
2021

Consumers' Perceptions of the Role of the Marketing System in Subjective Well-being


Valcir Farias

Faculdade Ciências Da Vida, Minas Gerais, Brazil

Ramon Silva Leite

Pontifical Catholic University of Minas Gerais, Brazil

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/mgdr>

 Part of the [Anthropology Commons](#), [Development Studies Commons](#), [Economics Commons](#), [Latin American Languages and Societies Commons](#), [Marketing Commons](#), [Other Business Commons](#), and the [Sociology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Farias, Valcir and Leite, Ramon Silva (2021) "Consumers' Perceptions of the Role of the Marketing System in Subjective Well-being," *Markets, Globalization & Development Review*. Vol. 6: No. 4, Article 2.

DOI: 10.23860/MGDR-2021-06-04-02

Available at: <https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/mgdr/vol6/iss4/2>

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by DigitalCommons@URI. It has been accepted for inclusion in *Markets, Globalization & Development Review* by an authorized editor of DigitalCommons@URI. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@etal.uri.edu.

Markets, Globalization & Development Review



Consumers' Perceptions of the Role of the Marketing System in Subjective Well-Being

Introduction

Happiness is a colloquially used term which refers to subjective well-being (Kuykendall, Tay and NG 2015); therefore, in this article, these two terms shall be used interchangeably. Subjective well-being refers to a myriad of positive results in areas such as better social relationships, healthcare, and success at work (Diener and Chan 2011; Lyubomirsky, King and Diener 2005). It is, therefore, an important indicator of social progress (Diener and Seligman 2004).

Indeed, it must be considered that the report issued by United Nations Organization (UNO) about the levels of happiness in society throughout 2018 (Rojas 2018), shows that in Latin America, including in Brazil, the level of happiness is high, despite poverty, insecurity, corruption and poor income distribution.

When it comes to income, the level of inequality in Brazil is substantial. According to data from the World Bank (2020), among 164 countries, Brazil ranks in the 9th worst position in terms of inequality. Due to its size, Brazil also presents inequalities within its regions, having the South with the lowest level of inequality and the Northeast with the highest. Between 2014 and 2019, the income of the poorest 10% of the population dropped by 17%, whereas the income of the richest 1% grew by 10%. Among the poorest ones, 77% are black and brown-skinned, and among the richest ones over 70% are white-skinned (IBGE 2019).

Regarding education, Brazil faces a complex situation, with almost 12 million illiterates: over half of adults aged between 25 and 64 dropped out before finishing high school. There are about two million children and teenagers aged, between 4 and 17, out of school. In terms of educational PISA scores, the country ranks 54th out of the 65 countries assessed (OECD 2018).

When it comes to corruption, Brazil ranked 106th in 2019 out of the 180 countries assessed, with a truly negative perception of the issue. Brazil features prominently in terms of corruption, with 35 points in transparency, according to Corruptions Perceptions Index, highlighting it as "one of the greatest obstacles to the country's economic and social development" (Transparency International 2020).

Facing this complex scenario, Brazil proves to be a relevant realm for research into the role of marketing systems in subjective well-being. Based on Rojas' (2018) studies, it can be noted that whenever marketing systems had their performance compromised because of various issues – such as lack of credit to the consumer,

income loss, soaring inflation, fewer public and private investments – it led to shrinkage of levels of happiness, showing that marketing systems do affect individuals and society's subjective well-being. Rojas (2018) showed that the index of happiness in Brazil has decreased whenever the population's access to consumption reduced; and, whenever marketing systems played a role to increase consumption, the levels of happiness also grew. Such perceptions have been corroborated by the data gathered from IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics) in 2018 regarding family budget in Brazil, as well as data from other Latin American countries (Rojas 2018).

Most studies about the influence of marketing systems upon subjective well-being focus on mature economies. More recently, studies on developing economies such as Turkey have been presented, (see Ekici and Peterson 2009; Peterson and Ekici 2007; Peterson, Ekici and Hunt 2010; Yurdakul, Atik and Dholakia 2017). There is a lack of research about this issue in Latin American markets, perhaps due to historical reasons. These cultures must deal with important oft-contradictory issues to generate high levels of happiness: on the one hand corruption, violence and high crime rates, economic difficulties, low per capita income; and, on the other hand, there is a reasonable availability of public goods and an average provision of health and education services. Therefore, this theoretical gap provides a justification for this research.

The aim of this study is to describe the influence of the marketing system upon the subjective well-being of Brazilian consumers. In order to do so, 15 semi-structured interviews in the mid area of the state of Minas Gerais have been conducted and the collected data were analyzed through content analysis. The article offers four distinctive sections after the introduction: a theoretical review regarding marketing systems, subjective well-being and consumption; methodology; results; and conclusions.

Theoretical Review

Marketing system

Voluntary economic exchanges of one or more goods, services, and ideas are crucial to the conceptualization of any marketing system. This system is an interdependent set of integrated and complex parts, parts that perform different tasks that can intersect with other systems and materialize in the actions of their agents who interact, communicate and exchange information (Layton 2011). Such a system has been found everywhere, from primitive societies to advanced and complex economies, and it can occur in different ways, from simple exchanges among small groups or even within themselves, to complex networks of

companies of different sizes, which are linked to the production and delivery of goods, services, experiences, and ideas that support society (Layton 2011).

A marketing system encompasses more than simply delivering goods and services. It brings dynamism to society, as it encourages growth and continuous improvement (Wilkie and Moore 1999). This is because, in societies, the formation of a marketing system begins with the identification of individuals, groups, and entities that comprise that system. To the same extent, such individuals understand the existing economic and socio-cultural conditions, as well as the infrastructures, institutions, and artifacts that are part of the marketing system. This marketing system is expected to seek fair distribution of benefits to its agents (Layton 2014).

Even if any flaw in terms of an unbalanced distributive justice is to happen, as perfect competition is never to be found (Nason 1989), and almost never is there in a market a perfectly balanced and automatic transaction (Bartels 1944), the marketing system aims at providing society with structures that lead to an overall level of well-being. In order to do so, exchange networks that maximize value are used, which plays a positive role both in the economic development and the social well-being (Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne and Shultz 2015).

Despite potential market imperfections, for instance, government intervention and asymmetry of information and power (Arndt 1981), marketing systems can directly make the interests of companies and customers – and, to a broader extent, society – converge, thus, balancing these parties (Sheth and Sisodia 2005). Private investments made to enhance the performance of the marketing system enable the development of infrastructure in areas such as distribution, transportation, communication, healthcare and financial sector (Wilkie and Moore 1999).

The economic, socio-cultural, and physical characteristics of the social framework in which the marketing system is embedded mirror the evolution and/or environmental changes of institutions and of knowledge itself (Layton 2011). Such characteristics present a set of coordinated processes in which both producers and retailers seek interdependent purchases to meet predetermined standards and, subsequently, are acquired by consumers (Wilkie and Moore 1999).

The marketing system deals with exchanges, the group of consumers, producers, suppliers, products, and the entire context of institutional occurrence (Kotler and Levy 1969). The exchanges occur in an open institutional environment, subject to unknown and unpredictable forces, in economic, cultural and institutional fields in which the agents, such as individuals, groups or entities, mutually act, interact and react to seek gains (Layton 2014). What lies behind all this is the search for growth and innovation, the need to solve problems,

seek opportunities and guarantee investments in the future market operations (Wilkie and Moore 1999). By promoting exchanges, the marketing system significantly contributes to the well-being of society once it generates overall economic development through the creation of jobs and increases in income (Layton 2007).

A marketing system has its efficiency confirmed insofar as it meets its consumers' demands with the least expenditure of economic resources (Phillips 1941), when it seeks to minimize costs of transaction in the short term, and, in the long term, responds in an innovative and timely manner to internal and external changes, balancing cooperation and competition (Layton 2011). Market efficiency provides the mechanism through which market functioning can be measured (Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne and Mittelstaedt 2014). The effectiveness of a marketing system is determined by its ability to provide affordable assortments in response to customers' needs in each of the customer groups it is intended to serve (Layton 2014), since consumption is the way to communicate various symbolic aspects of consumer self-concept to other individuals belonging to the group in a systemic manner (Farias 2016).

As a system, it is dynamic instead of static, and this dynamism enables changes and socio-cultural diversity which are introduced by the trade networks that connect communities. Such changes lead to the emergence of marketing systems which grow, evolve, and adapt themselves, compete and cooperate with one another, sometimes merge or even dissolve, for being dynamic and, many times, not subject to perfect balance (Layton 2009; 2011). These changes play an important role in the quality of life and well-being in society and for consumers in general.

Subjective well-being

Quality of life is a broad and multidimensional construct, which encompasses aspects of psychological and social well-being, emotional functioning, health status, functional performance, life satisfaction, social support and standards of living. Such assessments are made via individuals judgments pertaining to different areas of life (Frisch et al. 2005). Well-being is a construct equivalent to the perception of satisfaction with life, with a prevalence of more positive emotional indices instead of negative ones. Its study is a direct consequence of the continuous expansion of the concept of quality of life over the years (Llanes 2001).

Self-perceived measures of well-being are often referred to as measures of subjective well-being, and such measures provide crucial information about people's quality of life (Andrews and Robinson 1991). Thus, quality of life and well-being are synonyms of subjective well-being, terms often used interchangeably. One's quality of life and

individual experiences examine how a person feels about life according to the individual's own standards (Diener and Suh 1997). A sense of well-being, often referred to as "subjective well-being", represents the general feeling that life is good (Myers 1992). Thus, happiness or life satisfaction reveals the degree to which people favorably judge the general quality of their lives (Veenhoven 1988).

Subjective well-being is the scientific term for what is commonly and popularly known as happiness (Kahneman 1999; Kuykendall, Tay and NG 2015; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). Other terms are also commonly used to refer to subjective well-being, such as asset, advantage, benefit, interest, growth, prudential value, eudaimonia, utility, and hedonism (Moore and Crisp 1996) – to capture what is good for the individual, as well as the reasons, behaviors and attitudes that lead individuals towards well-being, both in their own lives and in the lives of others (Scanlon 1998).

As to the different approaches regarding subjective well-being, there are the cognitive views, also known as attitudinal approaches. These treat subjective well-being as a cognitive state or attitude towards life, where there is a judgment of preferences and satisfied desires, thus determining the feeling of well-being (Brülde 2007). There are also at least two different types of affective views, which consider subjective well-being as an affective or 'feeling' state. The first, the hedonist ones, understands subjective well-being as the search for happiness and well-being in terms of living a life with a preponderance of pleasure over pain; or the presence of pleasure and the absence of pain (Plant 1991). The second type refers to mood or emotion, where subjective well-being refers to a type of emotion or mood that brings more pleasant and pleasurable experiences when compared to others (Brülde 2007).

Therefore, subjective well-being is commonly said to have two primary components. The affective component, which shows up to what extent one deals with an abundance of positive emotions and a few negative ones, and the cognitive component which deals with one's overall appraisal of their own life satisfaction (Diener 1984; Diener, Inglehart and Tay 2013; Eid and Larsen 2008). Positive and negative emotions can either be taken as a sole component (Kahneman 1999) or seen as separate components regarding emotional well-being (Schimmack 2007).

The components of subjective well-being can be listed as a person's appraisal of their own life, individual analyses of how regularly one has to face positive and negative emotions, and the attempts to keep the highest level of life satisfaction, with plenty of emotionally positive experiences versus a small number of emotionally negative ones (Diener, Suh and Oishi 1997). It can be measured in the realms of leisure, labor, family life, health, financial life, self and community

(Diener et al. 1999). Therefore, the pathway to happiness has to do with maximizing one's pleasurable moments through the fulfilling of desires (Kashdan, Biswas–Diener and King 2008).

Diener (1984) classifies subjective well-being and happiness in three categories. The first conceives well-being according to external criteria which vary over time, and according to cultural aspects in which happiness is a desirable quality and not something subjectively thought of. The second questions what lies behind one's positive appraisal of their own life, or life satisfaction, and uses the respondents' patterns to establish what a happy life is like. The last one conceives well-being as the state that has the highest incidence of positive emotions over negative ones, and that emphasizes the emotional experience of satisfaction or pleasure in terms of one's predisposition of dealing with positive and negative emotions at a certain time.

The models which attempt to explain well-being and their main theories have been presented in terms of a dichotomy, i.e., bottom-up and top-down. The former's focus is upon how external factors, sociodemographic variables and situations do affect happiness, based on the assumption that there is a set of universal and basic human needs, whether fulfilled or not, that make happiness possible to be achieved. Bottom-up theories also pair factors linked to daily pleasurable experiences to positive affect, whereas unpleasant events are linked to negative affect. This shows that satisfaction and happiness are results of the buildup of specific happy experiences (Diener, Sandvik and Pavot 1991). On the other hand, the top-down approach attempts to explain which structures determine how events and circumstances are perceived, presuming that there is a predisposition to interpret life experiences as both positive and negative, and that this would influence one's appraisal of their life.

Bottom-up theories influence this study as it is postulated that subjective well-being is caused by life experiences and circumstances, at least partially. In the bottom-up models, classifications of subjective well-being have been psychologically constructed following a causal path, i.e., subjective well-being is the intermingling of positive and negative events in life, life circumstances, demographic, and situational characteristics (Diener 1984; Diener and Ryan 2009; Diener, Tay and Oishi 2013; Tay, Morrison and Diener 2014).

Consumer's subjective well-being

It is crucial to understand how consumption affects a person's well-being, as it can be viewed from different perspectives. Consumption is a social and central factor in everyday life (Rocha 2005); it is a system of sharing meanings, beliefs and practices (Douglas 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman 1982; McCracken 1986), in addition to being an

enormous system of social classification (Douglas and Isherwood 2002; Rocha 2002; Sahlins 1979; Veblen 1965).

Consumption is also of course a system of interaction (Spiro 1983), a tool in the process of building identity (Belk 1988; McCracken 1986) and identifying mechanisms of reproduction and social distinction. Consumption encompasses both personal and social satisfaction, and its basic motivation is to experience, in real life, what one fantasizes about. Thus, humans constantly seeks to fulfill their fantasies in the constant novelties provided by consumption (Campbell 2001).

Consumer well-being is in the relationship between satisfaction and quality of life, that is, the greater the consumer's well-being, the greater their satisfaction with their life (Sirgy, Lee and Rahtz 2007). When a shopper is satisfied with their cumulative shopping experiences, it translates into a sense of well-being or satisfaction in life (El Hedhli, Chebat and Sirgy 2013). This is because satisfaction with shopping experiences is linked to life satisfaction and well-being (Grzeskowiak et al. 2016).

The link among consumption, life satisfaction and subjective well-being carries congruence between one's identity and the specific behavior in which they are involved, and such congruence can increase happiness (Diener et al. 1999; Moskowitz and Cote 1995). Consumption is an essential part of life, since in almost all contexts, everyone is a consumer, either of products or services (Shaban and El-Bassiouny 2014). Individuals compare their experiences; assess various aspects of their lives, including their financial conditions, their physical assets, and their social relationships (Shifa and Leibbrandt 2017). Individuals are directly affected by their environment and compare themselves to others in different social groups, and this comparison is subjected to geographical variation, which can affect attitudes towards consumption (Diener and Suh 2000; Petrescu and Kara 2018).

Subjective well-being in relation to consumption can derive either from the desire to consume for personal reasons, for instance, the search for more comfort, or due to social reasons, i.e., when it is understood that consumption provides greater economic growth. It can also take place when one is against consumption for personal reasons, i.e., the search for a more simple and frugal life or for social issues, i.e., when it is understood that consumption affects the environment (Iyer and Muncy 2016).

Consumers' subjective well-being reflects their buying attitudes and behavior (Burroughs and Rindfleisch 2002; Sharma and Alter 2012), since they use their possessions to develop a sense of identity (Ahuvia 2005) and consumers' cultural identity and also cultural and social psychological characteristics do affect their subjective well-being

(Ahuvia 2005; Malhotra 2006; Pancer and Handelman 2012). Assets are an integral aspect of modern humanity (Miller 2001), so it is reasonable that consumption leads one to pleasure and well-being, provided it is more than a need for survival. Assets linked to comfort, pleasure, personal presentation, and ostentation translate into fulfilling of desires, fantasies, dreams, as well as needs, and the choice and acquisition of objects is the materialization of all these hedonistic feelings (Campbell 2001).

On the other hand, the opposite may also occur, i.e., subjective well-being may derive from not consuming for personal reasons in search for a more simple and frugal life, or from avoiding buying a brand or product due to previous negative experiences and/ or the belief that it has some inferior quality. There are also social issues that impact subjective well-being when it comes to non-consumption, i.e., some believe that it is not possible to sustain consumption, either because of the social differences created by it, or because of the environmental issues (since most consumption depletes natural resources), added to the belief that specific brands or products may be linked to and be responsible for social problems (Iyer and Muncy 2009; Lee, Fernandez and Hyman 2009).

According to Gould, Houston and Mundt (1997), anti-consumption can be either passive, a “non-choice”, when one chooses not to consume, or a goal pursued by the consumer. Passive anti-consumption means a “non-choice”, when one chooses not to consume because of an inertial action, situational factors, acceptance of the current situation, habit or self-sufficiency. On the other hand, the active one means an “anti-choice”, when one chooses not to consume out of self-expression, for altruistic issues or resistance. A certain brand is rejected because another one holds the preference over the former, or because of the action taken by activists against products, companies, or the entire globalization process (Lee and Fernandez 2006). It can also come from a feeling of aversion, disgust, or abandonment (Hogg, Banister and Stephenson 2009).

In summary, most studies regarding subjective well-being focus on industrially developed societies. Many scholars have attempted to provide, throughout the years, measurements of quality of life and consumer’s subjective well-being (Andrews and Withey 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers 1976; Christakopoulou, Dawson and Gari 2001; Iyer and Muncy 2009; 2016; Petrescu and Kara 2018; Sirgy and Cornwell 2001; 2002; Sirgy et al. 2000; Vrbka and Combs 1993; Whorton and Moore 1984). These scholars have, likewise, discussed the influence of the marketing system upon subjective well-being. There persists, however, a need for further research in less developed or developing parts of the world. Therefore, this study is novel by

showing the influence of the marketing system on the subjective well-being of consumers, in the varied and complex Brazilian scenario.

Methodology

Research context

This research employed a qualitative method. Qualitative researchers study the facts within their natural contexts, by trying to understand, or interpret the various phenomena in terms of the meanings people attribute to them (Denzin and Lincoln 2011: 3). The method here was field research: in-depth interviews were carried out as the main means of data gathering.

Among the interviews conducted, 12 out of 15 took place in the capital city, Belo Horizonte, one in a middle-sized city and two in small towns, all of them in the state of Minas Gerais. The interviews were pre-scheduled and took place either at peoples' residences or workplaces, as well as public venues such as malls. The interview dates were between September 23 and November 20, 2019. All interviews were recorded with the agreement of the parties concerned, so as not to lose any important data.

The diverse background of the respondents made it possible to achieve a range of impressions and perceptions related to the study variables. The respondents were included in the research corpus by the criterion of accessibility. More information about the interviewees is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of the Respondents

Respondent	Age	Gender: M— Male F— Female	Income (R\$ thousand)	Marital Status: M— married S— single	Educational background	Size of the city	Job	Length of interview
1	59	F	6	M	College	ST	Rural producer	97 min
2	23	F	1,5	S	High school	MSC	Receptionist	92 min
3	36	M	12	M	College	BC	Businessman	77 min
4	40	M	15	M	College	ST	Businessman	79 min
5	52	F	8	D	College	BC	Psychologist	84 min
6	2	M	2,5	S	Elementary	BC	unemployed	75 min

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Gender: M– Male</i> <i>F– Female</i>	<i>Income (R\$ thousand)</i>	<i>Marital Status: M— married S— single</i>	<i>Educational background</i>	<i>Size of the city</i>	<i>Job</i>	<i>Length of interview</i>
	9				school			
7	33	M	6,8	S	Masters	BC	Teacher	91 min
8	32	F	4	S	College	BC	Nurse	94 min
9	23	F	2	S	College	BC	Clerk	86 min
10	34	F	3	D	College	BC	Teacher	77 min
11	42	F	6	D	Masters	BC	Psychologist	78 min
12	28	M	1,5	S	College	BC	College student obtaining second degree	97 min
13	37	F	12	D	College	BC	Lawyer	89 min
14	46	M	20	D	unknown	BC	Businessman	76 min
15	36	F	2	M	High school	BC	unknown	79 min

ST: small town. MSC: middle-sized city. BC: big city

The research was supported by a semi-structured research itinerary, so that the questions were previously elaborated, but allowed the interviewees to feel comfortable to express themselves on important issues that, many times, were not in the proposed scheme. The interview script was developed according to the studies conducted mainly by Layton (2014), Iyer and Muncy (2016), Wilkie and Moore (1999), Sirgy, Lee and Rahtz (2007), and Diener et al. (1995), with questions about the local marketing system, attitudes towards consumption and subjective well-being.

The research instrument initially comprised three interviews, which were later adapted for usage with the others. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed, supplemented by notes from direct

observations – to capture the underlying meaning of gestures, silences and expressions performed during the interviews. The interviews lasted on an average 1 hour and 25 minutes. The observational notes were inserted in the transcripts.

The number of interviews was considered enough when the theoretical saturation was noticed. There is no one-size-fits-all method to achieve data saturation for it is achieved when there is enough information to replicate the study, when the ceiling to obtain additional new information has been reached, and additional coding is no longer viable (Guest, Bunce and Johnson 2006; O'Reilly and Parker 2012; Walker 2012; Fusch and Ness 2015).

For this study, Francis et al.'s (2010) four principles of saturation were chosen. First, the sample size for the first round of analyses was defined a priori, to establish a basis for progressive judgment of data saturation: in this study, 10 interviews defined that size. Next, the number of interviews that would be conducted without new shared themes, or new emerging ideas, was also defined beforehand prior to the conclusion that data saturation had been achieved. This number of interviews was set at 3.

With these criteria for closure defined, the third principle encompasses the analysis conducted by at least two independent coders, and the levels of agreement reported to establish that the analysis is robust and reliable. Here, after analyzing data, idiosyncratic responses, irrelevant to the research, were noticed, requiring further interviews. Two more interviews were conducted, and after these, saturation was believed to have been achieved. The fourth principle states that the presentation of saturation and results is done in such a way that the reader can evaluate its evidence, and this is reflected in the next section.

Results

The data was analyzed through content analysis methodology. At first, as a pre-analysis phase, the interviews transcripts were briefly read to establish an initial familiarity with the research context, materials and data. This phase and its brief in-depth free-reading allowed for an interaction with the data and accounted for the first impressions of the respondents. This then led to the assimilation of the transcriptions and prompted the process of mental associations searching for paths to be threaded and treaded throughout the process of corpus systematization.

Among the different options for the process of analysis, the thematic analysis approach was the chosen. Codification was based on the objectives of the research, as well as on the indicators perceived, and the theory applied. Both the codification and categorization processes were dynamic and inductive, focusing at a certain phase on

the explicit message, and at another phase on the meanings that have been touched in the text. In both phases, however, the mental and insightful resources of the researcher went beyond the proposed questions.

Thus, thematic codification was applied, complying with the inductive methodology. This process started after the first contact with the data. The researcher looked for the meanings and issues embedded in the research, and it entailed constantly checking upon the data, codified extracts, applied theory, researcher's own notes and the analysis itself. Seeking an interpretative approach with more accurate data, this study used storybook theme for the possibility of continually dealing with such data (Braun and Clarke 2006). From this choice, the codes that emerged aimed at offering a latent content or a semantic content which adheres itself to the phenomenon to be studied. As a result of the possibility of checking the database as many times as necessary, the researchers could not detach entirely from the theory – that is, relying only on the transcriptions. This study ended up using a joined codification. i.e., the codified themes derived both from the data themselves (data-driven) and from the theory that supported the analysis (theory-driven).

The study, then, offers a systematic codification of the entire database, providing the same degree of care and attention to each transcribed interview to identify which aspects could establish a pattern of repeated meanings underlying the themes. Since the interviews were quite rich, it was decided not to codify them as only single item for analysis, but to approach these in parts, especially since the same respondent may have, recurrently, addressed different themes.

The study tried to make sure that all extracts were codified using the software Atlas-Ti8®, to codify as many potential themes/patterns without losing track of the content of the transcript item, once a single extract can contemplate more than one code and there is no inconsistency-free database.

The categories were defined *a posteriori* as a result of the very codification process. The codes were revised and refined, and later grouped according to their related meanings.

The transcripts and observations of the interviews, taking into consideration excerpts from the respondents' statements, supported by direct observations, led to the following categories: Consumer's subjective well-being; Marketing System Performance and Attitudes Towards Consumerism. These overall categories, along with specific codes, are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Codes and Screening Categories

Codes	Categories
1 Being a consumerist	I – Consumer's subjective well-being
2 Social comparison	
3 Consumerism as a symbol of success	
4 Lack of a consumption planning	
5 Lifestyle assessment	
6 Impact of economic situation on lifestyle	
7 Assessment of lifestyle according to the geographical area	
8 Financial statuses	
9 Standard of living according to the geographical area	
10 Pleasure derived from consumerism	
11 Pleasure in buying something for somebody else	
12 Consumption planning	
13 Meanings attached to consumerism	
14 Venues and well-being	II – Marketing system performance
15 Lack of basic goods in a specific geographical area	
16 Private services	
17 Public services	
18 Downsides of the marketing system	
19 Hazards imputed by consumerism upon society	
20 Advantages imputed by consumerism upon society	
21 Consumerism and socio-economic development	
22 Impact of the goods and services available upon the geographical area	
23 Impact of the marketing system itself on the geographical area	

Codes	Categories
24 Collection of assortments and increase of consumerism	
25 Opinions against consumerism based on broad issues	III – Attitudes towards consumerism
26 Opinions against consumerism based on personal beliefs	
27 Opinions pro consumerism based on broad issues	
28 Opinions pro consumerism based on personal beliefs	
29 Nostalgia	

For the presentation of the results, the analysis categories were considered in a related way.

Consumer's subjective well-being and attitudes towards consumerism

It was possible to infer, from the contact with the respondents, that the experiences with consumption bring pleasure and happiness, as states respondent 1, a female 59-year-old rural producer who lives in a small town and who has an average income:

Going out just for the sake of shopping. This is something. Going out, going window shopping aimlessly. Spending the whole day, looking at things, wishing them, buying them [...] being able to buy trips, tours, this is pleasure beyond measure.

Other respondents hinted at the same feeling of pleasure and happiness with the consumption of goods and services reported by respondent 1. This report is corroborated by Sirgy, Lee and Rahtz (2007), and El Hedhli, Chebat and Sirgy (2013), who state that consumption brings individual well-being: the greater one's well-being due to cumulative shopping experiences, the greater one's well-being and satisfaction with life. Grzeskowiak et al. (2016) also stated that satisfaction with shopping experiences is linked to satisfaction in life and well-being.

Indeed, according to the abovementioned notion, several of the respondents' answers demonstrate that access to goods and services

leads to the fulfilling of one's immanent desires. This, in turn, generates a feeling of pleasure and happiness – for such sensations are to be found in the experience itself, leading one to the realization of the reality around through cognitive senses. By observing and recording the respondents' reactions, gestures and emotions during their interviews it was possible to infer that, for them, access to consumer goods, as well as the subsequent feeling of pleasure and happiness, show how one can benefit from what a consumer society can provide.

It should also be noted that such a feeling of happiness and pleasure reported above echoes Diener, Sandvik and Pavot (1991) who state that consumption brings pleasure and happiness to individuals, arising from the accumulation of moments experienced as happy ones.

As seen in theoretical review, maximizing one's pleasant moments through satisfying their desires is considered the pathway to happiness (Kashdan, Biswas–Diener and King 2008); Through consumption one seeks sensory gratification for oneself (Schwartz 1992). The consumption of goods and services is valued not only out of social status and hedonic purposes (Belk 1985), but also to establish a social ranking for individuals compare their experiences; assess various aspects of their lives (Shifa and Leibbrandt, 2017). Social status comparison was among the main reasons behind consuming, as respondent 4, a 40–year–old male businessman who lives in a small town and whose income is high, says...

it is a demand to show that I am able to buy something...

or in respondent 3's words, a 36–year–old male businessman who lives in a big city and who has high income:

what my consumption represents and reveals about me to other people.

Several respondents, no matter coming from different–sized cities, also made statements that can be as consumption being a factor of social ranking.

The above–mentioned inference echoes Diener and Suh (2000) as well as Petrescu and Kara (2018), who highlight that individuals are directly affected by the environment and compare themselves to other close individuals and groups. Veblen, (1965), Sahlin (1979), Douglas and Isherwood (2002) also show that individuals use consumption to pass personal characteristics on to their peers, making the consumption of goods and services a great system. By comparing themselves to one another and by promoting social ranking,

consumption enables defining both the self and collective characteristics (McCracken 1988).

The aesthetic comparisons established from the consumption of goods and what they reveal about their holder do not refer to objective issues, but rather to the subjectivities that they represent, i.e., the symbolic value that this consumption brings. Status groups follow certain logic of consumption of goods that symbolizes specific lifestyles, according to which economic and social differences result from symbolic distinctions in the way consumed goods are enjoyed. The respondents seem to consider solely the modes of consumption as types of social differentiation, though, to classify and define a group's social identity, it may be necessary to analyze its genesis, lifestyles, modes of consumption, ways of being and language, body behavior, habits, cultural, social and symbolic capitals.

Through contact with the respondents during the interviews, either at home or in their workplace, it was evident that consumption is key in social ranking, because, by purchasing certain goods, the respondents felt as if they belonged to a social group in a higher position in relation to others, they felt even more powerful as, through consumption, they gained status, symbolic value and prestige, and experienced pleasure and well-being in that position. Even those whose financial situation was average, as verified by direct observation during the interviews at their homes, showed that, through consumption, they were able to reach another category and social ranking, as if they belonged to another higher social group, a more valued, more prestigious, more comfortable one with a different status, reporting to having experienced, therefore, pleasure and happiness.

The principles that lead to excessive consumerism can reduce the levels of subjective well-being once they contribute to the degradation of the environment. Indeed, "the predominant economic paradigm" tries to show how unlimited economic expansion equals human well-being and increased material well-being (Kilbourne, McDonagh and Prothero 1997). The idea that goods work as bridges to connect one to constantly changing meanings presents itself as one of the key aspects to propel consumerism in our modern society (McCracken 1988). Idealized images constructed by marketing offer a representation of life with bright and exciting colors, which perpetuate the desire for change (Ozdamar-Ertekin and Atik 2015). Therefore, the new offerings – that cater to this craving for change – provide immediate satisfaction to constantly evolving temporary identities (Joy et al. 2012).

Pro-consumerism attitudes can be motivated by neophilic (created adjective for neophilia, love of all things new) passions once people constantly crave something different, even if their basic needs and desires have already been fulfilled. The respondent quoted next

shows that, whenever a new smartphone model is launched, she feels like having it, no matter how much more expensive it may be:

A smartphone, for instance. No matter how good my old one is, I want a new one, as the one I have is already inferior to what is available now. I want the new one which costs way more...

On the other hand, respondent 7 exhibits a more generalized craving to consume something really different, i.e., any novelty triggers his desire to buy:

It feels as if the sentence "I must have it" is triggered whenever I see something new, cool (LOL). Like, you see something, anything, and there comes this urge.

Anti-consumption and subjective well-being

Consumers can be against consumerism, and be searching for a more frugal lifestyle, without any kind of militancy. Such consumers may resort to rejecting and/or reducing general consumption (Black and Cherrier 2010; Iyer and Muncy 2009; McDonald et al. 2006; Shaw and Newholm 2002). Among the respondents in this study, there were some who were against consumption, influenced by both personal and social issues. Regarding respondent 11, a 46-year-old female average-income psychologist who lives in a big city, there is a choice of not consuming to seek a more simple and frugal life.

So, I need almost nothing. I am for frugality ... I am against consumption, simply because I want to have a simple life. I long to have a worry-free lifestyle, so I do not want to have things, goods, objects....

The respondent's words echo what Iyer and Muncy (2009) classify as 'simplifying consumers', i.e., those who find subjective well-being in the quest for a happy life through more frugal consumption. This lifestyle choice was true for some other respondents as well.

Although it cannot be said that the frugal or simplifying consumer is not materialistic, what was observed during the interviews is that – even though they can afford more consumption – the choice for non-consumption is related to a lifestyle. Some of them long for a simpler life in all aspects, with complete detachment from goods, once they believe having less is better. Others chose to simplify their lifestyles perhaps as a result of previous experiences. For these, when they had

more goods, they were also more subjected to pressure to manage them, therefore, by simplifying their lifestyles, they could avoid hassles related to consumption and enjoy subjective well-being.

Respondent 12, a 28-year-old male low-income student, who lives in a big city, offers a more critical view on this urge to buy novelties. By referring to Plato's notion of erotic satisfaction, he alludes to Eros, i.e., love itself. Love for whatever is new. This urge seems to bother him considerably once he analyses the influence of such a pattern of consumerism in relation to people who are marginalized by the marketing system, showing that desires and attitudes regarding consumerism seem to be disconnected from the socioeconomic status:

Buying new things impacts our personality. As Plato would say, it is related to our erotic drive... There is a slum ...close to the highway. From 8 to 12 people live in a small house fit for no more than 2. We are talking about poorly built places ... and what do they long for? A bigger TV set, a cool smartphone, a microwave, this kind of stuff. Few of them dream about a really decent and safe place to live.

According to this participant, in the Brazilian context, low-income consumers prioritize goods that provide immediate pleasure or that are trendy over more urgent needs for food and housing (for similar findings from Turkey, see Yurdakul, Atik, and Dholakia 2017). They stop consuming basic necessities to consume the superfluous. In a population as deprived as that in Brazil – where, according to the IBGE (2020), there are more than 30 million people living in 5 million sub-standard housing units in over 13 thousand clusters – one would expect that consumers would seek more access to health, education, sanitation, and decent housing. Instead, they look for goods that offer novelty and are superfluous, implying that the low-income Brazilian consumer may be hedonic, neophilic, and oblivious to their own social conditions as well as those of others.

This conditioning makes the low-income Brazilian consumers a good target for marketing. When respondent 12 brings up the question of Eros treated by Plato, in the sense of love for novelty, he characterizes that the consumer in the Brazilian context, especially the low-income one, seeks to fill the gap in well-being left by the State, through consumption of goods that make himself feel part of the society.

The same response offers a critical view regarding the performance of both the marketing system and consumerism itself when it comes to social and environmental issues:

I only buy what is strictly necessary. Our planet cannot cope with over consumerism. Do you know how long a pair of jeans last? Neither do I! But, it is for sure a long time. Therefore, having two pairs would be enough. One to work and one to go out for fun (LOL) For it lasts pretty much forever, but, no. We buy another pair and then another one. Why is it so? The social status attached to consumerism is to blame. Consumerism inputs oppression and social control upon us. Not to mention the environmental implications. I mean, consumerism cannot be sustainable. Capitalism is built upon exploiting the resources as much as possible, and this seems to hold true to natural resources as well. I always ask people not to overbuy. They should buy only what is necessary. We need very little to survive.

Interviewee 12, although low-income, demonstrates a political and environmental awareness that he does not find in his peers. For him, the consumer surrenders to social pressure for consumerism. According to him, many consumers are not concerned about the socioeconomic or socio-environmental consequences provided by the high level of consumption. This characterizes low-income Brazilian consumers for valuing immediacy, without concern for the preservation of the environment, without awareness of their role in society, and without critical capacity.

These characteristics are reflections of a lower level of education, since, according to the IBGE (2020), there are more than 11 million people who are completely illiterate, 50 million have dropped out of school since 2019 and only 34% of those who have completed higher education are proficient in reading and writing. Therefore, without knowledge, there is no way to have a critical position on consumption.

Subjective well-being was also reported in positions contrary to consumption, mainly due to suspicions about brands or products, as hints respondent 13, a 37-year-old female high-income lawyer, who lives a big city: "I am a militant against smoking", from whose statement we can infer an aversion to a specific kind of product. Other respondents also opposed the consumption of any product or brand because of unsatisfactory experiences, which can be observed in respondent 14's, comment, a 46-year-old male high-income businessman who lives in a big city, referring to an airline company.

So, I do not fly with them and convince everyone else not to do it. I would rather pay more to another company than fly with them.

This anti-consumption militant type of consumer is what Iyer and Muncy (2009) classified as “anti-devoted consumers”, i.e., those who avoid buying a brand or product, because they have had previous negative experiences with it, or because they believe that the brand or product has some inferior quality (Iyer and Muncy 2009; Lee, Fernandez and Hyman 2009).

The consumer is no longer a passive recipient. Unlike what the propositions of poststructuralist approaches state, the consumer establishes their own consumption patterns, modifying them to express personal or collective resistance (see also, for example, Firat and Dholakia 2016). Some of the respondents are militants against the consumption of certain types of products, such as tobacco and alcohol, even though they once did consume them. Others, due to a previously negative consumption experience, enjoy in this militancy itself, pleasure, and subjective well-being. Indeed, it was possible to observe in their respondents' family and professional environment that the aversion to a certain product, service, or brand, becomes almost a passionate public statement of their beliefs.

There were also those who are against consumption due to a broader social issue, and who reported a feeling of well-being and happiness with this position, as evident in the words of respondent 12, a 28-year-old male low-income student, who lives in a big city:

I am totally against it. My struggle is for the liberation of society, and consumption is a form of social oppression. Everything becomes a commodity in the capitalist system, even culture ... I fight for the critical evaluation of things to change society... And I can tell you, it is not consumption that will change society.

This respondent echoes what Iyer and Muncy (2009) classify as “consumers or global impact”, whose focus is on the general well-being of society or the planet, and who believe that it is not possible to sustain consumption, either because of the social differences created by it, or because of the environmental issue, since consumption depletes natural resources.

In the respondents' answers little has been seen of the kind of concern and engagement related to the negative global impacts that consumption can cause to society and the environment. Indeed, one

can barely notice the urge to raise awareness to this agenda, as well as a warning against the marketing actions of hegemonic brands that try to appeal to non-priority desires. This may reveal that most people are not overly concerned about issues or values regarding a social agenda.

The marketing system performance and subjective well-being

The marketing system plays a key role in the well-being of society, as it brings economic development once the economic results of exchanges create jobs and increase income (Layton 2007). Its performance will have an overall and important impact upon the quality of life and the well-being of society and consumers (Layton 2011), by converging the interests of both companies and customers and, by extension, society. This enables the system to balance these parts (Sheth and Sisodia 2005)

According to the respondents the marketing system brings benefits such as jobs, income, well-being and quality of life, comfort, happiness, a feeling of social belonging and economic development. This can be observed from respondent 4's answer, a 40-year-old male high-income businessman, who lives in a small town:

Where there are good consumption options, they generate more jobs, increase income and people increase their consumption power. Trade thrives, the industries produce more, and the whole economy improves. This leads to more jobs and more consumption.

Such perceptions are echoed in the theoretical framework since the marketing system contributes to the well-being of society as Layton (2007) claimed, playing a positive role in economic development and social well-being (Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne and Shultz, 2015).

Furthermore, according to this same respondent 4 (a 40-year-old high-income male businessman, from a small city):

The more private investments generated by consumption, the more the fiscal state machinery benefits from tax collection, leading to more investments in security, education, healthcare, and so on, so people can start enjoying a better lifestyle. They can settle in that place, worry about changes in the area and this leads to more improvement.

Marketing systems lead to a feeling of belonging through community service and the valuing of the local community. This, in turn, leads to subjective well-being for society, since an increase in consumption can not only bring poverty to an end, but also increase the desire of a society for development (Miller 2001).

It was also observed that among the respondents there is a general feeling that the marketing system provides a feeling of belonging and mutual care, and that the places where they live are benefited with the equipment and public services available, because of the performance of the marketing system.

Upon request, when asked to nominate what the most important thing for them was, being with the family was number one, as it can be seen in the following extracts: “my family” (respondent 10), a female low-income teacher, who lives in a big city, “my children” (respondent 14) a 46-year-old male high-income businessman who lives in a big city, and “the well-being of my family” (respondent 4) a 40-year-old male high-income businessman who lives in a small city.

It is important to note that in the interviews the respondents mentioned the flaws of the marketing system itself. Most of them, however, assess their own personal lives in a positive way and place family and family life as the most important assets. This corroborates what Diener et al. (1999) found: that subjective well-being can be measured in the level of life realms, among which are leisure, work, family, healthcare, finance, self and community.

In this study it was also found, however, that the marketing system brings problems such as debt, social inequality, pollution, social breakdown, as seen in respondent 7’s comment, a 33-year-old male average-income teacher, who lives in a big city:

A big problem is social ranking imposed by consumption... One can be despised by those who are vain. This hurts one’s pride and the victims start to envy [others, and denigrate] themselves, leading to more social tension, which is usually kind of difficult to be recognized and even suppressed. Therefore, this differentiation through consumption is not beneficial to society.

The consumption patterns provided by the marketing system represent a huge classification system (Douglas and Isherwood 2002; Rocha 2002; Sahlins 1979; Veblen 1965), and it serves as a process of identity building (Belk 1988; McCracken 1986), that constantly offers mechanisms of reproduction and distinction in society (Campbell 2001).

It is noted that high-income Brazilian consumers understand that consumption generates benefits for society as a result of

government investments in education, security, etc. provided by tax collection. This position delimits the difference in perception between high-income and low-income consumers in the Brazilian context. While high-income consumers believe that basic services will be provided by consumption coming from the marketing system, low-income consumers claim that such services never come.

Such a dichotomy of analysis reflects the huge difference in income distribution in Brazil, where the 10% of the population with the highest income holds 43% of all income from work in the country and earns 36 times more than the 10% with the lowest income. Also, 1% of consumers in the highest income bracket earn 180 times more than the 5% in the lowest income bracket (IBGE 2020).

In a society based upon consumerism, in which one's urge for something constantly changes in a *continuum*, in which the object of one's desire and pleasure can be seen as leading to happiness and fulfillment, those who cannot afford it are left aside and are even forced to get rid of their desire itself (Belk, Ger and Askegaard, 2003; Campbell 2001). In both scenarios, the marketing system does reduce subjective well-being as the desires cannot be fulfilled by those who cannot simply consume anything, as well as by those who should not even dare to desire something.

As stated by respondent 7, a 33-year-old male average-income teacher who lives in a big city:

...Things are meant to meet our demands and needs. And these needs constantly change. What I need or long for today, may be different from what I will long for tomorrow. Being able to meet these changing needs no matter what, brings us pleasure, well-being... What we buy may mean something quite subjective which transcends the object itself, you know? It is part of the subject, it is something individual; therefore, its transcendency and the process itself meet one's need, makes one happy. So, if I could buy more and more, I would feel better, especially because I experiment with different needs all the time.

On the other hand, there is the feeling of non-existing – of being a non-entity – when one cannot buy whatever one wants, as shown by respondent 11, a 42-year-old female average-income psychologist, who lives in a big city, as well as by respondent 6, a 29-year-old male low-income unemployed, who dropped out of school and who lives a big city:

...Consumerism does not lead to wealth distribution. Consumerism dismantles society. It creates competition and the social inequality that results from it, brings about more conflicts and issues. Those who cannot afford to fulfill their desires as imposed by the marketing system, feel as if they simply do not exist for society (Respondent 11) ...

It is quite sad. If a person longs for something and cannot afford it, they experience sadness, which is quite bad indeed. Sadness grows and spreads itself from one person to another, so that people slowly feel like it is not worth living anymore for they cannot see themselves as equal to others who can afford different things. They feel as if they are invisible. (Respondent 6)

A certain degree of anguish can be seen in the respondents' statements as access to goods and services, provided by the marketing system and their consumption, are considered a measure of social distinction. Such anguish is due to people's high level of debt, which is, in itself, a result of the lack of consumption planning reported in the interviews. This debt can indicate an attempt to build an identity of a different status quo, highlighting the enormous existing social inequality and the flaws in the marketing system.

Most respondents have given positive assessments of their lives, despite allegedly insufficient access to services such as education, healthcare and leisure, and despite high rates of crime, social inequality and poverty. Had these previous indicators been suppressed, the feeling of happiness could have been higher; however, there is a clear connection between the high index of well-being reported with the characteristics of abundant family relationships, bonds with the neighborhood and other types of relationships that promote social support.

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to describe consumers' perceptions of the role played by the marketing system in subjective well-being, considering access to consumption in general. We chose to study Brazilian consumers from different locations and from different realities to understand the variations in expectations and the real impacts that the different stages of the varied marketing systems have upon subjective well-being. In order to do so, we used qualitative research,

interviewing consumers from different sized cities and levels of economic development. It could be seen that, in general, subjective well-being comes because of both access to goods, experiences and services provided by the marketing system, and situations of negation of consumption, depending on the importance the consumer attributes to the goods and services available.

This study aimed at contributing to a possible expansion of such a field of knowledge taking into consideration the different consumption patterns provided by the marketing system in each city. From a theoretical point of view, it presents a range of options to be studied, both positive contributions namely economic development, comfort and happiness, and the negative aspects of marketing, namely excessive consumerism, unethical issues, the negative relationships between marketing and the environment.

This proposal of researching how macromarketing can contribute to the development of communities through consumerism was presented by Achrol and Kotler (2016), broadening the dialogue with consumers from poor countries (Achrol and Kotler 2017). Discussing these issues in relation to the Brazilian reality may contribute to generate an understanding of how marketing systems can be used to promote the development of such populations (Khandwalla 2017).

The marketing system in Brazil is well structured in some regions but has significant shortcomings in some poorer regions, so the Brazilian context presents great differences across its regional range of consumers. It is a market with a very high concentration of income and a very low level of education. The unfair distribution of income results in a greater supply of public and private goods and services provided by the marketing system to those who need it the least. Where there is more income, there is more consumption, and where there is more consumption, there is more private investment, and therefore, where there is more private investment, there is more tax collection and, consequently, more public investment. This makes high-income consumers' perception of the marketing system more positive, which provides a greater sense of subjective well-being for these consumers.

On the other hand, the low level of education of Brazilian consumers means that they are not able to make a critical analysis of the reality that surrounds them. Thus, as low schooling is related to low income, this portion of the population is left out of the system, as there is no private or public investment. This reality jeopardizes the low-income population's access to services and goods provided by the marketing system. The lack of critical analysis of low-income consumers normalizes the lack of access to public and private goods and services in less developed regions, thus perpetuating a huge socioeconomic gap between consumer classes.

The marketing system is not a static one. It is based upon exchange ratio, and this varies according to different economic, cultural and institutional contexts where its agents operate. Indeed, another contribution offered by this study is the realization that happiness, in the studied regions, has had social foundations.

Most of the population is low-income, and therefore lacking in goods and services, both public and private. Due to the low level of education, a critical view is not exercised to change the situation. Thus, Brazilian consumers invest in interpersonal relationships in the pursuit of their well-being. This demonstrates a characteristic of the Brazilian consumer of valuing extended family relationships, that is, relatives and friends. This cultural characteristic can be exploited by the marketing system in offering goods and services that value the interpersonal relationships between the members of this population.

The types of social relationships reported by the respondents have led them to high levels of family satisfaction and have made them experience positive emotions as a result of that satisfaction. This demonstrates that a more relational purpose in life is a key element to a favorable assessment of one's life.

The results discussed here are limited to the perceptions of residents of cities in the central region of the state of Minas Gerais, a state from Brazil. Across the country, of course, many differences in contexts can be found. To expand the scope of this research, further studies about subjective well-being and marketing systems that take into consideration geographical variations across the vast landmass of Brazil are needed. It is also suggested that quantitative studies be conducted to gather more understanding of the issues discussed here. Overall, this study has opened avenues for more exploration of marketing systems and subjective well-being in Brazil and, by extension, in other emerging and developing economies.

References

- Achrol, Ravi and Philip Kotler (2016), "Marketing's Lost Frontier: The Poor," *Markets, Globalization & Development Review*, 1 (1), Article 3. <https://doi.org/10.23860/MGDR-2016-01-01-03>
- and ——— (2017), "Extending the Marketing Dialog on Poverty," *Markets, Globalization & Development Review*, 2 (1), Article 6. <https://doi.org/10.23860/MGDR-2017-02-01-06>
- Ahuvia, A. Chaim (2005), "Beyond the Extended Self: Loved Objects and Consumers' Identity Narratives," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23, 171–184. <https://doi.org/10.1086/429607>
- Andrews, Frank M. and Stephen B. Withey (1976), *Social Indicators of Well-Being*. New York and London: Plenum.
- and John P. Robinson (1991), "Measures of Subjective Well-Being" In: Robinson, J.P.; Shaver, P.R.; Wrightsman, L.S. (Eds.), *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes*, Academic Press, San Diego, 61–114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-590241-0.50007-1>
- Arndt, Johan (1981), "The Political Economy of Marketing Systems: Reviving the Institutional Approach," *Journal of Macromarketing*, 1 (2), 36–47. <https://doi.org/10.1177/027614678100100206>
- Bartels, R. (1944), "Marketing Principles," *Journal of Marketing*, 9 (2), 151–157. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224294400900211>
- Belk, Russell (1985), "Materialism: Trait Aspects of Living in the Material World," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12 (December), 265–280. <https://doi.org/10.1086/208515>
- (1988), "Possessions and the Extended Self," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15 (2), 139–168. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209154>
- , Guliz Ger and Soren Askegaard, S. (2003), "The Fire of Desire: A Multisited Inquiry into Consumer Passion," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30 (3), 326–351. <https://doi.org/10.1086/378613>
- Black, Iain and Helene Cherrier (2010), "Anti-Consumption as Part of Living a Sustainable Lifestyle: Daily Practices, Contextual Motivations and Subjective Values," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 9 (6), 437–453. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb>
- Braun, Virginia and Victoria Clarke (2006), "Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology," *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3 (2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Brülde, Bengt (2007), "Happiness Theories of the Good Life," *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 8, 15–49. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9003-8>

- Burroughs, James E. and Aric Rindfleisch (2002), "Materialism and Well-Being: A Conflicting Values Perspective," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29 (December), 348–370. <https://doi.org/10.1086/344429>
- Campbell, Angus, Philip E. Converse and Willard Rodgers (1976), *The Quality of American Life*. New York: Russell Stage Foundation.
- Campbell, Colin (2001), *A Ética Romântica e o Espírito do Consumismo Moderno*. Rio de Janeiro: Rocco.
- Christakopoulou, Sophia, Jon Dawson and Aikaterini Gari (2001), "The Community Well-Being Questionnaire: Theoretical Context and Initial Assessment of its Reliability and Validity," *Social Indicators Research*, 56 (3), 321–345. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/27526977>
- Denzin, Norman K. and Yvonna S. Lincoln (2011), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage Publications.
- Diener, E. (1984), "Subjective Well-Being," *Psychological Bulletin*, 95, 542–575. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.95.3.542>
- , Ed Sandvik and William Pavot (1991), "Happiness is the Frequency, not the Intensity, of Positive versus Negative Affect," In F. Strack; M. Argyle e N. Schwarz (Eds), *Subjective Wellbeing*, Oxford: Pergamon, 119–139.
- Diener, E. and Einkook Suh (1997), "Measuring Quality of Life: Economic, Social, and Subjective Indicators," *Social Indicators Research*, 40, 189–216. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006859511756>
- and ——— (1997), "Measuring Quality of Life: Economic, Social, and Subjective Indicators," *Social Indicators Research*, 40, 189–216. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006859511756>
- , ——— and Shieghiro Oishi (1997), "Recent Findings on Subjective Well-Being," *Indian Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 24 (1), 25–41. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_2905
- and ——— (2000), *Culture and Subjective Wellbeing*. Cambridge: MIT.
- and Martin Seligman (2004), "Beyond Money: Toward an Economy of Well-Being," *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 5, 1–31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.00501001.x>
- and Katherine Ryan (2009), "Subjective Well-Being: A General Overview," *South African Journal of Psychology*, 39 (4), 391–406. <https://doi.org/10.1177/008124630903900402>
- and Micaela Chan (2011), "Happy People Live Longer: Subjective Well-Being Contributes to Health and Longevity," *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 3, 1–43. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2010.01045.x>

- , Ronald Inglehart and Louis Tay (2013), “Theory and Validity of Life Satisfaction Scales,” *Social Indicators Research*, 112, 497–527. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11205-012-0076-y>
- , Louis Tay and Shieghiro Oishi (2013), “Rising Income and the Subjective Well-Being of Nations,” *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 104 (2), 267–276. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030487>
- Douglas, Mary (1982), *In the Active Voice*. Londres, Routledge.
- and Baron Sherwood (2002), *The World of Goods: Towards an Anthropology of Consumption*. Londres: Routledge.
- Eid, Michael and Randy Larsen (2008), *The Science of Subjective Wellbeing*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Ekici, Ahmet and Mark Peterson (2009), “The Unique Relationship between Quality of Life and Consumer Trust for Market-Related Institutions among Financially-Constrained Consumers in a Developing Country,” *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 28 (1), 56–70. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.28.1.56>
- El Hedhli, Kamel, Jean C. Chebat and M. Joseph Sirgy (2013), “Shopping Well-Being at the Mall: Construct, Antecedents, and Consequences,” *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (7), 856–863. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.06.011>
- Farias, Valcir M. (2016), “Comportamento dos consumidores masculinos em um shopping center de Belo Horizonte,” *Revista Brasileira de Gestão e Inovação (Brazilian Journal of Management & Innovation)*, 3 (2), 51–65. <https://doi.org/10.18226/23190639.v3n2.03>
- Firat, A. Fuat and Nikhilesh Dholakia (2016), “From Consumer to Construer: Travels in Human Subjectivity,” *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 17 (3), 504–522. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469540515623605>.
- Francis, J.Jill, Marie Johnston, Clare Robertson, Liz Glidewell, Vikki Entwistle, Martin Eccles and Jeremy Grimshaw, J. M. (2010), “What is an Adequate Sample Size? Operationalising Data Saturation for Theory-Based Interview Studies,” *Psychology & Health*, 25 (10), 1229–1245. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870440903194015>
- Frisch, Michael, Michelle Clark, Steven Rouse, David Rudd, Jennifer Paweleck, Andrew Greenstone and David A. Kopplin (2005), “Predictive and Treatment Validity of Life Satisfaction and Quality of Life Inventory,” *Assessment*, 12, 66–78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191104268006>
- Fusch, Patricia and Lawrence Ness (2015), “Are we There yet? Data Saturation in Qualitative Research,” *The Qualitative Report*, 20 (9), 1408–1416. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2015.2281>

- Guest, Greg, Arwen Bunce and Laura Johnson (2006), "How Many Interviews are enough? An Experiment with Data Saturation and Variability," *Field Methods*, 18 (1), 59–82.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903>
- Gould, Stephen J., Franklin Houston and Jonel Mundt (1997), "Failing to Try to Consume: A Reversal of the Usual Consumer Research Perspective," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 211–216.
- Grzeskowiak, Stephan, Joseph Sirgy, Thomas Foscht and Bernhard Swoboda (2016), "Linking Retailing Experiences with Life Satisfaction: The Concept of Store–Type Congruity with Shopper's Identity," *International Journal of Retail Distribution Management*, 44 (2), 124–138.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJRDM-07-2014-0088>
- Hogg, Margaret K., Emma Banister and Christopher Stephenson (2009), "Mapping Symbolic (Anti)Consumption," *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (2), 148–159.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.022>
- Holbrook, Morris B. and Elizabeth Hirschman (1982), "The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9, 132– 140.
<https://doi.org/10.1086/208906>
- IBGE – INSTITUTO BRASILEIRO DE GEOGRAFIA E ESTATÍSTICA (2018), "Pesquisa de Orçamentos Familiares: 2018," (accessed July 20, 2020), [available at: <https://www.ibge.gov.br/estatisticas/sociais/populacao/24786-pesquisa-de-orcamentos-familiares-2.html?edicao=32323&t=o-que-e>]
- IBGE – INSTITUTO BRASILEIRO DE GEOGRAFIA E ESTATÍSTICA (2019), Síntese de Indicadores Sociais: Uma Análise das Condições de Vida da População Brasileira: 2019. Rio de Janeiro, (accessed August 10, 2020), [available at: <https://biblioteca.ibge.gov.br/index.php/biblioteca-%20catalogo?view=detalhes&id=2101678>]
- IBGE – INSTITUTO BRASILEIRO DE GEOGRAFIA E ESTATÍSTICA (2020), Aglomerados Subnormais 2019: Classificação Preliminar e Informações de Saúde Para o Enfrentamento à COVID–19, (accessed August 12, 2020), [available at: https://biblioteca.ibge.gov.br/visualizacao/livros/liv101717_notas_tecnicas.pdf]
- Iyer, Rajesh and James Muncy (2009), "Purpose and Object of Anti–Consumption," *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (2), 160–168.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.023>

- and ——— (2016), “Attitude toward Consumption and Subjective Well-Being,” *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, Spring: 48–67. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12079>
- Joy, Annamma, John Sherry, Alladi Venkatesh, Jeff Wang and Ricky Chan (2012), “Fast Fashion, Sustainability, and the Ethical Appeal of Luxury Brands,” *Fashion Theory*, 16 (3), 273–295. <https://doi.org/10.2752/175174112X13340749707123>
- Kahneman, Daniel (1999), Objective Happiness. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The Foundations of Hedonic Psychology*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation. 3–25.
- Kashdan, Todd B., Robert Biswas-Diener and Laura King (2008), “Reconsidering Happiness: The Costs of Distinguishing between Hedonics and Eudaimonia,” *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 3 (4), 219–233. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760802303044>
- Khandwalla, Pradip N. (2017), “Globalization Tumult and Civilizational Greatness,” *Markets, Globalization & Development Review*, 2 (3). <https://doi.org/10.23860/MGDR-2017-02-03-05>
- Kilbourne, William, Pierre McDonagh and Andrea Prothero (1997), “Sustainable Consumption and the Quality of Life: A Macromarketing Challenge to the Dominant Social Paradigm,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 17 (1), 4–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/027614679701700103>
- Kotler, Philip and Sidney Levy (1969), “Broadening the Concept of Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing*, 33, 10–15. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1248740>
- Kuykendall, Lauren, Louis Tay and Vincent Ng (2015), “Leisure Engagement and Subjective Well-Being: A Meta-Analysis,” *Psychological Bulletin*, 141 (2), 364–403. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038508>
- Layton, Roger A. (2007), “Marketing Systems: A Core Macromarketing Concept,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27 (3), 227–242. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146707302836>
- (2009), “On Economic Grow Marketing Systems, and Quality of Life,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 29 (4), 349–362. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146709345108>
- (2011), “Towards a Theory of Marketing Systems,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 45 (1/2), 259–276. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561111095694>
- (2014), “Formation, Growth, and Adaptive Change in Marketing Systems,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 35 (3), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146714550314>
- Lee, M. S. W. and Fernandez, K. V. (2006), “Anti-Consumption: Rejecting, Refusing, and Resisting the Market,” *Advances in Consumer Research*, 73–76. available at: [

- <https://www.acrwebsite.org/assets/PDFs/Proceedings/APACRVol7.pdf>] (accesses September 11, 2019)
- , Karen Fernandez and Michael Hyman (2009), “Anti-Consumption: An Overview and Research Agenda,” *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (2), 145–147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.021>
- Llanes, Guillermo D. (2001), “El Bienestar Subjetivo: Actualidad y Perspectivas,” *Revista Cubana de Medicina General Integral*, 17 (6), 572–579.
- Lyubomirsky, Sonya, Laura King and Ed Diener (2005), “The Benefits of Frequent Positive Affect: Does Happiness Lead to Success?” *Psychological Bulletin*, 131 (6), 803–855. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.6.803>
- Malhotra, Naresh K. (2006), “Consumer Well-Being and Quality of Life: An Assessment and Directions for Future Research,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 26 (1), 77–80. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146705285970>
- McCracken, Grant (1986), “Culture and Consumption: A Theoretical Account of the Structure and Movement of the Cultural Meaning of Consumer Goods,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13 (1), 71-84. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209048>
- (1988), *Culture and Consumption: New Approaches to the Symbolic Character of Consumer Goods and Activities*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- McDonald, Seonaidh, Caroline Oates, William Young and Kumju Hwang (2006), “Toward Sustainable Consumption: Researching Voluntary Simplifiers,” *Psychology & Marketing*, 23 (6), 515–534. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20132>
- Miller, Daniel (2001), *Material Cultures Why Some Things Matter*. UCL Press, London.
- Mittelstaedt, John, William Kilbourne and Clifford Shultz (2015), “Macromarketing Approaches to Thought Development in Positive Marketing: Two Perspectives on a Research Agenda for Positive Marketing Scholars,” *Journal of Business Research*, 68 (12), 2513–2516. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.06.038>
- Moore, Andrew and Roger Crisp (1996), “Welfarism in Moral Theory,” *Australasian Journal of Philosophy*, 74, 598–613. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00048409612347551>
- Moskowitz, Debbies and Stephane Côté (1995), “Do Interpersonal Traits Predict Affect? A Comparison of Three Models,” *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69, 915-24. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.5.915>
- Myers, David G. (1992), *The Pursuit of Happiness: Who is Happy and Why?* William Morrow, New York.

- Nason, Roger (1989), "The Social Consequences of Marketing: Macromarketing and Public Policy," *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 8, 242–251. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074391568900800116>
- OECD (2018), "Relatórios Econômicos Brasil," OECD, (accessed August 12, 2020), [available at: /economy/surveys/Brazil–2018–OECD–economic–survey–overview–Portuguese.pdf]
- O'Reilly, Michelle and Nicola Parker (2012), "Unsatisfactory Saturation: A Critical Exploration of the Notion of Saturated Sample Sizes in Qualitative Research," *Qualitative Research Journal*, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112446106>
- Ozdamar–Ertekin, Zeynep and Deniz Atik (2014), "Sustainable Markets," *Journal of Macromarketing*, 35 (1), 53–69. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146714535932>
- Pancer, Ethan and Jay Handelman (2012), "The Evolution of Consumer Well–Being," *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing*, 4 (1), 177–189. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17557501211195118>
- Peterson, Mark and Ahmet Ekici (2007), "Consumer Attitude toward Marketing and Subjective Quality of Life in the Context of a Developing Country," *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27 (4), 350–359. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146707307125>
- , ——— and David Hunt (2010), "How the Poor in a Developing Country View Business' Contribution to Quality–of–Life 5 years after a National Economic Crisis," *Journal of Business Research*, 63, 548–558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.06.002>
- Petrescu, Maria and Aycan Kara (2018), "Consumer Aspirations and Subjective Well–Being," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2018.1459219>
- Phillips, C. (1941), "A Critical Analysis of Recent Literature Dealing with Marketing Efficiency," *Journal of Marketing*, <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224294100500404>.
- Plant, Raymond (1991). *Modern Political Thought*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Rocha, Everardo (2002), "Cenas do Consumo: Notas, Idéias, Reflexões," *Revista Semear*, nº 6.
- (2005), "Culpa e Prazer: Imagens Do Consumo Na Cultura De Massa– Comunicação, Mídia e Consumo," 2, (3), São Paulo, 123–138.
- Rojas, Mariano (2018), "Happiness in Latin America Has Social Foundations 115–145," in *World Happiness Report 2018*.
- Sahlins, Marshall (1979), *Cultura e Razão Prática*. Rio de Janeiro: Zahar.

- Scanlon, Thomas (1998), "The Status of Well-Being," In: Peterson, G.B. (Ed.), *The Tanner Lectures on Human Values*, 19, The University of Utah Press, Salt Lake City, 91–143.
- Schimmack, Ulrich (2007), "Methodological Issues in the Assessment of the Affective Component of Subjective Well-Being," In A. Ong & M. H. M. van Dulmen (Eds.), *Handbook of Methods in Positive Psychology*, New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 96–110.
- Schwartz, Shalom H. (1992), "Universals in the Content and Structure of Values: Theoretical Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries," In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 1–65. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60281-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60281-6)
- Seligman, Martin and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (2000), "Positive Psychology," *American Psychologist*, 55, 5–14. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.5>
- Shaban Yosra and Noha El-Bassiouny (2014), "The Multi-Facets of Sustainable Consumption, Anti-Consumption, Emotional Attachment and Consumer Well-Being: The Case of the Egyptian Food Industry," In: *International Centre for Anti-Consumption Research (ICAR)*, Anais. Kiel, Germany, July 4–5.
- Sharma, Eesha and Adam Alter (2012), "Financial Deprivation Prompts Consumers to Seek Scarce Goods," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39, 545–62. <https://doi.org/10.1086/664038>
- Shaw, Deirdre and Terry Newholm, T. (2002), "Voluntary Simplicity and the Ethics of Consumption," *Psychology & Marketing*, 19 (2), 167–185. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.10008>
- Sheth, Jagdish and Rajendra Sisodia (2005), "A Dangerous Divergence: Marketing and Society," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 24 (1), 160–162. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.24.1.160.63896>
- Shifa, Muna and Murray Leibbrandt (2017), "Relative Economic Position and Subjective Well-Being in a Poor Society: Does Relative Position Indicator Matter?" *Social Indicators Research*, 139, 611–630. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-017-1739-5>
- Sirgy, Joseph, Don Rahtz, Muris Cicic and Robert Underwood (2000), "A Method for Assessing Residents' Satisfaction with Community-Based Services: A Quality-of-Life Perspective," *Social Indicators Research*, 49, 279–316. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006990718673>.
- and Terri Cornwell (2001), "Further Validation of the Sirgy et al.'s Measure of Community Quality of Life," *Social Indicators Research*, 56 (12), 5–143. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1012254826324>

- and ——— (2002), “How Neighborhood Features Affect Quality of Life,” *Social Indicators Research*, 59 (1), 79–102. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016021108513>
- , Don-Jin Lee and Don Rahtz (2007), “Research on Consumer Well-Being (CWB): Overview of the Field and Introduction to the Special Issue,” *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27 (4), 341–349. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146707307212>
- Spiro, Rosann L. (1983), “Persuasion in Family Decision-Making,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9 (4), 393–402. <https://doi.org/10.1086/208933>
- Tay, Louis, Mike Morrison and Ed Diener (2014), “Living Among the Affluent,” *Psychological Science*, 25 (6), 1235–1241. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797614525786>
- Transparency International (2020), “Corruption Perceptions Index,” *Transparency*, (accessed February 20, 2021), [available at: <https://www.transparency.org/en/cpi/2020/index/bra>]
- Veblen, Thorstein Bunde. (1965), *A Teoria da Classe Ociosa*. São Paulo: Pioneira, 181.
- Veenhoven, Ruut (1988), “The Utility of Happiness,” *Social Indicators Research*, 20, 333–354. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00302332>
- Vrbka, Susan J. and Raedene Combs (1993), “Predictors of Neighborhood and Community Satisfactions in Rural Communities,” *Housing and Society*, 20 (1), 41–49. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08882746.1993.11430153>
- Yurdakul, Dicle., Deniz Atik and Nihilesh Dholakia, N. (2017), “Redefining the Bottom of the Pyramid from a Marketing Perspective,” *Marketing Theory*, 17 (3), 289–303. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1470593117704265>
- Walker, Janiece L. (2012), “The Use of Saturation in Qualitative Research,” *Canadian Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing*, 22 (2), 37–46.
- Wilkie, William and Elizabeth Moore (1999), “Marketing's Contributions to Society,” *Journal of Marketing*, 198–218. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00222429990634s118>
- Whorton, Joseph W. and Allen Moore (1984), “Summative Scales for Measuring Community Satisfaction,” *Social Indicators Research*, 15, 297–307. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00668676>
- World Bank (2020), “Distribution of Income or Consumption,” *World Bank*, (accessed January 21, 2021), [available at: <http://wdi.worldbank.org/table>]