unexpected marginal effect, where high (vs. low) power led individuals to expect marginally less happiness ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.00, SD = 1.51$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 4.51, SD = 1.63$; $F(1, 190) = 2.93, p < 0.10$).

6.2.3 | Mediation analysis

We conducted a mediation analysis using Model 8 of the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012; see Figure 5) to test whether expected happiness mediated the interaction effect of power and purchase frame. We set purchase frame as the independent variable, power as the moderating variable, expected happiness as the mediator, and WTP as the dependent variable in the model. The moderated mediation analysis confirmed a significant indirect effect of the power by purchase frame interaction (95% CI: 2.7417, 17.1671). More specifically, expected happiness mediated the effect of purchase frame on people’s WTP for those in the high power condition (95% CI: 4.2199, 21.3285), but not for those in the low power condition (95% CI: -18.2431, 2.7859). To ensure the robustness of our mediation, we also ran a reverse mediation analysis, where we switched the order of expected happiness and WTP, as recommended by prior research (J. Kim et al., 2018; Lemmer & Gollwitzer, 2017). The results indicated that the reverse mediation



The interaction effect of product frame and power on WTP became non-significant ($57.05^* \rightarrow 4.76$) when accounting for the interaction effect of product frame and power on expected happiness and the effect of expected happiness on WTP.

FIGURE 5 The role of expected happiness in the relationship between power and WTP. WTP, willing to pay.

model was not significant (95% CI: $-0.0021, 0.2297$) and, moreover, indicated that there was a significant residual interaction effect of power and purchase frame on WTP (J. Kim et al., 2018), adding robustness to our original moderated mediation findings.

Study 3 significantly strengthened our findings and provided support for our theoretical model. First, again in support of H1, we replicated our previous effects using a different power manipulation and product. Specifically, using a role-playing power manipulation task, we found that feelings of high (vs. low) power led to a greater WTP when the iPad mini was framed as an experiential purchase (H1a), whereas feelings of power had no effect on WTP when the iPad mini was framed as a material purchase (H1b). Importantly, we also found support for H2, revealing that differences in expected happiness from the purchase mediated the effect of perceived power on preference for experiential purchases. Participants feeling high (vs. low) power expected to feel greater happiness from the iPad mini when it was framed as an experiential purchase, and this increase in expected happiness led to a greater WTP for the product. However, expected happiness did not mediate any effect of power on WTP for the iPad mini when framed as a material good. Having found initial support for our theory, we aimed to find further evidence for our proposed process in our next study.

7 | STUDY 4: REMINDING PARTICIPANTS THAT EXPERIENCES LEAD TO GREATER HAPPINESS

In Study 4, we sought additional process evidence using a moderation framework. Specifically, if greater expected happiness drives the effect of high (vs. low) power on consumer preference for experiential purchases, as hypothesized, then we can expect that reinforcing the lay theory that experiential purchases lead to greater happiness should eliminate this differential effect of power on individuals' preference for experiential purchases. In other words, if we explicitly inform and remind low-power participants that experiential purchases lead to more happiness, then their preference for experiential purchases should increase when compared with baseline low-power participants (i.e., low-power participants who

were not given the information that experiential purchases lead to greater happiness). Importantly, if our proposed mechanism is responsible for the previously observed effect, the explicit reminder that experiential purchases lead to more happiness should not lead to a significant increase in preference for experiential purchases for high-power participants compared with baseline high-power participants (i.e., high-power participants who were not given the information that experiential purchases lead to greater happiness). This is because, according to our conceptual framework, high-power participants already expect to feel happiness from experiential purchases, so the reminder would be redundant information.

Thus, assuming that we replicate our previous effect of power on experiential purchases for baseline participants, we expect an interaction effect of happiness reminder instructions and power, where the predicted mean pattern should be as follows: $M_{\text{HappinessInstructions-HighPower}} = M_{\text{Baseline-HighPower}} = M_{\text{HappinessInstructions-LowPower}} > M_{\text{Baseline-LowPower}}$. If an underlying process other than expected happiness is driving the effect of power on preference for experiential products, then we should expect only a main effect of happiness reminder rather than an interaction effect. We tested these predictions in Study 4. We note that we did not test participants' responses to material purchases in Study 4, as our focus was on how high versus low power participants react toward experiential purchases when they learn that experiences boost happiness.

Finally, we also aimed to rule out another potential alternative explanation. That is, Lee et al. (2018) found that individuals from higher social classes experienced greater happiness from consuming experiences than those from lower social classes because people from higher social classes have more resources (i.e., money). We note that social class, although related, is a different construct from perceived power (i.e., social class is a fixed, objective construct, whereas perceived power can easily be contextually manipulated); moreover, our conceptual framework operates independently of resource provisions. Nonetheless, we measured perceived social status and resource provision to rule out this potential alternative explanation.

7.1 | Materials and methods

7.1.1 | Participants and design

A total of 332 participants (64.88% female; mean age = 41.38) were recruited via Amazon Mturk for a small monetary compensation. The study had a 2 (power: high vs. low) \times 2 (instructions: "experiences make people happy" vs. baseline [no instructions]) between-subjects design.

7.1.2 | Procedure

Participants first completed an article reading task, which served as our manipulation of lay theories. Half of the participants read a short article titled "Experiences Are What Make Us Happy." The article introduced the results of an academic study on how spending money

on experiences provides more happiness than buying material goods. The other half read an article about animals and nature (see Supporting Information: Appendix E for details). Subsequently, participants answered two questions regarding the article. The first question served as a manipulation check, asking them to choose, based on the article, whether experiences or possessions were more beneficial for happiness. Those in the baseline control condition were asked the following question: "What was the article about?"

Next, participants completed the same power manipulation task as in Study 1. Participants then read an ad for a self-meal preparation service (see Supporting Information: Appendix E for details), which highlighted the experiential aspects (e.g., "...enjoy the fun part of making the food, and immerse yourself in savoring your masterpiece!"). After reading the ad, participants indicated how much they were willing to try (WTT) the meal preparation service on a seven-point scale (1: Not at all, 7: Very much). Next, we measured perceived social status and resource provision by asking "Compared to the average American, what do you think your economic status is?" (1: Significantly below average, 4: Significantly above average), "Compared to the average American, how much money do you feel you have?," and "Compared to the average American, how much time do you feel you have?" (1: I have a lot less money/time, 7: I have a lot more money/time).

7.2 | Results and discussion

7.2.1 | Willingness-to-try

We conducted a two-way ANOVA on the WTT measure. This analysis revealed a significant main effect of power ($F(1, 328) = 7.90, p < 0.01$). The effect was qualified by a significant interaction effect of power and lay theory manipulation ($F(1, 328) = 4.29, p < 0.05$; see Figure 6). Specifically, for participants in the baseline condition, those feeling high (vs. low) power reported a significantly greater WTT for the meal preparation service ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.88, SD = 1.70$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 3.90, SD = 1.95; F(1, 328) = 11.18, p < 0.001$), replicating our prior findings. However, for participants who read that experiences are integral to increasing happiness, there was no significant difference in WTT between the two power conditions ($M_{\text{HighPower}} = 4.81, SD = 1.67$ vs. $M_{\text{LowPower}} = 4.66, SD = 1.88; F < 1, NS$). Additional analyses showed that, as predicted, this pattern was driven by low-power participants indicating a significantly greater WTT after reading the "experiences make people happy" article (vs. baseline; $F(1, 328) = 7.66, p < 0.01$). Consistent with our predictions, however, individuals feeling high power were not influenced by the lay theory manipulation ($F < 1, NS$), indicating that high-power participants were already responding under the notion that experiences would make them happy. Further contrast analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the WTT of participants in the low-power condition who read the article versus that of participants in the high-power baseline condition ($F < 1, NS$).

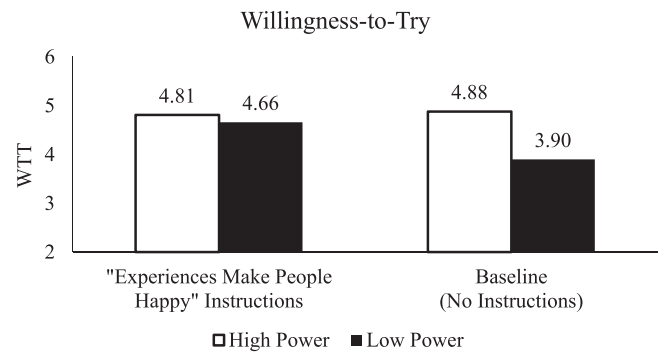


FIGURE 6 How beliefs about happiness moderate the effect of power. WTT, willing to try.

7.2.2 | Ruling out alternative explanation

To rule out an alternative explanation based on social status or resources, we first ran three separate one-way ANOVAs to determine whether our power manipulation affected participants' perceptions of social status, amount of money, and amount of time. The results showed that our power manipulation did not have any effect on any of the measures (all F 's $< 1, NS$). Next, we ran three separate analysis of covariances to test our focal interaction effect while controlling for social status, perceived amount of money, and perceived amount of time. In all three cases, the interaction effect between power and happiness instructions was significant ($F(1, 327) = 4.50; F(1, 327) = 3.99; F(1, 327) = 4.29$; all p 's < 0.05).

The results of Study 4 further supported our proposed theory. Specifically, we predicted that the difference in preference for experiential purchases among high versus low power individuals would be due to differences in expected happiness from the purchase. Thus, we expected that reinforcing the belief that experiential purchases boost happiness would lead to an increased WTT for low-power participants, but not for high-power participants. We further expected that this would eliminate the difference in WTT for experiential purchases among high versus low-power participants. Our data supported these predictions. However, when participants did not receive any information regarding the relationship between happiness and experiential purchases, we replicated our prior findings where high (vs. low) power participants reported greater WTT for experiential purchases. Furthermore, our data cast doubt on the view that perceived power affects perceived social status or resource provisions and further influences their preferences for experiential purchases.

8 | GENERAL DISCUSSION

8.1 | Summary of findings

Our paper studied how feelings of power influence consumer preference for experiential purchases. Expanding on prior work on

experiential purchases and consumer power, we proposed that consumers feeling high (vs. low) power will show greater preference for experiential purchases, but that feelings of power should not affect preferences for material purchases. We further proposed that this effect will be driven by an increase in expected happiness from the purchase. Specifically, high (vs. low) power should increase expected happiness for experiential purchases, but power should have no effect on material purchases.

Four studies provided support for the investigated effect and the proposed mechanism. Study 1 found support for our basic effect using common purchases, such as a sofa or festival ticket. Study 2 replicated these findings using the same product (a barbecue grill) that was framed as either an experiential or material purchase. Study 3 delved into the underlying process and found that expected happiness from the purchase mediated the effect of power on people's willingness-to-pay for an experiential purchase. Finally, the results of Study 4 showed that the differential effect of high (vs. low) power on consumers' willingness-to-try an experiential purchase was eliminated when participants read an article on how experiences lead to happiness. This result provided further proof that greater expected happiness from experiences underlies the effect of power on preference for experiential purchases.

8.2 | Theoretical contributions

By investigating the relationship between consumer power and preference for experiential purchases, our study makes important theoretical contributions. First, we extend the literature on experiential purchases. A robust body of work has documented the experiential advantage phenomenon, stating that experiential purchases tend to lead to greater happiness than material purchases (Bastos, 2020; Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003; Weingarten & Goodman, 2021). Given the potential for increased consumer welfare, preliminary work (Howell et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2021) has begun to explore the antecedent factors for consumers' experiential purchases. However, this nascent body of research either used a correlational research method, making it difficult to determine causality, or studied factors that are not easily identifiable by marketers. We address these limitations by experimentally identifying perceived power, a “pervasive and fundamental component of social systems” (Rucker et al., 2012, p. 353), as a significant factor that influences consumer preference for experiential purchases.

Second, we highlight the role that expected happiness plays in enhancing consumer preference and willingness-to-pay for experiential purchases. This finding dovetails nicely with prior work on the experiential advantage and opens new avenues for future research. Specifically, other factors that make consumers focus more on happiness (Alba & Williams, 2013; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Hsee & Tsai, 2007; Mogilner et al., 2012) or antecedent factors that may enhance expected happiness from experiences may also affect consumer preference for experiential purchases. For instance,

Mogilner et al. (2012) found that the meaning of happiness varies for consumers, where it can either mean feeling excited or feeling calm. The authors further found that one's temporal focus moderates the type of happiness one pursue: Consumers prefer exciting happiness when focused on the future, but prefer calming happiness when focused on the present. Given that experiences also tend to offer different kinds of happiness (e.g., a music concert might be exciting, whereas a trip to a quiet island resort might be calming), our findings suggest that consumer preferences toward specific types of experiences may be affected by the timing of the experience (i.e., soon vs. far in the future) and the kind of happiness the experience provides.

Third, our paper adds to the literature on consumer power by further documenting how differences in perceived power may affect consumer judgment and purchase behavior (Lin & Desai, 2022; Rucker et al., 2012; Tassiello et al., 2021). Notably, we highlight how perceptions of power can affect consumers' expectations of future experiences and emotions (Mellers & McGraw, 2001), thereby influencing their current decision-making. Specifically, our work builds on prior research showing that high-power individuals tend to be more socially competent, seek uniqueness, and prefer products that allow them to express themselves better (Galinsky et al., 2006; Lammers et al., 2013; Lee & Tiedens, 2001; Liu & Mattila, 2017). The results of our studies show that such effects of high power can influence consumer expectations about future happiness and that this affects current decisions. While our work focused on the effect of power on expected happiness, perceived power may affect other anticipated feelings or emotions, such as regret (Pieters & Zeelenberg, 2007; Simonson, 1992). For instance, prior work finds that consumers often purchase items on sale now rather than wait for potentially better deals later, because they expect to feel substantial regret if they miss out on the opportunity altogether. Perceptions of power may reduce expected feelings of regret in such situations and help consumers make more fiscally sound decisions. Researchers can further look into whether perceived power may affect other expected emotions, such as expected shame (Leach & Cidam, 2015).

8.3 | Practical implications

The results from our paper also provide implications for both marketing managers and policymakers. For marketing managers of experiential products, our findings imply that targeting individuals who feel greater power or facilitating perceptions of power in a sales context could be effective in increasing purchase intentions. Additionally, the results from Study 4 show that, regardless of the audience, it may be important for marketing managers to emphasize the link between experiential purchases and happiness. Marketing practitioners of material products could also leverage the insights from Studies 2 and 3, which found that framing a material good as an experiential purchase led high-powered individuals to exhibit a greater preference for the product compared with those perceiving low power. This finding implies that emphasizing the experiential

elements of any product to consumers with high power may be an effective marketing strategy.

For policymakers, our findings highlight the need to support chronically “powerless” groups of society, such as those in lower SES groups. The results of our research suggest that at-risk groups, who tend to lack feelings of power (Rucker et al., 2012), may decide not to engage in experiences or may purchase experiential products less, and thus lose out on opportunities to increase happiness. This could potentially contribute to the lower happiness that low-income people feel compared with high-income individuals (Killingsworth, 2021). Thus, our paper highlights the need for public policies centered on empowering those who may feel powerless due to their working conditions or life situations and also reinforcing to them the notion that experiences lead to happiness (as in our Study 4). Here, we also note that prior research has found that consumers who feel resource constraints, such as those in lower SES groups, are more likely to purchase material (vs. experiential) products due to an increased concern for longevity (Tully et al., 2015). While product longevity is a real and valid concern for people experiencing resource constraints, it could still be the case that they are overly concerned with longevity and are thus under-investing in experiences and over-investing in material products. Future research should study the consumption patterns of lower SES groups and how their purchase decisions affect overall welfare.

8.4 | Additional questions and future research directions

8.4.1 | Low power and experiential purchases

A separate branch of research in the power literature finds that people perceiving low power become motivated to compensate for such feelings of low power and that this motivation affects their decision-making and purchase behavior (Dubois et al., 2012; Rucker & Galinsky, 2009; Rucker et al., 2012). For instance, Rucker and Galinsky (2008) found that people feeling low power were motivated to acquire status-signaling goods, such as luxury products, to compensate for the lack of power. Based on this stream of work, some may question why we did not find that people feeling low power showed a greater preference for experiential purchases than high-power people. The key to answering this question is that experiential purchases are not necessarily associated with status. Specifically, Rucker et al. (2012) argued that psychological needs triggered by feelings of low power (i.e., compensatory motivations) become dominant in consumer decision-making when a focal product is associated with status. In contrast, the authors argued that, for products lacking an association with status, psychological propensities triggered by power states have a greater impact on consumer decision-making. Our empirical results fit this theoretical framework. That is, for experiential purchases, which are not associated with status, the psychological propensities triggered by high power (e.g., increased self-focus, social competence, and uniqueness-seeking) play a critical role in shaping consumer preferences, rather than the compensatory motivations triggered by low power.

8.4.2 | Other factors that may influence preferences for experiential purchases

As noted previously, researchers have only just begun looking into when and why consumers are more or less likely to prefer experiential purchases. While our research focused on perceptions of power as a moderating variable, future research could investigate other factors that affect consumer attitudes toward experiential purchases. For instance, consumers experiencing social exclusion (Duclos et al., 2013) may have a heightened need for connection and may decide to spend their money on experiential purchases rather than material purchases. This finding could be especially important given that the COVID-19 pandemic and lockdowns in 2020 have led to people experiencing greater isolation and loneliness than before (Hwang et al., 2020). Additionally, there may be individual traits, such as extraversion (Zillig et al., 2002), which may affect the expected value that consumers perceive from social events. Thus, these individual traits can impact consumer preferences for experiential purchases.

8.4.3 | Expected versus experienced happiness

Research on affective forecasting (Wilson & Gilbert, 2005) has found that people's expected emotions are often not well-calibrated compared with their actual, experienced emotions. Given that our core process involves consumer expectations of happiness, one might question whether the findings from the affective forecasting literature pose a problem for our conceptual framework. However, we believe that such research does not contradict our findings. Specifically, consumers' purchase decisions are inevitably influenced by their expectations, regardless of whether they are accurate or not. This is because consumers cannot directly consume a product before purchasing it. In other words, while we cannot attest to the accuracy of the anticipated emotions that our research participants formed when evaluating an experiential purchase, our results show that there was a significant difference in expected happiness between different power conditions and that these expectations significantly affected participants' behavioral intentions and attitudes toward the product. Indeed, there are a number of research that have looked into how anticipated emotions, or expected feelings, influence consumer decision-making and behavior (Bagozzi et al., 2016; Patrick et al., 2007; Wirtz et al., 2003).

8.4.4 | Effect of power on consumer emotions at point of purchase

While we investigated how perceived power affects expected emotions, such as happiness, future research can also look into how perceived power influences emotions at the point of purchase. For instance, consumers feeling higher power may feel greater nostalgia in response to nostalgia marketing (Schindler &

Holbrook, 2003), as higher power may facilitate greater connection to the past self and such increased connection may amplify the effects of nostalgia marketing.

8.4.5 | Augmented reality (AR) and VR

While we studied the effects of perceived power on traditional experiential purchases (e.g., festival ticket, meal-kit service), future work can examine how perceived power affects consumer responses to AR and VR. Specifically, past work has shown that feelings of control—a construct closely related to perceived power—significantly influence consumers' intentions to adopt VR technology (Han et al., 2020) and that AR and VR can improve online experiential retailing (Hilken et al., 2022). Given such ties to perceived power and experiential purchases, future research can delve into how differences in perceived power may differentially affect consumer evaluations and perceptions of AR and VR technologies.

9 | CONCLUSION

Our paper finds that consumers who perceive high power prefer experiential purchases more than consumers who perceive low power, whereas power does not affect their preferences for material purchases. We further find that differences in expected happiness from the experience underlie this effect of power. We hope that our findings inspire further research on when and why consumers prefer experiential purchases, and help practitioners and policymakers in their decision-making.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This paper was supported by Sungkyun Research Fund, Sungkyunkwan University, 2022.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data for Study 1 was collected in October 2022 on Amazon Mturk, where participants were recruited in return for monetary compensation. Data for Study 2 was collected in September 2018 at the University of Technology Sydney, where participants were recruited in return for extra course credit. Data for Study 3 was collected in June 2022 on Amazon Mturk, where participants were recruited in return for monetary compensation. Data for Study 4 was collected in June 2022 on Amazon Mturk, where participants were recruited in return for monetary compensation.

ORCID

Jerry J. Han  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-4949-0720>

REFERENCES

Alba, J. W., & Williams, E. F. (2013). Pleasure principles: A review of research on hedonic consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 23*(1), 2–18.

- Anderson, C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2006). Power, optimism, and risk-taking. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 36*(4), 511–536.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Belanche, D., Casalo, L. V., & Flavian, C. (2016). The role of anticipated emotions in purchase intentions. *Psychology & Marketing, 33*(8), 629–645.
- Bastos, W. (2020). Want to make me happy? Tell me about your experiences but not your objects. *Journal of Consumer Affairs, 54*(3), 978–1001.
- Bastos, W., & Brucks, M. (2017). How and why conversational value leads to happiness for experiential and material purchases. *Journal of Consumer Research, 44*(3), 598–612.
- Briñol, P., Petty, R. E., Valle, C., Rucker, D. D., & Becerra, A. (2007). The effects of message recipients' power before and after persuasion: A self-validation analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*(6), 1040–1053.
- Brion, S., & Anderson, C. (2013). The loss of power: How illusions of alliance contribute to powerholders' downfall. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 121*(1), 129–139.
- Caprariello, P. A., & Reis, H. T. (2013). To do, to have, or to share? Valuing experiences over material possessions depends on the involvement of others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(2), 199–215.
- Carter, T. J., & Gilovich, T. (2010). The relative relativity of material and experiential purchases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98*(1), 146–159.
- Carter, T. J., & Gilovich, T. (2012). I am what I do, not what I have: The differential centrality of experiential and material purchases to the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102*(6), 1304–1317.
- Chen, S., Lee-Chai, A. Y., & Bargh, J. A. (2001). Relationship orientation as a moderator of the effects of social power. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(2), 173–187.
- Dubois, D., Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2012). Super size me: Product size as a signal of status. *Journal of Consumer Research, 38*(6), 1047–1062.
- Duclos, R., Wan, E. W., & Jiang, Y. (2013). Show me the honey! Effects of social exclusion on financial risk-taking. *Journal of Consumer Research, 40*(1), 122–135.
- Fiske, S. T. (1993). Controlling other people: The impact of power on stereotyping. *American Psychologist, 48*(6), 621–628.
- Fiske, S. T. (2010). Interpersonal stratification: Status, power, and subordination. In S. T. Fiske, D. T. Gilbert, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology* (pp. 941–982). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(3), 453–466.
- Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Inesi, M. E., & Gruenfeld, D. H. (2006). Power and perspectives not taken. *Psychological Science, 17*(12), 1068–1074.
- Gilovich, T., & Gallo, I. (2020). Consumers' pursuit of material and experiential purchases: A review. *Consumer Psychology Review, 3*(1), 20–33.
- Gilovich, T., & Kumar, A. (2015). We'll always have Paris: The hedonic payoff from experiential and material investments. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 51, pp. 147–187). Academic Press.
- Goodwin, S. A., Gubin, A., Fiske, S. T., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2000). Power can bias impression processes: Stereotyping subordinates by default and by design. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 3*(3), 227–256.
- Hall, J. A., Halberstadt, A. G., & O'Brien, C. E. (1997). "Subordination" and nonverbal sensitivity: A study and synthesis of findings based on trait measures. *Sex Roles, 37*(5–6), 295–317.
- Han, S. L., An, M., Han, J. J., & Lee, J. (2020). Telepresence, time distortion, and consumer traits of virtual reality shopping. *Journal of Business Research, 118*, 311–320.
- Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process

- modeling [White Paper]. Retrieved <http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf>
- Hecht, M. A., & LaFrance, M. (1998). License or obligation to smile: The effect of power and sex on amount and type of smiling. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 24(12), 1332–1342.
- Hilken, T., Chylinski, M., Keeling, D. I., Heller, J., Ruyter, K., & Mahr, D. (2022). How to strategically choose or combine augmented and virtual reality for improved online experiential retailing. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(3), 495–507.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(3), 92–101.
- Ho, C. M., & Wyer, R. S. (2021). The effect of material and experiential consumption on goal pursuit. *Psychology & Marketing*, 38(12), 2305–2313.
- Howell, R. T., & Hill, G. (2009). The mediators of experiential purchases: Determining the impact of psychological needs satisfaction and social comparison. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(6), 511–522.
- Howell, R. T., Pchelin, P., & Iyer, R. (2012). The preference for experiences over possessions: Measurement and construct validation of the experiential buying tendency scale. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 7(1), 57–71.
- Hsee, C. K., & Tsai, C. I. (2007). Hedonics in consumer behavior. In C. P. Haugtvedt, P. M. Herr, & F. R. Kardes (Eds.), *Handbook of consumer psychology* (pp. 639–658).
- Humphrey, R. (1985). How work roles influence perception: Structural-cognitive processes and organizational behavior. *American Sociological Review*, 50(2), 242–252.
- Hwang, T. J., Rabheru, K., Peisah, C., Reichman, W., & Ikeda, M. (2020). Loneliness and social isolation during the COVID-19 pandemic. *International Psychogeriatrics*, 32(10), 1217–1220.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265–284. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.110.2.265>
- Killingsworth, M. A. (2021). Experienced well-being rises with income, even above \$75,000 per year. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 118(4), 1–6.
- Kim, J., Hwang, E., Phillips, M., Jang, S., Kim, J. E., Spence, M. T., & Park, J. (2018). Mediation analysis revisited: Practical suggestions for addressing common deficiencies. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 26(1), 59–64.
- Kim, J., Seto, E., Christy, A. G., & Hicks, J. A. (2016). Investing in the real me: Preference for experiential to material purchases driven by the motivation to search for true self-knowledge. *Self and Identity*, 15(6), 727–747.
- Kim, Y. (2018). Power moderates the impact of desire for exclusivity on luxury experiential consumption. *Psychology & Marketing*, 35(4), 283–293.
- Kraus, M. W., Chen, S., & Keltner, D. (2011). The power to be me: Power elevates self-concept consistency and authenticity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 47(5), 974–980.
- Kumar, A., & Gilovich, T. (2016). To do or to have, now or later? The preferred consumption profiles of material and experiential purchases. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 26(2), 169–178.
- Kumar, A., Killingsworth, M. A., & Gilovich, T. (2014). Waiting for merlot: Anticipatory consumption of experiential and material purchases. *Psychological Science*, 25(10), 1924–1931.
- Kumar, A., Killingsworth, M. A., & Gilovich, T. (2020). Spending on doing promotes more moment-to-moment happiness than spending on having. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 88, 103971.
- Lambert, W. E., Hodgson, R. C., Gardner, R. C., & Fillenbaum, S. (1960). Evaluational reactions to spoken languages. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 60(1), 44–51.
- Lammers, J., Dubois, D., Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2013). Power gets the job: Priming power improves interview outcomes. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 49(4), 776–779.
- Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., Rink, F., & Galinsky, A. D. (2016). To have control over or to be free from others? The desire for power reflects a need for autonomy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 42(4), 498–512.
- Leach, C. W., & Cidam, A. (2015). When is shame linked to constructive approach orientation? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 109(6), 983–1002.
- Lee, F., & Tiedens, L. Z. (2001). 2. Is it lonely at the top?: The independence and interdependence of power holders. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 23, 43–91.
- Lee, J. C., Hall, D. L., & Wood, W. (2018). Experiential or material purchases? Social class determines purchase happiness. *Psychological Science*, 29(7), 1031–1039. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617736386>
- Lemmer, G., & Gollwitzer, M. (2017). The “true” indirect effect won't (always) stand up: When and why reverse mediation testing fails. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 69, 144–149.
- Lin, C. W., & Desai, K. (2022). Impact of social norms and joint influences of social connection and self-sufficiency motivations on prosocial budgeting. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(8), 1579–1598.
- Liu, S. Q., & Mattila, A. S. (2017). Airbnb: Online targeted advertising, sense of power, and consumer decisions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 60, 33–41.
- Ma, J., Tu, H., Zhang, P., Fan, L., Cheng, B., & Ma, J. (2021). Can work-family conflict influence purchase preference? Experiential vs. material consumption. *Journal of Business Research*, 135(29), 620–632.
- Magee, J. C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). Social hierarchy: The self-reinforcing nature of power and status. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 351–398.
- Mellers, B. A., & McGraw, A. P. (2001). Anticipated emotions as guides to choice. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10(6), 210–214.
- Mogilner, C., Aaker, J., & Kamvar, S. D. (2012). How happiness affects choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(2), 429–443.
- Mourali, M., & Pons, F. (2012). Power and Unconventional Choice. In Z. Gürhan-Canli, Cele Otnes & R. Juliet Zhu (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research* (Vol. 40, pp. 303–307). Association for Consumer Research.
- Nicolao, L., Irwin, J. R., & Goodman, J. K. (2009). Happiness for sale: Do experiential purchases make consumers happier than material purchases? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(2), 188–198.
- Patrick, V. M., Macinnis, D. J., & Whan Park, C. (2007). Not as happy as I thought I'd be? affective misforecasting and product evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33(4), 479–489.
- Pieters, R., & Zeelenberg, M. (2007). A theory of regret regulation 1.1. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 17(1), 29–35.
- Razmus, W., Grabner-Kräuter, S., Kostyra, M., & Zawadzka, A. M. (2022). Buying happiness: How brand engagement in self-concept affects purchase happiness. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(11), 2096–2109.
- Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoe, J., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily well-being: The role of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(4), 419–435.
- Rosenzweig, E., & Gilovich, T. (2012). Buyer's remorse or missed opportunity? Differential regrets for material and experiential purchases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(2), 215–223.
- Rucker, D. D., Dubois, D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2011). Generous paupers and stingy princes: Power drives consumer spending on self versus others. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(6), 1015–1029.
- Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). Desire to acquire: Powerlessness and compensatory consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(2), 257–267.
- Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2009). Conspicuous consumption versus utilitarian ideals: How different levels of power shape consumer behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 45(3), 549–555.

- Rucker, D. D., Galinsky, A. D., & Dubois, D. (2012). Power and consumer behavior: How power shapes who and what consumers value. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 22*(3), 352–368.
- Schindler, R. M., & Holbrook, M. B. (2003). Nostalgia for early experience as a determinant of consumer preferences. *Psychology and Marketing, 20*(4), 275–302.
- Schmid Mast, M., Jonas, K., & Hall, J. A. (2009). Give a person power and he or she will show interpersonal sensitivity: The phenomenon and its why and when. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 97*(5), 835–850.
- Simonson, I. (1992). The influence of anticipating regret and responsibility on purchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19*(1), 105.
- Sypher, B. D., & Zorn, T. E. (1986). Communication-related abilities and upward mobility: A longitudinal investigation. *Human Communication Research, 12*(3), 420–431.
- Tassiello, V., Tillotson, J. S., & Rome, A. S. (2021). Alexa, order me a pizza!": The mediating role of psychological power in the consumer–voice assistant interaction. *Psychology & Marketing, 38*(7), 1069–1080.
- Tully, S. M., Hershfield, H. E., & Meyvis, T. (2015). Seeking lasting enjoyment with limited money: Financial constraints increase preference for material goods over experiences. *Journal of Consumer Research, 42*(1), 59–75.
- Van Boven, L., & Gilovich, T. (2003). To do or to have? That is the question. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(6), 1193–1202.
- Weingarten, E., & Goodman, J. K. (2021). Re-examining the experiential advantage in consumption: A meta-analysis and review. *Journal of Consumer Research, 47*(6), 855–877.
- Wilson, T. D., & Gilbert, D. T. (2005). Affective forecasting. Knowing what to want. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14*(3), 131–134.
- Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C. N., & Diener, E. (2003). What to do on spring break? The role of predicted, on-line, and remembered experience in future choice. *Psychological Science, 14*(5), 520–524.
- Zillig, L. M. P., Hemenover, S. H., & Dienstbier, R. A. (2002). What do we assess when we assess a big 5 trait? A content analysis of the affective, behavioral, and cognitive processes represented in big 5 personality inventories. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(6), 847–858.
- Zou, D., Jin, L., Xu, Q., & He, Y. (2011). A Sense of Power and Uniqueness Seeking. In Z. Yi, J. J. Xiao, J. Cotte & L. Price (Eds.), *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research* (9, pp. 349–350). Association for Consumer Research.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

How to cite this article: Han, J. J., Smale, M. C., & Lee, J. (2023). How power increases preference for experiential purchases but not for material purchases. *Psychology & Marketing, 40*, 1089–1102.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21793>