



Incorporating cultural values for understanding the influence of perceived product creativity on intention to buy: An examination in Italy and the US

Gaia Rubera¹,
Andrea Ordanini² and
David A Griffith¹

¹Department of Marketing, The Eli Broad College of Business, Michigan State University, East Lansing, USA; ²Department of Management, Bocconi University, Milan, Italy

Correspondence: G Rubera, Department of Marketing, The Eli Broad College of Business, N370 North Business Complex, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824 1122, USA.

Tel: +1 517 432 6369;

Fax: +1 517 432 1112;

E-mail: rubera@bus.msu.edu

Abstract

Extending our understanding of the effects of perceived product creativity, this study contributes to the literature by empirically investigating the influence of cultural values on the relationship between the creativity dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness and intention to buy. Schwartz's values framework is employed to theorize cultural differences. The results, based upon 206 Italian and 201 US consumers surveyed via a mall-intercept approach, indicate that novelty is a more important dimension of product creativity in the US (i.e., a low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement culture) than in Italy (i.e., a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture) in influencing intention to buy and that meaningfulness is a more important dimension of creativity in Italy than in the US in influencing intention to buy. These results provide important standardization/adaptation implications for international marketing academics and practitioners.

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INTRODUCTION

The increasingly competitive global environment has changed the marketplace into which new products are introduced (Bruce, Daly, & Kahn, 2007; Fernhaber, Gilbert, & McDougall, 2008). Specifically, creativity (i.e., the extent to which a product differs from conventional practice in a way that makes sense for consumers; Im & Workman, 2004) is emerging as a central element of firm competitive strategy (Galunic & Eisenhardt, 2001). While firms are making strides to develop and introduce creative products, consumer reactions to creativity depend on the interactions among the product, the consumer and the context (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988; Kasof, 1995). While researchers have explored the product–customer interaction (Rubera, Ordanini, & Mazursky, 2010), the role of context has received little attention (e.g., Adarves-Yorno, Postmes, & Haslam, 2006). The lack of the incorporation of context in prior works is particularly important in an international business environment, as different responses from consumers across national market contexts could have substantive implications for the

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engagement of international strategy (e.g., determining the effectiveness of standardization or adaptation of marketing efforts).

In order to address this limitation in the extant literature, this study investigates the moderating role of cultural values. Specifically, we theoretically and empirically examine whether cultural values moderate the relative importance that consumers place on creativity dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness in determining intention to buy, employing Schwartz's (1992, 1994) cultural values framework. This study therefore works to contribute to the literature by theoretically accounting for the complexity of perceived product creativity in the global marketplace under the systems view, and empirically testing these effects. In this way, we answer the call to investigate the role of the context advanced in the creativity literature (Niu & Sternberg, 2002; Oral, Kaufman, & Agars, 2007).

Further, by empirically investigating the moderating effect of cultural values on the relationship between the creativity dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness, and intention to buy, this study works to contribute to the ongoing debate in the international marketing literature pertaining to standardization and adaptation. Specifically, international marketing strategy standardization is appropriate when marketing stimuli generate consistent responses across markets, whereas response differences are suggestive of the need to adapt (Griffith, 2010; Hultman, Robson, & Katsikeas, 2009; Katsikeas, Samiee, & Theodosiou, 2006; Lages, Jap, & Griffith, 2008; Levitt, 1983; Öszomer & Simonin, 2004; Ryans, Griffith, & White, 2003; Schilke, Reimann, & Thomas, 2009). Thus, if novelty and meaningfulness differentially influence intentions to buy across culturally different markets, firms working to engage consumers with creative products could be more effective by adapting their international marketing strategy for these products based upon cultural values. The findings of this study could therefore provide guidance to marketing managers engaged in developing and introducing creative products across markets.

We begin with a review of the creativity and product creativity literature, the systems view of creativity, and the role of creativity within perceptual models of consumer behavior. Next, employing Schwartz's values framework, we develop a set of hypotheses detailing how cultural values (i.e., in Italy, reflective of a culture that values high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement, and in the US, reflective of a

culture that values low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement) moderate the relative importance of novelty and meaningfulness for intention to buy. The hypotheses are tested in two consumer populations drawn from Italy and the US. The analysis and results are presented, followed by a discussion of the results and the implications for international marketing theory and practice.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Conceptualizing Product Creativity: The Dimensionality of Creativity

Creativity has become an important construct of study in many fields, ranging from art to psychology. Much of the current work in creativity builds from Amabile's (1983) exploration of creativity within poetry, music, and painting. Amabile (1996: 5) proposes that an object is creative "to the extent that it is novel and appropriate, correct or valuable response to the task at hand". This conceptualization of creativity has informed the majority of the work in this area: for example, the study of creativity in ideas (Moreau & Dahl 2005), advertisements (Smith, MacKenzie, Xiaojing, Buchholz, & Darley, 2007; Yang & Smith 2009), individual outcomes (Amabile, 1983), poems and drawings (Amabile, 1996), and marketing programs (Andrews & Smith, 1996; Im, Hussain, & Sengupta, 2008). In the extant literature, creativity has been conceptualized as consisting of a number of dimensions (e.g., novelty, meaningfulness, relevance, utility). For instance, Im and Workman (2004) view creativity as consisting of the dimensions of novelty (i.e., the extent to which a product differs from conventional practice) and meaningfulness (the extent to which a product is viewed as consistent with the category), and Sadi and Al-Dubaisi (2008) investigate utility aspects of creativity, where "utility implies that an idea or other contribution must be directly relevant to the goals of the organization and it must be something from which the firm can reasonably expect to extract some value". Although a number of dimensions have been put forth in the literature, there appears to be a consensus surrounding the dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness (for a review of the different terms used in the literature, and their consistency, refer to Im and Workman, 2004).

The employment of a two-dimensional conceptualization of creativity, consisting of novelty and meaningfulness, is most appropriate for this study,



as the marketing literature has defined product creativity as “meaningful novelty” (Sethi, Smith, & Park, 2001: 74). The literature argues that a new product is defined as creative to the extent to which it “is different from competing alternatives in a way that is valued by customers” (Sethi et al., 2001: 74). Inherent in this definition are the dimensions of novelty (i.e., the extent to which an object differs from conventional practice) and meaningfulness (i.e., the extent to which an object is viewed as appropriate to the category) (Andrews & Smith, 1996; Im & Workman, 2004). This two-dimensional conceptualization of product creativity is further appropriate for this study, as it has been found to be consistent from both the managerial and consumer perspectives (Im & Workman, 2004; Sethi et al., 2001). For example, Im and Workman (2004) found that this two-dimensional conceptualization of perceived product creativity – and the associated measurement instrument – was equally *perceived* by managers and consumers.

Systems View of Product Creativity

Consumer perception is a foundational element of general theories of consumer behavior (e.g., Bettman, 1970; Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2007). For example, in the Howard–Sheth model of buyer behavior, purchase intention is shaped by many factors; leading among these are consumer perceptions. Consumer perceptions are argued to directly influence purchase intentions as well as indirectly influence purchase intentions through a broad range of constructs, such as attitudes, motivations, and brand comprehension (Farley & Ring, 1970). While there are a number of factors determining purchase intentions that are examined within general consumer behavior models, this study focuses on creativity, and on how perceptions of the dimensions of creativity can influence intention to buy (a central dependent variable in most consumer behavior models: e.g., Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). However, a full appreciation of how consumers evaluate creativity requires an analysis of the social system in which consumers and products are embedded (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006).

The systems view of creativity suggests that creativity is not an objective property of the product, but rather is determined by the interaction of three elements: the product, the perceiver (e.g., the consumer), and the context (Amabile,

1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1988; Kasof, 1995). The context implies that creativity can be evaluated only with reference to current values and norms (Amabile, 1996). A direct consequence of this systems view is that when the context changes, the way consumers respond to creativity changes as well. We employ this approach to analyze how the macro-contextual variable of national cultural values moderates the effect of the two creativity dimensions on intention to buy, as culture has been found to have a substantive influence on consumer response elements such as purchase intention (e.g., Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Limon, Kahle, & Orth, 2009; Verlegh, 2007). For example, Verlegh (2007) demonstrates that consumer perception differences of domestic and foreign products significantly influence purchase intentions. Similarly, Limon et al. (2009) found that package design influences consumer perceptions of a brand, which affect purchase intentions. However, and more of note to this research, Limon et al. (2009) found that the influence of consumer perceptions on purchase intentions varied according to national culture, as brand values have a stronger effect on purchase intentions when they are congruent with personal values. These findings have implications for this study, as we contend that culture will moderate the relative importance of the dimensions of creativity on intention to buy.

National Culture: Schwartz’s Values

National culture is a complex, multi-dimensional structure that separates nations inclusive of differences in institutions, values, and norms. A number of cultural frameworks have been proposed in the literature (e.g., Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 1992; Triandis, 1995). The work of Schwartz (1992, 1994) is most applicable to this study, as the values approach underlying Schwartz’s framework relates directly to the consumer judgment approach for the appraisal of products (e.g., Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Wang, Dou, & Zhou, 2008). Specifically, whereas Hofstede’s framework was originally developed within the employment domain, Schwartz’s (1994) values framework works to understand the values of individuals within a culture that are non-context restricted. The lack of a context bound on Schwartz’s framework has led to its effective application in the consumer setting (e.g., Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Grazin & Painter, 2001; Wang et al., 2008). Given the relationship of individual values to consumption behavior, and the lack of a context

bound on Schwartz's framework, it was employed for this study.

Schwartz (1994), through theoretical and empirical means, defined a two-dimensional bipolar values framework. The first dimension, referred to as *resultant conservatism*, is anchored by conservatism and openness to change, and embodies the underlying values of conservatism, affective autonomy and intellectual autonomy. Those higher on resultant conservatism maintain values emphasizing maintenance of the *status quo*, propriety, and avoidance of actions that might disrupt the greater society. Alternatively, those lower on resultant conservatism place greater value on autonomy, both intellectual and affective (Schwartz, 1994), which emphasizes the values of hedonism and stimulation. The second dimension, referred to as *resultant self-enhancement*, is anchored by self-transcendence and self-enhancement, and embodies the underlying values of egalitarian commitment, harmony, mastery, and hierarchy. Those higher on resultant self-enhancement more strongly embody values of mastery and hierarchy, emphasizing independence, ambition, successfulness, daring, and authority, among others. Alternatively, those lower on resultant self-enhancement more strongly embody the values of egalitarian commitment and harmony, which emphasize the voluntary commitment to promoting the welfare of others, taking actions to build social harmony, and a balance with nature (for a more detailed exposition of the structure of Schwartz' value framework see the Appendix).

Schwartz (1994) contends that the robustness of the individual values framework, demonstrated through cross-cultural validations, allows for national comparisons, that is, that each nation can be viewed relative to another nation along the specified values. Here, we employ a cultural typing approach, consistent with prior cross-cultural international business research categorizing nations within cultural frameworks (e.g., Griffith, Hu, & Ryans, 2000). Specifically, we examine high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement and low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement: whereas high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures look to maintain consistency in their lives and in the world around them, valuing traditions, self-discipline and social order, low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures value independence, creativity, and the enjoyment of variety in life.

HYPOTHESES

The model presented (see Figure 1) examines the effect of a two-dimensional conceptualization of creativity on intention to buy as moderated by national culture.

The Role of Culture in the Relationship between Novelty and Intention to Buy

We contend that cultural type moderates the importance of the novelty dimension of creativity, and that purchase intentions will be more influenced by novelty in some cultures than in others. Specifically, we argue that low-resultant conservative cultures value greater openness to change. Underlying openness to change is the broader goal of independence in thought and action, expressed in exploration (Dollinger, Burke, & Gump, 2007). Individuals in such a culture look for variety, rely on their own individuality and judgment, and are comfortable with diversity. Dollinger et al. (2007) found that individuals with low-resultant conservatism values favor novelty, and have an intrinsic motivation to look for novelty. Furthermore, cultures that are high on resultant self-enhancement positively value mastery and hierarchy. Mastery emphasizes getting ahead through active self-assertion in an attempt to change the world. Hierarchy implies that an individual values social status and prestige. Prestige and social status can be obtained through the novel products, as it is through possessions that consumers can demonstrate their superior status to others, and attain admiration. We contend that individuals in low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures place greater importance on novelty than consumers in a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture.

Intention to buy is directly related to consumer perceptions (Bettman, 1970; Farley & Ring, 1970), and to the value that a consumer places on an aspect of a product (Bettman 1970; Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969). When a consumer more favorably values a specific product aspect, the consumer is more disposed to a product with that aspect, therefore heightening purchase intentions (Pappu et al., 2007). For example, low-resultant conservatism/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures not only value change, but also work to demonstrate superior status, which can be obtained through possessions. Those within low-resultant conservatism/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures will therefore place greater emphasis on novelty than those in high-resultant conservatism/

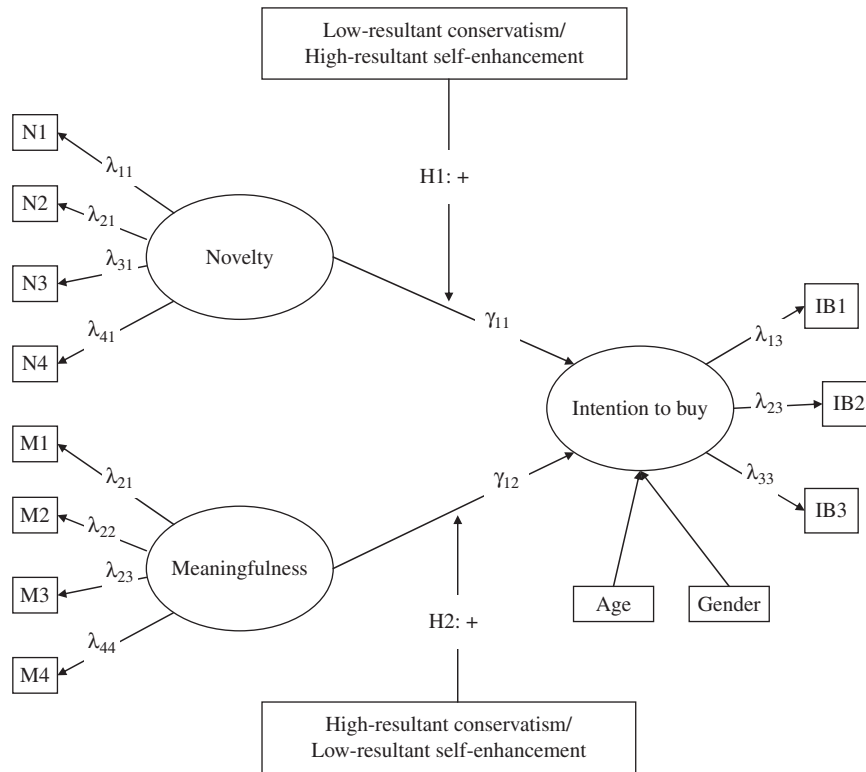


Figure 1 Hypothesized model.

low-resultant self-enhancement cultures. This will result in novelty more strongly influencing intention to buy in low-resultant conservatism/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures than in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures. More formally:

Hypothesis 1: Novelty will more strongly influence intention to buy in low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures than in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures.

The Role of Culture in the Relationship between Meaningfulness and Intentions to Buy

We contend that cultural type moderates the importance of the meaningfulness dimension of creativity, and that purchase intentions will be more influenced by meaningfulness in some cultures than in others. Specifically, we argue that cultures that are high-resultant conservative emphasize maintenance of the *status quo*, avoid actions that might disturb the traditional order, and value congruence with traditions and the existing order (Schwartz, 1994). Given that meaningfulness is concerned with adherence to category standards, consumers in a

high-resultant conservatism culture place greater importance on the meaningfulness of a product than consumers in low-resultant conservatism cultures. In a similar way, consumers from a low-resultant self-enhancement culture value helpfulness, social justice and unity with nature (Schwartz, 1999). Schwartz (1994) contends that low-resultant self-enhancement values are compatible with high-resultant conservatism values, as they share an emphasis on avoiding change and respect for the existing order. We contend that consumers in a low-resultant self-enhancement culture place greater importance on the meaningfulness of a product when they evaluate its creativity than consumers in a high-resultant self-enhancement culture.

Consistent with the argumentation in Hypothesis 1, intention to buy is related to the value that a consumer places on an aspect of a product (Bettman, 1970; Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969). When an aspect of a product is more valued by a consumer, the consumer is more likely to be positively disposed to the product, thus heightening purchase intentions (Pappu et al., 2007). For example, high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures not only value consistency, but also work to maintain unity

with nature and tradition, elements aligned with meaningfulness. Those within high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures will therefore place greater emphasis on the meaningfulness aspect of product creativity than those in low-resultant conservatism/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures. This will result in meaningfulness more strongly influencing intention to buy in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures than in low-resultant conservatism/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures. More formally:

Hypothesis 2: Meaningfulness will more strongly influence intention to buy in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures than in low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Study Context

The hypotheses were examined using datasets from two countries varying in relation to the values of high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement and low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement. As this study employs Schwartz's bipolar value framework as a central foundation for understanding cross-cultural differences, we began by using the work of Schwartz (1994) to identified markets that have been both theoretically and empirically demonstrated to represent high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement and low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement. Next, given the importance of comparability in cross-national research (Douglas & Craig, 2006; Reynolds, Simintiras, & Diamantopoulos, 2003), care was taken in the selection of countries identified by Schwartz (1994) as representative of each cultural type to maximize comparability of country along economic and social aspects such as economic development, type of economy, consumer populations, and urban areas. From this assessment, the US (as a representative of a low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement culture) and Italy (as a representative of a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture) were selected. Further, to maximize comparability of samples, cities within each country were examined based upon city economic and population statistics. After this assessment, it was determined that Milan (Italy) and Los Angeles (US) were roughly comparable cities.

To provide a robust test of our hypotheses, we examined two products (i.e., utilitarian and hedonic) within a single product category (as researchers have found differences in consumer responses to utilitarian and hedonic products). Drawing from the extant literature (e.g., Ratchford, 1987), we selected milk as the utilitarian product, and juice (i.e., strawberry) as the hedonic product. Pre-testing in Milan ($n=47$) and Los Angeles ($n=14$) indicated that consumers perceived milk as more utilitarian than strawberry juice in both Italy ($\chi^2(92)=7.01$, $p<0.05$) and the US ($\chi^2(27)=5.12$, $p<0.05$), with no significant difference between the two countries in the extent to which the product was perceived as utilitarian ($\chi^2(60)=0.471$, $p>0.05$). Strawberry juice was considered more hedonic than milk in both Italy ($\chi^2(92)=37.43$, $p<0.05$) and the US ($\chi^2(27)=33.68$, $p<0.05$), with no significant difference between the two countries in the extent to which the product was perceived as hedonic ($\chi^2(60)=0.485$, $p>0.05$).

Data collection occurred between September 2009 and November 2009. Data were collected from 206 Italian consumers and 201 US consumers. Subjects were intercepted at the exit of a shopping mall and asked to participate in a market research study of a brand new packaging that would soon be introduced in the local market. Subjects who evaluated milk received the following description:

Recent research has demonstrated that products such as milk can lose up to 40% of their nutritional value when contained within transparent packages. As such, PET has developed a new three-layer package for milk that protects the product from light radiation and oxygen, allowing the product to retain its full nutritional value. Specifically, the three-layer patented organic package system completely protects the product from light and oxygen, maximizing nutritional retention and extending the product's shelf life. Further, to aid consumers in gauging the quantity of product remaining in the new non-transparent container, the packaging consists of a volume-sensitive coating which changes the container color from white (when full) to blue (when half-full) to yellow (when 1/4 full).

Subjects who evaluated strawberry juice received the same description, with "strawberry juice" substituted for the word "milk".

Sample characteristics were comparable across datasets. The average age of participants was 38.3 years in Italy and 40.3 years in the US. Of the participants in Italy, 49.3% were female. Of the participants in the US, 51.7% were female. The percentage of participants with a bachelor degree

was 22.6% in the Italian sample and 25.3% in the US sample.

Validation of Schwartz's Values in Italy and the US

Schwartz's values were collected at the individual level from consumers in both Italy and the US using

Schwartz's (1999) value scale. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine whether each value loaded on the proper theoretical dimension (see Table 1). The factor analysis retained seven factors, which explain 73% of the total variance. After creating an averaged scale for each of the

Table 1 Factor analysis with Schwartz's 45 values

	<i>Egalitarian commitment</i>	<i>Mastery</i>	<i>Hierarchy</i>	<i>Affective autonomy</i>	<i>Conservatism</i>	<i>Intellectual autonomy</i>	<i>Harmony</i>
Peace	0.907	0.040	0.017	-0.048	-0.017	0.140	0.042
Freedom	0.877	0.110	0.004	-0.047	-0.023	0.124	0.055
Justice	0.868	-0.011	0.039	-0.094	-0.062	0.084	0.055
Portion	0.850	0.094	-0.013	-0.031	-0.061	0.099	0.089
Helpful	0.849	0.059	0.029	-0.002	0.151	-0.085	0.161
Responsible	0.835	0.070	-0.031	-0.051	0.154	0.013	0.072
Equality	0.824	0.029	0.029	-0.029	-0.094	0.062	0.150
Honest	0.812	0.044	-0.024	-0.042	0.170	-0.068	0.132
Loyal	0.807	0.073	0.094	-0.053	0.135	0.178	0.042
Choosing own goals	0.025	0.882	0.101	0.011	0.133	0.121	0.019
Independent	0.066	0.860	0.125	0.078	0.080	0.151	-0.089
Successful	0.052	0.854	0.164	0.005	0.033	0.059	0.008
Ambitious	0.016	0.846	0.136	0.051	0.251	0.013	-0.064
Capable	0.133	0.842	0.088	-0.035	0.113	0.094	0.090
Daring	-0.008	0.801	0.178	0.051	0.112	0.153	-0.087
Authority	0.020	0.156	0.915	0.097	0.071	0.021	0.027
Social power	-0.028	0.076	0.888	0.027	0.074	0.056	0.004
Humble	0.016	0.226	0.812	0.066	0.235	0.064	0.103
Wealth	0.052	0.197	0.805	0.053	0.039	0.086	-0.037
Influential	0.052	0.133	0.791	0.092	0.186	0.016	0.051
Pleasure	-0.069	0.024	0.085	0.954	0.025	-0.007	-0.088
Varied life	-0.069	0.053	0.076	0.949	0.077	-0.002	-0.050
Exciting life	-0.068	0.055	0.084	0.947	0.050	-0.004	-0.094
Enjoying life	0.064	0.052	0.053	0.920	0.025	0.013	-0.090
Self discipline	-0.108	-0.066	0.150	0.092	0.748	0.063	0.029
Parents	0.090	0.206	-0.109	-0.096	0.653	0.014	0.115
Devout	-0.228	0.085	0.082	0.140	0.589	-0.263	-0.106
Politeness	0.133	0.068	0.002	-0.074	0.584	-0.012	0.131
Forgiving	0.025	0.181	0.050	0.200	0.538	-0.115	0.078
Clean	0.238	0.212	0.051	-0.188	0.513	-0.120	0.168
Public image	0.127	0.070	0.200	-0.081	0.498	0.156	0.037
Obedient	0.066	0.115	0.077	0.072	0.497	0.207	-0.229
Moderate	0.129	-0.104	0.257	0.039	0.475	0.122	0.043
Wisdom	0.205	0.150	0.060	0.104	0.442	0.160	0.166
Social order	0.222	-0.012	0.111	0.006	0.429	0.168	0.198
National security	0.210	0.113	0.169	0.052	0.414	-0.002	-0.063
Reciprocation	0.105	0.143	0.196	-0.134	0.385	0.278	-0.187
Family security	0.199	0.066	-0.045	-0.109	0.352	0.171	-0.189
Tradition	-0.061	0.012	0.190	0.160	0.331	0.015	0.107
Minded	0.131	0.181	0.092	0.012	0.104	0.824	0.268
Creativity	0.168	0.241	0.080	0.052	-0.013	0.818	0.139
Curious	0.091	0.167	0.041	0.001	0.000	0.806	0.184
Unity with nature	0.168	0.021	0.131	-0.164	0.083	0.185	0.833
Beauty	0.295	0.028	0.096	-0.042	0.064	0.228	0.776
Environment	0.210	-0.023	-0.030	-0.173	0.123	0.227	0.731

Table 2 Factor analysis with Schwartz’s seven dimensions

Value	Factor 1 (resultant conservatism)	Factor 2 (resultant self-enhancement)
Conservatism	−0.647	0.105
Affective autonomy	0.911	−0.025
Intellectual autonomy	0.817	0.145
Mastery	0.159	−0.615
Hierarchy	−0.001	−0.740
Harmony	0.076	0.711
Egalitarian commitment	0.066	0.760

seven values, following Schwartz’s analysis approach, a second factor analysis was conducted, which revealed two factors that explained 67% of the total variance. These two factors were retained. As shown in Table 2, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy and conservatism load on one factor, reflective of Schwartz’s dimension of resultant conservatism. Conservatism represents one extreme and affective and intellectual autonomy represents the other extreme, with conservatism negatively correlated with the two other values. Mastery, hierarchy, egalitarian commitment, and harmony load on the second factor, reflective of Schwartz’s dimension of resultant self-enhancement. Mastery and hierarchy represent one extreme and are negatively correlated with egalitarian commitment and harmony, which represent the other extreme.

Cross-cultural research relies upon the possibility of generalizing different measures across multiple countries. In order to achieve this goal, a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess measurement invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). In particular, configural and metric invariance were examined. Configural invariance is achieved if the pattern of factor loadings is similar in Italian and US datasets; the factor loadings are significantly different from zero in both countries; the constructs exhibit discriminant validity; and the measurement model in the two countries demonstrates adequate fit. We found that the factor loadings are significant in both countries. Further, the measurement model showed adequate fit in Italy (confirmatory fit index (CFI)=0.957; goodness of fit index (GFI)=0.934; non-normed fit index (NNFI)=0.945; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.056) as well in the US (CFI=0.963; GFI=0.947; NNFI=0.951; RMSEA=0.047), thus supporting configural invariance.

Configural invariance *per se* does not show that consumers in the US and Italy respond to the item in the same way, so that the ratings can be meaningfully compared across countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). In order to understand whether consumers in the two countries respond in the same way to the scale items, we tested for metric invariance for the seven value dimensions in the datasets. Metric invariance is established by setting constraints on factor loadings for each of the items, and comparing obtained model fit with the base model (Eisingerich & Rubera, 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2008). We controlled for measurement invariance between the two countries by comparing two models: (1) a configural invariance model without equality constraints; and (2) a metric invariance model in which we constrained the matrix of factor loadings to be invariant between the two countries. No significant increase between the configural invariance model and the metric invariance model invariance was found ($\Delta\chi^2 (38) = 42.37, p > 0.05$). Hence we concluded that there is no difference in the measurement structure of Schwartz’s values in our data, in support of metric invariance. Thus we can conclude that the factor loadings are invariant between countries. The absolute fit indexes for the metric invariance model showed adequate fit (CFI=0.967; GFI=0.956; NNFI=0.963; RMSEA=0.042). A third level of invariance is necessary to allow mean comparison of the underlying constructs across countries: scalar invariance, which establishes that cross-country differences in the means of the observed items are a result of differences in the means of their corresponding constructs. We compare two models: (1) a metric invariance model in which the intercepts are free to be estimated; and (2) a scalar invariance model in which the intercepts of the loadings are equal across countries. No significant increase between the metric invariance model and the scalar invariance model invariance was found ($\Delta\chi^2 (7) = 6.51, p > 0.1$), in support of scalar invariance.

Further, the results are consistent theoretically and empirically with Schwartz (1994) in relation to the positioning of Italy and the US along the dimensions of resultant conservatism and resultant self-enhancement. Specifically, in the resultant conservative dimension the Italian sample scored 4.21 and the US sample scored −3.23; in the resultant self-enhancement dimension the Italian sample scored −3.73 and the US sample scored

3.56. These results demonstrate that the Italian respondents, on average, are representative of a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture, and that the US respondents, on average, are representative of a low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement culture.

Measures

Measures for this study were derived from the literature. The Italian questionnaire was subject to the translation and back-translation process. The survey was tested via in-depth interviews with six Italian consumers to determine face validity, clarity, and relevance of the measures in the Italian context. Scale items are shown in the Appendix.

Creativity (novelty and meaningfulness). Although some studies have combined the dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness – thereby using a combined average score (Andrews & Smith, 1996; Sethi et al., 2001) – recent evidence indicates that a component-wise approach, wherein novelty and meaningfulness are treated as two independent dimensions, is more appropriate (Im & Workman, 2004; Rubera et al., 2010; Sethi & Sethi, 2009). Given that novelty and meaningfulness have different antecedents and consequences, “novelty and meaningfulness should be examined separately rather than combined into a single creativity construct” (Im & Workman, 2004; Sethi & Sethi, 2009). A component-wise approach is therefore adopted in this work. The *novelty* scale was derived from Im and Workman (2004). The novelty scale consisted of four items that assessed the degree of change introduced by the new product ($\alpha_{Italy}=0.94$; $\alpha_{US}=0.91$). The *meaningfulness* scale was derived from Im and Workman (2004). The scale consisted of four items that assessed the extent to which the product was appropriate and relevant for a customer’s needs ($\alpha_{Italy}=0.94$; $\alpha_{US}=0.84$).

Intention to buy. Intention to buy was measured with a three-item scale based on Batra and Ray (1986). These items captured the likelihood of including the product among purchase options, and the likelihood of buying the product ($\alpha_{Italy}=0.84$; $\alpha_{US}=0.83$).

Control variables. To minimize spuriousness of results we included two control variables that have been found to be important in consumer behavior research (e.g., Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969). Specifically, we included

Table 3 Correlation matrices for utilitarian and hedonic products

	<i>Intention to buy</i>	<i>Meaningfulness</i>	<i>Novelty</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Education</i>
<i>Utilitarian product</i>					
Intention to buy	1				
Meaningfulness	0.52**	1			
Novelty	0.25**	0.06	1		
Age	0.04	0.01	-0.01	1	
Education	-0.08	0.03	-0.04	0.17*	1
Gender	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.08	-0.02
<i>Hedonic product</i>					
Intention to buy	1				
Meaningfulness	0.56**	1			
Novelty	0.36**	0.09	1		
Age	-0.14	0.10	-0.05	1	
Education	-0.12	0.01	-0.08	0.16*	1
Gender	0.03	0.05	0.05	-0.01	0.01

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

gender (0 = male; 1 = female) and age. We report the correlation matrix for our measures in Table 3.

Common Method Variance

Two different techniques were employed to examine the potential for common method variance (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). First, we used the Harman’s one-factor test. We ran an exploratory factor analysis of all observed measures with varimax rotation (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In both the Italian and US groups we found three clearly interpretable factors – one for novelty, one for meaningfulness, and one for intention to buy – with no significant cross-loadings between the measures. For the hedonic product, in the Italian sample the first factor accounted for 33.5% of the variance, the second for 29.3%, and the third for 21.2%. In the US sample the first factor accounted for 35.7% of the variance, the second for 30.2%, and the third for 18.4%. For the utilitarian product, in the Italian sample the first factor accounted for 34.2% of the variance, the second for 28.9%, and the third for 19.7%. In the US sample the first factor accounted for 39.9% of the variance, the second for 27.9%, and the third for 20.8%. These findings suggest that common method variance is not a serious threat in this study.

Second, in light of possible limitations of Harman’s one-factor test, the partial correlation procedure of including a marker variable within the model was employed. Testing common method variance by identifying a marker variable necessitates incorporating a variable that is not theoretically related to at least one other variable in the study (Griffith &

Lusch, 2007; Lindell & Whitney, 2001). In this study education was used as the marker variable. The marker variable was not statistically related to any of the variables in the model in the Italian or US datasets for either the hedonic or the utilitarian product. The results of the marker variable testing provide further evidence that common method variance is not a serious problem in this study.

MODEL ESTIMATION AND RESULT

Measurement Model

The measurement model represented in Figure 1 was tested with AMOS 18. Each factor loading is statistically significant, and standardized values are above a recommended cut-off point of 0.7 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), thus demonstrating convergent validity. The average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct is above 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), and the composite reliability of each construct is greater than the suggested cut-off value of 0.7 (Bollen, 1989). Discriminant validity was tested between first-order constructs by comparing the square root of AVE with the correlations between the first-order construct. Results are reported in Table 4, and show support for the existence of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Measurement Invariance

A multi-group comparison was used to assess configural, metric, and factor invariance of the constructs of novelty and meaningfulness in Italy and the US (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Configural invariance requires that all factor loadings be significantly different from zero in both countries, and the correlations between the factors are significantly below unity in both countries

(Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 80). The absolute fit indexes indicate that the proposed measurement model fits the data reasonably well in Italy (CFI = 0.978; GFI = 0.985; NNFI = 0.986; RMSEA = 0.054) and in the US (CFI = 0.963; GFI = 0.975; NNFI = 0.977; RMSEA = 0.057) for the utilitarian product. Similarly, the fit indexes are satisfactory in Italy (CFI = 0.984; GFI = 0.986; NNFI = 0.986; RMSEA = 0.039) and US (CFI = 0.974; GFI = 0.982; NNFI = 0.985; RMSEA = 0.045) for the hedonic product. Hence support for configural invariance was established (refer to factor loadings reported in Table 5).

Metric invariance was tested by constraining the factor loadings in the two groups to be equal, and comparing this model with one in which the factor loadings were free to be estimated across groups. For the utilitarian product no significant differences were found between the two models ($\Delta\chi^2(8) = 11.96, p > 0.1$), thus suggesting that there was no difference in the measurement structure between the two groups. Similarly, support for metric invariance was found for the hedonic product ($\Delta\chi^2(8) = 8.08, p > 0.1$). Fit indexes were good for both the utilitarian product (CFI = 0.983; GFI = 0.987; NNFI = 0.990; RMSEA = 0.045) and the hedonic product (CFI = 0.989; GFI = 0.988; NNFI = 0.989; RMSEA = 0.034).

Factor variance invariance was controlled for by constraining the variance of each construct to be equal in the two groups, and compared this model with one in which the variances were left free to be estimated. In the utilitarian product, no significant differences were found between the two models ($\Delta\chi^2(3) = 3.42, p > 0.1$). Similarly, no differences were found for the hedonic product ($\Delta\chi^2(3) = 0.27, p > 0.1$). Hence support for factor variance invariance for the constructs was established.

Table 4 Discriminant validity

Italy				USA		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
<i>Utilitarian product (milk). Latent variable correlations (off-diagonal) and squared root of AVEs (on-diagonal)</i>						
1. Intention to buy	0.94			1. Intention to buy	0.96	
2. Meaningfulness	0.56	0.92		2. Meaningfulness	0.14	0.86
3. Novelty	0.27	0.16	0.95	3. Novelty	0.21	0.4
						0.96
<i>Hedonic product (strawberry juice). Latent variable correlations (off-diagonal) and squared root of AVEs (on-diagonal)</i>						
1. Intention to buy	0.89			1. Intention to buy	0.84	
2. Meaningfulness	0.45	0.86		2. Meaningfulness	0.32	0.85
3. Novelty	0.39	0.21	0.89	3. Novelty	0.50	0.03
						0.87

Table 5 Measurement model: Configural invariance^a

	Utilitarian product						Hedonic product					
	Italy			USA			Italy			USA		
	Loadings	CR	AVE	Loadings	CR	AVE	Loadings	CR	AVE	Loadings	CR	AVE
IB1 ← Intention to buy	0.89	0.93	0.77	0.78	0.92	0.79	0.89	0.92	0.80	0.79	0.88	0.71
IB2 ← Intention to buy	0.99			0.94			0.99			0.94		
IB3 ← Intention to buy	0.96			0.88			0.96			0.93		
M1 ← Meaningfulness	0.79	0.85	0.79	0.92	0.80	0.75	0.79	0.82	0.75	0.72	0.81	0.73
M2 ← Meaningfulness	0.87			0.88			0.87			0.81		
M3 ← Meaningfulness	0.94			0.82			0.94			0.91		
M4 ← Meaningfulness	0.90			0.92			0.90			0.96		
N1 ← Novelty	0.93	0.90	0.70	0.82	0.92	0.75	0.93	0.92	0.80	0.94	0.93	0.76
N2 ← Novelty	0.87			0.90			0.87			0.87		
N3 ← Novelty	0.86			0.91			0.86			0.93		
N4 ← Novelty	0.92			0.88			0.92			0.96		

^aAll the factor loadings are significant at the 0.001 level.

Table 6 Structural path coefficients in the two groups

	Italy			USA			Critical ratio for difference	
	Paths	s.e.	t-values	Paths	s.e.	t-values	Italy-US	
<i>Utilitarian product (milk)</i>								
Age → Intention to buy	0.08	0.01	0.16	0.03	0.10	0.31	-0.47	
Gender → Intention to buy	0.01	0.11	0.85	0.05	0.10	0.52	0.34	
Novelty → Intention to buy	0.31***	0.01	5.18	0.76***	0.02	10.78	7.54***	H1
Meaningfulness → Intention to buy	0.75***	0.15	9.93	0.25***	0.25	3.45	-2.12	H2
R ²	0.52			0.56				
<i>Hedonic product (strawberry juice)</i>								
Age → Intention to buy	0.02	0.13	0.77	-0.03	0.02	0.68	-0.50	
Gender → Intention to buy	0.01	0.14	0.85	-0.09	0.19	0.13	-1.30	
Novelty → Intention to buy	0.36***	0.01	6.43	0.77***	0.01	11.67	4.83***	H1
Meaningfulness → Intention to buy	0.73***	0.19	9.79	0.20**	0.19	3.10	-4.96***	H2
R ²	0.56			0.53				

p<0.01; *p<0.001.

Hypotheses Testing

The hypotheses were first tested with the utilitarian product and then with the hedonic product. The hedonic product therefore serves as a robustness test, with the utilitarian product serving as a baseline model.

Utilitarian product. Hypotheses 1 and 2 maintain that novelty and meaningfulness will have a differential impact on intention to buy in different cultures. Table 6 reports the path coefficients between the Italy and US samples.

Hypothesis 1 argued that novelty would more strongly influence intention to buy in a low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement

culture (i.e., the US) than in a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture (i.e., Italy). The results indicate that novelty had a significant effect on intention to buy in the US ($\beta = 0.76, p < 0.001$) and in Italy ($\beta = 0.31, p < 0.001$). The critical ratio for difference (CRD) was used to test whether this difference was significant, as hypothesized. The CRD tests the null hypothesis that the relationship between two pairs of structural weights is the same in the two groups. At the $\alpha = 0.05$ level, the correlation between the two variables in the US and Italian samples is considered different if the CRD is higher than 1.96. Supportive of Hypothesis 1, the effect of novelty was larger in the US than in Italy (CRD = 7.54, $p < 0.001$).

Hypothesis 2 argued that meaningfulness would more strongly influence intention to buy in a high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement culture (i.e., Italy) than in a low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement culture (i.e., US). The results indicate that meaningfulness had a significant effect on creativity in the US ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.001$) and in Italy ($\beta = 0.75$, $p < 0.001$). In support of Hypothesis 2, the effect of meaningfulness on intention to buy was larger in Italy than in the US (CRD = -2.12 , $p < 0.05$).

Hedonic product. The results with regard to the hedonic product are consistent with the results of the utilitarian product. First, supportive of Hypothesis 1, the results indicate that novelty had a significant effect on intention to buy in the US ($\beta = 0.77$, $p < 0.001$) and in Italy ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$), with novelty's effect being larger in the US than in Italy (CRD = 4.83 , $p < 0.001$). Second, in support of Hypothesis 2, meaningfulness had a significant effect on intention to buy in the US ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) and in Italy ($\beta = 0.73$, $p < 0.001$), with meaningfulness's effect being larger in Italy than in the US (CRD = 4.96 , $p < 0.001$). Given this testing, it can be argued that the findings are not sensitive to the nature of the product (i.e., hedonic or utilitarian).

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main goal of this study was to contribute to the literature by empirically investigating the moderating role of cultural values on the relationship between the creativity dimensions of novelty and meaningfulness, and intention to buy. We believe that the findings of this study provide clarity on this issue, offering substantive implications for international marketing academics and practitioners.

Specifically, whereas much of the literature has demonstrated the value of creativity (e.g., Carson, 2007; Sethi et al., 2001; Stevens, Burley, & Divine, 2003), this study advances the literature by detailing how consumer perceptions of the dimensions of creativity drive consumer intention to buy when accounting for value differences across countries, employed through Schwartz's (1994) cultural values inventory. The results demonstrate that consumers in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures respond more strongly to meaningfulness than consumers in low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures, and that consumers in

low-resultant conservative/high-resultant self-enhancement cultures respond more strongly to novelty than consumers in high-resultant conservatism/low-resultant self-enhancement cultures.

Theoretically, these findings extend existing research on consumer response using Schwartz's value approach (e.g., Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Wang et al., 2008) by providing specificity into how cultural values moderate the relationship between the dimensions of perceived product creativity and intention to buy. The incorporation of cultural values, in the context of perceived product creativity, extends the systems view literature (e.g., Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Amabile, 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1988; Kasof, 1995) by providing theoretical and empirical evidence for macro-level context understanding. Furthermore, by demonstrating how cultural values attenuate extant relationships derived from well-accepted models of consumer behavior, this study also aids in providing insights into the cross-cultural context of consumption behavior.

These findings also contribute to the literature concerning international marketing standardization/adaptation (e.g., Griffith, Chandra, & Ryans, 2003; Katsikeas et al., 2006; Lages et al., 2008; Öszomer & Simonin, 2004). Discussion concerning the standardization or adaptation of international marketing strategy continues to be one of the most challenging topics for international marketing researchers (Ryans et al., 2003). Scholars contend that international marketing strategy standardization is appropriate when marketing stimuli generate consistent responses across markets, whereas response differences are suggestive of the need to adapt (Griffith, 2010; Katsikeas et al., 2006; Öszomer & Simonin, 2004). For example, extending the work of Limon et al. (2009), who found that the influence of consumer perceptions on purchase intentions varied according to national culture, the results of this study demonstrate that cultural values influence the impact of consumer perceptions of novelty and meaningfulness on intention to buy. Through the inclusion of Schwartz's (1994) values inventory we were able to provide new theoretical insights into the debate on standardization/adaptation of international marketing strategy, specifying how cultural values moderate the impact of novelty and meaningfulness on intention to buy.

The identification of specific cultural value influences also has direct implications for practitioners



engaged in determining marketing strategy standardization/adaptation, as it provides guidance as to how performance can be enhanced by adapting a product's marketing efforts related to both product development and promotion. Specifically, when firms engage in creative product development, they must consider not only issues of novelty and meaningfulness, but also how these two dimensions of perceived product creativity will influence consumption behavior based upon the target markets of the firm. This would suggest that when firms engage in creative product development for the global market, both novelty and meaningfulness need to be incorporated in the product. However, when developing a creative product for a specific market (e.g., the US), understanding of its cultural values in developing the most suitable product becomes important, given the cultural disposition of the market as related to novelty and meaningfulness dimensions of product creativity. For promotional purposes, the results suggest that when promoting a new, creative product, marketers should emphasize the novelty aspect of the product in countries such as the US, Australia, and Japan, and the meaningfulness aspect of the product in countries such as Italy, Spain, and France (see Schwartz, 1994, for the mean importance of culture-level values by country). It is argued that these results can help to provide practical guidance for product development (cf. Bruce et al., 2007) and promotion aspects of products introduced into the global marketplace.

Further, the findings of this study could be argued to provide implications for innovation scholars (as creativity in new products relates to the issue of adoption). For example, Rogers (2003) delineated five characteristics of new products that influence consumers' willingness to adopt:

- (1) relative advantage;
- (2) compatibility;
- (3) complexity;
- (4) trialability; and
- (5) observability.

Recent work on the importance of creativity of products (e.g., Im & Workman, 2004; Sethi et al., 2001), coupled with the findings of this study (as related to stimulation of intention to buy), suggests that creativity might be a beneficial addition to this broad nomological net, in that novelty is only partially represented by compatibility, and meaningfulness is not represented (a significant limitation, given the findings of this study, which

indicate that meaningfulness is a significant determinant of intention to buy).

In addition, we suggest that this research may have implications for studying creative idea emergence, both within firms and under the systems view in the consumer marketplace. Specifically, scholars studying how creative ideas emerge within organizations have proposed a sequential model in which variation is followed by selective retention (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Simonton, 1999). Initially, the recombination of existing knowledge generates new variations and novelty. Then, in the selection process, only those ideas that are meaningful are retained. This model is similar to March's (1991) exploration-exploitation paradigm, where exploration requires search, discovery, experimentation, risk taking and development of new competencies, and exploitation requires refinement, implementation, efficiency, production, and selection. Here we suggest that exploration can be viewed in relation to novelty, whereas exploitation can be viewed in relation to meaningfulness. Drawing from Levinthal and March (1993) and Hughes, Martin, Morgan and Robson (2010), who argue that a balance between exploration and exploitation is critical for a firm's survival and prosperity, we suggest that creativity's effectiveness (both within organizational processes and in the consumer marketplace) might require a specified balance of novelty and meaningfulness, and that this balance may differ in its ability to stimulate demand based upon the cultural values of the market into which it is introduced.

CONCLUSION

While this study provides an increased understanding of creativity in the global marketplace, it is not without its limitations. First, the study was narrowly focused in terms of constructs and product breadth. As noted in the text, the influences on consumer judgment are wide ranging (Bettman, 1970; Farley & Ring, 1970; Howard & Sheth, 1969) and only creativity was examined in this study. For example, Rogers (2003) developed a framework to understand how consumers accept an innovation. The inclusion of other antecedents within a larger model (e.g., Rogers, 2003) would allow for a more complete understanding of the relative importance of creativity in consumer judgments. Further, although both hedonic and utilitarian products were examined, thus providing an examination of the robustness of the model, it is important to note that only one form of execution



(i.e., a technological innovation) within one product category (i.e., beverage) was examined. Value could be derived by examining whether the findings of this study hold when examining other innovation forms (e.g., design innovation) and other product categories. We believe that research examining the systems view of creativity within a larger model, inclusive of a broader range of innovations and product categories, could help academics and practitioners gain greater insights into consumer judgments of the relative importance of the dimensions of creativity across culturally diverse markets.

Second, the study was limited in that it focused on products in the mature stage of the product life cycle (relative to the product category life cycle). Consumers therefore had a well-established set of expectations and perceived meanings. Research exploring creativity in consumer judgments with new product categories could provide new insights not only into the dimensions of creativity, but also, and more importantly, into the evolution of consumer judgment of what is novel or meaningful. For instance, how does a consumer determine whether something is novel with respect to a product category when the product category is new? How is a consumer to determine whether the new product is meaningful in comparison with the product category when they have yet to understand the meaning of products in said category? This is particularly relevant to radical innovations, which Griffin, Price, Maloney, Vojak, and Sim (2009) find to be increasingly complex, as well as in relation to spillover effects, under a sequential product introduction approach across culturally divergent markets (Tellis, Stremmer, & Yin, 2003).

Third, although there is a general consensus on the two-dimensional approach to creativity, as some have found the two dimensions to be robust across different countries (e.g., Ekvall & Ryhammar,

1999; Muñoz-Doyague, González-Álvarez, & Nieto, 2008), further research is needed to test the robustness of cross-national invariance of this conceptualization. A better understanding of the cross-national invariance of the conceptualization of creativity, and other constructs, could enable greater understanding of both the construct, and its antecedents and consequences.

Fourth, although this study examined the full breadth of Schwartz's (1994) values framework, only two countries were used to represent the two cultural types. Given the nature of the global marketplace, and the complexity and importance of values on consumer judgments, greater insights could be gained by expanding this work to examine a greater number of countries, therefore providing greater cultural representativeness. By examining a greater number of countries researchers would also be able to gain greater variation in Schwartz's (1994) underlying values, and therefore be able to gain more finely grained insights into the influence of cultural values on the relationship between the dimensions of perceived product creativity and intention to buy for effective international marketing strategy development.

In conclusion, until international marketing academics and practitioners understand the influence of cultural values on the relationship between the dimensions of perceived product creativity and intention to buy within the global marketplace, we will be limited in our ability to help advance international marketing knowledge and practice. The study presented here provides a good starting point. Specifically, the results suggest that the employment of Schwartz's values framework provides a fruitful foundation for the examination of consumer perceptions of the dimensions of perceived product creativity on intention to buy, and thus provides insight into the appropriateness of standardizing or adapting international marketing strategy.

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APPENDIX

Scale Items

Except when differently indicated, all Likert-type items use 7-point scales, anchored at “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”.

A. Novelty (adapted from Im and Workman, 2004)

Please rate to what extent you think that this product...

- (1) is really “out of ordinary”
- (2) can be considered as revolutionary
- (3) provides radical differences from other cars
- (4) shows an unconventional way of solving problems

B. Meaningfulness (adapted from Im and Workman, 2004)

Please rate to what extent you think that this product...

- (1) is relevant to my needs and expectations
- (2) is considered unsuitable for my desires (reverse-coded)
- (3) is appropriate for my needs and expectations
- (4) is useful for me

C. Intention to buy

- (1) If I were buying milk (strawberry juice), I would include this package among my options
- (2) If I were buying a milk (strawberry juice) I would buy this package
- (3) If it were available, I would buy this package

D. Schwartz values

Before you rate each value, please read all of the values in the list, choose and rate a SINGLE value that is most important to you. Next, choose and rate a SINGLE value that is least important (or most opposed). Once you have done this, complete your rating of the values. Please be sure to use the entire rating scale when completing this task.

(In the questionnaires that we used, questions about values were reported in a random order. Items are grouped here according to their overarching value just for exposition purposes.)

Affective autonomy. (US: Mean=5.28; s.d.=1.14; AVE=0.62; CR=0.86; α =0.85)

(Italy: Mean=3.52; s.d.=2.37; AVE=0.66; CR=0.92; α =0.89)

Pleasure (gratification of desires)

An exciting life (stimulating experiences)

Enjoying life (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)

Intellectual autonomy. (US: Mean=5.29; s.d.=1.33; AVE=0.75; CR=0.90; α =0.89)

(Italy: Mean=5.63; s.d.=1.15; AVE=0.73; CR=0.86; α =0.9)

Creativity (uniqueness, imagination)

Broad-minded (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)

Curious (interested in everything, exploring)

Conservatism. (US: Mean=5.49; s.d.=0.91; AVE=0.53; CR=0.72; α =0.75)

(Italy: Mean=5.09; s.d.=0.82; AVE=0.55; CR=0.74; α =0.79)

Family security (safety for loved ones)

Respect for tradition (preservation of time-honored traditions)

Social order (stability of society)

National security (protection of my nation from enemies)

Reciprocation of favors (avoidance of being indebted to others)

Honoring of parents and elders (showing respect)

Preserving my public image (saving “face”)

Politeness (courtesy, good manners)

Forgiving (willing to pardon others)

Clean (neat, tidy)

Self-discipline (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)

Obedient (dutiful, meeting obligations)

Devout (holding to religious faith and belief)

Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

Moderate (avoiding extremes of action and feeling)

Mastery. (US: Mean=5.44; s.d.=1.48; AVE=0.57; CR=0.89; α =0.92)

(Italy: Mean=5.15; s.d.=1.24; AVE=0.62; CR=0.91; α =0.93)

Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

Ambitious (hardworking, aspiring)

Daring (seek-adventure, risk)

Choosing own goals (selecting own purpose)

Successful (achieving goals)

Capable (competent, effective, efficient)

Hierarchy. (US: Mean=4.19; s.d.=1.69; AVE=0.58; CR=0.75; α =0.91)

(Italy: Mean=3.17; s.d.=1.51; AVE=0.59; CR=0.81; α =0.91)

Authority (the right to lead or command)



Humble (modest, self-effacing)
Social power (control over others, dominance)
Wealth (material possessions, money)
Influential (having an impact on people and events)

Harmony. (US: Mean=3.87; s.d.=1.44; AVE=0.59; CR=0.75; α =0.87)

(Italy: Mean=5.25; s.d.=1.33; AVE=0.59; CR=0.73; α =0.84)

Unity with nature (fitting into nature)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
Protecting the environment (preserving nature)

Egalitarian commitment. (US: Mean=5.46; s.d.=1.69; AVE=0.57; CR=0.90; α =0.92)

(Italy: Mean=6.22; s.d.=0.89; AVE=0.53; CR=0.86; α =0.89)

A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
Social justice (correcting injustice, care for the weak)
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Responsible (dependable, reliable)
Freedom (freedom of action and thought)
Accepting of my portion in life (submitting to life's circumstances)
Equality (equal opportunity for all)
Loyal (faithful to my friends and groups)
Honest (genuine, sincere)

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Gaia Rubera (PhD, Bocconi University) is assistant professor of Marketing at Eli Broad College of Business at Michigan State University. She was born in Italy, and is an Italian citizen. Her research interests focus on innovation and new product development, creativity, service innovation, globalization, and marketing strategy. Her articles have

been published, or are forthcoming, in *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *Journal of Service Research*, *Journal of International Marketing*, and *Marketing Letters*, among others. Her e-mail address is rubera@bus.msu.edu.

Andrea Ordanini (PhD, Bocconi University) is associate professor of Marketing at the Bocconi University of Milan. He is the co-director of the CERMES (Centre for Research on Marketing and Services) at the same university. He was a visiting professor at the University of California at Irvine in 2003 and 2006. He was born in Italy, and is an Italian citizen. His research interests are in service innovation and new product development. His articles have been published, or are forthcoming, in *Decision Sciences*, *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *Marketing Letters*, and *Information and Management*. His e-mail address is andrea.ordanini@unibocconi.it.

David A Griffith (PhD, Kent State University) is the John William Byington Endowed Chair in Global Marketing and Professor of Marketing at the Eli Broad College of Business at Michigan State University. He was born in the United States of America and is a citizen of the same. His research focuses on marketing strategy, governance, the influence of culture and institutional factors on international marketing strategy execution. His articles have been published, or are forthcoming, in the *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of International Business Studies*, *Strategic Management Journal*, and *Journal of Operations Management*, among others. His e-mail address is griffith@bus.msu.edu.

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