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EXPLORATION OF
NONUSE

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ABSTRACT

The purchase and its consequences have been widely studied in consumer behavior. However, these studies assume that purchased products and services will be used somehow, disregarding the possibility of non-use. Non-use, which may happen due to a consumer tendency to materialism, understood as the desire to have or possess, occurs when a person purchases a good planning to use it, but it does not happen. This paper presents an initial approach on the non-use, approached through an exploratory study conducted with eight women self-declared makeups compulsive buyers. Results associated non-use with the desire to have, compulsion behaviors and a tendency to materialism.

Keywords: non-use, materialism, desire to have, purchase, makeup, compulsive behavior.

RESUMO

A compra e suas consequências têm sido amplamente estudadas em comportamento do consumidor. As pesquisas, no entanto, partem do pressuposto que coisas compradas serão usadas, desconsiderando a possibilidade do não uso. Esse comportamento, que pode ocorrer em função de uma tendência do consumidor ao materialismo, compreendido como a vontade de ter ou de possuir um bem, ocorre quando se compra um bem planejando utilizá-lo, mas isso não acontece. Este artigo apresenta uma abordagem inicial sobre o não uso, trazida através de uma pesquisa exploratória, realizada com oito mulheres autodeclaradas compradoras compulsivas de maquiagens. Os resultados indicam que a não uso pode estar associado à vontade de ter, a compulsão e a uma tendência ao materialismo.

Palavras-chave: não uso, materialism, desejo, vontade de ter, compra, maquiagem, comportamento compulsive.

1 – INTRODUCTION

Purchasing a product that ends up being non-used seems a common issue in our daily lives. Possibly most people have already purchased something not used or used less than planned. Buy and consume do not seem to be a fact typical of contemporary society, which is characterized by excessive consumption (SLATER, 2002). The understanding of the possible reasons for non-use can contribute to the advancement in science, for a better understanding of consumer behavior and to promote more effective communication. The phenomenon of non-use has been poorly studied in consumer behavior, which has historically focused its research on questions about how and why people buy. Purchasing decision models consider that purchased products will be used, leaving a gap still unfilled about different kinds of uses. In practice anything purchased might not be used. To begin understanding possible meanings of non-use we conduct an exploratory research with eight Brazilian women aged between 19 and 22 years, frequent purchasers of makeup.

This product category was chosen for its association with hedonism. Selected buyers called themselves compulsive buyers, who buy too much and therefore have many makeup products. In-depth interviews were conducted at buyers' home, when video and photos were taken of the environment in which the products were stored and consumed. We also used life history, projective techniques and participant observation combined with interviews and diary field writing during the field. Data were analyzed using discourse analysis and presented as categories defined *a posteriori*. The results indicate that the purchase and use are different aspects of the same phenomenon and should not be treated as synonyms. Also indicate that ownership of the goods purchased (have) and shopping experience (be) are most valued than the consumption of makeup. For the interviewees, to have surpassed the urge to use.

2 – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Possessing an object that is not used can be related to some personal characteristic related to possession or to materialism. Belk (1988, p.139) points that "we cannot hope to understand consumer behavior without first gaining some understanding of the meanings that consumers attach to possessions". In that sense, understand what a possession that is not used means is the same as define "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions" (BELK, 1984, p. 291) and "the importance a person

places on possessions and their acquisition as a necessary or desirable form of conduct to reach desired end states, including happiness" (RICHINS and DAWSON, 1992, p. 307). Both of these definitions are materialism definitions.

Materialism has long been of interest to consumer researchers (CHAPLIN and JOHN, 2007; BELK 1985; RICHINS and DAWSON 1992; CZIKSZENTMIHALYI and ROCHBERG-HALTON, 1981) and according to Mick (1996) is a value representing the individual's orientation toward the role of possessions in life that serve to guide the type and quantities of goods purchased. Richins and Dawson (1992) had proposed a scale to measure the material values that represent materialism. They show that materialism is related to centrality, happiness (the role of acquisition in the pursuit of it) and success (to the role of possessions in defining it). Materialism is also associated with affection for material needs and wants (RICHINS and DAWSONS, 1992); possessiveness (BELK, 1984); a pursuit of the "good life" rich in material possessions (BELK and POLLAY 1985) and as involving consumption of tangible objects (MCKEAGE et al., 1993). Moreover, materialism is also critical associated to the excessive pursuit of status through possessions (BELK, 1983), feelings of envy and disregard the other (BELK, 1984), self-centeredness or selfishness (BELK, 1985), and with an excessive possessiveness, insecurity, and lack of principles moral values (SANTOS and FERNANDES, 2011). To Mick (1996) consumption downside is associated, among other things, with materialism and compulsive buying which is also pointed out by O'Guinn and Faber (1980) and Dittmar (1992, 2000).

The reasons why consumers do not use the good purchased seem to be diverse, but it can be assumed a priori that materialism, impulsivity and compulsion are non-use stimulators, since they are types of unplanned purchases, in which there is a momentary absence or loss of the control, resulting in excessive purchases (FABER and O'GUINN, 1992; DITTMAR, 2000, BAUMEISTER, 2002). In addition, Belk (1991) argues that consumption habits of materialistic individuals cause greater regret and dissatisfaction post-purchase, as also pointed out by Faber and O'Guinn (1992) in relation to compulsive buying.

The impulse buying is an unplanned action stimulated by the occasion and is characterized by a sudden desire to buy (BAUMEISTER, 2002). Items are bought spontaneously and not premeditated, swiftly and without needs assessment. According to Rook (1987), this kind of purchase happens when one experiences an emergency, usually strong and persistent, to buy something immediately, without much concern for the consequences. The compulsive consumption is defined as obsessive and uncontrolled, often in excessive amounts may cause harm to the consumer or others (DITTMAR, 2000). O'Guin and Faber (1989, p.149) define compulsive shopping as "

repetitive buying, chronic, which occurs in response to negative events or feelings". These authors point out that addictive behaviors, compulsive, excessive, habitual, abusive and accumulators, as well as impulse control disorders share common elements with the compulsive consumption.

Johnson and Attmann (2009) differentiate impulsive and compulsive buying, which are mistaken with each other, but cannot be defined as synonyms. Impulse buying is driven by an external trigger, such as exposure of the product in the store, the store environment, price, settlement, etc. Compulsive buying, in turn, is driven by an internal trigger such as stress or anxiety. Buy and spending are ways to escape or relieve these feelings. For the authors, compulsive buyers tend to be women, who begin to behave compulsively between 18 and 19 years, and perceived purchase as related to social status. Often they buy clothes as well as products to manage the appearance, such as jewelry, shoes and cosmetics (O'GUINN and FABER, 1989; D'ASTOUS et al., 1990), and in Brazil compulsive consumption seems to achieve more intensity individuals aged between 14 and 25 years (VELUDO-DE-OLIVEIRA, IKEDA and SANTOS, 2004).

Over the past twenty-five years, consumer research literature has paid significant attention to understanding both what materialism is (BELK, 1985; RICHINS and DAWSON, 1992) and how a focus on objects influences individuals' lives and society as a whole (BELK 1985; SIRGY, 1998). Thus, materialists place possessions and their acquisitions at the center of their lives and one reason for this importance is that they view these as essential to satisfaction and well-being in life (RICHINS and DAWSON, 1992; BELK, 1984). In other words, to materialists to have things is a step for happiness (KLEINE, KLEINE III and ALLEN, 1995).

The literature suggests that we are what we have, since our material possessions are viewed as major parts of our extended selves (BELK, 1988; DITTMAR, 1992; SARTRE, 2005, WATTANASUWAN, 2005). Material objects embody a system of meanings, through which we express ourselves and communicate with others (DITTMAR 1992; DOUGLAS and ISHERWOOD, 2004; MILLER, 2001; MCCRACKEN, 2003). Possession is associated by Belk (1982) with the desire to have. To the author the strongest evidence that the desire for things is universal comes from the reports of ancient times, when the dead were buried with their possessions and had designs adorning houses and palaces indicating the relevance of ownership. He points out that the variety of things that we can call our grown incredibly and now includes feelings, personal characteristics and ideas, experiences and knowledge, tangible symbols themselves and even others.

Belk (1988) further examines the intimate relationship between 'having and 'being' by approaching possessions as the extended self. The author states that objects become important part of people's lives just because they carry the meanings assigned to them. Goods would be able to express the interests and tastes of their owners, i.e., yourself. The literature frequently conjures up the work of Sartre (1956) and Fromm (1987), by describing a moral ranking where the concepts of having, doing, and being are an ordered hierarchy (BELK, 1985; SIRGY, 1998; VAN BOVEN, 2005). Sartre (2005) maintains that 'being' and 'having' are intimately intertwined. Ontologically, without 'having', 'being' cannot be realized. He asserts, "the bond of possession is an internal bond of being" (SARTRE, 2005 p. 588). Basically, Sartre states that we come to know who we are through what we possess. We acquire, create, sustain and present a sense of existential self by observing our possessions.

Fromm (1987, p.36) refers to the existence of two distinct modes of experience: mode have (possession, material knowledge) and mode be (that they did not "have anything besides the employment of colleges productively happy "not even looking to have something). In today's culture, where the "haves" has become the main goal: "one gets the impression that the very essence of being is to have: that if someone does not, it is not" (SARTRE, 2005, p. 35). In this way the relationship with the world is belonging and possession, in which the individual wants everything and everyone (including himself) is his property. According to the author the "modern consumers can identify with the following formula: = I am what I have and what I consume" (FROMM, 1987, p. 45).

The notion of 'to have is to be' is also affirmed by Belk (1988) and Dittmar (1992). Exploring the formula proposed by Fromm (1987), Dittmar (1992) elaborates that possessions have socially constituted meanings. For her material objects have a symbolic dimension that plays an important role for the owner's identity. This suggests that possessions are help to construct ourselves and others. Fromm (1987) went further assuming that living without having or consuming is virtually impossible. He points the ambiguous qualities of having and consuming, that relieve anxiety and at the same time and require increase in having and consuming. The previously performed consumption quickly loses its satisfaction property or takes your "displaced meaning", as proposed by McCracken (2003).

According to McCracken (2003) not all goods must be used to transfer meaning to buyers. According to him people can apply the strategy of displaced meaning, an expedient that tries to fill the gap between real and ideal social life. The good allows individuals to participate in the meaning and even take possession of it without having to use it. In this sense is possible to possess it without tear down his strategic value since

the good operates as a bridge to an idealized moment/space, aiding in the recovery of meaning without ever realizing the ideal.

The purchase would function as the reach of a part of a much larger package, being the items chosen for individuals to take ownership of a small concrete part of the lifestyle they aspire. They serve as evidence of this lifestyle, without disrupting the idealization over it, since what are buying is not "the whole bridge, but a small part of it" (MCCRACKEN, 2003, p.144). The purchase simply evokes the aspirated ideal moment by who is aware that when purchase receive a small portion of the meaning unglued.

However, when the purchase evokes the displaced ideal the individual begins to discredit its anticipatory ability of this particular good and part to the acquisition of another item, transferring to this not possessed the meaning imagined. To solve this problem, the author suggests that one can purchase again or avoid using the product, saving it or hiding it. The greatest difficulty in this process is to realized that the acquired "bridge" does not lead to the dreamed path. By placing the asset in use, confronting it with the reality, the owner is in danger to lose their ideals. The feeling of no longer having an ideal can cause great suffering because there is no purpose in life. The desire for new goods, that build new bridges, can lead to compulsive consumption (MCCRACKEN, 2003).

According to Dittmar (2000, p.112) "when consumers buy on impulse and excessively, having the good is as important to them as the shopping experience". This statement agrees with Belk's (1982, 2001) proposition that acquisition and use are distinct activities. For this author most researchers agrees that consumer behavior involves consuming the acquisition, possession, use and disposal of things for individuals and groups. For Belk (1982, 2001) to purchase is only one of the possible ways to acquire objects and experiences, as to get a good or service is possible buy, find, create, make, lease, exchange, gain, rent, beg, borrow, or steal share.

The overwhelming majority of consumer research literature focuses on consumers perceiving, choosing, purchasing, and using objects (WEINBERGER e WALLENDORF, 2008). In those researches, purchase is always followed by use and by the premise that all consumers will use what is purchased. Hawkins et al. (2007) show that after purchased, a good might or might not be consumed, considering the non-use consequence of purchase. There are few studies that investigated the phenomenon of no use, and among the databases consulted only the study by Bower and Spratt (1995) was found specifically addressing the subject.

If the product has already been used, is considered both the quantity and the pattern of use of product prior to characterize it as non-use. In other words, the

discontinuity of use, followed by a long period of non-use is also considered as non-use. A product continuously used (even for a shorter period than expected) for an extended time may not be featured as non-use. It is implied that in order to define non-use is necessary consider that in the purchase moment the individual had the intent to consume the product, but for some reason did not (BOWER and SPOTT, 1995).

3 – METHODS

To investigate what takes eight women, aged between 19 and 22 years, buying makeup and not use it was realized an exploratory investigation introductory, in which consumption is understood as a sociocultural phenomenon, as proposed by Arnould and Thompson (2005). The results presented here are part of a larger study, and the interviews analyzed in this paper refer to the entry of the researcher in the field, in other words, are an initial examination of the no use phenomenon. In this first stage of exploratory research qualitative techniques were employed (BELK, 2006), with interpretive approach (JAPIASSU, 1992), to understand the significance of buying makeup, which use does not happen.

The interviews took place in the homes of young people selected and totaled 64 hours of audio recording, 86 photos and 15 pages of notes (field diary). The interviews were recorded on audio and video and lasted about 62 minutes. The transcripts of these conversations, which totaled 148 pages, with 12 font and single spacing, were used as a basis for data analysis.

The profiles choice of the respondents was inspired in the research realized by Casotti et. al. (2008). The study suggests that women deal with beauty differently, depending on their moment of life. The chosen group, called by the authors of "The Time is Now", consists of women between 17 and 25 years, who are in the beginning of adults life. This segment is characterized by preoccupation with the present, with the "now": are not worried yet about aging. Therefore use products with immediate result and the time devoted to the care of the beauty is the lowest among all other groups identified. In this group cosmetics are not yet included in their routines.

To recruit informants was made a statement in the classrooms of undergraduate courses in Advertising and Business of a private school located in the city of Rio de Janeiro. In this statement the students who considered themselves compulsive buyers of makeup, perfume or nail polish, or even had the feeling that possessed more products than needed, they were invited to sign up to participate in the research, providing their

personal data (age, gender, neighborhood , e-mail and phone). All stakeholders were female and for them were sent by e-mail a letter inviting to participate in interviews which should be conducted in their homes. From the accepted, was called to the candidates to arrange the best day and time to conduct the interview.

All recruited declared themselves compulsive and heavy users, as they claim to have many makeup products, be deep expert of marks and ways/strategies to use and serve as "consultants" on the subject to friends and family. Beyond opinion leaders, the selected girls said they were passionate for makeup, because they feel attracted to these objects, wanting to have lots of them and spend many hours of their days researching, using and thinking about them. These statements corroborate with the understanding of Belk et al (2003) about the passionate desire. According to these authors, the object of passion tends to be much less concrete and objective, being linked to instances of more abstract experience, despite being felt with carnal and visceral intensity (REALLI, 2011). The objects for which you are passionate, as they said the selected girls, have role guiding and defining of what will be the objects of desire (BELK et al., 2003).

For interviews was prepared a guide semi-structured of questions and topics to be observed. This guide conducted the interviews in the homes of the selected students and was divided into five moments. At first it was asked about consumer habits and profile of the respondents. Then was applied the technique of life history (BROWN et al., 2001), to understand how makeup products were gaining ground in their closets and in their lives. This technique, which consists in seeking knowledge from the experience of the subject, is indicated for reconstructing an experience lived in group and universal tendency (MARRE, 1991; MATOS, 2010).

The next moment the process of buying and consuming makeup was explored, trying to elucidate the planning and the elements predecessors of purchase, shopping experience, and the moments experienced after purchase. Then was realized a projective exercise (HAIRE, 1950) in which was presented the character Amanda, a young woman with a passion for makeup and that at some point had to move house and was obliged to dispose of part of their makeup products. A projective technique was chosen for this research to allow access to underlying issues, unstructured and sometimes unconscious consumer (BELK et al., 1997, 2003), as has been revealed the phenomenon of no use. The projection allows the obtaining of descriptions of how certain sensations are experienced (BELK et al., 1996).

The research followed an order: the interview was conducted in the living room, without the presence of the products and using the guide as a basis for the conversation. As soon as the interview comes to an end, the informant was asked to

show where the products were kept, how they were organized and what were the most used and not used. In this part photographs were taken of the room and products. During the interview the routine in the house of the interviewed was observed, as well as their relationship with other presents in the house (mom, brothers and employees). These observations, indicated by Burawoy (1998) as an essential part of the fieldwork, were also part of the data analyzed.

In the first interview, one can see the difficulty of recognizing no use. The discourse of interviewee indicated that all products were used; however most of them were not touched. When questioned about the products that did not use, she denied the fact. It was difficult to get to the subject no use, suggesting that it should change the structure of the interview. This was accomplished by inserting projective techniques, seeking to deflect the focus of the interviewee's behavior, encouraging her to think from a stimulus that incited a third person (Amanda's character in this case).

In the first interviews were approached the categories nail polishes, perfumes and makeup. After the third interview, the makeup revealed to be the product category in which the discourse of no use seemed freer and where the perception is tangible. The interviewees indicated easily that bought and did not use many products of this kind, which did not happen with nail polish and perfumes. From this observation it was decided to present the analysis of no use only for makeup.

4 – DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was made from the transcript of the interviews. Were used the notes derived from observations made in homes of the interviewees. The perception regarding the conduct of research and the structure of the guide was improved in each interview, so that an interview contributed to the improvement of the next, a process common in qualitative research (MOISANDER and VALTONEN, 2006). It was accomplished an analysis of categories based on the technique of Discourse Analysis (DA), which aims to understand the language of the informant considering their social context and ideologies. Unlike content analysis (BARDIN, 1970), DA understands that the researcher is an active agent in the search process and its activities involve the results obtained in the search. According to Rocha et al. (2005) discourse analysis puts the researcher in the field, seeing him as co-builder of the senses produced, which change according to the place where it is located and its own stance in certain situations. The DA moves away from the idea of neutrality of the researcher the rationality of the interviewed, which express in his voice the changes inherent in being

human. It is a technique that is closer to dialectical epistemology than to positivist Cartesian and therefore used in this study that has an interpretive nature, inspired by the approach of Consumer Culture Theory (ARNOULD and THOMPSON, 2005).

5 – RESULTS

Data obtained from observation, field diaries, photos, videos and speech of informants not only allowed the examination of the phenomenon of non-use, but the actual dynamics of the purchase and consumption of the interviewees. Data obtained from observation, field diaries, photos, videos and speech of informants not only allowed the examination of the phenomenon of non-use, but the actual dynamics of the purchase and consumption of the respondents. It makes sense then to understand the environment and the social context of the informants. The residences of the respondents, who lived with their parents, were generally comfortable and located in affluent neighborhoods, indicating that they belonged to the higher economic classes. Other indications of the high purchasing power is that they all talked about purchases made outside the country (especially in the United States and Europe) and had a maid, who was present in the house during the interview. All had a room of his own, always richly decorated, mixing motifs indicating the transition from adolescence to adulthood. Likewise, all had unique bathroom for personal use only and shared it with his sister. Two interviewees had a closet for the exclusive use, full of cosmetics and clothing items.

On visits home of respondents was always very clean and tidy such as the girls rooms. It was noticed that they had tidied their rooms awaiting the visit of the interviewers. This led us to see their products always organized and compounds, which can not be normal. The organization was also commented by the interviewees themselves, who commented that had been prepared to the interview. By showing the products during the visit to the room, they indicated that their makeup was not always so tidy, but they had been properly stowed for the interview.

The place where products were stored was well organized and it was common to see the boxes or cases for repackage them. This fact may have made the research scenario artificial, since the informants prepared themselves to interview, but it seems not dismiss the importance of the product category in their lives. Furthermore, the arrangement has highlighted products not used as they were organized according to strategies of use (most used, possibly used and unused). From the data collected were defined two categories of analysis, namely: (I) *"Who Saves (ever) Has"*; and (II) *"I buy 'cause I must have, don't 'cause I must use"*.

5.1 Who Saves (ever) Has

During the recruitment process the respondents called themselves compulsive buyers, which had the feeling of having more than wore makeup and were passionate about them. Such initial information has been confirmed, but an issue arose during analysis: how much is too much? During the recruitment process the respondents called themselves compulsive buyers, which had the feeling of having more than wore makeup and were passionate about them. Such initial information have been confirmed, but an issue arose during analysis: how much is too much? This category refers to the amount of products that had informants and meaning of these quantities. There were several speeches referring to quantity, and they were alternated between "I have a lot" and "there are people who have much more than I do." In home visits, when he looked at the number of items was noticed that the notion of quantity is completely relative. Whilefor some of them to have much was to have more than one item (as in Figure 2) to others having several identical items was normal (Figure 1). The pictures below illustrate this relativity.



Figure 1 – Ju's (21 years) makeups



Figure 1 – Jo's (21 years) makeups

The above photos help to understand this difficulty is to define how much is too much. By bringing together all the makeups Ju (Figure 1) you can see that for a 21 year old, she has a lot of items is too much. She justifies herself telling about people she knows that have even more products. The photos above help to understand this difficulty is to define how much is too much. By bringing together all the makeups Ju (Figure 1) you can see that for a 21 year old, she has a lot of items is too much. She justifies itself on telling people she knows and have even more products. Jo, also 21, joined a smaller amount of items in the picture (Figure 2), and during the interview indicated to have a lot more products than can use. How much is too much? How many items a person must have an object to feel you have enough? The interviewees seem to disagree about how much is too much and have different ways of talking about the amount of makeup they have.

Depending on the content and timing of the conversation appears a contradiction: one moment they may say they do not have much, suggesting a detachment to a category - potentially related to futility (KAPFERER and BASTIEN, 2012). At another point in the interview they seem to employ the discourse of "I do not have much" as a strategy to avoid regret to buy or the amount owned (HIRSCHMAN, 1992). Longer than that, the discourse of "I do not have so much" could be used to justify the compulsive buying. As O'Guin and Faber (1989) this behavior is typical of shoppers who use subterfuge to justify their excessive shopping.

Another speech used to attempt to escape the awareness about the quantity possessed is referring to other people. The self-image seems to be distorted in these moments, because it is always the other who has much. These distortions of self-image agree with Dittmar (2000), pointing to discrepancies in perception can lead to compulsive behaviors. They seem to try to avoid the anxiety front of the large amount of items owned (O'GUIN and FABER, 1989) and compare themselves to collectors and professionals in order to relativize the amount possessed, indicating that they have many items.

It is interesting to relate that one of the interviewees refers to herself as a normal person because she does not have excess products. Interesting that one of the interviewees refers to herself as a normal person, because it has excess products. When asked about the significance of having a lot interviewee responds using a character created for the projective technique, indicating that it has some kind of "disease" for having many items.

This may also indicate that the interviewee does not realize that she is compulsive shopper.

Perhaps they are indicating that the compulsion is understood as such only when the person loses control and is thereby linked to some kind of pathology, as indicated in the literature in O'Guin and Faber (1989) and Alamar and Glantz (2006). The loss of control is often indicated in the literature as an element of compulsion, besides the absence of reference on the quantity purchased (O'GUIN and FABER, 1989; ALAMAR and GLANTZ, 2006; HIRSCHMAN, 1992; DITTMAR, 2000). However data indicate that although respondents consider only the compulsive the uncontrolled buyers, they can be classified as such for their excessive or poorly controlled preoccupations, urges, or behaviors regarding shopping and spending and a greater materialistic orientation (FABER, 1992, 2004; BLACK, 2001).

At other moments, however, they may assume that having too much is "cool." The "I have a lot" speech may have been used as a form of self-assertion against the

research filter selection, which sought people who had many items of makeup. It also could be a bias of the study, since this discourse may be socially preferable (Mick, 1996), allowing them to demonstrate good taste and how knowledgeable and makeup lovers they are.

Even when they say they have a lot relativize the amount possessed, indicating that it depends on the beholder. Because they are experts, opinion makers and knowledgeable on the subject indicate that their possessions are still not enough. Aspects relating to compulsive behavior reappear in these speeches, as indicated Dittmar (2000). One girl said that her mother thinks she has much of a product, but as the mother is not an expert, his opinion cannot be considered. The excerpts from two interviews help illustrate the importance of the amount for these girls:

“My mom thinks I have a world of makeup, but makeup I know, I know there still lacks a lot.” (Tan, 20 years)

“Because I have many equal products, not equal to me, but it’s for my mom, who doesn’t understand. I have three different types of blushes, yet is little... isn’t to much, believe me.” (Ana, 19 years)

The speeches reveal a strong connection between girls and category: by suggesting that they have a wide variety of items they talk about the anxiety felt when they need to choose what to take for traveling, for example. The speeches reveal a strong connection between girls and category: by suggesting that they have a wide variety of items they talk about the anxiety felt when they need to choose what to take for traveling, for example. Jo (21 years) feels he will need all their products when away from home. This sense justifies the use kits or assembled in necessities bags, which are always taken with them. The amount of items stocked at home (not used), used (daily) and carried in the kit varies widely, indicating again that the notion of quantity is relative.

Kits are not only a strategy to carry items, but seem to be a way of reducing the amount of choices available, making it easier to use and the choice of which should be used. They seem to reduce the anxiety caused by the need to choose the right product given the quantity available. Interviewees report that the items that go in the necessities or in the makeup bag (kit) are most commonly used in everyday life. The size of the bag is designed to fit the kit. On parties days the kit should be reduced to fit in the bag. The opposite is true and it is possible to change purse (pick up a larger), for the kit fits.

What is the relationship between "a lot" and "use"? The a lot stimulates non use? The result is a lot non-use? The usage seems to be non necessarily linked to possession of a large quantity of items. We observed that interviewees idealize or justify that one day will use the stored products. However, the large amount can encourage non use, because it seems to be virtually impossible to use so many products continuously purchased. The spaces observed and photographed (Figure 3) reveal the tactics created: Products stored or "hidden" at the bottom of the cabinets, boxed products, nécessaires, bags.



Figure 3 – Non-use tactics

The arrows indicate that unused products are stored out of sight, revealing the artifice created to "forget them." They seem to rely on the popular saying that "what is not seen, is not remembered." The products most used and unused are separated and stored in different places. A product purchased and not used can incite feelings of guilt or regret and in order to avoid them they "hide" their products inside cabinets, boxes and cases. Unlike a traditional user experience, possession of exaggerated makeup, a category with connotations frivolous and superficial, must be forgotten in the closet, hidden so that it is denounced non-use. This "forgetfulness" refers to the displacement of meaning suggested by McCracken (2003). The unused products are not discarded because they can be bridges that carry an idealized self. Inventories also seem to serve as a guarantee that there will be no lack.

5.2 "I buy 'cause I must have, don't 'cause I must use"

The discourse of the interviewees indicated that the purchase cannot be linked to the use, as was assumed in theoretical framework. The interviews reveal that the purchase can be a pleasure itself and "to have" makeup can be more important than its use. This result is consistent with the arguments of Saren (2007), Shankar (2002) and Pacheco et al (2010), which indicate the possession of goods and materialism as the main aspect of forming identity and fundamental question of people's lives. The good possession, even if it's not used, seems to support Fromm's theory (1987) about the

importance of having. As the author points out, the respondents indicated that having the makeup is more important than using it. Having transmits security and identity structure. The initial idea of the study was that the use of makeup, with all the positive associations with beauty, would be the moment of greatest satisfaction and pleasure. It has been modified with the reports that spoke of the delight in moments of purchase and the charm of "have" as suggested by Bia (19 years).

"I don't buy makeup 'cause I need. I buy 'cause I want to have it."

However, unlike other hedonic products, wherein the purchase could be an assay for the use (CAMPBELL, 2005; HIRSCHMAN; HOLBROOK, 1982) for makeup it does not seem to occur. When they purchase, they doesn't imagine the use, as they do for other products. In makeup what seems to matters is to have, as indicated by Fromm (1987) and Tan reveals 21 years:

"I don't imagine myself [using it]. When I bought clothe I can imagine. Makeup you buy because you must have".

The purchase is not linked to the need and rational utilitarian (HIRSCHMAN and HOLBROOK, 1982) to need something (Belk et al, 2003), but the feeling that the possession of that item will give access to new idealized selves (DITTMAR, 2000; AHUVIA , 2005). The needs are minimized and pleasure with ownership is what stands out. Furthermore, the purchase allows the creation of stocks that seem to function as a guarantee of future fantasized (BELK et al., 2003), where I can be perfect (MCCRACKEN, 2003).

The purchase is seen by interviewees as a ritual, as suggested by Miller (2002) and Campbell (2005). It seems more hedonic than utilitarian (HIRSCHMAN and HOLBROOK, 1982), because the buyers seek experience at the time the purchase occurs, as pointed out by Dittmar (2000) to refer to people who buy in excess. Girls show the importance of the point of sale (POS) in this process, reporting is enchanted with large stores with wide variety of products, because these sites it is possible to learn new stuff, try and compare. They also emphasize the importance of giveaways, promotions, vendors and demonstrators, who guide the purchase and use. The branded stores and specialized pharmacies are valued at status that ownership of the product and brings the shopping experience. As suggested by Johnson and Attmann (2009), they recognize that many brands use the POS as a way to encourage impulsivity and compulsion.

Purchases made abroad are the most desirable. Interviewees tell trips that are waiting outside Brazil to buy sophisticated products and famous brands. For them shopping and imported products are better besides being cheaper and there is more variety. Highlight particularly disappointed with the Brazilian pharmacies by inadequate exposure of products and the impossibility of experimentation. They feel that it is almost "ugly" experience products in Brazil, both in pharmacies and in specialty shops, which makes them to prefer the foreign stores that may rely on the guidance of promoters and demonstrators.

In Brazil they restrict their purchases the cheaper national brands or traditional, like Avon, Maybelline, Natura and Apothecary. These marks are considered second-tier in terms of quality and, above all, status marks are used to "save" the more expensive products and to give an effect similar to the luxury brands. The interviewees seem to use cheaper brands to make an average ticket: in the end the lot has a relatively low unit price, as had been pointed out by Casotti et al. (2008). Despite having several products, confess that end up using them. This strategy may indicate a "savings" of more expensive products or a difficulty in adding new products to the routine. The purchase also not connected to the end product, but the opportunity to purchase and access.

As suggested by Bower and Sprott (1995), products are purchased with the intention of being consumed, but impulsivity and compulsion seem to interfere with the ability to evaluate their usability (DITTMAR, 2000). On the other hand, it may be necessary consider that the respondents are young, inexperienced with the category, that is, they are getting to know and test their limits and hone your tastes. The need to incorporate this product into the routine can also lead to non-use. It is as if they had not yet learned to organize their daily routines in order to fit the ritual of makeup, which was not incorporated. The young age and inexperience makes them are still discovering this new world of possibilities, creating its identity.

The use requires rituals, protocols, ceremonies for which the interviewees are not always prepared or motivated. Although some have spoken of feeling that could use better their stuff, is the shopping experience that requires nothing but time and attention, the moment described in greater source of pleasure. The information search and evaluation of alternatives are also valued stages of the buying process, while the use seems to require sacrifices that often do not fit into their schedules. However, the impulsivity is evident in the purchase, because makeups are purchased in occasional, spontaneously stimuli and without unpremeditated assessment of need (ROOK, 1987), as stated by Dani, 21 years:

"I not even think "I'll not use". I shop at that time and did not use."

Generally, the have and not use appears to be linked to compulsion, desire and displacement of meaning (McCracken, 2003) of the makeup category for this group of passionate consumers. The purchase is continuous like they were creating a sort of saving for the future, because products are purchased to be used one day. The use appears non as a result of compulsive and impulsive buying, but also of what Fromm (1987) calls a mode of existence "have". The possession, having or owning a makeup is much more important to respondents than the use of the product. Some products are also purchased by status because it is socially acceptable (MICK, 1996) say that if have.

6- DISCUSSION

Consumption was successively studied as a synonym for the purchase and production. Consumption is the process by which goods and services are created, purchased and used (MCCRACKEN, 2003). But when what is purchased is not consumed? Who has not bought a beloved food, kept in the cupboard or in the refrigerator and after a while was forced to throw it in the trash because it was expired or spoiled? Moreover, who never opened her wardrobe and encountered clothing never used, or used only once? It is possible that most consumers have experienced this feeling poorly studied in consumer behavior. Experiences like these are examples of non-use.

A central question for the study of non-use seems to be the understanding that purchase and consumption are different aspects of the same phenomenon - or system, as suggested by McCracken (2003). More than distinct aspects, the purchase and use cannot be approached from a causal relationship. It is not necessary that there be chaining between them, since neither all that is bought is actually consumed (BOWER and SPROUT, 1995). Assume that all goods purchased will be used is to waste the opportunity to understand common and an important aspect of consumer behavior.

Thus, this research agrees with Belk (1982, 2001) point out that to buy is a form of acquisition. This acquisition may, in turn, have different goals, namely possession, use, collection, donation, to share etc. This comprehension clarifies that in the micro level purchase can be understood as containing steps like search for information, evaluate alternatives, choose the product at point of sale and pay for it (SHETH et al., 2001). These activities are distinct from use, and can even be performed by different people. Consumption, in turn, is the act of using and owning the goods purchased

(BELK, 2001). It is an action linked to emotions and desires and creates meaning for one who consumes (CAMPBELL, 2001).

The purchase appears to be a gimmick used especially in creating a future dream. As stated by McCracken (2003) consumer goods create bridges that give access to this future. The author asserts that goods have the power to evoke the future and the commodity bought can be seen by those who have them as a part of the bridge to the future: they are the beginning of the path that is suggested by the interviewees. They say repeatedly that the purchase serves as an anticipation of the future and therefore the products need not be used immediately after purchase at the moment, because is part of a plan even greater future acquisitions.

From the time the asset is acquired it goes into another category, to product that will help to build this future and stop being (himself) idealized. The next purchase then seems to gain more strength, thereby fueling the virtue of "have". At the instant the purchase is made the interviewees transfer their dreams to other possessions thus suggesting that it is not the use, but buying, having and being their main motivators. Acquiring the makeup is a tactic for a full life, wealthy and happy (MCCRACKEN, 2003). The use, in turn, requires the adaptation to new routines and habits, whereby the respondents did not seem attracted, as in the case of several brushes and accessories store and do not.

The study indicates that the non-use can be related with the idea of a future self, defended by Ahuvia (2005) and that the respondents who reported their possessions unused demonstrate compulsion for buying makeup, since many products owned does not allow them all to be used. Compulsive buying is not only stimulated by brands, by fashion, by salespeople trained by promotions or the shops with their attractive exhibitions in the world "culturally constituted" (MCCRACKEN, 2003). Reports suggest a sense of security brought by the act of "owning" those beautiful and colorful packaging.

The safety of "have" is therefore important contributions by the media, industry and retailers. The interviewees indicate, for example, that for products like cosmetics sale need advice, with guidance from vendors and demonstrators showing the portfolio companies. Points of sale confused and with little variety of brands are perceived, and the respondents indicate a preference for large environments with many choices of brands and products. The compulsive consumers interviewed suggest that retailers should offer more experience with the products because are few environments where experimentation is possible, which could anticipate the feeling of security caused by possession. This exploratory study shows that attitudes and opinions of consumers compulsive, passionate and heavy users by category, can help industry to improve the

experience of buying and using the product. These devices can be used as a way to improve the usability of products sold.

Studies of non-use still need to move and explore the difference between non-use, possession and collection as well as the possible consumer fetish for "have". It is necessary to understand how unused objects contribute to the creation of the identity of consumers. This study investigated only one category of goods and it would be advisable to understand how the non-use extends to other types of products such as, for example, clothing or for services. Certainly more comprehensive studies can contribute to a better understanding of this behavior and its impact for the purchase and consumption.

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