CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review was carried out by keeping the relationship between life style factors and social capital in focus. The literatures pertaining to lifestyle factors and social capital were addressed separately in the initial part of the review and the literatures concerning with the relationship between these variables were reviewed to the end of this part.

2.2 LIFESTYLE FACTORS

Cultural values and life-styles are important implications for marketing strategy decisions. An important characteristic of values and life-styles is that they are derived from and personalized through social and cultural learning and identify consumer demographics (i.e. age, occupation), as the personal factors influencing consumer behavior (Suwanvijith & Promsa, 2009). As such, life-style schemes aim at classifying consumers into identifiable market segments with specific life-style patterns, on the basis of numerous scales assessing AIO’s (Activities, Interest, and Opinions) and VAL’s (Values, Attitudes, and Life-styles) of consumer groups. Consumer life-style analysis provides a greater understanding of consumers’ buying and consumption behaviors. That is, who buys what products? One can influence their purchasing and consumption differences by appealing to their life-style orientations, wants, and needs. For instance, consumers who are primarily motivated by achievement look for products and services that demonstrate
success to their peers. Studying consumer life-styles is a unique way of finding out buyer behavior differences and similarities and prevailing market segments. Companies can also take decisions on which are as standardized marketing strategies should be used and in which areas localized types of marketing strategies should be used by companies.

Fashion leadership orientation had a positive effect on shopping frequency at all locations. Consumers who are interested in fashion, feel confident about their shopping ability, and like to try different brands and stores are more likely to shop (Yan & Eckman, 2008). Studying consumer life-styles is a unique way of finding out buyer behavior differences and similarities and prevailing market segments. Organizations can also take decisions on which areas standardized marketing strategies should be used and in which areas localized types of marketing strategies should be used by companies. (Harcar & Kaynak, 2007). Number of factors are to be considered for improving the shopping facility in lifestyle malls because customers view it as a blend of its constituent factors. Study revels that ambience, physical infrastructure, marketing focus, convenience and safety and security as its constituents. Results also indicate that shopping experience cannot be improved as an afterthought because many decisions regarding these factors are to be taken at planning/design stage. World-class shopping experience demands coherent efforts by research, design, planning, commercial, marketing and management teams. ambience and convenience to shoppers are the most important factors. Clearly, there is a need for serious rethinking on part of mall managers if they aim at improving shopping experience in malls. Shopper’s definition of factors is lot different from what managers perceive. For instance, people generally associate ambience with music, air-conditioning, music and fragrance whereas functions like hygiene are considered routine. Maintaining hygiene is supposed to be a normal activity under house-keeping
and is more of a “hygiene factor” than being a “motivational factor” which affects the shopping behavior of customers (Singh & Sahay, 2011).

Spousal influence contributes a major factor in purchase decision. The study also documented certain product categories in which spousal roles differed throughout the three stages. Certain product/service categories appear to be distinctly the domain of husbands and wives, respectively. The product categories that were reported by both husbands and wives as husband-dominated include the purchases of television, wine/liquor, husband’s clothing, and computer. The two product categories that husbands alone regarded as husband-dominated were stereo/hi-fi and automobile. Product categories that were agreed as being wife-dominated include wife’s clothing, cleaning supplies, children’s wear and accessories, kitchenware, and non-prescription drugs. Joint decisions were reported for a number of product/service categories. These appear to be categories of product/service usually that: involve high cost and low frequency of purchase (furniture and buy/rent house), involve family instead of individual experiences (eating-out, entertainment, and travel), and are significant for the future of the family (education and joint savings account). On the other hand, there were certain product categories in which marital roles differed throughout the three stages of the family purchase decision-making process. For husbands, the product categories in which the pattern of influence in decision-making varied include refrigerator, air conditioner/fan, children’s toys, and insurance. For wives, the pattern of influence during the three stages of family purchase decision-making process varied includes refrigerator, air conditioner/fan, stereo/hi-fi, children’s toys, insurance, and automobile. International marketers must appreciate and understand the social and cultural environments in every targeted country market. Evidenced by this study, it is advisable for international marketers to develop specific marketing strategies (e.g. product,
price, promotion, and distribution) that best match the buyer behavior and family
decision-making situations (i.e. husband-dominated; wife-dominated; joint;
autonomic) that are likely to be encountered in markets overseas. Marketers who
are willing or driven to compete in cross-cultural environments need to
determine the relative influence that male and female spouses tend to exert at
each stage of the family purchase decision-making process for products likely
to be used or consumed. Higher levels of education and income are associated
positively with higher levels of egalitarianism (Xia, Ahmed, Ghandi, &
KuanHw, "Spousal Influence in Singaporean Family Purchase Decision-

People with different lifestyle choose different kind of brands and
have different appealing for them. Lifestyle typologies are the most effective
segmentation basis with psychographic segmentation. Lifestyle characteristics
provide more relevant information to understand consumer behaviour than
demographic segmentation. Lifestyle segments differ in the basis of
consumption, the importance they place on various attributes and the loyalty
and dependency on word of mouth. Consumers engaged in different activities
differ in opinion and interest and may represent distinct lifestyle segment for
the marketers. AIO (Activities, interest and opinions) scale is used to describe
how psychographic characters differ from one another. Profiling is the
constellation of specific lifestyle factors that tend to distinguish the members
of each class from the members of another social class. People in class posses
values, attitudes and behavioural patterns that are hybrid of two or more
classes. Lifestyle has a huge impact on media plans. Magazine and newspaper
readers tend to be educated and those who hold high level jobs may be
involved in community and social activities as well. Lifestyle has a significant
role in influencing the purchase decision of consumers. Social attitude and
means to buy are included in this regard (Ramanuj, 2009)
Product constellation is used by consumers which is a major indicator of lifestyle. Product constellation help the marketers to identify the segments of consumers who buy the same goods and services. Lifestyle of an individual is influenced by a number of factors including participation in social groups and relationship with significant others. Knowing the conduct of an individual in one aspect will help the marketers to predict how the individual is likely to perform in other areas. A distant lifestyle pattern could be identified when some activity or interest influences others even unrelated activities. Sociological relevant variables like age, sex, ethnicity, social class has a profound influence on lifestyle pattern of a consumer. Psychographics is the attempt to analyze, measure lifestyle marketers seek to describe the human characteristics of consumers that influence their responses to market variables. Psychographics helps in analyzing consumers to provide information about consumer’s types or market segments. It helps to uncover Attitudes, Interest and opinion of consumer group. VALS, Values and lifestyle (developed by Stanford Research Institute 1978) is one tool used to identify various market segments. Consumers motivation are grouped into three – ideals motivated people, status motivated people and self expression oriented. Ideals motivated people are more influenced by closely held beliefs or principles than by other motivators. Status motivators are influenced by other people who are important to them, imitating their actions and opinion and seeking their approval. Self expression oriented seeks physical or social activity and tend to take risk. The most striking advantage of using lifestyle concept is found in marketing plan development, media selection, creative strategy formulation, product positioning and retail strategy development (Jay & Joseph, 2003).

The impact of the world wide web on the retail sector has been much greater than that of any other commercial sector, resulting in the creation of a new form of retail format – electronic retailing (e-tailing) Since
web-shopping behaviour does not necessarily follow traditional consumer behaviour, e-tailers face new challenges, as existing knowledge of consumer behaviour cannot be directly applied to the new web-based shopping domain. Web-shopping intentions are directly affected by web-search behaviour and web-shopping adoption decisions, and are indirectly affected by web-shopping attitudes, past web-shopping experiences and past experience with the web. Web-search behaviour was a stronger factor than adoption decision in terms of influencing web-shopping intentions. The presence of promotional offers had a positive effect on web-shopping intentions, and web-shopping intentions were different for different product categories. People with no previous experiences are more likely to reject web-shopping, exaggerating of the security risk involved in web-shopping transactions. The second reason could be concerned with the needs of web-shopping itself. These people are more likely to appreciate the benefits offered by web-shopping such as timeliness and convenience and are willing to try to adopt this new shopping mode (May, Wong, & Sculli, 2005).

The key retail elements of the food shopping experience are merchandise related, retail practices, staff issues and internal store design. Quantity sizes were too large for older people who did not want to eat the same food for several days but also did not like to feel food was wasted. Where positive experiences occurred the use of freezers, ready-made meals and microwave cooking overcame these same reported problems. Large packet sizes of food were felt to keep prices high for older people who often did not eat large portions and were buying for one. Linked to quantities is price and promotions. It was generally felt that promotions were inappropriate as they were based on the quantity of purchase and in some instances the sell-by date of food. It was expected that prices should generally be lowered rather than having “promotions”. Retail practices include the method of services play
practices, methods of complaint handling, hygiene issues. Long queues and checkout service were the key problem areas. The display of stock often caused problems, with stock being moved around, disorientating the customer. Customers should be given more general assistance on the shop floor with, for example, packing bags. The interpersonal skills of staff were the key to satisfaction, although more of a personal interest in the customer was felt to be needed. Clearer signage in terms of bigger print, a brighter interior in some stores where, for example, the only store accessible is a “discount” store and accessibility of shelves and aisles were felt to be important. Closed displays for fresh produce were also suggested as better because then other people would not be touching the food. External dimensions also came up during the study which is outside the direct control of store and retailers. It covers accessibility, personal factors and the external shopping environment. Getting out of the house for a while regularly and meeting people in general was important to respondents. Food shopping was often seen as a “social” activity and an opportunity to meet friends. This social environment must be nurtured to maximize satisfaction. There still appear to be positive social factors amid this. Investing in staffing to meet customer needs may result in all aspects of “retailer”-related factors being more effective (Caroline, David, & Tim, 1999).

The mall environment directly influences fashion leaders’ hedonic shopping experience and approach behaviour. Fashion cluster membership moderates shoppers’ emotional and cognitive processes. The path relationship model shows that fashion leaders respond very differently to the mall environment. The latter exerts a stronger influence on fashion leaders’ hedonic shopping experience and approach behavior, than it does on fashion followers and laggards. Furthermore, mall influence on fashion leaders’ hedonic value is direct and is not mediated by any mood shift. Fashion leaders, contrary to followers and laggards, experience a great deal of personal involvement when
shopping and are more likely to engage in cognitive processes. Other shoppers are not as much involved with fashion and will not process the retail environment with the same cognitive intensity. Fashion leaders patronize stores on a more frequent basis and spend more on clothing which in turn, makes them more familiar with retail and mall environments. The mall environment also plays a non-negligible role helping fashion followers to achieve shopping objectives and strengthen loyalty. Fashion followers’ hedonic shopping experience may be mood driven while that of fashion leaders is triggered by higher involvement cognitive processing. Depending on shoppers’ fashion motivation, the shopping mall might be a fun place to be or serious matter for one’s self-concept (Michon, Yu, Smith, & Charles, 2007)

Indian consumers, on average, do not have as much disposable income as they do in the Western countries. A relatively small percentage of people in India carry credit cards, and most purchases are made with cash, even though purchases of some durables can be made by paying for them in monthly installments. As a result, shopping for clothes is generally done during the Indian festival and wedding seasons, but not throughout the year. Moreover, in clothing stores the shopper specifies the range of price he/she is interested in spending and the salesperson brings the selection of clothing to the customer. Browsing for merchandise cannot be done so easily as a result. These are, perhaps, some of the reasons why consumer decision-making styles may not have developed in the same fashion as those in the USA and New Zealand (Lyonski, Durvasula, & Zotos, 1996)

The country-of-origin effect (COE) research, mostly conducted in more developed countries, has revealed that consumers have a general preference for domestic-made products over foreign products, particularly when information about the product is lacking. The import statue of apparel
products, for instance, was found to have an impact on consumer perception of the quality of clothing brands. In particular, the image of quality associated with imported clothing was found to be significantly lower. There seems to be a positive correlation between domestic product evaluations and the level of economic development of the country of origin. However, a reversal pattern of the COE can often be observed in less developed countries, where consumers may have a preference for imported brands as opposed to domestic brands. Motivated by a desire to impress others with their ability to pay particularly high prices for prestige products, consumers are inspired by the social rather than the economic or physiological utility of products. When purchasing clothing, consumers often take time to evaluate alternatives in terms of brand, style, design, color, price and country-of-origin. These choice behaviors are particularly relevant to certain shopping attitudes of interest, such as “brand conscious”, “fashion conscious”, “price conscious”, and “hedonistic orientation”. Consumers preferring to buy imported brands tended to be brand loyal and had a more hedonistic attitude. They were quality conscious, brand conscious and fashion conscious. In addition, they tended to be younger and with a higher level of education. While they were not necessarily from the highest income group, they tended to read more fashion magazines, shop more frequently and spend more on clothing than the other two groups. In contrast, consumers who preferred to buy domestic brands tended to be the least brand loyal, more price-conscious, and have the least concern about the quality of clothing and whether it was fashionable. They tended to be less educated and had a lower monthly income. They also did not read many fashion magazines and spent less on clothing. Consumers buying both imported and domestic brands appeared to be confused by overchoice and spent less time on shopping. Although tending to have the highest incomes and being the least price-conscious among the three groups, this group of consumers tended to be the oldest, least hedonistic orientated and least fashion conscious. Such a fact
suggests that what differentiates the both-brand group from the foreign brand group is the shopping orientation (i.e. brand loyalty, quality conscious and fashion conscious) and age rather than the income level (Wang, Noel, Siu, Alice, & Hui, 2004)

(Betts & McGoldrick, 1996) emphasizes that, The ability to “save” money, even while spending it, gives some shoppers a sense of freedom from their usual inhibitions about spending. This appeared to be especially relevant when shoppers bought for themselves. Moreover, having saved on one item they may feel more entitled to purchase others; and having opened their minds to the idea of buying, shoppers are then more prepared to do so (the concept of “drift”). The guilt relief available from “sale” shopping may have declined as a result of it having become a necessity or obligation, more often associated with mundane purchases than extravagant spending sprees. Thus, individual consumers may linger at any level, skip levels and acquire new opinions out of sequence. The vertical path has more foundation with respect to the aggregate shopping population as a whole, which represents the “economic psychology” perspective.

(Fan & Li, 2010) claims that children regard television commercials as an important information source for new products. However, they place greater level of trust in interpersonal information sources, especially in their parents who are perceived as the most credible information source with respect to their learning about new food products. Much evidence shows that parents, peers, mass media, stores, schools, brands, and products themselves and their packages are all sources of information, namely socialization agents. Parents are considered as the primary socialization agents for children, and most aspects of parental influence continue well into adulthood. Peers appear to be an important socialisation agent, contributing to
the learning of the expressive elements of consumption. TV commercials and in-store experiences were the primary sources of new snack foods for children. Children depended more upon commercial sources than interpersonal sources in order to find out about new food products. In terms of perceived importance to food purchase, interpersonal influences (i.e. recommendation from parents and peers) was rated higher than commercial influences such as TV advertisements and celebrity endorsements in food purchase decision making. Interpersonal information sources were also perceived to have higher credibility than commercial sources; and parents were regarded as the most reliable source of information. The positive attitude to and desire for advertised food products was significantly related to the children’s level of exposure to the commercial environment, such as hours spent on watching TV as well as the amount of attention paid to advertisements.

Browsing serves both functional and recreational purposes. Consumers vary by the degree to which they browse functionally or recreationally. Browsing behaviors are influenced by both consumer characteristics and the retail environment. Browsing is a powerful consumer information acquisition activity and has both desired and undesired consequences for consumer purchases. Consumers use various strategies to cope with the undesired consequences. It is found that browsers tend to be employed females, somewhat downscale compared to other mall patrons, having lower levels of education and income. They tend to be younger than non-browsers and to have a larger family size. Browsers have high brand awareness. They exhibit a greater level of self-confidence, social extroversion, tension and enthusiasm. However, demographic and personality factors do not reveal consumers’ browsing experiences and do not factor in the influence of the shopping environment. Economic shoppers tend to be driven by task shopping motives, and recreational shoppers tend to be driven by non-task
shopping motives. The two motives differentially influence the type of consumer interests, attention and time allocation in shopping. Two types of addicted browsers were identified one is driven by the browsing experiences, and one is driven by the goal of finding bargains. For experience seekers, the most important goal is not to buy, but to experience the excitement of looking at the appealing merchandise. The second major category identified is the balanced browser. To the balanced browser, browsing is functional as well as hedonic. Browsing is necessary for becoming familiar with a new store or for looking for a bargain. Browsing can also be fun when it concerns their favorite stores or type of products. However, these consumers also realize that browsing takes effort and time, so they want to achieve a balance. Reluctant browsers browse the least. For reluctant browsers, shopping and browsing only serve functional purposes. It is observed that the addicted browsers tend to be younger, while reluctant browsers tend to be older. However, compared to experience seekers, bargain hunters/information seekers are more rational in their purchases. Reluctant browsers do not enjoy browsing. They typically will not browse except when they have to. Hence, browsing is purely for functional purposes, and it is always associated with purchases. (Xia L., 2010).

(Xia, Ahmed, Ghingold, & KuanHw, 2006) describe that family purchase decision-making is a culture-specific phenomenon. The study found that the level of egalitarianism, which usually indicates a more syncretism or cooperative family purchase decision-making, was associated positively with higher levels of education and income. The commonly accepted role structure of family purchase decision-making is husband-dominated decisions, wife-dominated decisions, autonomic decisions (in which either the husband or wife is the primary or sole decision maker, but not both), and syncretism or joint decisions. Egalitarianism is defined as a value system emphasizing equality in marital relations. Patriarchy refers to high level of paternal
authority, and with no variation in paternal authority from one stratified group to another. Modified patriarchy refers with patriarchal family norms that have been modified by egalitarian norms at the upper strata”. Rapid modernization is occurring in these societies, and the ideas associated with modernization (e.g. egalitarianism) are becoming more accepted. Transitional egalitarianism, in which egalitarian family norms are replacing patriarchal norms (and) in which there is normative flexibility about marital power. These societies are transitional in nature. Power roles are achieved through the attainment of goals that the society deems important (i.e. education, high-status occupation, and income in Western societies). Egalitarianism is the last stage, with strong egalitarian family norms of husband – wife sharing of power. Here, egalitarian norms have permeated all strata of society.

(Kaur & Singh, 2007) argue that status conscious individuals prefer to select stores that conform to their status. They look for discounts available there in but dislike bargaining directly. They do not like to shop with the family members or play the role of a shopper for the family. Young consumers like to shop simply because they have been to the market, for fun, seek escape from daily routine, just browse through the outlets, and dislike the physical activity involved in shopping. To sum up, they tend to act as recreational shoppers. Impulsive shopping motive describes shopping based on sensory stimulation such as a pleasant odour, making quick/impulse purchases or buying for the reason that one has been to the market. Economic shoppers tend to act as wise shoppers who make a purchase only after comparing prices and not getting affected the environmental cues or sensory stimulants such as the background music or feel of the products. Youth are an important consuming class owing to time pressures in dual career families with high disposable incomes. With the retailers eyeing their presence in the market, it is pertinent for them to identify the target shoppers as well as to identify the
prime reasons as to why they shop. The results reveal that young consumers, interestingly, tend to shop not from a utilitarian perspective, but from a hedonic perspective. Their key interests include getting product ideas or meeting friends. They also view shopping as a means of diversion to alleviate depression or break the monotony of daily routine. In addition to this, they also go shopping to have fun or just browse through the outlets. This age group is particularly found to be considerably involved in the role of information seeker from the market and disseminator of the same to the peer group or to the family. Similar findings have been reported in India also. Sensory stimulants such as the background music, odor, or feel of the products play an important role in shaping the shopping exercise of these individuals and could set off impulse buying activity in them. Also, this age category indulges in economic shopping and then the sensory stimulants are not able to sway them away. This is due to the fact that cognitive processes are completely developed for this age category such that they are capable to act as competent shoppers Marketers can hence tap this important target segment by framing the promotion strategies appropriately. This requires a focus on the economic criteria used at the time of shopping. As they are highly information seeking, price discounts or other schemes can be framed accordingly and communicated to them such that they are liked and accepted by them. This in one way would lead to greater profits for the marketers as also it would double the benefits by leading to increased satisfaction of the customers.

(Ray & Walker, 2004) Observed that young consumers tend to shop for personal as well as social reasons unrelated to the actual consumption criteria including rational/convenience motives. Their prime motives include getting product ideas, meeting friends, socializing etc. which shows their reliance on outside sources particularly friends as a source of information/diversion.
Young customers also prefer to visit the shopping place to escape from daily routines, may be to reduce fatigue. More so, this age category is seen to possess updated information by various sources such as parents, friends, etc. Because of this reason, they are called ‘‘Mavens’’ who keep themselves aware of the latest products, trends and fashions as people look upon them for information and advice. These consumers to stay associated with friends while going on a shopping trip or selecting a particular shop or meeting them (to discuss the purchase or otherwise) while on a shopping trip (Parsons, 2002).

(Eastlick & Feinberg, 1999) Found that purchase motive scores were often higher among women than among men. They found a negative relationship between education and shopping motivations. (Haanpa, 2005) opined that young consumers looked for interesting shopping experiences that were a mixture of social and emotional needs and wants and related to interaction and communication with other people.

Satisfying shoppers in the discount store format with utilitarian attributes (quality, price, variety of products) of textile/apparel products is critically important to eliciting positive hedonic emotions (e.g., surprised, interested) as well as utilitarian emotions (e.g., efficient, convenient). Consumers in China who generally believe that shopping is very important to their life rated high in both utilitarian and hedonic responses. Also, Chinese consumers who go shopping for the purpose of getting away from daily routines (i.e. diversion) exhibited stronger utilitarian responses. In other words, shopping at a discount store is an important leisure activity to the Chinese consumer (Kim, Forsythe, Gu, & Yoon, 2002).
The work of (Tauber, 1972) and (Rohm & Swaminathan, 2004) identified two concepts of retail shopping motives. On one hand, retail shopping experience refers to the enjoyment of shopping as a leisure-based activity and second, it taps into aspects of socializing with friends and public, and to gather and to share their thoughts and ideas.

There is evidence that decision-making styles vary across cultures. (Walsh, Thurau, & Mitchell, 2001) argue that the CSI instrument is more appropriate for developed countries than for developing countries.

Young males are impartial, middle ground consumers, while females are more hedonistic-oriented consumers. In the study recreational, hedonistic shopping consciousness and confusion by over choice factors appeared to be the most stable factors. It classified in five consumer segments according to their decision-making styles impartial, middle ground consumer; fashion-oriented, hedonistic consumer; traditional, pragmatic consumer; hedonistic consumer and confused by over choice perfectionist consumers (DamirAnic, Rajh, & Bevanda, 2012)

(East, Lomax, Willson, & Patricia, 1994) opined that short-term promotions may alter some shopping times but any changes are likely to be reversed when the promotion ends. Demand variation has some benefits for retailers. Shopping time habits are consistent with other regularities in consumer behaviour: people have habits about what they purchase, i.e. brand loyalty and where they purchase it, i.e. store loyalty. Reasons which usually reflect fixed aspects of their environment and pattern of living. Such evidence suggests that changes in shopping time will not easily be achieved. Stores cannot change the day that people are paid or the time when children go to school. Some change
may be achieved by permanent improvements in the quality of off-peak shopping such as routine promotions, better stocking and no checkout delay, and by advertising the times and advantages of the off-peak periods, but improvements of this sort must be presented forcefully enough to disturb existing habits.

(Kim & Kang, 2001) pointed that in addition to the goods, information, and pleasure received from shopping, benefits also include: the quality, price and the return on the investment of time and effort expended to purchase the products. Shopping benefits can be described as utilitarian benefits (i.e. rational, functional, task-related) and hedonic benefits (i.e. emotional, fun, enjoyment). A consumer obtains utilitarian shopping value when the necessary product is obtained; the utilitarian value is increased as the product is obtained with less effort. The hedonic aspect of shopping reflects the potential entertainment and emotional worth of a shopping trip and may include feelings such as arousal, satisfaction, and entertainment. The consumer may obtain hedonic shopping benefits when a desired product is obtained and the benefit can be increased when the product is obtained with decreased cost.

(Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003) Observed that generation Y consumers are generally recreational shoppers. They have a belief that more is the price more will be the quality of the products. This indicates that Generation Y people enjoy more shopping that their predecessors. Study also showed that Generation Y Consumers are having more disposable income with them. Retailers are having a great opportunity as they can attract more consumers by adding fun element to shopping.

Analysis of consumer clothing benefits sought generated six factors: fashion, body appearance and impression, brand value, personal identity, price,

(Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1990) found that recent scholars have a tendency to study just the benefits sought by segmented consumer markets (e.g. sportswear, jean or prestige product and outlet product). Benefits sought refer to the types of benefits consumers seek in products (e.g. social status, prestige and role identification). Benefits also are derived in commonly occurring situations and through contact with people.

Consumers engage in shopping to satisfy emotional needs and/or to complete shopping tasks such as collecting information and purchasing a product and/or service (Bloch & Richins, 1983).

(Pan & Zinkhan, 2006) suggest that brand loyalty is more prominent under conditions of more positive emotional mood and affect. Brands that make consumers “happy” or “joyful” or “affectionate” elicit more purchase and attitudinal loyalty.

(Mathur, Moschis, & Lee, 1999) claim that men are more often report controlling their emotions, accepting the problem, not thinking about the situation, and engaging in problem-solving efforts. Women more often report seeking social support, distracting themselves, letting out their feelings, turning to prayer and/or seeking social support. Thus, strategies used by men may be viewed primarily as problem-focused coping, while those used by women best fit the description of emotion-focused coping.
(Richard, Divine, & Lepisto, 2005) observed that people who maintain a healthy lifestyle tend to be female, older, more educated, place less importance on the value of “excitement”, have a greater tendency to plan ahead and tend to experience less role overload. The main indicators of whether or not one maintains a healthy lifestyle are fruit and vegetable consumption and exercise. Alcohol consumption was not found to be a very useful variable in terms of defining healthy and unhealthy segments. One possible explanation for this is that a number of people in the healthy segment may incorporate moderate levels of alcohol consumption into their lifestyle. A breakdown of alcohol consumption between the two segments shows that on average people in the healthy segment actually drink about two more glasses of wine a month than do people in the unhealthy segment; however, people in the unhealthy segment tend to drink more servings of beer, wine coolers and mixed drinks. With regard to psychographic characteristics, both of the time related variables, temporal orientation and role overload, were linked to maintaining a healthy lifestyle. The people who have a propensity to plan ahead and are less time pressured are more likely to be successful in incorporating healthy eating and exercise into their daily routine.

(Bloch P., 2005) defined a healthy lifestyle as an orientation toward the prevention of health problems and the maximization of personal wellbeing. While this could legitimately encompass a wide variety of behaviors from flossing after meals to applying sunscreen, most healthy lifestyle research has focused on diet and exercise. In the food industry, health oriented products accounted for five of the seven food categories that experienced double digit revenue growth between 2003 and 2004.

(Park, Yu, & Zhou, 2010) proposes that sensory innovativeness and cognitive innovativeness can lead to different shopping styles. Cognitive
innovators are inclined to show shopping styles such as quality consciousness, price consciousness, and confusion by over choice. On the other hand, sensory innovators are inclined to have shopping styles such as brand consciousness, fashion consciousness, recreational orientation, impulsive shopping, and brand loyalty/habitual shopping. Cognitive innovators rather than sensory innovators are likely to be price sensitive. Cognitive innovators are most likely to focus on the utilitarian features of products, whereas sensory innovators may put more emphasis on the aesthetic aspects of products those who are more cognitively oriented may feel more strongly about the product’s attributes and performance, as well as the degree of incongruity with existing products. On the other hand, the design and sensory properties of the product rather than its performance and functional attributes would help elicit aesthetic responses from the sensory consumer.

2.3 SOCIAL CAPITAL LITERATURE REVIEW

Social capital is a complex theory with many dimensions, types, levels and determinants and although different authors identify different dimensions of social capital, all authors seem to agree that social capital is multi-dimensional. It is now accepted that social capital exists at the micro, meso and macro levels. There is an agreement in the literature that the concept lacks an exact conceptualization and that requires empirical research. Although there has been a number of a different approach taken for research in the area of social capital research, there is much fruit to be taken from a synthesis of the various approaches. Although there has been very little work directly on social capital and lifestyle. Much work is required to understand the interaction of social capital and lifestyle and their association.
Social capital is a term that is commonly used; however the concept is often poorly defined and conceptualized. Social capital is an old concept but the term has only been coined fairly recently (Zhou & Bankston, 2002). Social capital is linked to concepts such as civil society and social connectedness (Adam & Borut, 2003). Social capital is also linked to historical authors such as Durkheim, Simmel, Marx and Weber among others and to theories such as social exchange theory and psychological contract theory (Watson & Papmarcos, 2002). Very broadly, social capital refers to the social relationships between people that enable productive outcomes (Szreter, 2000). The term social capital refers to those stocks of social trust, norms, and networks that people can draw upon to solve common problems. Social capital represents a very important conceptual innovation for inter and trans disciplinary theoretical integration, especially between sociology and economics (Frane & Renevevic, Social Capital: Recent Debates and Research Trends, 2003). The creation of social capital has been embraced as a solution for social problems as diverse as urban poverty and crime, economic underdevelopment and inefficient government (Boix & Daniel, 1998). The concept of social capital is similar or equivalent to civic tradition, civicness and civic involvement (Frane & Renevevic, 2003). Social capital has been located at the level of the individual, the informal social group, the formal organization, the community, the ethnic group and even the nation (Coleman J. S., 1988), (Putnam R. D., Bowling alone: America’s declining social capital, 1995).

There are divergent views in the literature; some authors posit social capital at the individual level, some the community level and others have a more dynamic view. (Kilby, 2002) Stated that social capital exists within levels or scales as one feels belonging to family, community, profession, country, etc, simultaneously. Social capital can be thought of as
having an individual and an aggregate component (Buys & Bow, 2002), (Newton, 1997). (Brewer, 2003) stated that although social capital was originally conceived as a community-wide concept, it should be observable at the individual level. (Bourdieu P., 1986) defines social capital as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition or in other words, to membership in a group which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity-owned capital, a credential which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word”. Social capital is similar to other forms of capital in that it can be invested with the expectation of future returns (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social capital is different from other forms of capital in that it resides in social relationships whereas other forms of capital can reside in the individual (Robison, Schmid, & Marcelo, 2002). Further, social capital cannot be traded by individuals on an open market like other forms of capital, but is instead embedded within a group (Glaeser, Laibson, & Sacerd, 2002).

(Portes, 1998) elegantly posited the location of capital in relation to other forms of capital. Whereas economic capital is in people’s bank accounts and human capital is inside their heads, social capital inheres in the structure of their relationships. Social capital is different from other forms of capital in that it resides in social relationships whereas other forms of capital can reside in the individual (Robison, Schmid, & Marcelo, 2002). Social capital cannot be traded by individuals on an open market like other forms of capital, but is instead embedded within a group (Glaeser, Laibson, & Sacerd, 2002). (Stephen & Kulynych., 2002) suggested that social capital is the result of altruism and therefore not capital as capital is a resource that is built up through investment and can be drawn upon when needed. .
The dimensions of social capital defined by (Narayan & Cassidy, 2001) (Figure 2.1. (Woolcock, 1998) explains four views of social capital. (Figure 2.2) They are

![Diagram of Social Capital Dimensions]

**Figure 2.1 Dimensions of Social capital**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Policy prescriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communitarian view</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local associations</td>
<td>Community groups voluntary organizations</td>
<td>Small is beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recognize social assets of the poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Network view</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonding and bridging</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs Business group Information</td>
<td>Decentralize create enterprise zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>community ties</td>
<td>Bridging social divides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institutional view</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political and legal</td>
<td>Private and public sectors</td>
<td>Grant civil and political liberties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>institutional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.2 Four Views of Social Capital**

The determinants of social capital are numerous and varied and there is both a lack of consensus and a lack of evidence to support the propositions. Several influential studies have suggested that social capital’s roots are buried in centuries of cultural evolution (Fukuyama F., 1995), (Putnam, Leonardi, & Raffaella, 1993). (Pantoja, 1999) identified a different sets of social capital, including: family and kinship connections; wider social networks of associational life covers the full range of formal and informal horizontal arrangements; networks; political society; institutional and policy framework which includes the formal rules and norms that regulate public life; and social norms and values.

Every feature of social structure can be social capital in the sense that it produces desired outcomes, but also can be a liability in the sense that it produces unwanted results’. The kinds of groupings and associations which can generate social capital always also carry the potential to exclude others (Hunter, 2000), (Virginia, 1999).
(Lyons, 2000) described the importance of social capital in shaping regional development patterns. It is clear that social capital is of importance in societal wellbeing. Some aspects of the concept, such as inter-personal trust, are clearly desirable in themselves while other aspects are more instrumental (Carl & Zhou, 2002). Healthy social capital can be used for problem solving and it will lead to social prosperity (Boyte, 1995).

(Michael & Deepa, 2000) identified that the communitarian perspective equates social capital with such local organizations as clubs, associations, and civic groups. They identified that the network approach takes into account both social capitals upside and its downside. This approach stresses the importance of vertical as well as horizontal associations between people and of relations within and among such organizational entities as community groups and firms. He identified that proponents of the institutional view argue that the vitality of community networks and civil society is largely the product of the political, legal and institutional environment.’ The approach views social capital as a dependent variable where as the communitarian and networks perspectives largely treat social capital as an independent variable giving rise to various outcomes. This approach of social capital is termed as Institutional approach.

In the past, social networks were commonly based on proximity; they are now based more on work and interest groups. The strength of networks based on proximity has decreased because people know few of their neighbors, particularly in medium to high density areas and where there is high residential mobility. The result is limited opportunity for repeated interaction, which is fundamental to the equilibrium concept for social capital generation. Alignment refers to the interests, beliefs and views of individuals or groups. People may be aligned to groups or communities for various
reasons, and this ‘membership’ results in a range of social capital manifestations (Kavanaugh & Patterson., 2001). Trust is commonly seen as a component of social capital. Some authors equate trust with social capital (Fukuyama F., 1995).

A fundamental question is whether social capital can be increased in the short term. This question is further complicated by the debate over whether social capital can be measured, as without measurement, change cannot be determined. According to (Putnam R. D., 1993), social capital is largely determined by historical factors; it can thus not be enhanced in the short term. (Uslaner, 2001) suggested that social capital development as a by-product of other activities. (Falk & Harrison, 1998) suggested that it is possible to build social capital in the short term and that this is also known as capacity building. Social capital can be produced by the government, nongovernmental organizations, local societal actors and external actors in the civil society, both in combination and in isolation (Cernea, 1993), (Huntoon, 2001). (Soubeyran & Weber, 2002) posted that social capital can be created through repeated exchange and face-to-face contacts, which is facilitated by geographic proximity. (Onyx & Paul, 2000) believed that the development of social capital requires the active and willing engagement of citizens within a participative community. Social capital building exercises initiated by the state have been identified as weak due to distant ties, therefore social capital building must occur through outsourcing by government. (Cox & Caldwell, 2000) had the opinion that local government is better placed to create local social capital through community based interventions. He identified that the key social dynamics for building social capital occur in the non-intimate and non-exclusive groups.
(Sengupta & Sarkar, 2012) described that for every dimension, the formation of social capital for each individual is higher among same (homogeneous) individuals along caste and religious dimensions in their social sphere. And for each individual irrespective of interactions between same or different (heterogeneous) types, the level of structural social capital in the form of associations and cognitive form are lower than individual form of non-structural social capital which persists without being formalized in organizations.

(Narayan, Jones, & Woolco, 2003) pointed that social capital plays an increasing role in its poverty reduction strategy. The role of social capital in the form of collective action in common property regime and in the delivery of public services in facilitating economic growth and other socio-economic outcomes. The study mainly focuses on two schools of thought. The primary school of thought focuses on social capital measured at an aggregate level, such as, state, country, community characteristics, organizational membership and local level management of common property regimes. He argues that there may be connections between trust and organizational membership. Most of the people are assumed to have faith in members of their own ethnic group. Social capital as an individual’s asset that benefits a single individual. Social capital’s fundamentally is interactive in nature.

As emphasized by (Bank, 2014), social capital is formed within the network of social relationships among people, and contributes to economic and social development. (Charles & Kline, 2006) argue that every individual possesses a stock of social capital which is accumulated by her separate pairwise connections with people either of the same ethnic group or of different ethnic groups. According to them, an individual’s stock of neighborhood social capital is directly related to the fraction of the neighbors who are of the
same race. They emphasize that members of an organization or a club do not always interact. It is also said that people belonging to organizations may possess less social capital, on average, than people who do not, because people sometimes join organizations as the social capital they already have is low. It might be possible that people who belong to a college alumni club are scattered all over the country and they hardly interact. The individual school argues that people may be the members of an organization, but it does not necessarily mean that they have high level of social capital. Members must interact to acquire social capital. Many interactions of mutual trust under cognitive forms of social capital persist without being formalized in organizations.

Social capital is considered as a store of value generated in a social network which generates benefits at a later period. Returns from social capital are of four categories: shared norms which generate trustworthiness, improved information flow which creates trust and therefore corrects market failures, trust that facilitates group sanctions against deviations, and trust that overcomes collective political action problems (Putnam R., 1995). He makes a distinction between bridging and bonding social capital. In bridging social capital connections are made across diverse social groups. It broadens social horizons and opens up opportunities for information across individuals from different backgrounds. Bonding social capital forms connectedness in homogenous groups in which individuals are closely tied. Numerous studies based on race and ethno linguistic characteristics demonstrate that ethnically diverse countries are less cohesive. (Putnam R., 1995) Establishes that most of the previous literature which focuses on the social capital at an aggregate level suggests that cross ethnic social capital is low.
The evaluation results reveal that the social capital indicators like affiliation percentage; trust reciprocity; and collective action are better in CBI (Community based initiatives) areas than their controls (Sheikh, Ali, & Huss, 2009). CBI areas have a better access to public services, are more peaceful, people are more willing to help others and there is less segregation due to income and social status. The social cohesion and spirit of collective action in CBI areas seems to be due to advocacy of community participation by CBI. The social cohesion is evident by the fact that differences like education, capital and belonging, land ownership, age, religious beliefs and ethnicity cause lesser discrimination amongst people. They face less problems and violence. The people in CBI program areas showed a higher reciprocity. Reciprocity is any relationship between two parties or things where there is a mutual action, giving and taking. The giving may be an investment in a process where the return to the giver is a generalized improvement, in which others as well as the giver participate. Reciprocity is considered to encompass the full spectrum of giving and receiving behaviors ranging from the quid pro quo of favors and other direct exchanges, to behaviors considered to be altruistic in considering the welfare and best interests of others, such as making charitable donations.

(Kawachi, Kennedy, Lochner, & Stith, 1997) Emphasizing that people in CBI areas had a higher confidence in the reliability of other people and the system. They trusted their fellow villagers more in the matters of lending money. They were more concerned about the welfare of others. The results of this study show that the aspects of social capital which are citizenship, neighborliness, trust and shared values, community involvement, volunteering, social networks and civic and political participation have improved in the CBI program areas. So, the better indicators of social capital in the CBI program areas are a proof of improvement in social support which
in turn is linked to health. Social capital has been related to a number of important public health variables such as child welfare, mortality and health status. Social isolation has been linked to poor health and socially isolated individuals tend to live in areas low in social capital. Community participation is amongst the most important elements of CBI. The provision of many services requires collective action by a group of individuals. It is an indicator of underlying social cohesion.

(Kawachi , I., Kennedy, Lochner, & Prothrow, 1997) is trying to prove that better trust among people leads to better health outcomes as increases in the level of social trust and group membership have been statistically associated with decreases in total mortality, as well as in rates of death from coronary heart disease, malignant neoplasm and infant mortality

(Edwards, 2004) opined that social capital provides some of the important social indicators for understanding outcomes across economic, social and environmental domains. He establishes that all of these domains are the predictors of health, which are the prerequisite for development of a community. Social capital has been related to a number of important public health variables such as child welfare, violent behavior, mortality and health status. In general, the more social capital, the better the public health measures.

(Petersen, 2002) ascertains that social capital is one of the major influences in health and well-being and as an indicator of progress toward health outcome goals.

The membership in formal networks is a means of accessing social and health care, as well as informal networks, in which an individual can draw
upon a collective body of knowledge that will facilitate access to scarce resources, including information that will enhance the ability to make healthy choices (Fiorillo & Sabatini, 2011).

(Holtgrave & Crosby, 2003) observed that social capital may lead to the development of, and foster accessibility to healthcare services. The contention that social capital relates to health outcomes also builds on a much larger body of research documenting the positive effects of relationship and community building on a wider definition of community health, including such things as the reduction of violence, crime, substance abuse and teen pregnancy.

(Palmer, Modra, Murray, & Bush, 2000) noted that social capital relates to the resources available within communities as a consequence of networks of mutual support, reciprocity, trust and obligation. It can be accumulated when people interact with each other in families, workplaces, neighborhoods, local associations and a range of informal and formal meeting places. Social capital is seen as 'the glue that binds' then there are potential links between social capital and a wide range of areas of social concern. These include health, families, education and training, work, income and consumption, paid and unpaid work, housing and neighborhoods, and crime and justice.

(Fafchamps, 2002) states that there exists two kinds of trust associated with such networks that he calls “personalized trust and generalized trust. The former belongs to close networks such as clubs and limited networks, it occurs with repeated actions and it takes time and effort to establish contrary to the latter, which is instantaneous.
Indian state data for the indicators that are normally used to proxy civic behavior are hard to identify, or the data that already exist cannot be interpreted unambiguously as a measure of civicness.

(Renata, 2003) states that there are problems related to the very important questions of participation in associations and trust in government institutions. The percentages of respondents who are members of associations seem too low in the light of the perception of a more vibrant associational life derived from direct field observations. With regard to trust variables, there is the difficulty of interpreting whether low trust is due to malfeasance of representatives or lack of interest from the people, and whether it is restricted to existing governments or extends to all previous ones. Features which supposedly reflect collective structures of co-operation in Indian society and culture, are elusive to measurement and meaningless to frame within states as units of analysis. Indian states are complex and internally differentiated entities; moreover, there is no consistency between their performance indicators Studies have shown the importance of mutual trust, norms of co-operation and previous experiences of collective endeavors within societies to explain higher incomes, economic growth.

(Putnam R., 1993) features social organization that enhance trust and cooperation increase societies' well-being by making government institutions more democratic and more efficient in delivering public goods. He pointed those societies where citizens trust one another and are more inclined to co-operate give rise to more accountable and efficient governments, which in turn are able to deliver a higher and better quality of public goods and create the conditions for society to develop faster. This link is not simply unidirectional, since a vibrant civic society and a democratic and efficient government are two sides of the same coin.
(Coleman J., Foundations of Social Theory, 1990) draws a map of social relations in which individuals are nodes and social capital is represented as lines uniting them. The more lines connect to an individual, the higher is the individual's level of social capital. The intensity and the direction of the obligations embedded in these relationships are also important. With the amounts of net benefits from existing cooperation changing according to one's position within the social fabric. This type of social capital functions as a public good, but mainly within the group; this is more appropriately called a 'club' or 'network' good. Club goods may generate externalities for societies at large, which can be either positive or negative, according to whether the network is, for instance, a business association or a criminal organization.

An entrepreneur’s social capital can be accumulated via their family membership, social relations, social networks and memberships of both formal and informal institutions. These relationships and interactions help entrepreneurs gain access to the resources that are vitally important for the success of their new business ventures; these resources include business information providers, potential investors, customers and suppliers (Ferri, Deakins, & Whittam, 2009). (Baron & Markman, 2000) support this proposition arguing that strong family and social ties are an asset in small business creation and development, as these ties act as a pool of resources that the nascent entrepreneurs can drawn upon as required. Entrepreneurial social capital indicates entrepreneurs with better social resources or high value social capital, as manifested through memberships of distinct social networks and the benefits that accrue from those memberships, are more likely to attain their goals – in this case the establishment of new business ventures. Entrepreneurs should invest in social relations according to the expected value of the social resources made available by these relations. The basic constituents of social capital are not only membership of networks themselves, but also the number
of people in an individual’s network, their willingness or sense of obligation to offer help (or reciprocate) when called upon and the resources they subsequently make available.

(Cote & Healy, 2001) suggest that measures of social capital should be as comprehensive as possible in their coverage of key dimensions of networks, values and norms. (Dreger, Erber, & Glocke, 2008) argue that many empirical surveys use ad hoc methodologies due to the heterogeneity of the very definition of social capital. This makes the concept hard to measure. Nowhere is this more challenging than in the area of entrepreneurship.

(Baron & Markman, 2000) suggest that an entrepreneur’s social capital can assist in gaining access to those individuals who are important for their success. It includes business advisors, venture capitalists, customers and/or suppliers. New business organisations are not only a central feature of modern market economies but also the product of the entrepreneurial process itself. This process, they argue, begins when one or more individuals initiate a firm start-up and ends some time later when a viable new business is established and trading.

(Casson, 1991) view that the entrepreneurs who do not have sufficient personal wealth to fund the business start-up process, must have the necessary social contacts or “social capital” as an alternative source of finance. Entrepreneurship itself however is both an economic and social process. It is these social contacts, we suggest, could also be sources of both information and knowledge that are vital to the entrepreneur engaging in the new venture creation process. One of these sources is the entrepreneur’s immediate family; particularly the nature and extent of family connections that influence the
available opportunities. Other sources of information, according to (Casson, 1991), lie outside the family in the clubs and societies to which the entrepreneur belongs. These are important non-profit institutions in which nascent entrepreneurs can make contacts and acquire valuable information. However, access to these bodies is often determined by expensive subscription or by professional, academic qualifications, which means that those entrepreneurs who are in some way socially disadvantaged cannot easily gain access to the key information or financial resources necessary to engage in the new business start-up process. Commenting on (Casson, 1991), (Deakins & Freel, 2003) point out that entrepreneurs not only co-ordinate scarce resources, but also make decisions judgmentally that reallocate or organize those scarce resources.

Where trust and social networks flourish, individuals, firms, neighborhoods and even nations prosper (Siisiäinen, 2000). Nevertheless, it is unlikely that communal measures of social capital such as those employed by Putnam could reflect the importance of the social network ties, whether strong or weak those are vital for resource acquisition during the entrepreneurial process.

(Wyman, Seldin, & Worzala, 2011) mentioned that second life is an environment that fosters the emergence of social capital. Residents who consider themselves producers have higher levels of social capital than those who consider themselves non-producers. Second Life (SL) is an online virtual world. It is user-created and social, and it reflects the users’ activities and interests. For some it is a place for learning, education and sharing information. Others use it for escapism or for entertainment. It is a place where people with shared interests can find each other and online virtual communities can emerge on the basis of those shared interests. It is a place
where relationships between people (and between the avatars that represent them) are possible. Having social capital within Second Life is unrelated to having social capital outside the virtual world.

(Huvila, Holmberg, & Wulff, 2010) remarked that students who have participated in classes have experienced the presence of other students in a much more realistic way than in text-based educational tools online. Students have also experienced a decreased distance between them and the teacher, giving them an overall positive learning experience. The immersive nature of Second Life has also been used in teaching about disorders such as schizophrenia by simulating the hallucinations experienced by patients. Second Life is a place that can be used to create simulations for educational purposes and a place where students can make mistakes without any serious consequences. Second Life is a profoundly social environment and it generates and contributes to the social capital of its residents. Socialising is a major motivation for participating in the environment and most of the frequent activities of the respondents related to socialising with others. Second Life lies outside the frame of traditional formal organisations – it is based on unsolicited participation and it provides means to meet people, have fun, learn, work, and to sense positive and negative social experiences. Reciprocal socialising is valued, but the contacts are less frequent and residents do not trust others in a universal manner. People are less likely to run into their acquaintances in Real Life than in Second Life. In this sense Second Life is the kind of spontaneous and voluntary community, or rather a compound of communities.

(Coleman J., 1988) suggested is typical in the present society, where the significance of formal organizations, families and local communities is decreasing. Residents form networks and have friends they
meet in Second Life and the more they engage in “production”, the more social capital they have. There are clear codes of conduct and behavior expressed in the form of positive and negative experiences of behavior. The mechanisms of trust are mostly based on judgments made on social behavior rather than on second life specific indicators such as the type of account of the other resident.

According to (Bourdieu P., 1980) social capital is built from two components: the social relationship that an individual has and that gives access to the resources of these relationships, and the amount and quality of these resources. The people a person is connected to are the actual sources of social capital. The donation of social capital can happen because of an expected reciprocity in a relationship when the donor expects to receive some return on their investment or through solidarity that derives from identification in the same group. These actions and reactions are not necessarily only actions between two people, but they can be deposits of social capital in a common pool of social structures and withdrawals by other people from the same common pool. This leads to positive outcomes such as access to information or more effective sharing of information.

(Blanchard & Horan, 1998) provided social capital with different dimensions in order to map its benefits and outcomes of social capital. These dimensions give a holistic picture of how the social environment should support knowledge development and the achievement of personal and professional goals. The structural dimension is often defined through network structures and the nature of the network ties between the actors. Social interactions in the structures are channels for information flows. Through these interactions an actor may reach different kinds of benefits and goals. According to (Hall & Wulff, 2008) the relational dimension is defined through
trust, identity and roles. In the relational dimension the underlying motives for sharing are stressed and in earlier studies it has been shown that the exchange of information, for example, in online environments, is highly dependent on social relationships. Trust is an important enabler in both motivating and using social technologies and needs to be integrated into this understanding.

(Colquitt, Scott, & Jeffery, 2007) mentioned that trust is usually built over time and is not always possible in online environments. Finally the content dimension is defined as shared goals, common experience, language and knowledge. Shared meaning and collective knowledge are key aspects that are very visible in online worlds and social network sites where rules, boundaries and norms are clearly created. The structural and relational dimensions are cornerstones for gaining social opportunities, that is, the content dimension.

According to (Blanchard & Horan, 1998) social capital can increase in virtual communities that are based on existing physical communities. (Putnam R. D., 1995) opined that social capital as social relations or civic engagement through volunteering and showed that social capital had declined in the USA during the last few decades. (Putnam R. D., 1995) continues by arguing that the internet may reverse the decline. According to (Lin N. , 1999) “we are witnessing a revolutionary rise of social capital, as represented by cyber-networks.

2.4 LIFESTYLE FACTORS AND SOCIAL CAPITAL

(Statistical Department - U.K, 2009) had done a study on lifestyles and social participation and it reveals that people’s lifestyle is based on
individual choices, influenced by personal characteristics, circumstances, interests and social interactions. In some ways how people spend their leisure time has changed significantly over the years. Many individuals continue to participate in sports, spend time with family and friends, and help other people in their communities. The reports says that watching television was the most common leisure activity for more than eight in ten men and women. Spending time with family and friends was the second most common leisure activity. However, there were also differences between the sexes in how they spend their leisure time. Men were more likely than women to participate in social activities, charitable activities and physical activities such as sport and exercise. Women were more likely than men to spend their free time to shop and roam around.

(Hughes, 2010) argued that a person’s lifestyle is defined by the way they live and the individual choices they make. These are influenced by personal characteristics and circumstances, social interactions and relationships and interests. Traditional activities such as watching television, spending time with family and friends, reading, going on holiday, playing sports and interacting within communities are still as popular as they were 40 years ago.

Levels of informal volunteering were higher among men compared to women, than levels of formal volunteering, for both those who volunteered once a month and at least once a year, however both have shown decreases. Although overall volunteering appears to be decreasing, according to data from museums, libraries and archives volunteering in public libraries in England, increased by 22 per cent between 2006/07 and 2008/09 (Seddon, 2011). A survey conducted by (Seddon, 2011) questioned adults in Wales about their motivation to take part in voluntary activities. It found that
majority people volunteered stated, they did so to help others. The next most
common reason, given was that ‘it gives me a sense of personal
achievement/satisfaction’. This was followed by ‘to promote a cause/
campaign’ and, to ‘meet new people/make friends’.

(Asadollahi & Hoseinzadeh, 2013) done a research at Iran and
found that decreasing participation was reported from local communities in
Khuzistan province and Iran during years 2001 to 2007. The issue yielded to
think about deterrents of social participation (SP) and factors of declining. At
the moments, severe decreasing SP amongst increasing population of elderly
was assumed by injustice social places. The study as post-hoc essay has
evaluated the factors of SP. Theories of participation, social capital and trusty,
and inequality were reviewed. Consequently, six complex factors were
obtained. The findings indicates that the social inclusion and trustworthy was
the main factors in SP. Other IVs were social inequality and urban ownership,
gender, socioeconomic status, NGOs membership, length of residency in
urban area per year, satisfying urban services, marital, employment, health
status, education status, and fatalism restrictively. Interestingly, the religious
along fatalism have divert significant relationship into social participation, By
developing social networks and communal connections, improving social
justice and trusty will lead to change of social contribution and lifestyle of
urban people. Ethical spheres and especial groups like elderly and women in
urban and regional planning, developing civic engagement, investigating
social capital and decreasing injustice social spaces were asserted.

Community participation in the form of relationships with family,
friends and the wider community, spirituality or sense of purpose in life and
meaningful activities including socializing and leisure activities are emerging
to be very important in achieving more general well-being outcomes, such as health and education (Uphoff, 2001)

(Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 1998) suggested that consumers’ lifestyle is a function of inherent individual characteristics that are shaped and formed through social interaction as consumers move through the family life-cycle.

(Lin N., 2001) considers social capital as a source to individuals. Access to social resources facilitates membership of different types of voluntary associations. Participation of individuals in voluntary associations can be either instrumental or expressive He argues that these two forms of voluntary associations have differential effects on networks. Instrumental action helps to obtain new resources and expressive action preserves or maintains resources. For obtaining new resources large, open networks are necessary. On the other hand dense, closed networks are effective in preserving existing resources.

(Weiner, 1989) opined that the extensive participation of the masses in political life has been a notable feature in India since independence, and contrasts with the more limited participation in many new states in Africa and Asia. The electoral process is among the most important and widespread forms of participation. It has remained fundamental despite recurrent intense political violence and the suspension of democracy in 1975-77. This high value implies that either greater literacy in a state induces higher turnout, by empowering people not only with the mere technical ability to vote but also with a heightened political consciousness and sense of collective identity; or a greater political consciousness of the people leads to better public services,
e.g. more functioning schools, hence higher literacy levels. Relationship between social capital and institutional performance is characterized by complex dynamics. Whereas people's involvement in public affairs and their civic character might be important to explain current government performance, these elements are also affected by education, which is itself a product of previous policies.