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# Legitimacy of Tobacco Consumption in India

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## Abstract

The assessment of the theoretical phenomenon of legitimacy in a consumer context is at the core of this thesis. The issue investigated is concerned with Indian regular tobacco consumers' tobacco consumption behaviour relative to private or social settings. In the first part, a literature review of the pertinent publications is performed and the findings systematised. On this basis, several variables are identified and later incorporated into the statistical analysis as measures in order to assess their interrelations. In the second part, a quantitative primary online self-response study was conducted with a sample of N = 231 relative to the effect of social and moral legitimacy on intention to consume tobacco. The results show that in a private setting, moral and social legitimacy judgements have a weak to no bearing on consumer behaviour. However, in a social setting, legitimacy judgements significantly detract from an Indian regular tobacco consumer's intention to smoke. Social legitimacy however has stronger effects than moral legitimacy in every setting. The authors attribute the weight of social aspects to the cultural dimension of collectivism inherent in the Indian culture. Based on the results, implications for academia and practice are discussed.

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## List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| ANOVA | Analysis of variance |
| CL | Cognitive legitimacy |
| CUL | Cultural legitimacy |
| GNI | Gross national income |
| gov. | Government |
| IAT | Implicit Association Test |
| IC | Intention to consume tobacco |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |
| leg. | Legitimacy |
| ML | Moral legitimacy |
| NL | Normative legitimacy |
| OL | Organisational legitimacy |
| OPC | Own pleasure from consuming tobacco |
| org. | Organisation |
| PL | Pragmatic legitimacy |
| RFS | Reasons for smoking |
| RL | Regulative legitimacy |
| SL | Social legitimacy |
| SPL | Socio-political legitimacy |
| TISS | Tata Institute of Social Sciences |
| WHO | World Health Organization |

# 1. Introduction

> Although smoking rates are declining or levelling off in high-income countries, prevalence rates have been climbing in many of the low-income nations, including India. Despite this shift, economic research on tobacco consumption behavior in large low-income economies such as India is nascent. (Joseph & Chaloupka, 2014: 24)

Recent studies show that there are approximately 1.1 billion smokers worldwide. Although the proportion of the global population that smokes has decreased, this decline in smoking prevalence has not translated into a smaller number of individuals who are actual smokers. This is essentially a consequence of world population growth (WHO & Bloomberg Philanthropies, 2017). For the time being, most of the decline in smoking prevalence has occurred in high-income countries, which is in spite of the fact that approximately 80% of the world's smokers actually live in low- and middle-income countries. One country falling into this category is the lower-to-middle income country of India. In addition to this, India is also the country with the second highest number of current tobacco smokers in the world (U.S. National Cancer Institute & WHO, 2016; WHO & Bloomberg Philanthropies, 2017). However, the Indian tobacco assortment does not only consist of tobacco products that can be smoked, on the contrary, the market is eminently known for its diversity in the types of tobacco products sold. Accordingly, smokeless tobacco has traditionally been the most prevalent type of tobacco consumed in India (Kostova & Dave, 2015). Ultimately, counting all consumers of both combustible tobacco and/or smokeless tobacco, there are currently approximately 266.8 million tobacco consumers in India (WHO, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare Government of India, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & TISS, 2017). This is part of the reason why insights into tobacco consumption in India were chosen to lie at the core of this study.

This paper further seeks to investigate tobacco consumption in India through the concept of legitimacy. It originates from Institutional Theory, which *"is a framework for understanding the development, maintenance and persistence of social structures called institutions. [They] are composed of cultural-cognitive, normative, and regulative elements, that together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life"* (Humphreys, 2010: 491).

For the purpose of understanding how legitimacy is conferred to consumption practices, one must first understand how individual actors build the aforementioned social structures through coordinated efforts (Humphreys, 2010). Although legitimacy is a collective-level phenomenon, one must understand that individuals' perceptions and judgements, in fact, constitute the 'micro-motor' that guides their behaviours, and thus influences interactions between them. In turn, the interactions constitute social reality and collective-level legitimacy which determines what is considered acceptable within the social system (Tost, 2011). On the basis of such insights to the concept, legitimation may be defined as the social process through which a practice or an organisation attempts to increase its perceived legitimacy by accomplishing congruence with values, institutions, and social norms of its surroundings (Humphreys, 2010; Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975). It is fundamental to understand the process of legitimation when the objective of a study is to theorise consumer behaviour within a sociocultural framework. Once researchers have gained an understanding of the [legitimation] process, through which consumption practices become legitimate, they are moreover able to gain a better understanding of the structures that, in turn, influence consumer practices and perceptions (Humphreys, 2010). Conclusively, understanding the concept of legitimacy is extremely valuable to an investigation into consumer behaviour. Yet, to the knowledge of this paper's authors, the concept of legitimacy has not yet been investigated in relation to tobacco consumption in India. Consequently, assessing the legitimacy of tobacco consumption in this country is the main concern of this paper.

As mentioned, the total number of smokers worldwide remains steady and high. Out of the 1.1 billion smokers worldwide, 942 million of them are male, while 175 million of them are female (American Cancer Society, 2018). In the face of this high number of smokers worldwide, the World Health Organization (WHO) has reported progress and a steady reduction in smoking prevalence from 2007 to 2015. In 2007 the global rate of current smokers aged 15 years or older was 23.5%. Notably, this share had decreased to 20.7% in 2015. Predominantly, the decline in smoking prevalence has occurred in high-income countries, where 85% of the population experience declining smoking prevalence. High-income countries are defined as economies with a gross national income (GNI) per capita of $12,056 or more. However, 4 out of 5 (80%), of the world's smokers actually live in low- and middle-income countries. While the former are defined as economies with a GNI per capita of $995 or less, the latter are defined as economies with a GNI per capita between $996 and $12,055 (WHO & Bloomberg Philanthropies, 2017; World Bank Countries and Lending Groups). Of all the smokers worldwide, the most distinct group is that comprised of male smokers living in middle-income countries that accounts for 68% of all smokers. In comparison, half of the world's female smokers live in high-income countries (U.S. National Cancer Institute & WHO, 2016; WHO & Bloomberg Philanthropies, 2017).

In accordance with this prevalence regarding the location of the world's smokers, data indicates that nearly two-thirds of the world's smokers live in merely 13 different countries. Three of these, namely Germany, Japan, and the United States, are high-income countries, whereas the ten remaining countries, Bangladesh, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Philippines, The Russian Federation, Turkey and Vietnam, are all middle-income countries (U.S. National Cancer Institute & WHO, 2016; World Bank Countries and Lending Groups, n.d.). Out of the mentioned middle-income countries, India is a particularly intriguing market to investigate for several reasons. Firstly, India is the country in the world with the second highest number of current tobacco smokers. According to WHO, there are about 100 million smokers, aged 15 years or older, in India. This number is merely based on cigarette smokers; hence it does not take into consideration the extensive consumption volume of alternative tobacco products that are popular in India and the South-East Asia Region (U.S. National Cancer Institute & WHO, 2016). Secondly, India is the third largest producer of tobacco in the world, as the country accounts for roughly 11.2% of the global tobacco production. And in general, low- and middle-income countries account for approximately 92% of the global tobacco production (U.S. National Cancer Institute & WHO, 2016). Lastly, since India is a large emerging market, it is attractive for international businesses because of the large population, high rate of economic growth of 7,4% (IMF, 2018), and opportunities for international businesses to produce at lower costs through local production. Yet, a large emerging market like India also encourage learning for international businesses due to its economic and social dynamism, institutional distinctness and it being highly contested. Assertions suggest that these types of markets are becoming increasingly important for strategy formulation in international businesses inter alia for the aforementioned reasons. Similarly to China, India can thus be described as a large emerging market because both markets are the two largest emerging economies (Cavusgil, Knight & Riesenberger, 2017; Enderwick, 2009). Nevertheless, even though theoretically, India represents a great market opportunity for international businesses, the actual ability and opportunity of international businesses to exploit these merits is not inherently guaranteed. In order for Western international players to do so, they must understand the differences between India's unique properties as an emerging market, and those of known, developed markets, and the strategic implications (Roberts, Kayande & Srivastava, 2015). Emerging markets characteristically possess economies that are experiencing industrialisation and also rapid economic growth (Gibley, 2012).

In order to yield the desired results, international businesses must understand how consumers in emerging markets behave and what their preferences are. On the Indian market a diverse selection of tobacco products is available, however smokeless tobacco is the most prevalent type consumed (26%). It is followed by bidis, which is a filter-less cigarette-like product (9%), and cigarettes (6%) (Kostova & Dave, 2015). This consumption pattern is of course reflected in the absolute numbers of Indian tobacco consumers for each product category. As mentioned previously, approximately 100 million Indians currently use combustible tobacco, however, approximately 199.4 million Indians consume smokeless tobacco (WHO, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare Government of India, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & TISS, 2017). Within the smokeless tobacco product category, the Indian market also offers a plethora of types. Notable in this product category is khaini, which is a tobacco lime mixture that has been the most consumed smokeless tobacco product in India (12%) (Bhawna, 2013).

In India about 28.6% of all adults currently consume tobacco in some form, both smokeless and/or combustible tobacco (WHO, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare Government of India, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & TISS, 2017). Among the adult Indian population consuming tobacco, smoking tobacco is almost entirely a male activity (19%) compared to female smoking tobacco consumers (2%). Nonetheless, the consumption of smokeless tobacco is profoundly prevalent among both men (29.6%) and women (12.8%), and approximately 85% of Indian female tobacco consumers use smokeless tobacco rather than combustible tobacco (WHO, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Government of India & TISS, 2017; Bhawna, 2013; Kostova & Dave, 2015). On the basis of the ratio between male and female consumption of combustible and smokeless tobacco, the tobacco consumption ratio in general shows a higher tobacco consumption prevalence among males (42.2%) compared to females

(20.3%) (WHO, Ministry of Health & Family Welfare Government of India, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & TISS, 2017).

On the basis of the insights on tobacco consumption in India, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption among the Indian tobacco consuming population. This is done in order to deepen the understanding of these tobacco consumers and how their consumption practices and perceptions may be influenced by their perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption.

Emerging markets, including India, have increasingly garnered attention from investors all over the world in the global marketplace. In order to overcome the challenges for international businesses that have been outlined above, several measures can be taken. For instance, performing targeted market research and understanding local/regional consumer needs are important steps towards achieving success in the newly entered or to-be-entered markets (Cavusgil, Knight & Riesenberger, 2017; Enderwick, 2009). Since it is valuable to understand the concept of legitimacy in relation to consumer practices, is it reasonable that the concept is included in consumer research in new potential markets. For the above-mentioned attractive reasons and higher levels of smoking prevalence, emerging markets also serve as opportunities for organisations in the tobacco industry. Because the prevalence of smoking is decreasing globally, it is expectable for stakeholders in the tobacco industry to continuously explore new market opportunities across the globe, with emerging markets bearing great potential. Moreover, due to the toxic composition of tobacco products and the global health trend conflicting with their consumption, it is attractive to investigate tobacco consumption in relation to the concept of legitimacy.

With the purpose of enhancing the understanding of Indian tobacco consumers' perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption, this study adopted a cross-sectional survey strategy. This particular strategy was chosen in order to reach the desired sample across a considerable geographic distance. The sample group consists of 231 tobacco consumers from India. The respondents were both male and female tobacco consumers, however, all respondents were above the age of 18 years, since this is the legal smoking age in India (Mehrotra, Mehrotra, & Jandoo, 2010). The sample group does not pertain to a specific geographical area in India, but it is composed of consumers from across the country. The Indian tobacco consumers' perceived moral and social legitimacy were measured via an Internet-based survey by asking them questions about their attitudes towards tobacco consumption in two different settings, namely in a private and in a social one. The survey was distributed and completed via the Internet to accommodate the aforementioned geographical distance.

Through the analysis of the obtained data, tobacco consumption patterns in India became apparent. The results of this study might assist in enhancing the understanding of consumer behaviour in India for the stakeholders in the tobacco industry. Additionally, its findings and methodology might serve as a basis for further research into the field of consumer behaviour in other industries and in other emerging markets through the concept of legitimacy.

In order to fulfil the aim of the study, the following research question shall serve as a guidance: *"How does Indian tobacco consumers' pleasure from consuming tobacco and perceived legitimacy influence their actual consumption behaviour in different settings?"*

By conducting a survey directed at the Indian tobacco consuming population, this paper essentially discovers significant information about the participants' legitimacy perceptions and attitudes towards tobacco consumption in different settings. Until current date, to the knowledge of the study's authors, the concept of legitimacy has not been investigated in relation to tobacco consumption in an emerging market, for instance India. However, legitimacy has previously been investigated in relation to other consumption practices, such as casino gambling or usage of particular brands. Despite this, many paths remain that consumer research can take to enhance researchers' and marketers' understanding of what drives consumer practices and perceptions and moreover, how the concept of legitimacy influences it (Humphreys, 2010; Kates, 2004). Hence scholars including Humphreys (2010) and Kates (2004), that have precedingly explored the concept of legitimacy in relation to consumption practices, call for further development of the concept and its examination through cases pertinent to consumer research.

Together with the gambling industry and that of alcoholic beverages, the tobacco industry is defined as a controversial industry sector. Despite the fact that these industries are historically established, they suffer organisational legitimacy issues inter alia due to the addictive nature of the associated products and the afflictions caused by their consumption (Reast, Maon, Lindgreen & Vanhamme, 2013; Pierani & Tiezzi, 2009). Therefore, the controversial nature of the tobacco industry resulted in additional ethical considerations on behalf of the authors of this paper. The purpose of this study is not to provide a particular stakeholder in the tobacco industry with specific strategic- or managerial recommendations on whether to target or how to enter the Indian market. Rather, this study is an investigation into consumer behaviour in India through the concept of legitimacy since tobacco consumption in all probability suffers legitimacy challenges similar to those that the tobacco industry as whole faces. India was chosen for this study due to its population possessing a comparatively high share of tobacco consumers and general market opportunities along with its unique cultural properties. Accordingly, this study can serve as a predecessor for investigating consumption legitimacy in similar markets with regards to economic and cultural development. Another important factor influencing the authors' ethical considerations was the respect towards and anonymity of the individuals participating in this research. Due to this, they were assured anonymity in the sense that their participation and civil identities would not be exposed by the utilised survey software. Therefore, the participants were reassured that the collected data was exclusively used for research purposes.

Lastly, the structure of this paper shall be presented here briefly: firstly, the preceding literature concerned with the concept of legitimacy is reviewed in detail, closing with a visualisation of the patterns of the findings in a matrix. Secondly, a series of hypotheses are developed based on the reviewed legitimacy literature and acquired knowledge on consumer behaviour and relating aspects. The third chapter furthermore presents a conceptual model demonstrating the hypothesised relationships between the variables that are to be assessed. Thirdly, the methodological choices of the paper are accounted for, thus its research philosophy and research design, along with justifications for the choices of measurements and questionnaire design. Fourthly, the hypotheses are tested using the appropriate statistical treatment for the model, namely multiple regression analysis. Fifthly, based on the results derived from the multiple regression analysis, the hypotheses are discussed. Moreover, in this chapter, theoretical- and managerial implications along with limitations and guidance to future research are presented.

# 2. Literature Review

In this chapter, preceding literature pertaining the concept of legitimacy is thoroughly examined. The purpose of this literature review is to gain a better understanding of the concept this study seeks to investigate in relation to tobacco consumption. Thereby, it becomes possible to establish key constructs for further hypothesising. Through a systematic assessment of the existing literature on legitimacy, a pattern in the development of the legitimacy concept over time emerges. An underlying assumption of the assessment is that the concept of legitimacy can be viewed from an organisational, a strategic- or managerial perspective and a one that takes consumer behaviour into account.

## 2.1 Organisational Legitimacy

One of the first scholars considered to stress the importance of the concept of legitimacy and to introduce it into organisational sociology was the renowned sociologist, philosopher, and political economist Max Weber ([1924]1968). In this work, Weber explores the legitimation of both corporate and governmental power structures, arguing that power becomes legitimate as authority when the exercise of power is supported by predominant social norms, whether these are traditional, charismatic or bureaucratic (Ruef & Scott 1998; Scott, 2001). However, over the course of the subsequent decades, the concept of legitimacy has been assessed relative to areas other than power structures. Consequently, the concept has been distinguished into additional layers and several more foci and central features have become part of it.

Based on Weber's introduction and description of legitimacy, Parsons (1960) extends the concept of organisational legitimacy by proposing his own cultural-institutional perspective (Ruef & Scott, 1998). For this purpose, Parsons (1960) distinguishes three internal organisational levels of hierarchy, namely the technical, the managerial, and the institutional levels. Firstly, the technical level is concerned with the purpose of the existence of an organisation, i.e. when looking at value-adding enterprises, it is the transformation of physical inputs into outputs or the delivery of a service. Therefore, Parsons (1960) likens the technical organisational level to the plant of a company. Secondly, the managerial level, likened to the legal term of a "firm", is where crucial decisions are made pertinent to the organisation of the operations taking place at the technical level. Thus, administrative functions and strategic matters such as resource and labour obtainment and allocation are handled at the managerial level. Furthermore, any type of public relations is managed on this level. Thirdly, Parsons (1960) describes the institutional level. He argues that organisations' basis for existence is a need or goal that the society it is embedded in wants to see fulfilled. Therefore, no organisation can exist independently from its social surrounding, even organisations that are independent in a legal and economic sense are at the mercy of society's approval. An organisation's decision-makers hope that the surrounding society transmits legitimacy onto it, a process which is physically manifested in the society granting the organisation access to resources and accepting its sales to the customer base.

In order for the organisational and societal goals to be aligned, the values of the organisation must also be consistent with the values of the organisation's embedded social context. Parsons (1960) defines values as *"modes of normative orientation of action in a social system which define the main directions of action without reference to specific goals or more detailed situations or structures"* (Parsons, 1960: 171). Therefore, in order to obtain legitimacy, organisations must comply with the wider society on a very general level. Additionally, it should be pointed out that Parsons (1960) proclaimed that organisations seek to secure others' judgements of their existence and transactions as being legitimate through concrete actions. The quoted reason for this is that organisations utilise resources, which are inherently scarce and the markets for these are contested. In order to justify an organisation's use of these resources, the other players within the social system must recognise this use of resources as legitimate. To sum up, according to Parsons (1960), legitimacy is conferred to organisations on the institutional level, which denotes its interaction with society and its values and goals.

In her article concerned with the evolution of organisational environments, Terreberry (1968) also touches upon her understanding of legitimacy, which takes yet another angle. According to her, legitimacy is very difficult to verify empirically and can therefore merely be inferred through latent indicators. Several of her peers have made statements in the same vein of legitimacy being an elusive concept (i.e. Suchman, 1995). Terreberry (1968) takes on the view that *"legitimacy is mediated by the exchange of other resources"* (Terreberry, 1986: 608), and this becomes apparent through the dominance of strong business ties from other organisations to a specific one under investigation. Consequently, what she refers to as "willingness" of several players to invest any kind of resources into a specific organisation, signifies this organisation's degree of organisational legitimacy.

In his book "Readings in Organization Theory", Maurer (1971) concerns himself with the organisational process pertinent to legitimacy, which is called legitimation. The process connected to legitimation is marked through an organisation's justification of doing business vis à vis its superordinate system and its peers. Doing business in this context means its acts relative to value creation, resource use and trade activities. In the relevant chapter, Maurer (1971) accedes to other relevant scholars and their legitimacy considerations, including Terreberry (1968) and Thompson (1967).

## 2.2 Legitimacy from a Strategic or Managerial Perspective

When examining the legitimacy literature that emerged in the 1970s, a new notion becomes apparent that takes on the viewpoint of organisational decision-makers. In this era, the authors adhere to the analysis of preceding scholars for the most part. They however extend the concept through the finding that not only the higher-level societal system and its legitimacy judgements bear an influence on an organisation's managerial and strategic course, but that the reverse can also be the case. This means that legitimacy is a dynamic constraint (Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975), reflected in phenomena such as isomorphism and the associated rationalisation and institutionalisation processes of organisational practices. These are, furthermore, linked to the obtainment of organisational legitimacy and survival. More details on the analysis of managerial legitimacy considerations are elaborated and presented in chronological order of publication below.

In their work, Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) accede to previous scholars' views by arguing that an organisation's existence is perceived as legitimate if its conduct is in accordance with the norms of acceptable comportment imposed by its surrounding, higher-level social system. Additionally, Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) establish that if the congruency between the inter- and intra-organisational values is lacking, the other players within the higher-level system impose penalties of "legal, economic and other social" nature onto the organisation. These penalties signify a threat to this organisation's legitimacy. The authors at hand contrast Terreberry's (1968) conceptualisation of organisational legitimacy by speculating that the relationship between conferred legitimacy and resource allocation is not reciprocal. Similarly, they voice a warning not to equate legality and legitimacy. As presented above, in their view, legitimacy is mostly determined by the comportment that is socially accepted by the larger system. Although acceptable behaviours according to social norms and laws are likely highly correlated within a democratic system, the relationship between these variables is never fully correlated. The authors even suppose that the relationship between legality and legitimacy may be negatively moderated by the authoritarianism of the surrounding system. For the mentioned reasons, legitimacy must be a distinct concept from legality. Additionally, Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) propose that there may be a reciprocal relationship between social norms and values and legitimacy of an industry. Therefore, either variable can likely affect the other, not only the social system organisational legitimacy. They argue that competition between organisations for resources, such as legitimacy, can alter the system's social norms and values. In addition, these scholars point out that legitimacy is a dynamic constraint to an organisation's options for action because it changes according to the organisation's and the social values' evolvement. Finally, the authors stress that legitimacy affects different organisations to different degrees, depending on their visibility to the public, reliance on subsidies etc. and purpose. Accordingly, more prominent organisations rely on the conferral of legitimacy more heavily. In order to support their view on legitimacy, the authors present a conceptual framework, which serves as a tool to analyse organisational legitimacy and legitimation processes.

Meyer and Rowan (1977) incorporated the process and aspect of isomorphism into legitimacy considerations. They state that organisations secure their legitimacy and expectancy for survival by adhering to what they term "rationalised and institutionalised concepts in society". As a trade-off for heightened perceived legitimacy, these organisations compromise their levels of internal control and coordination. The way in which the institutionalised concepts of acceptable conduct are distributed through the network of organisations is by so-called "myths" - encoded practices of an industry which are supposedly rationally effective and thus confer legitimacy to a player who adopts them. Therefore, if high degrees of legitimacy are conferred to an organisation, it will be punished more mildly in the case of poor technical success than an organisation with low legitimacy would. The reason lies in the fact that a high degree of own legitimacy protects an organisation from having its conduct questioned. Additionally, the achievement of purely technical business goals is not a single guaranteeing factor for organisational survival. Especially in industries disposing of many “myths”, organisations profit from becoming highly isomorphic since they are then most likely to gain high levels of legitimacy and thus, be entrusted with crucial resources.

With the statement of “*Organizational legitimacy is not a given. It is the consequence of the interpretation of actions, and there is some latitude for describing actions in terms of legitimate social values*" (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978: 195), the authors communicate that they acceded to the view of previous scholars regarding the nature of legitimacy (i.e. Parsons, 1960). In addition, these authors point out that legitimacy’s absence is more likely to be consciously perceived than its presence. As the scholars before them, they also conceptualise that legitimacy is an organisational characteristic which the social environment confers. In addition, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) propose that it, however, remains unclear how large the share of social groups is that is required to deem an entity as illegitimate in order for this entity to experience significant legitimacy problems. The manner in which these social groups perform legitimacy judgement processes was also described as being ambiguous. Organisations seeking to maintain or obtain legitimacy supposedly do this through a retrospective process. Herein, the organisations assess past behaviour under current social values and then align their mission statements etc. with what the relevant publics deem decent. Consequently, whenever major shattering events like an energy crisis or a nuclear disaster occur, organisations will adjust their public relations in order to accommodate the changed acceptable behaviour according to the collective and ultimately, secure the legitimacy status.

Meyer and Scott (1983) took a descriptive angle in their assessment of legitimacy relative to the context of local political authority systems. More specifically, they were interested in the factors that are likely to challenge the legitimacy of these administrative systems. Previous literature had mostly been concerned with organisational legitimacy pertinent to value-adding companies (except Parsons, 1960). Meyer and Scott (1983) do adhere to the majority of their predecessors’ assertions, and thus take on the perspective that *“organisational legitimacy refers to the degree of cultural support”* an organisation receives (Meyer & Scott, 1983: 201). This means, ultimately, that the organisation’s selected purpose, its internal organisation, its competences and its consumed resources must all represent the best alternatives under assumed rationality. However, all the stakeholders in an organisation’s legitimacy, so to speak, are expected not to have congruent conceptions of rationality and, at the core, diverging perceptions of reality. This will eventually result in an ambiguous legitimacy judgement. This effect is reinforced if the numbers of such judging “stakeholders” increase. To circumvent being subject to such a clouded legitimacy judgement, the authors propose paying less attention to facts and more to normative ideals of an organisation.

Another aspect that challenges established legitimacy judgements of governments is that of changing environmental factors, which is also frequently mentioned elsewhere in extant legitimacy literature (preceding: Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Antagonists to a ruling government often seek to manipulate such changes, or evoke them deliberately, in order to reinforce pre-existing legitimacy problems, the government had already been experiencing. In order to protect their legitimacy status, governments, and institutionalised organisations in general, associate themselves decidedly with their formalised characteristics and outwardly remove themselves from operational activities. Through their previous statement, the authors bear on previous work published by Thompson (1967) and Meyer, Scott and Deal (1981). By implication, the more divergent the plethora of legitimating demands are towards an organisation, the less likely it is to be engaged in operational activities and the more likely it is to serve representative purposes.

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) sought to answer the question of why organisations had been becoming increasingly alike in preceding years through their paper. They arrived at the conclusion that such isomorphism on behalf of organisational structures was the response to the driving forces of bureaucratisation and rationalisation. The context of rationale was also touched upon by Meyer and his collaborators. In this aspect, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) specifically accede to Meyer and Rowan (1977) through the statement that, merely because a strategy proves rational within the context of a singular organisation, it does not allow for the inference that this same notion will be rational for other organisations. However, organisations will still adopt these non-performance-enhancing strategies if they expect to become more legitimated in the process. Furthermore, isomorphism is evoked by the fact that organisations tend to model their operations etc. on other organisations that resemble them but have higher perceived levels of success and/or legitimacy. One aspect of this is notably innovation, which is primarily conducted in order to drive productivity. However, innovation is supposedly not

unlikely to become an end in itself for organisations that are seeking to heighten the levels of legitimacy attributed to them. If anything, through the engagement in innovation trends in an industry, organisations can signal their willingness to improve on operable conditions. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) present an analytic threefold typology of processes through which organisations become isomorphic: coercive, mimetic and normative. They point out that empirically, it may not be possible in every case to determine to what type an isomorphic process is subjected, since different underlying triggers may manifest into the same observable outcome. In the following, the three processes will be presented in brief. Firstly, an organisation is likely to endure a coercive conformal process if other organisations it depends on set it in motion and also through pressures of cultural expectations evoked by the surrounding society. Secondly, organisations engage in mimicry when facing issues related to goal ambiguousness and uncertainty of the environment. They do this by modelling their appearance, processes and strategies on other organisations or use their operations as benchmarks for decision-making. Thirdly, normative isomorphism refers to the implications that professionalisation within a specific industry have. The authors conform with Larson's (1977) and Collins' (1979) definitions of professionalisation in that members of the same occupation struggle collectively in order to define the accepted methods and conditions of their profession. Furthermore, their aim in this fight is to gain autonomy from regulations or from other stakeholders of the organisation. This is however never achieved fully in practice. Nonetheless, professionalisation facilitates normative isomorphism throughout organisations if these engage in rigid and uniform employment practices, such as only recruiting from certain educational institutions and making very specific requirements for certain job positions. As a result, the authors hypothesise that organisations within a field conform increasingly over time.
Finally, it should be pointed out that DiMaggio and Powell (1983) subscribe to the view that organisations not only compete for resources, customers and the like, but also for institutional legitimacy.

Singh, Tucker and House (1986) investigated the underlying cause for younger organisations to be less likely to survive than older ones. This phenomenon has been termed the "liability of newness", which affects all types of organisations but nonetheless to varying degrees. For their research purpose, the authors distinguished the two processes, namely of external legitimacy and internal coordination and their implications for organisational survival. By referring to

what was termed "organisational legitimacy" in previously published literature as "external legitimacy", these authors heavily emphasise the influence the external environment has on new enterprises. Accordingly, older organisations are more likely to be considered legitimate, as they have developed strong exchange relationships over time with external constituencies, while also having had their activities endorsed by powerful external collective actors (cp. also Stinchcombe, 1965). Additionally, it is argued that internal organisational changes are systematically related to external legitimacy, as isomorphism with the changing environment through internal reorganisation was linked to increased legitimacy and organisational survival over time. Furthermore, the empirical evidence showed that organisations either achieved legitimation in early stages of their existence or were decreasingly likely to do so over time.
It should be noted that the findings in the paper of Singh et al. (1986) are derived from an empirical test of the effects of legitimacy on not-for-profit-organisations that the scholars performed.

## 2.3 Extending Dimensions of Organisational Legitimacy

On the basis of preceding scholars' distinctive views on organisational legitimacy, subsequent researchers began to extend and distinguish different dimensions of legitimacy in the literature that emerged in the 1990s. The extended and differentiated concepts of legitimacy, arise from general understandings generated by previous scholars. Yet, these new dimensions emerge based on different behavioural dynamics around the concept of legitimacy. This is more distinctly reflected in a dimension such as moral legitimacy, introduced by Suchman in 1995, which rests on the judgement of whether a particular activity is the right thing to do. The behavioural aspect is likewise reflected in regulative legitimacy, presented by Scott (1995). This dimension of legitimacy is obtained when a legally established entity acts in accordance to the laws and regulations of its environment. Such dimensions of legitimacy and their basis are presented in more detail in the chronological order of publication below.

Aldrich and Fiol (1994) extend the research by Singh et al. (1986) pertaining to organisations' liability of newness by investigating potential strategies for organisational survival that executives can employ. More specifically, the researchers at hand concerned themselves with the effects a lacking sociopolitical legitimacy and cognitive legitimacy have on members of an emerging industry. Aldrich and Fiol (1994) were notably the creators of the terms of cognitive legitimacy and sociopolitical legitimacy, terms which have since become established in academia. In their legitimacy understanding, the authors adhered to previous work (Ranger-Moore, Bananszak-Holl & Hannan, 1991), illustrating that the levels of conferred sociopolitical and cognitive legitimacy of an industry rise in the wake of more member organisations being founded and established. On the one hand, Aldrich and Fiol (1994) defined cognitive legitimacy as referring to "the spread of knowledge about a new venture" and point out that cognitive legitimacy of an entity is maximised whenever it is "taken for granted" by a society. Accordingly, when organisations are born, they carry a very low cognitive legitimacy. On the other hand, the authors understood socio-political legitimacy as referring to the process by which the organisation is accepted as appropriate and right, given existing norms and laws, by the general public, key stakeholders, government officials and key opinion leaders. The described lack on both dimensions of legitimacy on behalf of young organisations, especially in emerging industries, impede their establishment and are aggrieved by the low levels of trust the inter-industry and institutional environments hold towards them. One of the authors' main contributions to the legitimacy literature lies in their description of providing strategies to entrepreneurs through which they can collectively promote new industry development and its attainment of cognitive and socio-political legitimacy. They have presented this on several levels of analysis, namely the organisational, intraindustrial, interindustrial and institutional levels. The notion hereby is that the scholars recommend establishing several recognisable elements of a dominant design and collaborating with third parties in order to obtain cognitive legitimacy. In contrast, socio-political legitimacy is achieved through establishing a good reputation with regards to consistency, reliability and accommodating other industry's demands. Additionally, Aldrich and Fiol (1994) recommend collaborating with fellow industry members to establish a common marketing and a lobby. The latter point is reminiscent of the previously mentioned phenomenon and the underlying dynamics of the of professionalisation (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), taking place on the industry rather than the professional level.

Suchman (1995) reviewed the historical development of the commonly held understanding of organisations and their relationship with the environment. In the early stages of modernism, organisations were expected to make decisions based on rationality, in the same vein as people were perceived as homines economici. Furthermore, organisations used to be viewed as entities clearly demarcated from others in their environment. Suchman (1995) most notably criticised that legitimacy was not a well-defined concept and distinguishes between two schools: (1) the work of the institutional school primarily revolving around Meyer, and (2) the work of the strategic school, which adopts a managerial perspective, mostly revolving around Pfeffer.

Further contributions by Suchman (1995) through this paper include the presentation of the general concept of legitimacy along with the extant main types of legitimacy. In his paper Suchman (1995) defines legitimacy as the following: *"Legitimacy is a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions."* (Suchman, 1995: 57). Moreover, one can discern three broad types of legitimacy. Although they all involve the aforementioned generalized perception on entities' actions, each of them rests on different behavioural dynamics. The three types of legitimacy are: pragmatic legitimacy, which is based on audiences' self-interest; moral legitimacy, which is based on normative approval; and cognitive legitimacy, which is based on comprehensibility and taken-for-grantedness. These three types of legitimacy can additionally be distinguished into supplementary concepts. Firstly, the concept of pragmatic legitimacy can be divided into three types of legitimacy: exchange legitimacy, meaning that the support for an organisation is determined by the expected value to the constituents; influence legitimacy, meaning that constituents support the organisation, not because they necessarily believe that it provides them with specific favourable exchanges, but because they see the organisation as being receptive to their larger interest; and dispositional legitimacy, meaning that constituents are more likely to view organisations, with dispositional attributes and positive evaluations, as legitimate. Likewise, secondly, moral legitimacy can be divided into four types of legitimacy: consequential legitimacy, stating that organisations should be judged by their accomplishments; procedural legitimacy, stating that organisations can gain legitimacy through the implementation of socially accepted techniques and procedures in addition to generating socially valued outcomes; structural legitimacy, stating that audiences believe that an organisation is valuable and worthy of support when it is located within a morally favoured taxonomic category through its structural characteristics; and personal legitimacy resting on the charisma of the individual organisational leader. Thirdly and lastly, cognitive legitimacy is based on two variants according to Suchman (1995); legitimacy is based on comprehensibility, rising from the availability of cultural models that provide reasonable explanations for both the organisation itself and its endeavours; and legitimacy based on taken-for-grantedness, where alternatives become unthinkable due to intersubjective "given" by the audiences.

In addition to these definitions of the main types of legitimacy, Suchman (1995) also establishes links between the three main types along with the challenges and solutions pertaining to organisational legitimacy management. In most real-world settings pragmatic-, moral-, and cognitive legitimacy co-exist, yet Suchman (1995) yields some reflection on their interrelations. Despite the fact that these three types of legitimacy do not constitute a hierarchy, two important distinctions between them persist: Firstly, where pragmatic legitimacy rests on the self-interest of the audience, moral and cognitive legitimacy do not. This means that it is possible for organisations to purchase pragmatic legitimacy. This is done by directing tangible benefits and rewards towards constituencies. Moral and cognitive legitimacy, however, implicate larger cultural rules, with which side payments are inconsistent. These side payments, therefore, tend to diminish the stature and coherence of the organisation. Secondly, pragmatic and moral legitimacy both rest on discursive evaluation. On the contrary, cognitive legitimacy does not. Through explicit public discussions audiences arrive at ethical judgements and cost-benefits appraisals, thus organisations can often win both pragmatic and moral legitimacy by participating in these discussions. Cognitive legitimacy, on the other hand, implicates unspoken orienting assumptions. Therefore, an organisation defending its endeavours acrimoniously tend to endanger the exteriority and objectivity of the taken-for-grantedness underlying cognitive legitimacy. In the work of Suchman (1995) the concept of legitimacy is additionally increasingly linked to consumer behaviour through the distinct aforementioned definitions.

Scott (1995) delivered a significant contribution to the literature relating to legitimacy through his distinction of three pillars of institutions. Accordingly, three forms of legitimacy, namely regulative-, normative- and cognitive legitimacy are derived from these pillars. Scott's (1995) aim in this piece of work was to systematise and synthesise three divergent conceptions of institutions' symbolic systems which had emerged in preceding literature. As a member of the institutionalist school of thought, Scott (1995) proclaims legitimacy's definition as the following: *"(it) is not a commodity to be possessed or exchanged but a condition reflecting cultural alignment, normative support, or consonance with relevant rules or laws."* (Scott, 1995: 45)

Through this statement, Scott (1995) counters the conceptions of Meyer and collaborators, who, as mentioned, see legitimacy manifested through an organisation's exchange of and access to resources which are facilitated through the employment of accepted, codified practices (also Terreberry, 1968). In a similar vein, Scott (1995) does not conform with Aldrich and Fiol (1994) in their legitimacy understanding who suggest that it can be obtained through transactions with other industry members or lobbyists.

In Scott's (1995) understanding, regulative legitimacy is conferred when an organisation is legally established and acts in accordance to relevant laws and regulations. However, normative legitimacy is obtained through the adherence to moral obligations imposed by the norms and values of a society, countenancing mere legal requirements. Norms portray general rules for comportment and "*define legitimate means to pursue valued ends*" (Scott, 1995: 37). In contrast to legal parameters of legitimacy, normative ones are much more likely to be internalised and adhering to them is expected to elicit extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards. Lastly, organisations obtain cognitive legitimacy by possessing a structure that does not alienate the people because it seems familiar and relatable. Therefore, the organisation's actions are in accordance with this orthodox worldview held by society. Scott (1995) also acknowledges the "taken for grantedness" aspect of cognitive legitimacy that ecologists had established (i.e. Aldrich & Fiol, 1994; Hannan & Freeman, 1986). The author points out that any organisation will present varying scores of legitimacy for each of the three types, depending on what elements are taken into assessment as legitimacy evidence. The categorisation of organisational legitimacy dimensions established by Scott and Suchman has subsequently notably been followed by later scholars.

In their article from 2002, Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings discuss expert legitimacy, more specifically, they define the legitimacy of a profession and how it has legitimated a change process to itself in a case. Furthermore, the scholars also take the position that legitimation of an idea requires the consent of internal and external stakeholders of an organisation. For the purpose of illustrating the mentioned change process, the scholars outline a model of nonisomorphic institutional change emergent from extant literature which deploys several forms of legitimacy in its various stages. This change model consists of a cycle that has six stages. Initially, a jolt in the form of a technological revolution or social upheaval calls established practices into doubt. Subsequently, new players, i.e. entrepreneurs enter the field and organisations innovate independently, in a stage termed "preinstitutionalisation" of the practice or idea. The fourth stage, called "theorisation" is the one the scholars have deemed the most crucial, in which causalities and outcomes of newly performed practices become abstracted. Through this codification, this stage leads to practices being widely spread and adopted in the field. The authors accede to Suchman (1995) since it is in this stage that practices obtain moral and/or practical legitimacy. The former is granted by bringing new ideas in formation with "prevailing normative descriptions" and the latter by pleading the idea's "functional superiority". If the practices under investigation have successfully become theorised, their diffusion in the field follow. Again, Greenwood et al. (2002) accede to Suchman (1995), since they conceptualise incrementally higher degrees of pragmatic legitimacy being attributed to the practice over the course of its diffusion. Suchman's (1995) conceptualisation of cognitive legitimacy becomes an integral part of the practice in the subsequent stage, which Greenwood et al. (2002) term "institutionalisation". More specifically, at this stage, an idea has been transformed in the collective perception so that its appropriateness is not questioned but rather viewed as "natural", thus its persistence is secured over the long term. Through this article the scholars contribute with a more profound description of the theorisation stage in the change model. Specifically, pertinent to legitimacy, they assessed how pragmatic and moral legitimacy are assigned to a new idea during theorisation.

Archibald (2004) contributes to the body of literature on organisational legitimacy through the assessment of the effects of isomorphism and market partitioning on organisational legitimacy and viability. In this process, he further achieves the distinction between cultural and socio-political legitimation effects on organisational persistence. Archibald (2004) establishes that an organisation maximises its cultural legitimacy, on the one hand, through a high degree of isomorphism with regards to its competences and resources. On the other hand, socio-political legitimacy is highest in organisations that display highly differentiated competencies and resources. All in all, he concludes that heterogeneity of these properties, and thus socio-political legitimacy, ensures organisational survival.

## 2.4 Legitimacy Relating to Consumer Behaviour

Through the recognition of distinguished legitimacy dimensions, the concept of legitimacy is increasingly connected to consumption. This, especially, becomes apparent through e.g. pragmatic legitimacy presented by Suchman (1995), which rests on the self-interest of the audience. An additional dimension of legitimacy, presented by Suchman (1995), connected to consumption is cognitive legitimacy based on taken-for-grantedness. This implies that other alternatives become unthinkable to consumers due to their intersubjective "given". This aspect of cognitive legitimacy is further acknowledged by additional scholars including Scott (1995). In the following period, after the distinction of different legitimacy dimensions, the concept of legitimacy is increasingly applied to consumption practices. In the subsequent section applications of legitimacy in relation to consumer behaviour are examined and treated as predecessors for this paper's latter application of legitimacy to an empirical study.

The concept of legitimacy is for instance brought into connection with consumer behaviour in the 1999 study carried out by Handelman and Arnold. In their study, the authors present legitimation as a process through which organisational support is mediated. They argue that marketing actions with a social dimension have increasingly become a focal point for marketers due to the positive impacts they have on the organisation. Drawing on a key insight from institutional theory, the acknowledgement of the institutional environment, Handelman and Arnold (1999) reason that organisations are rewarded with support when their actions conform to the norms of their constituencies, as they thereby show cultural allegiance. The research was conducted in a retail context, where consumers were exposed to scenarios depicting combinations of performative and institutional actions of a fictitious retailer. The study indicates that legitimation serves as a measure of business performance since it reflects the constituents' approval of the organisation. This approval is necessary for the organisation in order for it to obtain constituents' support. In this study the support of an organisation is reflected in a consumer's intention to shop at the retailer, his or her word-of-mouth activity, his or her willingness to boycott, and lastly his or her willingness to support the granting of a zoning and building permit for the retailer. Moreover, the study indicates that support mediated through legitimation is a key dependent variable for the organisation. The importance of support reveals that consumers, on whom organisations depend for long-run survival, hold multiple roles. They do not merely act as economically-minded customers, but carry norms with them from multiple institutional memberships.

In his article Kates (2004) illustrates how brands attain legitimacy through co-creation of brand meaning with consumers throughout consumption communities. Kates (2004) argues that developing the legitimacy concept in connection to brands is an important contribution not yet performed in present consumer research. According to Kates (2004) consumers actually hold an important co-creative role in brand construction. Additionally, consumers may also construct some meanings around a brand, other than what was intended by the brand itself, further affirming the importance of brand legitimacy. In his article, Kates (2004) bases the definition of brand legitimacy on the work of Suchman (1995). Thus, brand legitimacy is defined as *"the perception or assumption that the actions of an entity [a brand, in the present context] are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions"* (Kates, 2004: 456). How consumers co-create brand meaning, and how brands indeed develop legitimate fit within consumptions communities is, in this work, explored in the context of a North American gay community. Accordingly, legitimate brand meanings result from social negotiation among members of the studied gay community. The consumers inscribe particular brands with frames pertaining to the gay community, and through dynamic framing processes, they assess whether or not other brands have a social fit with the shared meanings of the community.

In his paper from 2010, Humphreys sought to investigate two main research questions pertinent to consumer behaviour and legitimacy from an institutional angle: (1) How is the general acceptance of the consumption of a specific commodity or service influenced by changes in regulation and public discussion? And (2) what is the reason for the legitimation of some consumption practices while others maintain an attached stigma? For the purpose of investigating these research questions, the author examined the casino industry through the review of related historical newspaper articles and subsequently performed qualitative and quantitative analyses of the compiled data. Faithful to the institutional school of thought, Humphreys (2010) complies with Scott's (1995) conception of legitimacy and its three dimensions, namely regulative, cultural-cognitive and normative (previously also termed moral) legitimacy. Furthermore, he adopted the following definition*: "Legitimation is the social* *process of making a practice or an organisation congruent with the configuration of other values, institutions, and social norms*" (Humphreys, 2010: 491), which is a combination of the conceptions formulated by Dowling and Pfeffer (1975), Johnson, Dowd, and Ridgeway (2006), and Suchman (1995).

Commonly, scholars of legitimacy had sought to understand how entities become accepted by the established institutions of society. However, Humphreys (2010) goes one step further in this paper by adopting a broader legitimacy understanding and then assessing how legitimacy is conferred by performing a historical analysis looking at the interactions between various, distinct institutional spheres. Furthermore, it should be pointed out that this article is not concerned with organisational legitimacy, unlike most extant literature, but with consumption practice legitimation. Generally speaking, a consumption practice is legitimated or de-legitimated over the course of a change in its conferred meaning by society. More specifically speaking, Humphreys (2010) showed that changes in material and regulation affect the dominant discussion on a consumption practice throughout a society, which is strongly influenced by institutional fields such as newspaper journalism. In this point, he builds on Lippmann's (1920) ideas that journalists deploy the methods of selection, valuation and realisation. The (1) *selection* of the chosen representatives of an issue in the news, thereby leaving out others and conferring normative legitimacy (2) valuation is the framing of messages in a fashion that either presents consumption practices as congruent or incongruent with cultural norms and values, which makes it a powerful ethical or moral instrument and finally (3) realisation which entails the mere frequent communication about the existence of an entity, which then gains cognitive legitimacy through its ubiquity.
Humphrey's (2010) distinct contributions are the assessment of the direct influence of regulative legitimacy on consumer behaviour and how the main three facets of legitimacy are interrelated. Furthermore, he proposed an additional legitimacy facet - that of territorial legitimacy which entails that consumption practices become more legitimated when their attached products become physically represented through entities such as stores or manufacturing plants.

In collaboration with LaTour, Humphreys (2013) continued her research on consumer perceptions of legitimacy, which they defined as "the process through which a product, idea or industry becomes commonly accepted", after Dowling and Pfeffer (1975). The scholars wanted to know more about the interrelations between media frames and consumers' legitimacy judgements of consumption practices. More specifically, they sought to investigate firstly whether the framing of consumption practices affected consumers' legitimacy judgements of them and if so secondly if such shifts in cognitive legitimacy mediated their normative legitimacy judgements. For this purpose, the researchers applied a multi-method approach, comprised of content analysis of frames and a field study and methods of psychology in order to investigate indirect associations. They analysed the news reporting on the three subjects of casinos, lotteries and online gambling.

LaTour and Humphreys (2013) contributed to the legitimacy literature in several ways, both concerned with consumers and non-consumers of specific services. Members of both groups proved to be affected by framing of consumption practices in the media, however, the latter group even more so than the former. Furthermore, non-consumers' cognitive legitimacy was found to have a stronger effect on their normative legitimacy judgements and intents for action. Also, the data processed allowed for the inference that non-users' legitimacy judgements could be positively reinforced through re-framing of consumption practices in the media, whereas users' positive cognitive legitimacy judgements were relatively securer when confronted with established and known frames. Additionally, the authors innovated by virtue of presenting a method with which cognitive legitimacy can be measured more accurately than previously, the so-called Implicit Association Test (IAT). Also, they point out that illegitimacy and non-legitimacy are not synonymous terms and they deliver differing recommendations for actions for organisations afflicted with either label. Non-legitimate organisations can first and foremost ameliorate their cognitive legitimacy levels by strengthening ties to more established organisations and also by adapting new structures. Illegitimate organisations, which are known, however need to adjust parts of pre-existent structures in order to affect cognition accordingly. Overall, it should be understood from this paper that a consumption practice's framing in the media significantly affects its legitimacy, which as a result, might be perceived in shifting ways.

## 2.5 Visual Presentation of Developments in Legitimacy Literature

Aside from systematising the literature in the form of a flowing text, the authors sought to present the same content in a format that was quicker to navigate for subsequent scholars, presuming they already possessed a sound understanding of the material, i.e. had read the literature review attentively. Additionally, the findings and development of research is presented in a way so that patterns in the development of the literature can be tapped more easily visually. This is explained in more detail later on. For this purpose, the information was arranged in a matrix format, where the x-axis denotes the publications in chronological order, analogous to the order of mentioning in the flowing text. For the arrangement of the y-axis, inspiration was taken from Machi and McEvoy (2012) who frequently recommend arranging information in a matrix format in order to facilitate data treatment and comprehension. Moreover, this paper's authors utilised the matrix format in order to communicate information. More concretely, 13 themes were identified that appeared numerous times throughout the reviewed literature and were touched upon in more than one publication. The topics of each row were namely: types of legitimacy, resources/business ties, legitimacy as a process, prominence/notoriety, isomorphism, rationalisation and/or institutionalisation, non-legitimacy/illegitimacy, environmental changes, competition for legitimacy, organisational establishment, consumer behaviour, application to practice, framing, and culture/values and norms.

The order of the content of the rows from 4-17 here denotes the order in which the topics emerged throughout the legitimacy literature. Starting from the 1970s, the research field of legitimacy started to gain notably more attention which explains a strong expansion of foci pertinent to the field. Furthermore, most latter scholars commented on all or most precedingly analysed aspects of legitimacy. For this reason, a pattern emerges in the matrix, which is observable. This can be seen on the following pages.

| | Weber | Parsons | Terreberry | Maurer | Dowling and Pfeffer | Meyer and Rowan | Pfeffer and Salancik |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Publishing year** | **([1924]/1968)** | **1960** | **1968** | **1971** | **1975** | **1977** | **1978** |
| **Types of legitimacy** | OL, referred to implicitly | OL | OL | OL | reciprocal relationship: values and norms ⇔ leg. | OL | OL |
| **Resources/ business ties** | | use must be legitimated externally | exchange mediates leg.; "willingness to invest" of others = high degree of leg. | market engagement has to be justified by possessed leg. | | leg. = access | |
| **Legitimacy as a process** | | | | legitimation = the justification of doing business | | | securement and preservation = part of retrospective, adjustive process; conferment however ambiguous |
| **Prominence/ notoriety** | | | | | dependence on leg. differ | | |
| **Isomorphism** | | | | | | drivers | |
| **Rationalisation and/ or institutionalisation** | | | | | | "myths", codified practices that are supposedly rational, confer leg. when employed by org.s; comprises control and coordination | |
| **Non-legitimacy/ illegitimacy** | | | | | incongruence in values is penalised ⇒ threat to leg. | less legitimated org. are punished more strictly for technical shortcomings | leg.'s absence is perceived rather than its presence |
| **Environmental changes** | | | | | leg. is a dynamic constraint: it changes according to the surrounding's evolvement | | shattering event on a large scale ⇒ adjust PR and behaviour ⇒ secure leg. status |
| **Competition for legitimacy** | | | | | | enforced: pure technical business success do not guarantee org. survival | |
| **Organisational establishment** | | leg. is conferred at the institutional level | | | | | |
| **Consumer behaviour** | | | | | | | |
| **Application to practice** | education, art, religion, science philosophy | | | | | | |
| **Framing** | | | | | | | |
| **Culture, values and norms** | | cultural institutional perspective: an org.'s basis of existence rests on a goal the society see fulfilled | | | comportment socially accepted by the larger system ⇒ leg. | | changes call for frequent revision of PR in order to secure leg. |

*Table 2.1 Table of development in legitimacy literature*

| | Meyer and Scott | DiMaggio and Powell | Singh, Tucker, and House | Aldrich and Fiol | Suchman | Scott |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Publishing year** | **1983** | **1983** | **1986** | **1994** | **1995** | **1995** |
| **Types of legitimacy** | OL = the degree of cultural support received | | OL referred to as external leg. | CL and SPL. | PL, ML, and CL | RL, NL and CL |
| **Resources/ business ties** | org. conduct must be best alternative under assumed rationality | | stronger exchange relationships ⇒ more leg. | gain CL through collaboration with fellow industry members and lobbying | | leg. is not a resource |
| **Legitimacy as a process** | | | | SPL = process through which an org. is accepted by environment | | |
| **Prominence/ notoriety** | | | | prominence of new venture = its leg. | CL: taken-for-grantedness; personal leg.: derived from org.'s leader | familiarity of org. practices ⇒ CL |
| **Isomorphism** | | aim of understanding increasing isomorphism; present process | becoming isomorph by virtue of internal reorganisation ⇒ more external leg. | | | org. structure that is familiar to the people ⇒ CL |
| **Rationalisation and/ or institutionalisation** | PR emphasis on formalised elements ⇒ secure leg. | can lead to inefficiencies; isomorphism is a result; secure org.'s leg. | | conferred SPL and CL rise simultaneously with industry member accession | | |
| **Non-legitimacy/ illegitimacy** | | | | "liability of newness" = impediment to leg., has to be overcome swiftly | | |
| **Environmental changes** | leg. status threatened by changes in environment ⇒ reinforced by antagonists of gov. who seek to manipulate changes to gov.'s detriment | | | | | |
| **Competition for legitimacy** | | org.'s mimicry; innovate merely to signal purposes; compete for leg. | | | | |
| **Organisational establishment** | | | liability of newness; older age more leg. | imperative for org. leg. and survival | | |
| **Consumer behaviour** | | | | | PL rests on the self-interest of the audience | |
| **Application to practice** | local political authority systems | | non-profit org.s | | | |
| **Framing** | | | | | | |
| **Culture, values and norms** | | call for org. coercive conformal process | | when conformity ⇒ SPL | ML, especially procedural leg.: based on normative approval | normative support, culture, rule and low conformant ⇒ leg. |

*Table 2.1 Table of development in legitimacy literature continued*

| | Handelmann and Arnold | Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings | Archibald | Kates | Humphreys | Humphreys and LaTour |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Publishing year** | **1999** | **2002** | **2004** | **2004** | **2010** | **2013** |
| **Types of legitimacy** | OL = organisational support | expert leg.; different types in different stages of model (ML, PL) | OL: distinguishes CUL. and SPL | brand leg. | RL, NL, cultural-cognitive leg. and territorial leg. | CL and NL |
| **Resources/ business ties** | | | highly differentiated competencies and resources = max SPL | | | |
| **Legitimacy as a process** | Leg. is the process through which support for the org. is mediated | non-isomorphic institutional change model | | | leg. = social process of becoming congruent with environment | leg. is "fluid"; CL ⇒ NL |
| **Prominence/ notoriety** | marketers have increasingly put emphasis on social business aspects | | | prominence in consumer community ⇒ leg. of good/brand | | |
| **Isomorphism** | | | high degree = max. CUL; heterogeneity ⇒ org. survival | | | |
| **Rationalisation and/ or institutionalisation** | | 4th stage of "theorisation" of new practices; most crucial: final stage: institutionalisation | | | new focus in literature: interaction between distinct institutional spheres | |
| **Non-legitimacy/ illegitimacy** | | | | | changing perceptions = threat to leg.; journalists influence strong | distinct leg. types; presents how threats can be averted |
| **Environmental changes** | | 1at stage: jolt (technological revolution or social upheaval) | | | how changes in regulation and dominant discussion influence consumption acceptance | |
| **Competition for legitimacy** | | 2nd stage: new players enter field | | consumers co-create brand meaning, and leg. through social negotiation | | |
| **Organisational establishment** | | external consent required for leg. | | | | |
| **Consumer behaviour** | support for the org. is reflected in consumer behaviours | | | co-creation of brands | it is influenced by journalism's voice | |
| **Application to practice** | retailing case (shopping mall) | accounting profession | | North American gay community | casino industry | casinos, lotteries,and online gambling |
| **Framing** | | | | consumers inscribe brands with frames pertaining to their community | | media frames and consumers' leg. judgements of consumption practices interrelate |
| **Culture, values and norms** | conformity rewarded through support | | | brand conformity = leg.; shared meanings with a community | effects of changes in public discourse and regulation | |

*Table 2.1 Table of development in legitimacy literature continued*

# 3. Hypothesis Development

In this section the aspects that form the basis of the development of this study's hypotheses are discussed. The development of the hypotheses, pertaining the study at hand, takes its point of departure in the relationship between an individual's own pleasure from consuming tobacco (OPC) and an individual's intention to consume tobacco (IC). From the relationship between those two variables, this hypotheses development section proceeds to discuss a supplementary aspect that may also influence an individual's intention to consume tobacco, namely consumption legitimacy.

## 3.1 Own Pleasure from Consuming and Intention to Consume Tobacco

By investigating the two variables, own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco, this study enters the extensive field of consumer behaviour, which *"is the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires"* (Solomon, 2006: 6). Within the field of consumer behaviour, one particular theory seeks to explore the intention of individuals to perform certain behaviours: The Theory of Planned Behaviour. This theoretical framework is widely recognised and used for understanding and predicting health behaviours, including the consumption of both alcohol and tobacco. The Theory of Planned Behaviour theorises *"that behaviour can be predicted by intention to perform that behaviour, which in turn can be predicted by the attitude towards performing that behaviour…"* (McMillan & Conner, 2003: 317-318). Hence, at its core the Theory of Planned Behaviour is concerned with how attitudes and behavioural beliefs explain behavioural intentions by consumers. These behavioural beliefs include expectations on whether performing a certain behaviour leads to experiencing regret, fear, joy, pain or pleasure (Ajzen, 2011). Thus, the pleasure the individual experiences from consuming tobacco explains his or her intention to consume tobacco. Such a relationship is additionally affirmed in a study by Hassandra et al. (2011). In their paper Hassandra et al. (2011) investigate how students' intention to smoke tobacco can be predicted through the Theory of Planned Behaviour variables. Consequently, they state that the intention to smoke can be predicted by the attitudes towards smoking (Hassandra et al., 2011).

### 3.1.1 Cultural Influence and Moderation of Consumption through Settings

An additional aspect of consumer behaviour that one cannot disregard in relation to the decision-making process of the consumer, is culture, as this is in fact acknowledged as one of the key drivers of consumer judgements and decisions (van Herk & Torelli, 2017). Derived from van Herk and Torelli (2017) this study defines culture *"as shared elements that provide the standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, communicating, and acting among those who share a language, a historical period, and a geographical location. The meanings shared in a cultural provide a common frame of reference for individuals to make sense of reality, coordinate their activities, and adapt to their environment"* (van Herk & Torelli, 2017: 50). Thus, culture plays a distinct role in the study at hand due to the fact that the subjects under investigation are consumers from one particular country. In addition to this it is crucial to examine some of the essential aspects of the Indian culture, and with that Indian consumer behaviour. The latter is generally associated with the collectivist feature of the culture which is a notion derived from the influential work of Geert Hofstede (1983). Hofstede presented four basic dimensions of culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity, and lastly individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede, 1983; Knorringa & Guarín, 2014). Individualism versus collectivism are, universally, the two dimensions most commonly used to explain cross-cultural consumer behaviour which proves highly relevant to the paper at hand. On the one hand, individuals living in individualistic cultures tend to define themselves as independent of others and therefore place their own personal goals over the goals of their in-group. An in-group is group to which the individual feels emotionally close to and have an emotional connection with. It appears in the form of family or extended family, close friends, church members, or individuals from one's own culture or ethnic group. On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures, individuals tend to view themselves as interdependent with others and pursue to prioritise the goals of their in-group over their own personal goals (van Herk & Torelli, 2017; Ting-Toomey & Chung, 2005).

The collectivistic trait of the Indian culture is manifested in the influences on the actions of the individual. In India, an individual's actions are influenced by various views, such as the opinion of the his or her core or extended family and other social networks the individual is affiliated with. Based on this, it is evident that other concerns rather than just personal preferences are involved in Indian consumer judgements, as Indians are very aware of how they are being perceived and evaluated by their peers. If a collectivist individual was to be rejected by his or her peers or thought of as inferior by his or her immediate and extended in-groups, the individual would be left rudderless and with a feeling of intense emptiness (Hofstede Insights, 2018). Evidently, this exhibits the collectivistic influence on the judgements and decisions made by the individual Indian consumer.

An illustration of how the collectivist traits of the Indian culture influence consumption is, for instance, with regards to alcoholic beverages. In India, alcoholic beverages are not consumed regardless of occasion to enhance personal satisfaction, as it might be in Western societies. Rather this practice is a 'status consumption', strongly correlated with special occasions, further stressing the importance of the social and collectivist context in India (Knorringa & Guarín 2014). As drinking and smoking behaviours have proven to be associated, it is argued that parallels can be drawn between the two goods. Association and comparison of the two goods can be drawn on several bases. The use of one good may stimulate the consumption of the other, and the harm resulting from the use of both goods is recognised along with their addictive nature (Pierani & Tiezzi, 2009). Moreover, the simultaneous use of alcohol and tobacco has also been subject to investigation, and associations between social drinkers and smoking have been established (Jensen et al., 2003). Therefore, as consumption of alcoholic beverages is deemed to be more appropriate on special occasions, it could be inferred that the same is the case for tobacco consumption. Thus, for an Indian individual enjoying his or her own pleasure from consuming tobacco, his or her intention to consume tobacco will, arguably, be high in a private setting due to the fact that there is no peer to evaluate the tobacco consumption. This is regardless of whether or not the tobacco consumption takes place in an appropriate context of a special occasion, due to the private setting. Yet, as established previously, an Indian tobacco consumer will also have a considerable intention to consume tobacco in a social context. This is on the grounds that the consumption is deemed appropriate due to the special occasion, where the consumption of tobacco takes place.

On the basis of this positive relationship between an individual's own pleasure from consuming tobacco and an individual's intention to consume tobacco, and the aforementioned insights on how the settings influence consumption, the following hypotheses are posed:

***H1a.*** In a private setting, the relationship between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco is positive, hence individuals with high own pleasure from consuming tobacco have high intention to consume tobacco.

***H1b**.* In a social setting, the relationship between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco is positive, hence individuals with high own pleasure from consuming tobacco have high intention to consume tobacco.

## 3.2 Consumption Legitimacy

As briefly touched upon in the previous section, severe health issues are involved with the consumption of both tobacco and alcohol. Along with gambling, the alcohol and tobacco sectors are defined as controversial industry sectors, which consequently suffer organisational legitimacy problems (Reast et al., 2013). This constitutes one reason as to why the concept of legitimacy is brought into this research pertaining to tobacco consumption. However, the concept of legitimacy is additionally valuable to understand in order to enhance one's understanding and knowledge of consumer practices and perceptions (Humphreys, 2010). This, ultimately, constitutes a second reason for bringing the concept of legitimacy into this Indian consumer behaviour research. In the light of this, the study at hand basically seeks to investigate Indian tobacco consumers' perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption, and how their perceived legitimacy may influence their intention to consume tobacco. On the basis of the literature review, two dimensions of legitimacy are of particular interest in terms of the individual's tobacco consumption. These two dimensions are social and moral legitimacy. Currently there are no distinct definitions of neither perceived social legitimacy or moral legitimacy in relation to tobacco consumption. Therefore, the definitions of the two types of legitimacy are established based on extant and acknowledged legitimacy literature.

### 3.2.1 Social Legitimacy of Tobacco Consumption

Soria, Honores and Gutiérrez (2016) adapt their definition of social legitimacy (SL) from the acknowledged work of Suchman (1995), thus as *"generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper and suitable within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions"* (Suchman, 1995: 574; Soria et al., 2016: 69). On the basis of this definition, the authors of this paper define the perceived social legitimacy of tobacco consumption as the following: *the act of consuming tobacco is perceived as being desirable, proper or appropriate.*

As already mentioned, in a private setting there are no peer to evaluate the individual's tobacco consumption, in contrast to a social setting. Thus, the influence of the perceived legitimacy differs in the two settings. Based on this, the following hypotheses are posed:

> ***H2a.*** In a private setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is not influenced by the individual's perceived social legitimacy.

> ***H2b.*** In a social setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is influenced significantly by the individual's perceived social legitimacy.

### 3.2.2 Moral Legitimacy of Tobacco Consumption

Moreover, in his work, Suchman (1995) also presents the dimension of moral legitimacy (ML). Accordingly, moral legitimacy reflects a positive normative evaluation of activities. Furthermore, it rests on judgements on whether or not a certain activity is the right thing to do (Suchman, 1995). Based on Suchman's (1995) definition of moral legitimacy, the perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption is defined as follows: *the act of consuming tobacco is perceived as acceptable*.

Based on the authors' definition of the perceived moral legitimacy of tobacco consumption, and the considerations on how the setting moderates consumption, the following hypotheses are posed:

> ***H3a.*** In a private setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is not influenced by the individual's perceived moral legitimacy.

> ***H3b.*** In a social setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is significantly influenced by the individual's perceived moral legitimacy.

With the purpose of demonstrating how the study's hypotheses were developed in mind, the model below was created. The model seeks to provide an overview of the variables mentioned in the hypothesis development section, along with the relationships between them. As described, the model displays the relationship between the individual's own pleasure from consuming tobacco (OPC) and their intention to consume tobacco (IC). Moreover, the model also displays the respective relationships between individuals' perceived moral legitimacy (ML) and social legitimacy (SL) and their intention to consume tobacco. The relationships are, as demonstrated, moderated by the setting in which the consumption takes place.

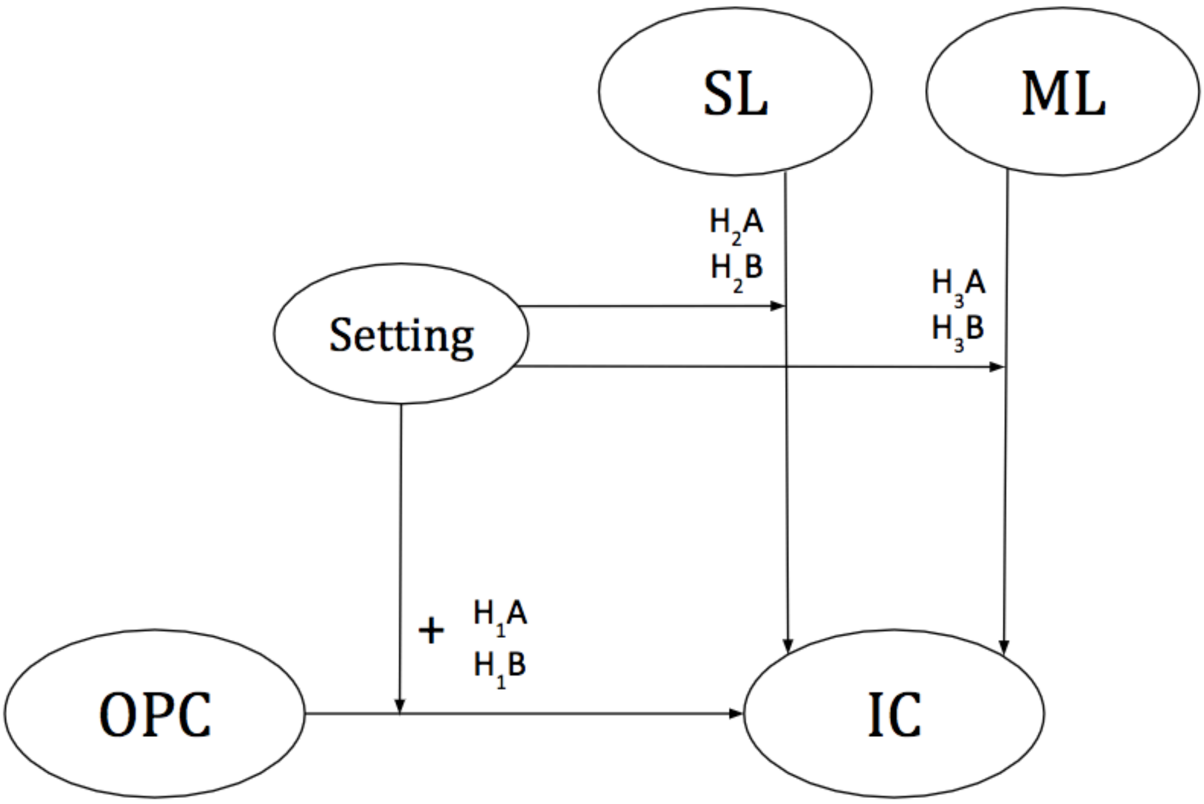


*Figure 3.1 Hypothesis development model*
*Source: Authors' own works explaining the relationships between dependent and independent variables*

# 4. Methodology

This section presents and explains the methodological choices that the authors of this paper have made when conducting the research. The section will first of all elaborate on the paper's research philosophy. Afterwards this section will proceed to discuss the overall design of the research, which includes the approach and strategy applied in order to conduct the research. Subsequently, the variables to be assessed through the research are presented and also the questionnaire's items along with its scales are explained. Following this, the design of the questionnaire is accounted and argued for. Lastly, the study's sample is assessed and its implications for generalisability and reliability are discussed.

## 4.1 Research Philosophy

The choice of theoretical and practical methodology of an academic piece of work is determined by the adopted research philosophy. The research philosophy or in general, philosophy of science, is concerned with the nature and development of knowledge and the types of assumptions the researchers adopt when treating information. Moreover, the research philosophy bears the nature of the knowledge the researcher seeks to produce and convey through the written product (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Different philosophies of science pertain to the various disciplines in academia. Since this paper is concerned with consumer behaviour and business studies, the respective discipline is that of social sciences including its main two adjacent research philosophies. These consist of naturalism, referred to as positivism in this paper, and constructivism (Moses & Knutsen, 2012).

The underlying epistemology of the project at hand is positivist since the authors rely on logic and reason that have to be supported by direct reported experience (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). Furthermore, positivists hold the perspective that social reality occurs in observable patterns. Consequently, scientific findings can expectedly be generalised (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz, 1998). This aspect is reflected in the authors' choice of quantitative research method and the measurements, which consist of scales that have been developed, applied and tested by preceding researchers. Additionally, the pertinent extant literature has been reviewed and organised into a systematic literature review, thereby seeking to understand regularities in the objective reality and to account for past events (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). The generalisations proposed by positivist research have frequently been likened to the laws established in fields such as the natural sciences, physics and philosophy. The reasons for this are firstly that the perception of the researcher is conceptualised to be value-free and detached from the information being assessed. Secondly, he or she treats reality as an independent entity from her or himself. Based on the regularities and patterns in social behaviours and other occurrences positivists have identified, they assume to be able to make predictions about future events (Moses & Knutsen, 2012).

Positivism is contrasted by the other main ontological paradigm of constructivism. Under this paradigm, the researcher acknowledges plural ways of understanding the world, depending on the individual observer's perspective. Accordingly, to this type of researcher, information is not neutral, but rather value- and perception- dependent, which stands in stark contrast to a positivist perspective. This form of reasoning is further characterised by its employment of qualitative, in-depth research methods and its rejection of deduction and formulation of hypotheses, which are frequently employed by positivists. As opposed to the positivist, who seeks to uncover one absolute truth, the constructivist acknowledges that there is a plurality of subjective truths pertaining to any one entity. Therefore, the constructivist typically takes on the viewpoint of one social actor and thus seeks to understand this individual's world from his or her perspective. Inherently, the constructivist rejects the concept that statements and facts can be free of values. This value-ladenness is not seen as an impediment to gaining insights, but rather constructivists find the meanings of social interactions useful, since they enrich their epistemology with resources such as myths and perceptions of social dynamics in groups (Moses & Knutsen, 2012).

Conclusively, this study's aim is to conduct research of objective knowledge that is free of the authors' own values and any beliefs of a political or religious nature and the like. Additionally, the thoroughly structured and replicable positivist methodology entails a research design that is occupied with assessing quantitative data (Saunders et al. 2009). According to this type of research method, the final product has to consist of generalisable explanations of causal relationships (Saunders et al., 2009). For this purpose, the authors have founded the developed hypotheses on extant theory which will be tested in a statistical hypothesis testing (Presskorn-Thygesen, 2012; Saunders et al. 2009).

The positivist epistemology, ontology and methodology are subject to limitations when applied in praxis (Saunders et al., 2009). The value-freeness, desired by the positivist researcher, should be expected to be compromised in several regards. A value position is inherent in the choice of area of investigation itself, aggrieved by the designated research objectives and the choice of data collected (Saunders et al., 2009). Further limitations of the research design are described in latter sections.

## 4.2 Research Design

In order to answer the posed research question of this study, hypotheses have been formulated based on existing theories on consumer behaviour and legitimacy. As this research takes its point of departure in existing legitimacy and consumer behaviour theory, and further is designed to test the theory, a deductive research approach is adopted for the purpose of this study. The deductive approach stands in contrast to the inductive approach, where data is collected initially to explore a phenomenon. Theory is then derived from analysing the collected data instead of using the collected data to either reject or confirm existing theory through hypotheses, which is the case with the deductive approach (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016).

There are several important characteristics of deduction as a research approach. Through this approach there is a search to explain causal relationship between concepts and variables, which in this study pertain to investigating legitimacy's influence on tobacco consumption behaviour in India. Another important characteristic of deduction is that concepts must be operationalised in such a way that enables facts to be measured. For instance, as legitimacy is one of the variables to be measured, it must be strictly defined what actually constitutes legitimacy in this study. Furthermore, generalisation is also an important characteristic of deduction. In order to be able to statistically generalize, the sample must be carefully selected while also being of a sufficient size, hence for it to be representative (Saunders et al., 2016). Other general issues regarding generalisation, reliability and validity of measurement and sampling are discussed later in sections 4.3 and 4.5.

A research can, moreover, be designed to fulfil an exploratory-, descriptive-, explanatory-, or evaluative purpose. Ultimately, the study's posed research question will inevitable demand an exploratory-, descriptive-, explanatory-, or evaluative answer, which in turn then establishes the purpose of the study. However, the aforementioned forms are not necessarily mutually exclusive, as a study may also combine more than one purpose in its research design (Saunders et al., 2016). Due to the fact that this study seeks to explain the nature of relationship between a set of variables, it is classified as an explanatory study. The explanatory research purpose of this study was embedded in the study's posed research question. The research question inquires how Indian tobacco consumers' pleasure from consuming tobacco and their perceived legitimacy may potentially influence their actual consumption behaviour in different settings. This research question then calls for an explanation of the relationship between the two variables own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco, along with explanations of the relationships between intention to consume tobacco and respectively both moral legitimacy and social legitimacy.

This study presents a quantitative research design in order to fulfil its research purpose, as this research design is generally associated with the positivist philosophy of science and the deductive research approach. More specifically this is a mono method quantitative study since it makes use of a single data collection technique (Saunders et al., 2016). To achieve the main research purpose, a cross-sectional survey strategy was adopted as the research strategy for data collection. Due to the time and financial restraints, it was found appropriate to collect data through a self-completed questionnaire. The survey was distributed via the Internet and respondents were able to access it through their web browser by using the distributed hyperlink (Saunders et al., 2016). The survey strategy is cross-sectional as the study seeks to investigate a particular phenomenon at a particular time. It is recognised that many of the research projects conducted for academic courses are time constrained, thus it is probable that the research is cross-sectional. Furthermore, applying a survey strategy allows one to collect quantitative data for statistical analysis, which can be used to explain relationships between variables, corresponding to a characteristic of deduction. Additionally, as this study applies a positivist perspective which aims at generating generalisable findings, it was necessary for the authors to collect data in such a way that would allow for potential generalisation. Arguably, this is more realistically achieved by using a survey strategy, compared to other strategies like a case study, since the sample is more representative. The probability of having a representative sample can be heightened by designing and piloting the survey, while also trying to ensure a good response rate (Saunders et al., 2016).

Aiming at obtaining a representative sample, this survey was pilot tested ahead of employed for final data collection. Pilot testing is generally recommended by scholars as the design of the posed questions, the structure of the questionnaire and also the accuracy of the pilot testing influence both the internal validity and reliability of the collected data and the response rate achieved (Saunders et al., 2016). Additionally, the purpose of pilot testing the survey is to ensure that the respondents in the main study will not experience any difficulties in completing the survey, while also testing the validity of survey items. Pilot testing also enables one to carry out a preliminary analysis of the pilot test data to ensure that the questions posed will provide answers that are suitable for analysis, and ultimately also hypothesis testing. Ideally, the pilot survey should be tested on a group similar to the group making up the actual population of the study, therefore, this pilot study was distributed to smokers (Bell, 2014). The size of the pilot population is often dependent on the size of the research project. Saunders et al. (2016) recommend that a questionnaire, performed in relation to student assignments, should be tested on a population of at least 10 respondents. Consequently, this study's pilot survey was completed by ultimately 13 respondents.

The 13 respondents the pilot survey was tested on, were between the ages of 18 to 64, and the population had a 46/54 percent male and female response rate. Furthermore, in order to get the respondents' feedback on the pilot survey, they were asked follow-up questions. The respondents were asked seven follow-up questions based on Bell's pilot study checklist (Bell, 2014). These follow-up questions were: (1) how long did it take you to complete the survey, (2) if the instructions were clear, (3) if any of the questions were unclear or ambiguous, (4) if he or she was unwilling to answer some of the questions, (5) if any major topic had been omitted, (6) if the layout of the questionnaire was clear and attractive, and lastly (7) if he or she had any additional comments on the survey. After having received the feedback from the pilot sample, the authors were able to assess the 'face validity' of the survey and revise it accordingly. Moreover, by pilot testing the survey and receiving feedback, the authors were also able to make adjustments to the survey and to eliminate any unclear or biased wording etc., hence amend it prior to the main distribution of the survey.

For this study a mono method rather than a multi-method was chosen due to the physical-geographical distance between researchers and sample, and in this regard also due to the limited means available to reach the sample physically. Nevertheless, it is recognised that a multi-method approach would have served to strengthen validation of the study's finding, by allowing triangulation through, for instance structured observation of consumption behaviour. Moreover, it can also be argued that conducting a series of in-depth interviews, thereby using mixed methods, could have enriched the researchers' understanding of the subject matter and the sample before addressing them in the survey. The use of mixed methods would furthermore also have allowed for triangulation (Saunders et al., 2016). Despite the research gaps indicated, the methodology chosen was reasoned to be appropriate for this particular study on consumer behaviour.

Collecting data through a self-completed internet-mediated survey rather than an interviewer-administered survey also has additional advantages than just overcoming geographical distances. Interviewer-administered surveys include interviewer-completed-, telephone-, and face-to-face questionnaires, and here the amount of contact between respondent and researcher is comparatively higher. The amount of contact can potentially stimulate the respondents' answers to the posed questions. Respondents of a self-administered survey are arguably less likely to provide answers they believe will please the researcher or believe that certain responses are more socially desirable (Saunders et al., 2016). This aspect of socially desirable answers poses a very pressing and relevant issue.

Chung and Monroe (2003) define social desirability as *"the tendency of individuals to deny socially undesirable actions and behaviors and to admit to socially desirable ones"* (Chung & Monroe, 2003: 291). They then further define social desirability bias as *"the tendency of individuals to underestimate (overestimate) the likelihood they would perform an undesirable (desirable) action"* (Chung & Monroe, 2003: 291). Certain areas in which behaviour is prone to be over-reported are recognised. These include: (1) being a good citizen, (2) being a well-informed and cultured person, and (3) fulfilling moral and social responsibilities. On the contrary there are also areas in which behaviour may be under-reported, which include: (1) Illness and disabilities, (2) Illegal and contra-normative behaviour and (3) financial status. For the purpose of this research it is particularly the under-reporting of contra-normative behaviour, which must be taken into consideration and accounted for. In certain markets, such as gambling, alcohol and tobacco, it is highly likely that attitudes and behaviours are misrepresented by respondents. To appear more socially responsible, many respondents will deliberately under-report their gambling, alcohol, or tobacco consumption, while some on the contrary may over-report their consumption, of particularly alcohol, to appear more 'macho' to the person conducting the interview (Brace, 2004). Resting on these potential issues, scholars argue that this social desirability bias must be recognised and compensated for. The possible bias in this survey was minimised by removing the interviewer from the interface and distributing a self-completed internet-mediated survey as described above. Moreover, the participants were ensured that their responses were treated confidentially and for research purposes only. Minimising the social desirability bias was deemed important due to the health issues involved with consuming tobacco. Tobacco consumption has not just been proven to be bad for one's own health, but it also has consequences for the health of others through i.e. passive smoking. Thus, it is not only subject to many regulations, but there are arguably also cultural influences on the tobacco consumption behaviour. To be confronted with one's consumption of tobacco is possibly both sensitive and embarrassing for some individuals, taking the above into consideration. Therefore, it was imperatively important to take precautions to reduce a social desirability bias.

The aforementioned research design of this study is furthermore outlined in the model presented below. The model demonstrates the research design as a process, thus the research design choices originating from the study's basis, which is its research philosophy. The research design choices presented in the model are based on the adopted positivist perspective, which in turn explains the choices of deductive research approach, mono method quantitative study, survey strategy and cross-sectional data collection made ahead of the authors being able to ultimately collect and analyse their primary data.


*Figure 4.1 The research design process*
*Source: Authors' own work, inspired by Saunders et al. (2016: 164)*

## 4.3 Measurements

In this section the variables to be assessed are presented. The questionnaire itself can be found at Appendix 1. Four, so most of the variables in the associated conceptual framework, are latent. The questionnaire items representative of these latent variables were adapted from established scales within extant literature. The accompanying studies were all published in journals. Most of the scales were measured on the widely-used seven-item Likert scales (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree) with the exception of five items that were measured on 5-item Likert scales (1= agree; 5 = disagree). Likert scales are especially suitable for online surveys since they are easy to manage for the researcher and generally intuitively comprehended by respondents (Malhotra, Nunan & Birks, 2017). Their purpose is to measure an underlying continuum ranging from strong agreement to strong disagreement. Furthermore, all items were single-choice questions and a response to all items was required in order to complete the survey. The places where 5-item instead of 7-item Likert scales were employed were chosen randomly with the aim of enhancing alertness on the part of the respondents through the disruption of the regularity in questioning pattern. The use of Likert scales and the assignment of a numerical score to each statement facilitates statistical data treatment and enables the researchers' use of summated score analysis (Malhotra et al., 2017). In the study at hand, this has been done in the software programme SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 24).

Furthermore, when deriving items scales from established extent literature, the authors of the study at hand also took internal consistency into consideration as an effort to secure construct validity of the variables. Construct validity refers to the extent to which scale items are actually measuring the presence of the construct which researchers intend them to measure. Moreover, construct validity is normally used in relation to attitude scales and the term can be considered an answer to the question of how well one can generalise from the questions pertaining. Internal consistency reliability is a measure of the consistency of responses across the items in the study's questionnaire. Ultimately, one of the most frequently used methods for assessing internal consistency of scale items is Cronbach's alpha. The value of the alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, with alpha values of 0.7 or above indicating that the scale items are measuring the same construct (Saunders et al., 2016). However, alphas above the value of 0,9 are likely to indicate redundancy rather than a high degree of internal consistency (Streiner, 2003). Accordingly, the alpha values of the scales derived from established extant literature were assessed prior to selecting them for this study's questionnaire. Consequently, the scales were included under the condition that they had a high alpha value which corresponds to high internal consistency reliability.

### 4.3.1 Dependent Variable

The intention to consume tobacco is the dependent variable of this study, which becomes evident after examining its model on page 40.

The dependent variable, intention to consume tobacco, was measured through two items derived from Hassandra et al. (2011). In their paper Hassandra et al. examine how intention to smoke can be predicted by the Theory of Planned Behaviour, thus the paper contains scales on measuring intention to smoke. Hence, the study at hand used these scales to assess intention to consume tobacco, which in addition to smoking also comprise the use of smokeless tobacco as these tobacco products are widely used in India, as described in the introduction. The first item assessing intention to consume tobacco was "I will definitely consume tobacco in this scenario". This item was derived from Hassandra et al.'s item "I am determined to smoke". Given that the aim of the item was to measure intention to consume tobacco this term was applied in exchange to smoking. Additionally, "am determined to" was changed to "will definitely", due to the fact that the latter expressed a stronger sense of determination regarding individuals' intention to consume tobacco. Since this item was employed under both scenarios it was deemed necessary to underline that the question should be considered in relation to the specific scenario the respondent was evaluating. The second item assessing intention to consume tobacco was "I am very likely to consume tobacco in this scenario". This item was derived from the assessment "I intend to smoke" ranging from 'very likely' to 'very unlikely'. Since Likert scales had already been established and employed in the questionnaire, it was in the interest of the authors to stick to the same measuring format for data treatment purposes. Yet, the response 'very likely' was included in the item to keep the positive wording applied throughout the questionnaire. Like the previous item this item was additionally employed under both scenarios, thus the same noting of the scenario was used as in the preceding item. The scale of Hassandra et al. (2011) pertaining to intention to smoke was included as the authors reported a high internal level of consistency ($\alpha = 0.84$).

### 4.3.2 Independent Variables

The independent variables of this study, which are investigated for their potential significance on the dependent variable, intention to consume tobacco (IC), are namely own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy and social legitimacy. The relationships between the study's dependent variable and independent variables are demonstrated in the model on page 40.

#### *4.3.2.1 Consumption Legitimacy*

Two individual-level legitimacy dimensions were measured within the framework of this paper, namely social legitimacy (SL) and moral legitimacy (ML).

In order to measure moral legitimacy, thus respondents' assessment of moral views relative to tobacco consumption, items from several scales were adopted. The scale adoption from a multitude of sources had to be performed since there are no scales that entirely assess the desired constructs in the extant literature. This may have negative implications for construct validity. Firstly, two items from the modified Martinez and Jaeger (2016) measuring the moral legitimacy judgements regarding counterfeit fashion items were adapted. For this purpose, the wording in "I consider *the purchase of the counterfeit sunglasses* in this scenario to be morally acceptable" was altered to "I consider *consuming tobacco* in this scenario to be morally acceptable". Furthermore, the item "It is morally wrong to *buy the counterfeit sunglasses*" was altered to "it is morally fine to *consume tobacco* in this scenario". Notice that "wrong" was also altered to "fine". This was done in order to omit reverse questioning throughout the questionnaire. Although this semantic reversal was common academic practice in the past, it is now regarded as outdated, as a meta-analysis published by the Journal of Marketing Research found that reverse phrasing lead to higher degrees of measurement errors (Weijters & Baumgartner, 2012). Additionally, by employing same-direction scales, the data treatment of summated scales is easier for the researchers. Martinez and Jaeger (2016) reported that their items pertaining to moral judgements had a Cronbach's alpha value of $\alpha = 0.72$.

Secondly, one item from Kock and Josiassen's (forthcoming) scale was adopted to assess individual-level moral legitimacy. This was adapted to investigate tobacco consumption to then be: "The consumption of tobacco in this scenario is consistent with moral values".

Participants' social legitimacy perceptions were measured through three additional items. Two of these were also derived from Martinez & Jaeger (2016), a paper which contained scales measuring moral legitimacy judgements. For this reason, the same scales that had been used to assess moral legitimacy perceptions were adapted to measure social legitimacy perceptions. The following items thus resulted from this adaptation "*Most people around me* would consider it *socially* acceptable to smoke in this scenario" and "It is *socially* fine to smoke tobacco in this scenario". Notice that for the former item, the wording was altered from "I consider... " to "most people around me consider…". This was done because social legitimacy judgements, in contrast to moral ones, are dependent on a group evaluation and the judgements take place on a collective level (i.e. Tost, 2011). Since this scale pertaining social legitimacy judgements is derived from the same scale as that of moral legitimacy judgements, the reported alpha value remains the same ($\alpha$ = 0.72). Furthermore, another item derived from Kock and Josiassen's (forthcoming) scale pertaining to social legitimacy was included, namely "Tobacco consumption is seen as belonging to a favourable social group". Originally, the item included the word "unfavourable" but was however altered to "favourable" in order for the question to stay coherent with the line of questioning that uses positive wording.

All questions assessing consumption legitimacy perceptions were posed in the contexts of both scenarios, as demonstrated at Appendix 1.

*4.3.2.2 Own Pleasure from Consuming Tobacco*

Finally, the independent variable own pleasure from consuming tobacco (OPC) was measured through two adapted scales from extant academic literature. Firstly, Leventhal and Avis' (1976) scale on pleasure-taste which is part of the reasons for smoking (RFS) scale was adopted. These items assess how pleasurable a respondent finds consuming tobacco and properties like its taste and stimulating effect. The items included "I like the taste of tobacco" and "I find consuming tobacco pleasurable". Secondly, items were selected from Ikard, Green & Horn's (1969) adaption of the Horn-Waingrow Scale, which measures management of affect and enables the categorisation of individuals into different types of smokers. One example of such a scale is "I do not feel content for long unless I am consuming tobacco".

### 4.3.3 Demographics

In addition to the previous described items, the questionnaire additionally contained items concerning the respondents' demographic information. Four items were included in order to investigate gender, age, educational level, and residence of the respondents. These four generic questions regarding demographical information were included on the basis of preceding work on similar topics. Neufeld, Peters, Rani, Bonu and Brooner (2005) examine the association between alcohol and tobacco use in India and demographic variables, including age, gender, education, relation to poverty line, and residence. Consequently, in its study on tobacco consumption in India, this paper includes corresponding demographic items. Furthermore, as described in section 3. pertaining to hypothesis development, individuals' intention to perform a certain behaviour, such as consuming tobacco, may be explored through the Theory of Planned Behaviour. According to the Theory of Planned Behaviour, background factors like demographic variables can influence the beliefs individuals hold (Ajzen, 2011). Thus, the use of demographic items in the questionnaire are further underlined, as this study ultimately seeks to understand individuals' intention to consume tobacco.

Nevertheless, the indication of residence in this study deviates from that of Neufeld et al. (2005), as it is performed at a state-level and not a rural and urban level. The indication of residence at a state-level is firstly performed in order to compare the study's sample with the tobacco consuming population in India. Secondly, it allows one to detect correlations between individuals' residence and their intention to consume tobacco. Moreover, keeping in mind that an Internet-based survey was conducted, it would arguably be challenging to reach rural Indians compared to urban Indians through an Internet-based survey due to differences in standards of living.

In the first question pertaining to the demographic information of the respondents, they were asked to indicate their age (18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64 or 65+). In the second and third questions the respondents had to indicate their gender (male, female, or prefer not to answer) and their educational level (no diploma, high school diploma, college/university diploma, graduate diploma, or prefer not to answer). By including this neutral option of 'prefer not to answer' for the latter two, the study's authors took into account that demographic questions may be perceived as sensitive by the respondents (Malhotra et al., 2017). For the fourth and last demographic question, which was concerned with the respondents' state of residency, the scale comprised of the 29 states in India.

### 4.3.4 Measurement Validity

Moreover, the internal consistency reliability of the scales used in this study's questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha values of the scales were all calculated in SPSS and are displayed in table 4.1 below.

| Variable | | Cronbach's alpha (α) |
|---|---|---|
| Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,868 |
| Intention to consume in a private setting | (IC_a) | 0,789 |
| Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,833 |
| Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,800 |
| Intention to consume in a social setting | (IC_b) | 0,858 |
| Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | 0,889 |
| Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | 0,883 |

*Table 4.1 Cronbach's alpha values of scales employed in questionnaire*

Table 4.1 demonstrates that all alpha values are above 0.7, which confirms that the scale items are in fact measuring the same construct (Saunders et al., 2016).

## 4.4 Questionnaire Design

Two different questionnaires were created that were different in merely very few aspects. This was done for the simple reason that sampling was performed through two different channels: (1) the personal networks of the authors, namely Facebook groups and LinkedIn and (2) Amazon Mechanical Turk. The former questionnaire was fully anonymous, meaning that neither individual answers nor participation in general could be traced back to any individual person. In contrast, the latter sampling method required the non-anonymisation of the questionnaire, meaning that the response sequence for each participant was traceable and also that the respondents had to leave their Amazon Mechanical Turk-ID. Nonetheless, this does not expose the civil identity of the caseworkers, meaning their names. The ID numbers are collected for the simple reason that researchers can identify if individual participants have filled in the questionnaire conscientiously, based on response time and error and premised on these parameters, decide whether or not to accept and thus pay each case-worker. The sampling process is explained in more detail in the subsequent section 4.5.

The opening page of the questionnaire comprised a short introduction stating the prerequisites for participation. These prerequisites are firstly having Indian citizenship, which was chosen as opposed to “living in India” or just plainly “being Indian”. The reason for this is that the study aimed at collecting data on individuals that are as immersed as possible into the Indian culture. Typically, it is not permitted to hold another citizenship besides the Indian one (immihelp, 2018), which is why it can be inferred that, for example Brits of Indian heritage, did not qualify for participation in the survey. This is desirable because it can be assumed that these Brits are not as fully immersed in the Indian culture since their values and beliefs are have been altered in the new environments (Pillai, 2013). Therefore, including such individuals in the sample would have warped the data and insights pertinent to Indian culture that were sought out. Secondly, one prerequisite for participation was that of being older than 18 years of age which is the legal tobacco consumption age in India. The intention was to exclusively investigate legal consumption activities throughout this study. Thirdly, the final prerequisite for participation in the survey was to be a tobacco consumer. For this purpose, two common benchmarks of a regular tobacco consumer were combined and adopted, namely that of consuming at least one unit of tobacco product per day and having consumed at least 100 units in one’s lifetime (National Center for Health Statistics, 2017). This definition was used in order to avoid ambiguity of the term “regular tobacco consumer” for the participants and in order to facilitate data treatment later on in the process because the filtering out of unrequired collected information was avoided.

On top of informing the participants about the prerequisites for participation, the first page showed information about the purpose of the study, thus that it was merely aimed at fulfilling academic research purposes and it was being used within the frame of a master’s thesis at Copenhagen Business School exclusively. This was done in order to communicate integrity and respectability of the survey. Finally, the respondents were reassured that their participation and responses were anonymous. Scholars have established a negative relationship between social desirability and anonymity (Malhotra et al., 2017) which is also interrelated with obtaining sensitive data. Social desirability is humans' inclination to give responses that are mainly desirable from a social standpoint as opposed to an accurate record of preference or behaviour (Malhotra et al., 2017). Therefore, individuals are more inclined to freely provide delicate information in anonymous contexts.

Additionally, it was contemplated whether or not the opening page should indicate the maximum duration of eight minutes required for first-time questionnaire completion. This number was calculated based on the data collected during the pilot study. The indication of duration would have had the aim of letting the respondents know how long it would take to fill in the questionnaire. However, ultimately it was decided to leave this information out since the established prospect theory suggests that omitting this time required for completion would be more expedient. Tversky and Kahneman (1981) established through their research regarding framing of decisions and psychology that individuals in decision-making situations prefer probabilistic losses to definite ones. In this case, a clear indication of time that a respondent commits to filling in the survey and thus does not have available for alternative activities would represent a definite loss. Since humans are inherently loss-averse (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984), the researchers inferred that not communicating a definite time loss but instead omitting this information would be the superior choice.

Furthermore, the authors of this paper contemplated to employ a lottery of vouchers as an incentive to increase response rate for questionnaire (1). Extant literature shows that lotteries giving away a prize, for example a voucher, are the most effective measure for rewarding and thus encouraging the participation in internet-based surveys (Deustskens, de Ruyter, Wetzels & Oosterveld, 2004). However, the authors of this paper refrained from employing lotteries and other rewards for participation in order not to compromise data quality. The risk of engaging insincere respondents who click through the questionnaire without reflection and thus, generating unfounded and unuseful data, is heightened by including prizes into the process (Schrepp, 2016). Furthermore, incorporating a lottery or prize draw into the questionnaire would have made it necessary to collect contact information such as email addresses of all respondents, thus sensitive data. Especially pertinent to such a delicate subject as consumption of tobacco, the authors would have expected the respondents to defect to a significant extent by not providing their contact information and thus ultimately, not completing the questionnaire. As a result, this would have compromised the response rate. Obviously, the respondents collected through Amazon Mechanical Turk were paid a pre-stated fee for their work, so essentially a wage. Therefore, there was a monetary incentive to participate in questionnaire (2). However, in order to generate a sufficient sample size overall, no other option was feasible than that of paying for participation. Many response errors associated with awarding prizes could however be averted: firstly, thanks to the non-anonymisation, it could be ensured that only the first response of each case-worker became part of the sample. Secondly, as mentioned, the responses that were rushed were traceable via the indication of time and could be eliminated from the sample. Thirdly, Amazon Mechanical Turk is a reputable resource for case-workers that employs numerous measures that ensure an acceptable level of reliability and quality of its employees, for example employee ratings. Lastly, it should be remembered that the authors set the obtainment of a large sample (200-400 participants) as one of the highest priorities which is why the payment for a share of the responses was deemed an acceptable compromise.

Regarding the design of the questionnaire, it can be said that it was constructed in the computer-based programme SurveyXact which offers numerous settings for layout and colouring. For the colour scheme, Copenhagen Business School's corporate colours and logo were taken from the university's design guide (Copenhagen Business School, n.d.) and incorporated into the public survey. The aim of doing so was to elicit higher levels of engagement from the beholder by being more visually appealing than a standard layout (Malhotra et al., 2017). Also, Copenhagen Business School's logo was visible on every page of the questionnaire which was supposed to, combined with the corporate colours, convey coherence, professionalism and trustworthiness to the viewer. In total, the questionnaire consisted of 10 (regular tobacco consumers) or 3 pages (non-consumers of tobacco), determined by the first response given. Between one and eight questions were displayed per page.

The second page displayed the dichotomous question of whether or not the participants were regular tobacco consumers, according to the universally used definition throughout this study. The two alternative responses were “yes” or “no”. On the one hand, if a respondent had selected the latter option, he or she was immediately directed to the final page of the questionnaire which merely thanks the respondent for his or her participation. On the other hand, if the respondent selected “yes”, then he or she was presented with eight scales assessing the participants’ own pleasure from consuming tobacco in the following (Q2-Q9). These scales pertaining to own pleasure from consuming tobacco were presented on two separate pages in order to make the treatment more manageable for the respondents (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2010). The questions relating to own pleasure from consuming tobacco were chosen to be the first ones to be answered by the respondents in order to prime them for the rest of the questionnaire. Researchers have found that subtle influences have the capacity to facilitate information recollection (Thaler & Sunstein, 2009). In taking advantage of this human propensity, the authors of this paper hoped for optimal recollection of thoughts and experiences on behalf of the respondents. Some scholars recommend to ask “simple, interesting and non-threatening questions” (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2010). Whilst these scales are arguably the simplest of this questionnaire, none of the questions can be regarded as non-threatening, especially since there is a stigma attached to tobacco consumption in most parts of the world, but especially in India. For this reason, the selected order of categories was concluded to be optimal.

Subsequently, the screen would show a transitional page preparing the respondents for the next task (Saunders et al. 2009; Schmidt & Hollensen, 2010). It provided the comment that they would read a scenario on the following page and further, the instruction prompted them to read it carefully and attentively. Said scenario was concerned with tobacco consumption in a private setting. Below the scenario text, the items assessing social legitimacy (Q11-13), moral legitimacy (Q14; Q16 & Q17) and intention to smoke (Q10 & Q15) were listed.

Next, the same pattern was repeated again: a transitory text with the same wording and on the following page, a scenario with subsequent questions inquiring positions relative to the scenario. The second scenario presented a social setting. The items pertaining to this scenario also assessed social legitimacy (Q19-21) moral legitimacy (Q22; Q24 & Q25) and intention to smoke (Q18 & Q23), analogous to the first scenario.

Finally, the respondents were asked to provide socio-demographic data, consisting of age (Q26), gender (Q27), highest level of education (Q28) and finally, geographic location (Q29). This data was collected at the end of the questionnaire since some individuals find questions relating age, education, gender etc. threatening and as mentioned, threatening questions should be avoided especially at the beginning of a questionnaire (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2010). In addition, respondents are more likely to answer potentially threatening questions in the end due to the already expended commitment to filling in the questionnaire. The time the individual has spent on responding at this point represents a sunk cost, especially if he or she does not want to provide the demographic data but cannot finalise the questionnaire without doing so. Researchers have found that in such scenarios, the decision-makers' commitment is likely to escalate (Staw, 1997). This means that in spite of facing potentially negative outcomes, decision-makers continue to pursue behaviours that are consistent with past actions, even if it is not rational to do so. Therefore, even if participants find it irrational to provide socio-demographic data for whatever reason, they are likely to do so. Furthermore, Malhotra et al. (2017) deliver another argument for this order in that late in the questionnaire, respondents have "established rapport and have become involved". Lastly, the chosen types of socio-demographic information were sought out with the aim of checking the sample's representativeness for the entire Indian population (Saunders et al., 2009).

### 4.5 Sampling

Of course, the sample that delivers the most representative insights, would be the entire target population, thus all overage regular tobacco consumers of Indian citizenship. However, due to obvious constraints such as budget and time, this survey had to make use of the non-probability sampling method, which is subject to numerous limitations, but however acceptable under the condition of the complying with predetermined criteria. Also, this is a very prevalent practice throughout research in the social sciences. Non-probability sampling is also known under the very descriptive name of convenience sampling, since this sampling method bears a comparatively high degree of convenience for researchers. This is conveyed through the fact that i.e. respondents are drawn from the proximity of the researcher and not necessarily from the population under investigation, which saves resources such as time and money. A limitation that arises from this fashion of sampling is that it is subjective rather than objective and thus not unconditionally generalisable (Wansink & Sudman, 2002). Nonetheless, a study such as the one at hand would have not been feasible with the entire target population as a sample. The same is the case for probability sampling, which is also more objective since every member of the target population has the equal probability of being selected. For the reasons mentioned, the study employing convenience sampling was performed in a way to maximise its reliability and still deliver valuable insights to academia. In order to collect respondents, all three platforms of Facebook, LinkedIn and Amazon Mechanical Turk were made use of in order to distribute the surveys. Although the surveys were identical in their structure and presentation, the responses from both channels were collected separately because the Facebook- and LinkedIn-generated responses were anonymous and the Amazon Mechanical Turk-generated ones were not. In the survey-publishing sequence, the link to the survey was first published to 30 Facebook groups pertinent to consumption which also had large member numbers. It started to manifest after a couple of days that this method of data collection would not result in a desirable, large enough sample size in the foreseeable future. Therefore, the well-regarded and academically tolerated crowdsourcing internet marketplace was contracted in order to recruit respondents that are part of the target population. It is important to note that the reliability and validity associated with a large (200-400 respondents) sample was prioritised before the dangers of buying responses that have been pointed out by scholars (section 4.4). Naturally, illiterates or citizens not in the possession of an electronic device and access to Facebook and LinkedIn were excluded from the convenience sample, which may have limiting implications for the generalisability of the findings. Nonetheless, scholars argue that a larger sample size can mitigate these restraints on generalisability and increase data quality as well as reduce sampling errors (Hair, Bush & Ortinau, 2009).

The questionnaires were created in the online programme SurveyXact and distributed 1838 times in total. This results in a non-response of 86%, and 2% of participants who began but did not complete the survey. Accordingly, the response rate was 12%. Furthermore, non-smokers, a group that was sought to be excluded from the data analysis account partly for the share of the sample that are shown under “completed”. However, no responses from this group was used in the data collection since the non-smokers were immediately directed to the end of the survey, as explained in the section 4.4. Subsequent to data collection, undesired response patterns such as straight-lining were detected and those responses were eliminated from the data set. Therefore, the final sample size was n = 231. In order to assess the degree of generalisability of the collected data, the authors performed several comparisons of demographic data from the sample and that of the entire target population (Malhotra et al., 2017; Saunders et al., 2009). Firstly, and secondly, age and gender statistics exclusively of the smoking population were derived from 2016-2017 (TISS, Mumbai and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, & Government of India, 2016). Thirdly, distribution of residence throughout the Indian regions was taken into consideration. Lastly, unfortunately, no reliable source indicating the distribution of education levels could was found by the authors. However, this might not have implications for data analysis because the titles of education are assigned according to different criteria than those in the Western word are. Therefore, the different diplomas have ambiguous meanings attached to them.

*Age Distribution*

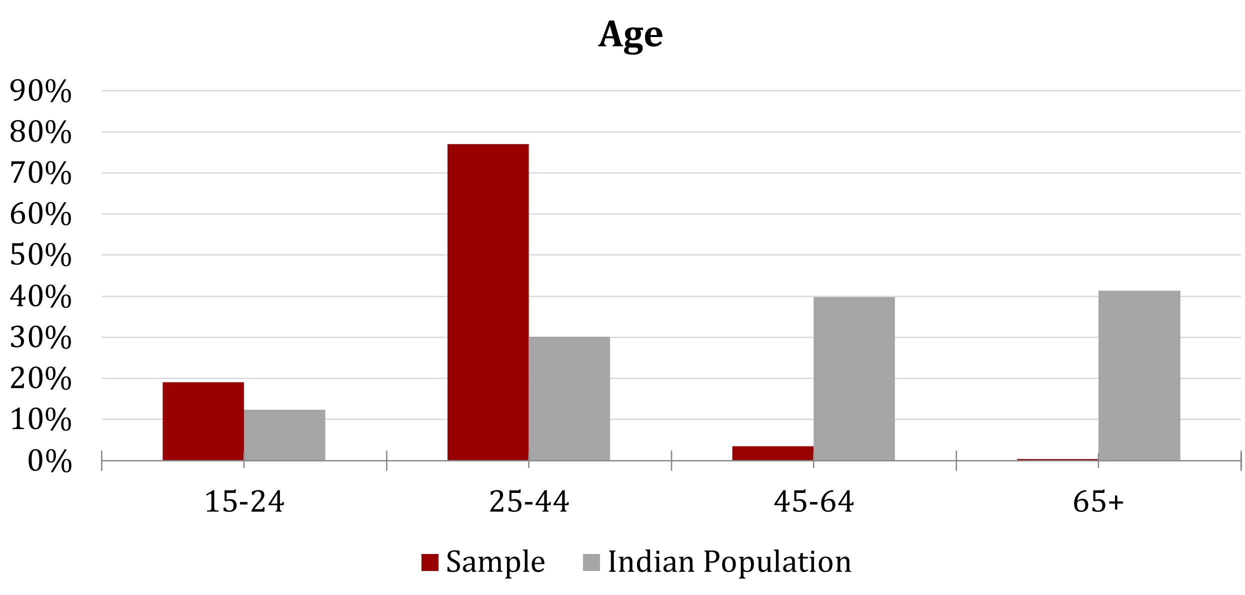


*Figure 4.2 Age group distribution of sample compared to target population*
*Source: Authors' own data and data from GATS 2 India 2016-2017*

As evident from figure 4.2, the sample is not age representative since there is an overweight for both groups of respondents aged 18-24 and 25-44. Furthermore, the age group 45-64 is notably underrepresented and 65+ is not contained in the sample at all.

*Gender Distribution*

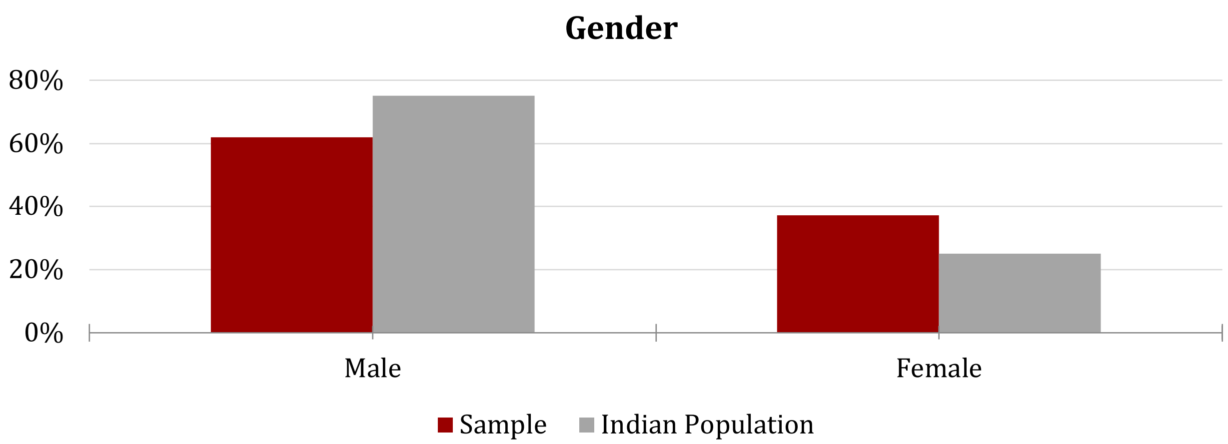


*Figure 4.3 Gender distribution of sample compared to target population*
*Source: Authors' own data and data from GATS 2 India 2016-2017*

The graph displaying the gender distributions is only concerned with the smoking population. Overall, 75% of regular tobacco consumers of the Indian population are male. This overwhelming tendency is reflected in the gender distribution of the sample, where the majority of respondents were male. However, there is still a little underweight regarding male representation through the sample and a slight overweight regarding female respondents. Nonetheless, the overall notion that Indian men are more likely to be smokers than women is represented correctly through the sample.

*Residency*

In terms of location of residence, less inferences can be drawn and just overall tendencies are sensible to be assessed. The reason being is that the pertinent data that is available is highly outdated, having been collected in 2003. However, the GATS 2 report from 2016-2017 (TISS, Mumbai and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, & Government of India, 2017), shows that more citizens living in rural areas (32,5% of total population) are regular tobacco users, as opposed to those living in urban areas (21,2% of total population). The largest share of respondents came from the south Indian state of Tamil Nadu (53%), in which the large city of Chennai is situated. Here, the smoking prevalence is at a level of 20-30% (TISS, Mumbai and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, & Government of India, 2016: 32). This is representative of the overall smoking prevalence of the entire Indian population, which is at 28.6%. The next largest group of the sample was respondents from Karnataka, in which the large city of Bangalore lies. The smoking prevalence is at the same level as in Tamil Nadu, at 20-30%.

It should be noted that the sample does not represent the part of the Indian population well that uses tobacco the most prevalently, which are those living in the far northern eastern part of the country. Therefore, it is debatable whether or not the sample is representative of the overall population with regards to residency.

# 5. Results

For this study, the statistical method of multiple regression analysis was chosen which is a multivariate analysis technique. The choice is explained through the nature of the study's model, which displays the relationship between a single dependent variable and a set of independent variables moderated by the setting. Multiple regression analysis lends itself nicely to the analysis of the relationships between the types of variables at hand and to answering a predefined research question. The research question of this study investigates whether or not the intention to consume tobacco (IC) can be influenced by the own pleasure of tobacco consumption (OPC), moral legitimacy (ML), and social legitimacy (SL), all moderated by the type of setting, either private or social. This makes up a total of three relationships between three exogeneous and one endogenous variable in each of the settings.

Furthermore, the method of multiple regression analysis is appropriate when a statistical, and not a functional, relationship is of interest. In a functional relation no error in prediction is expected due to the fixed relationship in the equation, hence all observations fall directly on the line of the functional relationship. However, a statistical relation is not perfect, which means that the observations in general do not fall directly on the line of the relationship but instead constitute a scattering of points around the line. This scattering of points represents variation, which makes the basis of the analysis of the regression model's overall fit. Moreover, the statistical relationship, and hence the propriety of multiple regression analysis, is emphasised through the study's sample data representing human behaviour. The sample data presumably provides an approximate indication of intention to consume tobacco in a private and a social setting, but does not provide a perfect prediction. Thereby, some random component is consistently present in the examined relationship, and it is therefore defined as a statistical relationship (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014; Kutner, Nachtsheim & Neter, 2004).

The multiple regression analysis was performed in the software SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 24). SPSS, which is acronym for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, offers a wide range statistical data analysis tools including generalised linear models which made it appropriate for the multiple regression analysis at hand. Initially, the primary data was collected through the survey software SurveyXact and imported into Microsoft Excel. In Microsoft Excel, as previously mentioned, undesired response patterns such as straight-lining, the action of selecting the same response option for every item without intent, which is harmful to data quality, were detected and eliminated from the data set. Furthermore, the responses which were non-metric variables were labelled so that they became metric variables, which is a requirement for data treatment in SPSS. Subsequently, this data set composed of metric variables was imported into SPSS for multiple regression analysis.

## 5.1 Regression Model Fit

Before assessing the overall fit of the regression model, it is relevant to emphasise the objectives of multiple regression. Multiple regression analysis can be used for many purposes due to its broad applicability. Yet its applications fall into two broad categories of research problems, namely prediction and explanation. Where prediction is concerned with the extent to which the regression variate can predict the dependent variable, explanation examines the regression coefficients for each independent variable, including the statistical significance. Based on such examination, explanation attempts to develop a theoretical or substantive reason for the effects of the studied independent variables. Prediction and explanation are not mutually exclusive, so an application of multiple regression analysis can address either prediction or explanation or both types of research problems (Hair et al., 2014). Considering the research question of this study, the application of multiple regression analysis will address both prediction and explanation. Based on the established dependent and independent variables, it is possible to address the overall model fit by assessing the model's predictive accuracy.

### 5.1.1 Coefficient of Determination

The coefficient of determination ($R^2$) measures the predictive accuracy of the regression model. The $R^2$ value indicates the percentage of total variation of the dependent variable explained by the independent variables, hence the value of $R^2$ represents the combined effects of the independent variables. Essentially, the $R^2$ value is calculated at the squared correlation between the dependent variable's actual and predicted values. The $R^2$ value ranges from 0 to 1, and respectively indicates no prediction or perfect prediction. Likewise, the $R^2$ value can also be interpreted in percentages, meaning that its value indicates the percentage of total variation between variables. Nonetheless, in general the higher the value of $R^2$, the higher the predictive accuracy of the regression model (Hair et al., 2014).

| | $R^2$ |
|---|---|
| IC_a | 0,400 |
| IC_b | 0,656 |

*Table 5.1 $R^2$ values*

Interpreting the $R^2$ values of the study's regression model indicates that the regression model has, what could conceivably be referred to as, a moderate level of predictive accuracy. Considering the regression model moderated by the individual being in a private setting provides a $R^2$ value of 0,400. Thereby, 40% of the total variation in individuals' intention to consume tobacco in a private setting (IC_a) is explained by the independent variables own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy, and social legitimacy.

Yet, considering the regression model moderated by the individual being in a social setting provides a $R^2$ value of 0,656. This means that 65,6% of the total variation in individuals' intention to consume tobacco in a social setting (IC_b) is explained by the regression model's independent variables own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy and social legitimacy.

Providing rules of thumb for acceptable $R^2$ values is difficult, as it among other aspects depends on the research discipline. What in principle may seem like a low $R^2$ value may in reality be considered as high for a particular research discipline. Due to the fact that it is more difficult to predict human behaviour, compared to e.g. physical processes, the specified $R^2$ values are deemed acceptable (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016).

### 5.1.2 Correlation Coefficient and Matrices

The coefficient of correlation (R), thus the signed square root of $R^2$, is a measure of linear association between the dependent variable and the independent variables of the regression model. Thus, this is additionally used as an indication of the fit of the model. The R value has a plus or minus sign attached to it, indicating whether the slope of the regression line is positive or negative. For this reason, the value of R ranges between -1 and 1, accordingly, a positive correlation reflects an upwards trend while a negative correlation reflects a downwards trend. Hence, correlation indicates both association and direction of the linear relationship between variables (Kutner et al., 2004).

| | **R** |
|---|---|
| IC_a | 0,633 |
| IC_b | 0,810 |

*Table 5.2 R values*

The R values in table 5.2 indicate positive correlations between the dependent and independent variables of the regression model in both settings. Accordingly, a positive slope and an upward trend is presented. Consequently, there is a positive correlation between the dependent variable, intention to consume tobacco, and the independent variables, own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy, and social legitimacy, both in a private and a social setting. The positive correlations between the dependent and independent variables are further displayed in Appendix 2 for demonstration purposes.

Table 5.3 and table 5.4 contain descriptive statistics and correlation matrices for respectively a private and a social setting. Where table 5.2 above shows the correlation coefficient (R) pertaining to the regression model for a private and a social setting, the table 5.3 and table 5.4 below, among others, show the correlation coefficients between every variable in each of the two settings.

| Variable | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean | | 1,73 | 2,27 | 2,12 | 1,98 | 0,39 | 1,05 | 2,44 | 18,00 |
| Standard deviation | | 1,35 | 1,25 | 1,30 | 1,00 | 0,51 | 0,75 | 0,69 | 7,78 |
| 1. Intention to consume in a private setting | (IC_a) | 1,00 | | | | | | | |
| 2. Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,486 *** | 1,00 | | | | | | |
| 3. Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,554 *** | 0,691 *** | 1,00 | | | | | |
| 4. Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,565 *** | 0,598 *** | 0,572 *** | 1,00 | | | | |
| 5. Gender | | -0,004 | -0,065 | -0,001 | -0,031 | 1,00 | | | |
| 6. Age | | 0,026 | 0,218 *** | 0,129 * | 0,105 | -0,266 *** | 1,00 | | |
| 7. Education | | 0,036 | 0,046 | 0,057 | 0,054 | -0,017 | 0,027 | 1,00 | |
| 8. Residence | | 0,089 | -0,037 | 0,043 | 0,014 | 0,127 * | -0,107 | -0,036 | 1,00 |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics and correlations (private setting)*

| Variable | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean | | 2,39 | 2,60 | 2,63 | 1,98 | 0,39 | 1,05 | 2,44 | 18,00 |
| Standard deviation | | 1,59 | 1,43 | 1,53 | 1,00 | 0,51 | 0,75 | 0,69 | 7,78 |
| 1. Intention to consume in a social setting | (IC_b) | 1,00 | | | | | | | |
| 2. Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | 0,772 *** | 1,00 | | | | | | |
| 3. Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | 0,778 *** | 0,878 *** | 1,00 | | | | | |
| 4. Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,485 *** | 0,483 *** | 0,430 *** | 1,00 | | | | |
| 5. Gender | | -0,055 | -0,183 ** | -0,105 | -0,031 | 1,00 | | | |
| 6. Age | | 0,093 | 0,163 ** | 0,157 ** | 0,105 | -0,266 *** | 1,00 | | |
| 7. Education | | -0,025 | 0,018 | -0,037 | 0,054 | -0,017 | 0,027 | 1,00 | |
| 8. Residence | | -0,001 | -0,121 * | -0,091 | 0,014 | 0,127 * | -0,107 | -0,036 | 1,00 |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics and correlations (social setting)*

The control variables gender, age, education, and residence are not included as independent variables in the study's regression model. Yet, theses control variables are included in the regression analysis in order to detect any possible correlation and importance of these variables, which may be used for further analysis and discussion.

The correlation matrix in table 5.3 depicts the association between the dependent variable (IC_a) and the independent variables in a private setting. The strength of association is determined by the size of the correlation. Thus, considering the first column of table 5.3 demonstrates that own pleasure from consuming tobacco is the independent variable with the highest correlation. Thereby, own pleasure from consuming tobacco has the strongest association with the dependent variable. It is closely followed by social legitimacy, whereas moral legitimacy is the independent variable with the weakest association. The correlation matrix in table 5.4 depicts the association between the dependent variable in a social setting (IC_b) and the independent variables. The first column of this table shows that social legitimacy, closely followed by moral legitimacy, has the highest correlation with the dependent variable. Thus, social legitimacy is the independent variable with the strongest association, whereas own pleasure from consuming tobacco is the one with the weakest association.

Considering the control variables gender, age, education, and residence, it appears that none of these variables have particularly strong associations with the dependent variable in any of the settings. It turns out that the control variable with the strongest association with the dependent variable is age in a social setting.

In addition to the correlation coefficients and strength of associations, table 5.3 and table 5.4 also report the means and the standard deviations for the involved variables. Moreover, the tables also report whether the presented associations are statistically significant, which is described by the p-value. The level of statistical significance is further illustrated by the number of stars in conjunction with the association between variables (* = statistically significant at 0.05, ** = statistically significant at 0.01, *** = statistically significant at 0.001). The lower the p-value, the higher the statistical significance of the association is. Both table 5.3 and table 5.4 show that the associations between the dependent variable, intention to consume tobacco, and the three independent variables, own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy, and social legitimacy, are statistically significant. Furthermore, the first columns of both table 5.3 and table 5.4 show that the none of the associations between the control variables and individual's intention to consume tobacco are statistically significant.

The p-values and their levels of statistical significance related to the associations are demonstrated in Appendix 3. Furthermore, the levels of statistical significance and their signification will be examined further later on in this section in relation to testing the study's posed hypotheses.

### 5.1.3 Standard Error of the Estimate

Another measure of predictive accuracy, and thus the fit of the regression model, is the standard error of the estimate ($SE_E$). The $SE_E$ value consequently denotes the expected variation in the predicted values. The $SE_E$ value represents an estimate of the standard deviation (SD) of the actual dependent values around the regression line, thus $SE_E$ compares the predicted to the actual values (Hair et al., 2014).

| | $SE_E$ |
|---|---|
| IC_a | 1,0489 |
| IC_b | 0,9416 |

*Table 5.5 $SE_E$ values*

As a matter of fact, the $SE_E$ is a measure of dispersion, and the greater the dispersion of the actual values from the regression line, the higher the $SE_E$ value. The regression model for both the private and the social setting indicate low $SE_E$ values, thus the dispersion of the actual values from the regression line is relatively low.

### 5.1.4 Analysis of Variance and F-ratio

Researchers employ the analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to determine if the means of the dependent variable are all equal. Furthermore, it signifies a statistical test of the overall model fit relative to the F-ratio (Hair et al., 2016). If only the mean of the respective independent variables is used to predict the dependent variable, the squared error under investigation is the total sum of squares. The null-hypothesis assumes that all population means are equal, whereas the alternative hypothesis assumes that at least one of the groups' means is not equal to the others. Note that ANOVA is not able to state *which* population mean is different. In the study at hand, two variance analyses were performed, differentiated by a moderator affecting the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. For both of the variance analyses, the p-values were 0.000 and therefore statistically significant, as indicated in table 5.6 and table 5.7 below. In other words, in both cases, the null-hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted, signifying that at least one of the group means is different to the others.

| | Sum of Squares | *df* | Mean Square | F | Sig. (p-value) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regression | 166,600 | 3 | 55,533 | 50,477 | 0,000 |
| Residual | 249,740 | 227 | 1,100 | | |
| Total | 416,340 | 230 | | | |

*Table 5.6 ANOVA table (private setting)*

| | Sum of Squares | *df* | Mean Square | F | Sig. (p-value) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regression | 383,442 | 3 | 127,814 | 144,155 | 0,000 |
| Residual | 201,268 | 227 | 0,887 | | |
| Total | 584,710 | 230 | | | |

*Table 5.7 ANOVA table (social setting)*

The significance of the overall model is furthermore assessed with the aid of the F-ratio. In multiple regression analysis, the following hypothesis is tested: the degree of variation shown by the regression model is more than the variation shown by the average (Hair, 1995). For the ANOVA table 5.6, thus corresponding to the data moderated by a private setting, an F-ratio of 50,477 was generated, which signifies that concerning the sample used for estimation, 50,477 times more variation can be explained than when using the average and that this will only happen by chance less than 5% of the time. For the ANOVA table 5.7, the F-ratio is 144,155, a value which can be interpreted in the same manner as the F-ratio in table 5.6.

## 5.2 Examination of Regression Coefficient and Statistical Significance

As stated previously, multiple regression analysis may be used for different purposes, in which prediction and explanation are the two main categories. Assessing the predictive accuracy, as done in the previous section, in order to address the overall fit of the model, is not always sufficient to researchers. Many research questions, like the one pertaining to this study, are additionally focused on assessing the impact of each independent variable in making the prediction of the dependent variable. In this multiple regression analysis, the aim is to interpret the effects of own pleasure from consuming tobacco, moral legitimacy, and social legitimacy in predicting individuals' intention to consume tobacco. All other things equal, the independent variables with the larger regression coefficients would make greater contributions to the predicted dependent variable. Therefore, the relative contributions of each of the independent variables are examined in order to gain insights into the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2014). On the basis of the aforementioned, this section will first examine the regression coefficients of the multiple regression analysis.

### 5.2.1 Regression Coefficients

The regression coefficient (b) and the standardised coefficient (**β**) are, for explanatory purposes, indicators of the relative impact and also importance, of the independent variables in their relationships with the dependent variable. Consequently, these coefficients reflect the change in the dependent variable measure for each unit change in the independent variable. The regression coefficients, which can also be referred to as the unstandardized coefficients, are the coefficients measured in original units. The standardised coefficients, on the other hand, are calculated from standardised data, and may also be referred to as the beta-coefficients. Through the process of standardisation, variables are converted to a common scale and variability. Thereby, it is assured that all variables are comparable. Comparing the regression coefficients allows one to assess the relative importance of each independent variable in the regression model (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.8 shows the regression coefficient and the beta-coefficient for the regression model's regression equation moderated by each setting. However, interpreting the regression coefficient versus the beta-coefficient does not yield any substantial difference in the results, as demonstrated below.

| Variable | | Intention to consume tobacco in a private setting (ICa) | | Intention to consume tobacco in a social setting (ICb) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Coefficients* | | *Coefficients* | |
| | | **Regression (b)** | **Beta (β)** | **Regression (b)** | **Beta (β)** |
| Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,471 | 0,351 | 0,228 | 0,143 |
| Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,066 | 0,062 | | |
| Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,321 | 0,310 | | |
| Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | | | 0,356 | 0,319 |
| Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | | | 0,453 | 0,436 |

*Table 5.8 Regression coefficients*

Examining the table firstly indicates that own pleasure from consuming tobacco is more important than both moral legitimacy and social legitimacy in a private setting. Additionally, the table also shows that moral legitimacy is considerably less important than own pleasure from consuming tobacco and social legitimacy. Moreover, the table also shows that in a social setting social legitimacy is more important than moral legitimacy and own pleasure from consuming tobacco. As a matter of fact, own pleasure from consuming tobacco is evidently less important than social legitimacy and moral legitimacy in a social setting. This stands in clear contrast to its importance in a private setting, thus it becomes apparent that the settings play a role in terms of which variables are more influential to the individual's intention to consume tobacco.

### 5.2.2 Hypothesis Testing

The posed hypotheses of this study are tested through an examination of the statistical significance. Nonetheless, in order to carry out the hypothesis testing, it is firstly necessary to establish a significance level. For the purpose of this study the assumed level of significance is 5% (two-tailed test).

Table 5.9 provides the *p*-values for the relationships between the moderated dependent and independent variables along with indications of the levels of statistical significance (* = statistically significant at 0.05, ** = statistically significant at 0.01, *** = statistically significant at 0.001).

| Variable | | Intention to consume in a private setting (IC_a) | | Intention to consume in a social setting (IC_b) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Demographics* | | | | | |
| Gender | | 0,933 | | 0,624 | |
| Age | | 0,640 | | 0,212 | |
| Education | | 0,562 | | 0,677 | |
| Residence | | 0,203 | | 0,862 | |
| *Direct effects* | | | | | |
| Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,000 | *** | 0,001 | ** |
| Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,414 | | | |
| Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,000 | *** | | |
| Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | | | 0,000 | *** |
| Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | | | 0,000 | *** |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 5.9 P-values and statistical significance levels of the regression analysis*

In the subsequent section, the results from the hypothesis testing are briefly described. Table 5.10 provides an overview of the results from testing H1a & H1b, H2a & H2b and H3a & H3b. The table reports the regression analysis results through the beta-coefficient and the levels of statistical significance for the relationships between the dependent and the independent variables.

| Variable | | Intention to consume in a private setting (IC_a) | | Intention to consume in a social setting (IC_b) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Demographic Variables* | | | | | |
| Gender | | -0,006 | | -0,034 | |
| Age | | 0,032 | | 0,086 | |
| Education | | 0,039 | | -0,028 | |
| Residence | | 0,086 | | 0,012 | |
| *Direct effects* | | | | | |
| Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,351 | *** | 0,143 | ** |
| Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,062 | | | |
| Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,310 | *** | | |
| Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | | | 0,319 | *** |
| Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | | | 0,436 | *** |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 5.10 Regression analysis p-values and levels of statistical significance*

***H1a.*** The path from own pleasure from tobacco consumption (**β** = 0.351, $p < 0.001$) to intention to consume in a private setting is positive and significant. The findings therefore fully support *H1a*.

***H1b.*** The path from own pleasure from tobacco consumption (**β** = 0.143, p < 0.01) to intention to consume in a social setting is positive and significant. Since the beta-coefficient is lower in the social than in the private setting, the social setting more strongly moderates the relationship between own pleasure from tobacco consumption and intention to consume. The findings therefore fully support *H1b*.

***H2a.*** The path from social legitimacy of tobacco consumption to intention to consume in a private setting is positive and significant (**β** = 0.31, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the findings reject *H2a.*

***H2b.*** The path from social legitimacy of tobacco consumption to intention to consume in a social setting is positive and significant (**β** = 0.436, $p < 0.001$). Since the beta-coefficient is higher in the social than in the private setting, the social setting more strongly moderates the relationship between social legitimacy of tobacco consumption and intention to consume. The findings therefore fully support *H2b*.

***H3a.*** The path from moral legitimacy of tobacco consumption to intention to consume in a private setting is positive but insignificant (**β** = 0.062, $p > 0.05$). The findings therefore support *H3a*.

***H3b.*** The path from moral legitimacy of tobacco consumption to intention to consume in a social setting is positive and significant (**β** = 0.319, $p < 0.001$). Accordingly, the social setting moderates the influence of moral legitimacy of tobacco consumption on intention to consume in contrast to the private setting. The findings therefore fully support *H3b*.

Table 5.11 provides a total overview of the hypothesis testing performed above along with the results presented for each of the hypotheses.

| *Hypothesis* | *Coefficient* | *p-value* | *Result* |
|---|---|---|---|
| **H1a**. In a private setting, the relationship between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco is positive, hence individuals with high own pleasure from consuming tobacco have high intention to consume tobacco. | 0,351 | 0,000 | SUPPORTED |
| **H1b.** In a social setting, the relationship between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco is positive, hence individuals with high own pleasure from consuming tobacco have high intention to consume tobacco. | 0,143 | 0,001 | SUPPORTED |
| **H2a.** In a private setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is not influenced significantly by the individual's perceived social legitimacy. | 0,310 | 0,000 | REJECTED |
| **H2b.** In a social setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is influenced significantly by the individual's perceived social legitimacy. | 0,436 | 0,000 | SUPPORTED |
| **H3a.** In a private setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is not influenced by the individual's perceived moral legitimacy. | 0,062 | 0,414 | SUPPORTED |
| **H3b.** In a socisl setting, the individual's intention to consume tobacco is significantly influenced by the individual's perceived moral legitimacy. | 0,319 | 0,000 | SUPPORTED |

*Table 5.11 Hypothesis overview*

# 6. Discussion

In the following chapter the key findings from the hypothesis testing are discussed as well as the theoretical- and managerial implications that can be inferred therefrom and finally, the limitations pertaining to the research and how these can be mitigated in the future. The hypothesis discussion is separated into two sections, namely firstly the discussion of the effect that setting and pleasure from consumption have on consumer behaviour. Secondly, the role that legitimacy plays in consumer behaviour relative to tobacco consumption are evaluated. Subsequently, theoretical limitations of the paper are discussed that are pertaining to methodological flaws that are mostly based on limited means available to the researchers. Similarly, managerial implications are presented that show how theoretical findings can improve decision-making of tobacco businesses. Lastly, the limitations of this paper concerned with aspects such as generalisability of the findings, and internal and external validity are clearly circumscribed in the last section of this chapter.

## 6.1 Hypothesis Discussion

In the following the results yielded from the multiple regression analysis of the collected data and possible interpretations are presented. First, individuals' propensity to consume tobacco in private versus social settings is discussed. Second, the role of social legitimacy and finally, the role of moral legitimacy in consumer behaviour are elaborated.

### 6.1.1 The Effect of Setting and Pleasure of Consumption on Consumer Behaviour

The results yielded from the multiple regression analysis show that the social setting individuals are in notably influences their consumption behaviour patterns. On the one hand, regular tobacco consumers have a significantly high intention to consume tobacco when they are by themselves and not being watched, especially not by individuals they know personally or their in-group members. It should be noted that the individuals under investigation are addicted to nicotine and they practice tobacco consumption with a high probability (American Psychiatric Association, 1994; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1988). Therefore, in any scenario, they can be expected to have the desire to consume the drug on a consistent basis. On the other hand, as soon as friends and family, thus persons whose opinions typically matter to oneself, are nearby and watching, tobacco consumers hold less strong intentions to consume tobacco products. Although the individual's high pleasure from consuming tobacco still positively influences the intention to consume tobacco, this relationship is significantly moderated by the social aspect of the setting. These results were expected because extant literature shows that tobacco consumption is rather prevalent throughout the Indian population, since 42.4% of Indian men and 14.2% of Indian women are regular tobacco consumers (TISS, Mumbai and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, & Government of India, 2016). Nonetheless, the majority of Indians are accordingly non-smokers. It has been found in numerous academic studies that non-smokers and smokers alike assess smokers to have more negative social and personality traits than non-smokers (Dillard, Magnan, Köblitz, & McCaul, 2013). It may be possible that this unfavourable judgement of smokers is even more significant in collectivist cultures. An explanation for this could be that the collectivist characteristic of the Indian culture leads its members to place high value on the opinions of their peers and adjust their behaviours to accommodate the collectively held ( [consumption] values and preferences for behaviour (van Herk & Torelli, 2017).

Furthermore, difference in behaviour patterns from one setting to the other may partially be explained by Tost's (2011) considerations pertinent to her model of legitimacy judgement process. She proposes that behaviours may be legitimate from an instrumental but not from a relational/social stance. Instrumental legitimacy is conferred when an individual pursues his or her own singular interests. Accordingly, for a regular tobacco consumer, instrumental legitimacy is signified in fulfilling his or her urge to consume tobacco. In contrast, relational/social legitimacy is ascribed to a member of a group if his or her behaviour is in accordance with the group's social identity and sense of self-worth (Tost, 2011). As a result, he or she is accorded status and respect (cp. Tyler, 1997; Tyler & Lind, 1992). These aspects are assumably the reason for the strong negatively moderating influence that the social setting has on the individual's intention to consume tobacco.

### 6.1.2 The Role of Legitimacy in Consumer Behaviour

The results from the multiple regression analysis clearly indicate that the social setting, in which a consumption practice is performed in, has a strong bearing on how consumption legitimacy affects consumer behaviour.

#### *6.1.2.1 The Role of Social Legitimacy in Consumer Behaviour*

Although the multiple regression analysis only confirmed H2b and not H2a, these results can be explained. Furthermore, they do not deviate significantly from the tendency that was expected to be observed based on the reviewed literature. This will be explained in the following.

Had H2a been confirmed, this would have manifested in the data analysis in the form of there being a negative beta-coefficient and simultaneously a significance level above the value of 0,05. Values in this range were expected but not fulfilled and H2a therefore rejected. Nonetheless, when putting this result into context and comparing it with the result of H2b, it can be argued that the result does not deviate too far from the expectations. The expectation was namely that the social legitimacy of the consumption practice has a strong influence on individuals' intention to consume tobacco in a social setting, at least stronger than within a private setting. The results show that social legitimacy does still have an influence on the intention to consume tobacco in a private setting. The explanation for this result might lie in aspects of the Indian culture, such as the stigmatisation of smoking and the conferral of lower social statuses to tobacco consumers (Dillard et al., 2013; Tost, 2011).

*6.1.2.2 The Role of Moral Legitimacy in Consumer Behaviour*

Pertinent to aspects of moral legitimacy and its influence on tobacco consumption behaviour, it should be noted that both hypotheses H3a and H3b were supported. In a private setting, moral legitimacy judgements do not have a bearing on a tobacco consumer's intention to consume, whereas they do determine the intention to consume tobacco within a social setting notably.

The overall findings beg the question of why social legitimacy has stronger effects on tobacco consumers' behaviour in general compared to that of moral legitimacy. Social legitimacy has a stronger influence on intention to consume tobacco in a social setting ($\boldsymbol{\beta}$ = 0.436) than moral legitimacy does ($\boldsymbol{\beta}$ = 0.319), and social legitimacy even has a small but noteworthy positive influence in a private setting ($\boldsymbol{\beta}$ = 0.301). On the one hand, the moral aspect may have weaker implications since it is legal to consume tobacco above a certain age in India. Therefore, being a smoker is not a crime or simply "the wrong thing to do". Especially if one smokes in a private setting, no other individual can get harmed from second-hand smoking, which is presumably the explanation for the outcome at hand and allows for the inference that smoking in private is morally acceptable. On the other hand, the magnitude of the influence that the collectivistic values inherent in the Indian culture have, presumably explains the strong influence that social legitimacy has on intended behaviour of tobacco consumers. Socially legitimate practices, thus those that are desirable, appropriate and in accordance with the preferences of a socially constructed system, are more strongly sought out in collectivist cultures. The desirable practice in the context of Indian society would therefore be to omit smoking.

As described above, the social and moral legitimacy judgements of a consumption practice, in this case tobacco consumption, have a significant overall effect on regular tobacco consumers' intention to consume and by according to the Theory of Planned Behaviour, their actual consumption behaviour (McMillan & Conner, 2003). This relationship can be significantly moderated by situational factors and this study has shown that the effect that smokers' moral and social legitimacy judgements of tobacco consumption have on their intention to consume are especially strongly moderated by a social setting.

## 6.2 Implications

In this sub-chapter the theoretical- and managerial implications that can be drawn from the findings of this paper are discussed. The former is mostly aimed at providing subsequent researchers with suggestions on how the research method could be enriched and improved and it also gives arguments for working with an increased budget. The latter illustrates to strategists of the tobacco industry how they can make use of the academic insights to shed light on underlying motivations for consumption and potentially even predict consumer behaviours, especially in under-researched markets. Additionally, suggestions to governments are made in the form of recommendations for action.

### 6.2.1 Theoretical Implications

This study sought to investigate the perceived legitimacy of tobacco consumption among the tobacco consuming population in India. This objective was based on the desire to enhance the understanding of the Indian tobacco consumers and how their consumption practices and perceptions could be influenced by consumption legitimacy. This study's empirical findings suggest that consumers' behaviour is significantly influenced by consumption legitimacy. Thereby, this paper further develops the concept of legitimacy and how it can be applied to consumer research. Consequently, it should assist in enhancing researches' understanding of the drivers of consumer practice and perception. This further development and application has been called upon by previous scholars including Kates (2004) and Humphreys (2010).

The authors of this paper would like to make several concrete suggestions to future research that became apparent through the process of conducting the study at hand. Firstly, researchers could try and gain more insights into why social/relational legitimacy seems to have a stronger influence on consumer behaviour than moral legitimacy does and if this applies to all consumer goods, whether it is the case in every national context or potentially only pertinent to India or other collectivist cultures. Secondly, given an extensive budget, the authors recommend also distributing a paper-based questionnaire supplementarily to a computer/Internet-based version. This way more, especially poorer, economic classes could also be reached which would shed light on currently hidden information pertinent to this demographic. Furthermore, the questionnaire could also be provided in the Hindi language which is the first language of the majority of India's inhabitants (53,6%) (Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner India, 2017). This way, communication biases of those whose first language is not English could be overcome, at least for the largest speaking group. Moreover, independently of other properties of questionnaires, the researchers would recommend paying for all types of participation since they expect a high response rate regardless of the lengthiness of the survey.

If more complete scales of questionnaire items are incorporated into a newly constructed questionnaire, the construct and internal validity could be heightened. Referring to other national, particularly emerging, markets, broad research opportunities relatives to legitimacy and consumer behaviour patterns in tobacco consumption present themselves. The other emerging countries where most smokers are located are Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, the Russian Federation, Turkey and Vietnam (U.S. National Cancer Institute &WHO, 2016; World Bank Country & Lending Groups, year). If using the questionnaire developed for this paper, caution should be made to potential cultural differences between India and other countries since they might call for adjustments, i.e. the settings that act as moderators in the model. Additionally, researchers could broaden the perspective to incorporate or focus on data derived from non-smokers. This could for example be done in a longitudinal study, which is the repeated measure of the same variables over more than one session and it allows for the assessment of individual situations in time and the comparison between them (Malhotra et al., 2017). How non-smokers or minors judge legitimacy of tobacco consumption and stratification of groups in the data analysis might provide insights into legitimacy judgements held by the participant him/herself or that s/he believes others hold of tobacco consumption. There are many other avenues for research that might also benefit governments in preventing the youth's initiation of smoking.

### 6.2.2 Managerial Implications

Since the empirical findings of this study show that legitimacy significantly influences consumption practices and perceptions, in this case those of tobacco consumption, it would in all probability be in the interest of the industry's stakeholders to take the concept of legitimacy into consideration when investigating consumer behaviour in foreign and unfamiliar markets. By focusing on consumption legitimacy, these stakeholders will be able to enhance their understanding of what drives consumer practices and perceptions in the market of interest. In turn, this knowledge could then be used for strategic- and managerial consideration in the market under investigation.

The findings of this study, showing that consumption legitimacy significantly influences tobacco consumption practices and perceptions in India, are not only useful to current or future industry stakeholders that want to gain insights into Indian consumer behaviour, but they are also useful to those that want to understand consumer behaviour in similar markets. As the study concerns itself with the cultural traits of an emerging market along with its legitimacy, it lays the foundation for similar studies to be conducted in different but similar markets (e.g. Pakistan, Philippines, Indonesia).

The authors of this paper recommend to decision-makers in the tobacco industry, i.e. the manager of a tobacco-distributor, to first try and understand the concrete underlying factors that cause Indian's legitimacy judgements to inhibit their intention to consume tobacco in social settings. Clearly, a large share of the population (28,6%; TISS, Mumbai and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare & Government of India, 2017) has a high own pleasure from smoking, so that this market bears a high sales potential that however might not be exploited fully at this point in time. If these underlying causes of poor legitimacy judgement of tobacco consumption were identified, specific products that are evaluated more positively, could be developed and distributed. One could speculate that the global health trend is a cause for poor legitimacy judgement of traditional tobacco consumption. Large tobacco organisations such as British American Tobacco have developed and are currently expanding vapour and other tobacco heating products with potentially reduced risk (British American Tobacco, 2018). Although this company has focussed on the western country of Japan as an outlet for these hybrid and tobacco heating products, these might present themselves as more legitimate in India in the future and potentially even ameliorate the perception of tobacco consumption overall.

At this point recommendations to policymakers should also be made. These typically seek to reduce tobacco consumption and decrease the number of especially adolescents who initiate the habit. For this purpose, governments should expand resources on researching further, on the basis of this study's findings, in which places Indians tend to consume tobacco and subsequently deliberately ban smoking from these public areas. Furthermore, they could limit the legally authorised points of sales of tobacco products to locations that Indians typically frequent in groups. This way the customers would, due to the analysed legitimacy judgements, naturally be inhibited to make the tobacco purchases. Upon further investigation additional opportunities for limiting tobacco consumption should emerge.

### 6.3 Limitations and Future Research

Like all pieces of academic work, this paper is not exempt from methodological and theoretical limitations. To the largest extent these limitations arose due to circumstances out of the hands of the researchers, but subsequent studies might be able to take findings and learnings from this paper into account and expand the research field under investigation further. In the subsequent sections, on the one hand, the methodological and theoretical limitations are elaborated on and on the other hand avenues for future research are proposed.

Pertinent to the data collection it should be pointed out that the sample assessed bears several limitations. Firstly, only Indian citizens were under investigation which then confines the generalisability of the findings to this country. Also, it should be kept in mind that India is a very large and heterogenic nation with regards to spoken language and practiced religion which could impact the comparability of participants' responses. Secondly, all ages above 45, such as residents of rural areas, especially those of the north-east of the country and males, were underrepresented in the sample. Thirdly, the method of convenience sampling, although it is prevalent in the social sciences, is compromising in itself, since some groups are excluded from the opportunity of participation. These include Indians neither in possession of electronic devices nor social media access and illiterates. All the aforementioned aspects compromise external validity. Also, the paper's focus on regular tobacco consumers limits its results to the consumption patterns relative to one product category and only regular consumers' perspective. Nonetheless, these limitations point to further research opportunities, either on the same market or on other national markets.

Discussing the topic of tobacco consumption bears the ambiguity of what constitutes as "smoking" or "oral tobacco consumption" and the differences between the two. Due to the plethora of definitions and different consumption options, some inferences might have been drawn that erroneously assume "smoking" and "orally consuming" tobacco as synonymous. Hopefully the body of literature and data will become more distinguished with regards to the different consumption options in the future.

In order to test the hypotheses and analyse the data, the statistical method of multiple regression was employed. Multiple regression analysis, like all statistical methods, bears several limitations. For instance, it is not resistant to measurement error and model mis-specification (Bohrnstedt & Carter, 1971). The method generally takes on the unrealistic assumption that variables have been measured perfectly. Additionally, the appropriate selection of exogenic variables as predictors of endogenic variables is essential in asserting predictive power of the model and should be achieved by founded preceding research in a positivist approach. For the aforementioned reasons, measurement reliability and association between endo- and exogenous variables might be compromised (Nusair & Hua, 2009). Nonetheless, the authors took great caution to limit the errors that can cause the compromising aspects of multiple regression analysis.

# 7. Conclusion

Through its findings, this thesis contributes to the marketing literature pertinent to the legitimacy of consumer behaviour. The research question that was answered through the study investigated how Indian tobacco consumers' pleasure from consuming tobacco and perceived legitimacy influence their actual consumption behaviour in two different settings. Accordingly, the authors wanted to investigate if different types of legitimacy affected consumer behaviour and if this relationship was moderated by the setting.

The research design constructed to answer the research question was made up of two main components: the investigation and review of a large body of the extant literature pertaining to legitimacy and a primary quantitative study. One contribution through the literature review emerged as a table evaluating the key findings of each study reviewed. Additionally, the inherent visualisation enables readers and subsequent researchers to compare the theoretical and empirical findings that had emerged throughout the legitimacy literature. Furthermore, in accordance with the adopted positivist research approach, two legitimacy dynamics, namely social and moral legitimacy, were identified as being of high importance to the field of tobacco consumption. These were subsequently incorporated into the model and eventually into the empirical study. In addition to the social and moral legitimacy variables, two further variables pertinent to tobacco consumption were adopted, namely own pleasure from tobacco consumption and intention to consume.

The results from the empirical study showed that both social and moral legitimacy's effect on Indian regular tobacco consumers' intention to consume were significantly influenced depending on whether the setting was private or social. If the regular consumer is by him- or herself, the legitimacy judgements of tobacco consumption have a weak to no bearing on his or her intention to consume. Additionally, according to the Theory of Planned Behaviour, presuming a person derives a high level of pleasure from tobacco consumption, he or she is also more likely to actually consume tobacco if alone. In contrast, the social setting presented proved to have a strong effect on the relationship between legitimacy judgements and intention to consume tobacco. This was especially the case for social legitimacy. One can draw the inference that social legitimacy considerations influence Indian consumers' behaviour the strongest due to the prominent collectivist characteristic of the Indian culture since it affects many aspects of the Indian lifestyle. Moral legitimacy judgements, in comparison, are largely based on considerations of legality and founded in normative evaluations. Since it is legal to consume tobacco in India above a certain age, the participants were only evaluated on permitted actions and behaviour patterns. Therefore, it is plausible that consuming tobacco is generally perceived as quite acceptable when contrasted with the consumption of illegal substances for instance.

Based on the findings, the research question can be answered as the following: *"Indian tobacco consumers' intention to consume tobacco is significantly influenced by social and moral legitimacy along with their own pleasure from consumption in different settings".*

Finally, it should be pointed out that this paper serves as an aid both to governmental agents and representatives of the tobacco industry in better understanding consumer behaviour of Indian tobacco consumers. Several recommendations to policymakers can be drawn from the findings, namely the reduction of points of sales of tobacco and secondly increasing the areas where smoking is prohibited. In contrast, the authors recommend to tobacco companies to investigate avenues of alternative tobacco products of which the consumption legitimacy might be judged more favourably. The presented framework of consumption legitimacy could aid stakeholders, also of other controversial consumer goods markets, in assessing differences in legitimacy judgements of a product, depending on its consumption context. Also, other emerging high-potential markets present interesting avenues for research and business alike.

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Articles marked with * were included in the literature review

# 9. Appendices

## APPENDIX 1. QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Dear participant,

we would like to thank you beforehand for taking time to complete this survey. Please only participate if you are of **Indian citizenship, above the age of 18** and a regular smoker of any kind of tobacco (a regular smoker per definition consumes at least one unit of tobacco product per day and has consumed at least 100 units during his/her lifetime).

This survey is a part of our master thesis at Copenhagen Business School. We assure you that any participation in the survey is anonymous and the data is exclusively used for research purposes. We kindly ask you to read every question thoroughly before answering and to answer the questions honestly and intuitively.

Kind regards,
Katrine and Luise

**Q1. Do you consume at least one unit of any tobacco a day? This can be smoking of tobacco but also all alternative forms, such as chewing etc.**

❑ Yes

❑ No

**Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Q2.** | OPC_1 | Consuming tobacco is pleasant and relaxing |
| **Q3.** | OPC_2 | I find consuming tobacco pleasurable |
| **Q4.** | OPC_3 | I like the taste of tobacco |
| **Q5.** | OPC_4 | I find I smoke tobacco for its taste alone |
| **Q6.** | OPC_5 | I consume tobacco to give me a “lift” |
| **Q7.** | OPC_6 | When not consuming tobacco, I get a craving that only tobacco can satisfy |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Q8.** | OPC_7 | Few things help better than consuming tobacco when I am feeling upset |
| **Q9.** | OPC_8 | I do not feel content for long unless I am consuming tobacco |

**Please read the following scenario carefully before indicating to what extent you agree or disagree with the successive statements.**

Scenario 1:
Imagine it is an ordinary weekday and you are on your break. The weather is pleasant and you are getting a chai from the vendor around the corner. You are by yourself and undisturbed. After finishing your chai, you feel like smoking/consuming tobacco.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Q10.** | IC_a1 | I will definitely consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q11.** | soc_a1 | Most people around me would consider it socially acceptable to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q12.** | soc_a2 | It is socially fine to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q13.** | soc_a3 | Tobacco consumption is seen as belonging to a favourable social group in this scenario |
| **Q14.** | moral_a1 | I consider consuming tobacco in this scenario to be morally acceptable |
| **Q15.** | IC_a2 | I am very likely to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q16.** | moral_a2 | The consumption of tobacco in this scenario is consistent with moral values |
| **Q17.** | moral_a3 | It is morally fine to consume tobacco in this scenario |

**On the following screen, you will be presented with the second scenario of this survey.**

**Please read the scenario carefully before indicating to what extent you agree or disagree with the successive statements**

Scenario 2:
Imagine you are at the celebration of a large wedding. At the celebration guests are singing, dancing, and enjoying the delicious food and beverages provided. After dancing with other attendees and having tested the food, you feel like smoking/consuming tobacco.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Q18.** | IC_b1 | I will definitely consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q19.** | soc_b1 | Most people around me would consider it socially acceptable to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q20.** | soc_b2 | It is socially fine to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q21.** | soc_b3 | Tobacco consumption is see as belonging to a favourable social group in this scenario |
| **Q22.** | moral_b1 | I consider consuming tobacco in this scenario to be morally acceptable |
| **Q23.** | IC_b2 | I am very likely to consume tobacco in this scenario |
| **Q24.** | moral_b2 | The consumption of tobacco in this scenario is consistent with moral values |
| **Q25.** | moral_b3 | It is morally fine to consume tobacco in this scenario |

**Please provide your demographic information in the following.**

**Q26. Please indicate how old you are.**

- ❑ 18-24
- ❑ 25-34
- ❑ 35-44
- ❑ 45-54
- ❑ 55-64
- ❑ 65+

**Q27. Please indicate your gender.**

- ❑ Male
- ❑ Female
- ❑ Prefer not to answer

**Q28. Please indicate your highest level of education**

- ❑ No diploma
- ❑ High school diploma
- ❑ College/university diploma
- ❑ Graduate diploma
- ❑ Prefer not to answer

**Q 29. Please indicate the state you live in**

- ❑ Andhra Pradesh
- ❑ Arunachal Pradesh
- ❑ Assam
- ❑ Bihar
- ❑ Chhattisgarh
- ❑ Goa

- ❑ Gujarat
- ❑ Haryana
- ❑ Himachal Pradesh
- ❑ Jammu & Kashmir
- ❑ Jharkhand
- ❑ Karnataka
- ❑ Kerala
- ❑ Madhya Pradesh
- ❑ Maharashtra
- ❑ Manipur
- ❑ Meghalaya
- ❑ Mizoram
- ❑ Nagaland
- ❑ Odisha
- ❑ Punjab
- ❑ Rajasthan
- ❑ Sikkim
- ❑ Tamil Nadu
- ❑ Telangana
- ❑ Tripura
- ❑ Uttarakhand
- ❑ Uttar Pradesh
- ❑ West Bengal

## APPENDIX 2. SCATTER PLOT DISPLAY OF CORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

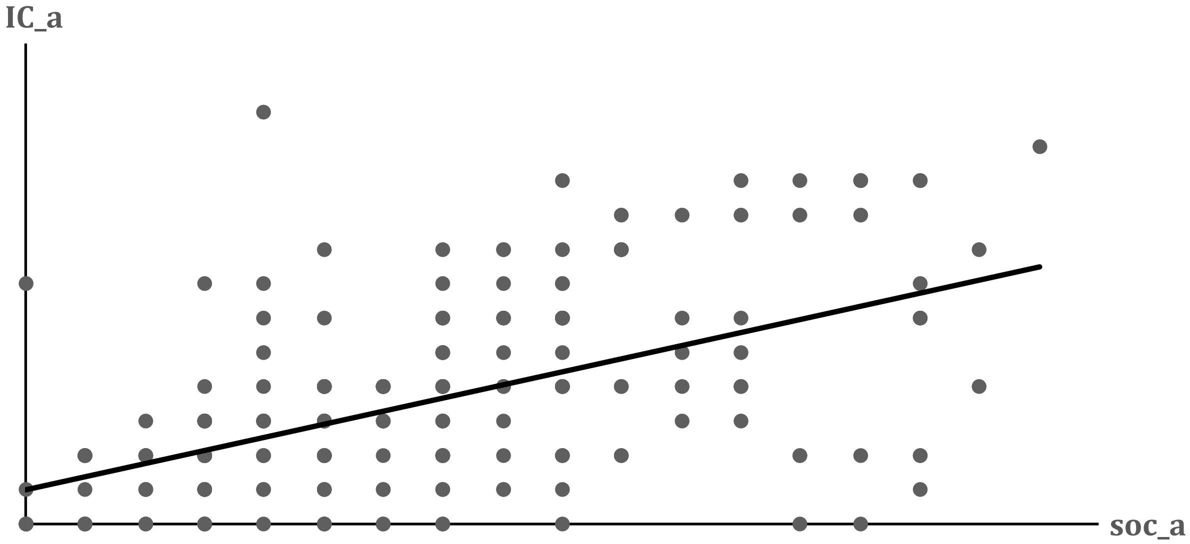


*Figure 1: Correlation between social legitimacy perceptions in a private setting and intention to consume tobacco in a private setting*

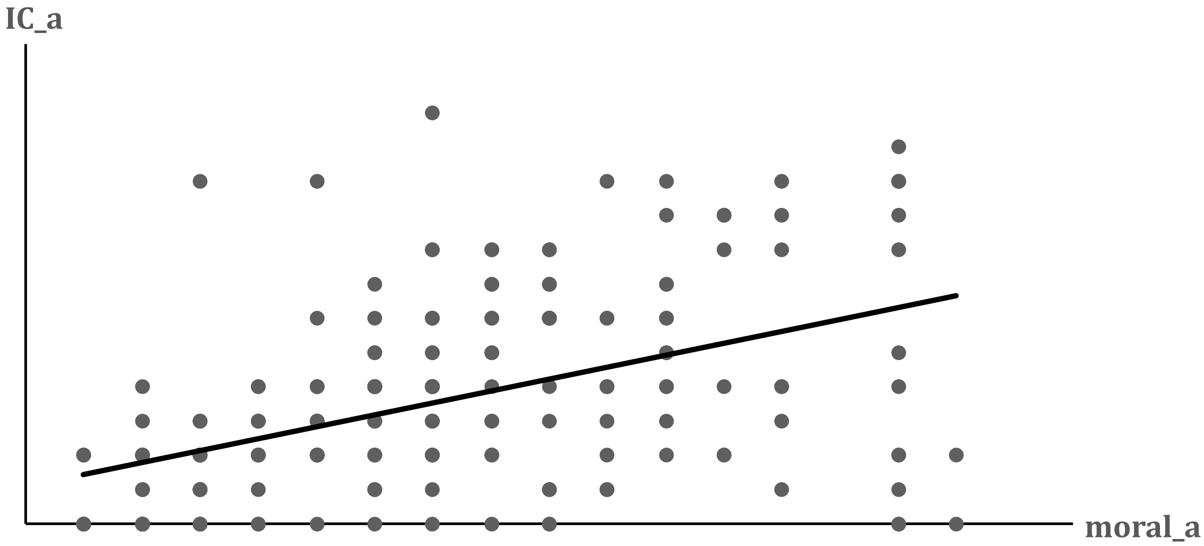


*Figure 2: Correlation between moral legitimacy perceptions in a private setting and intention to consume tobacco in a private setting*

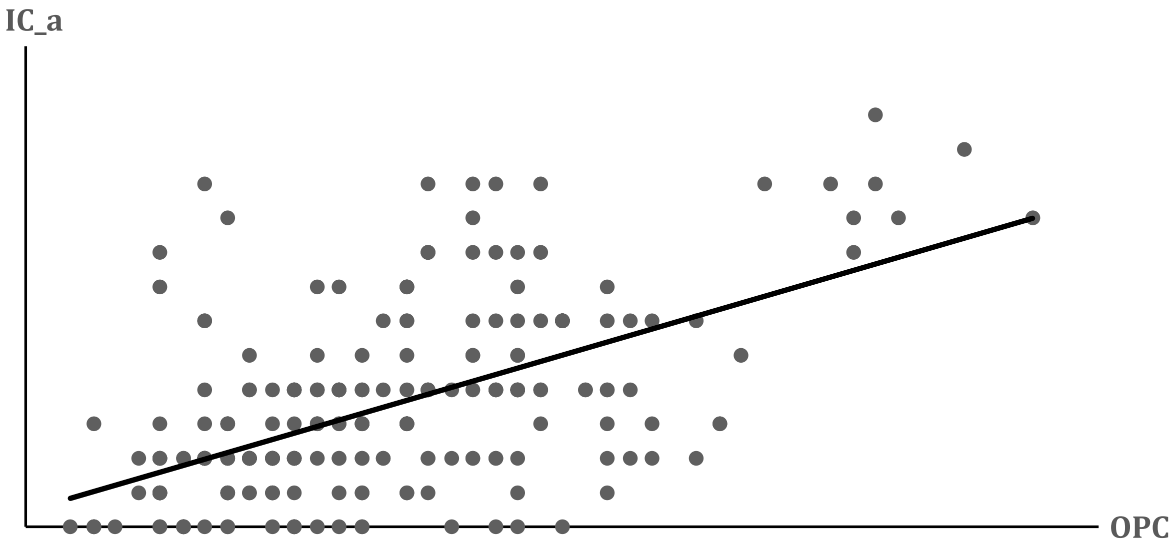


*Figure 3: Correlation between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco in a private setting*

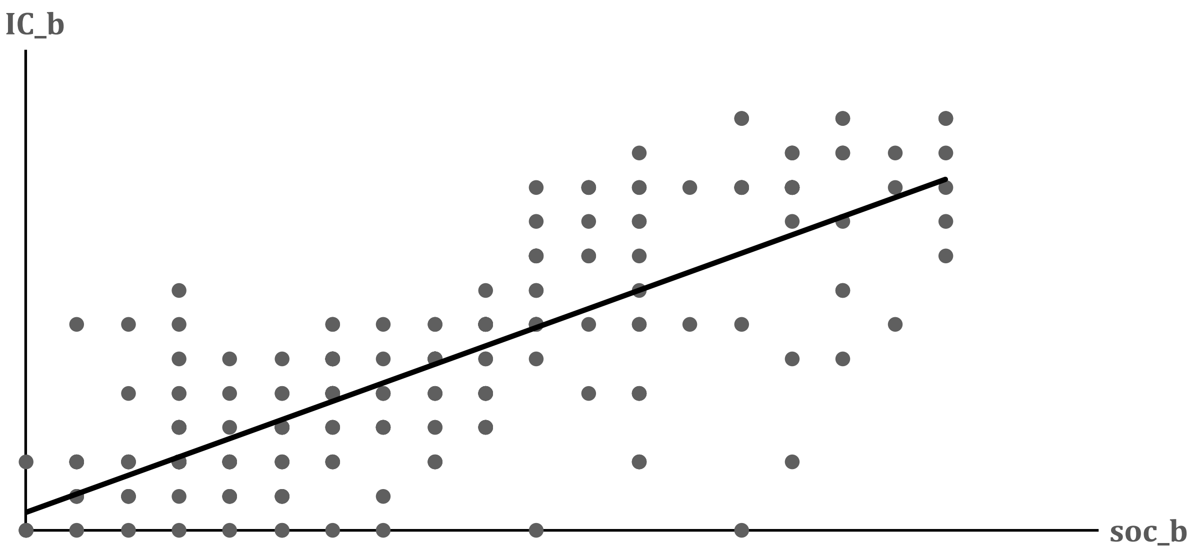


*Figure 4: Correlation between social legitimacy perception in a social setting and intention to consume tobacco in a social setting*

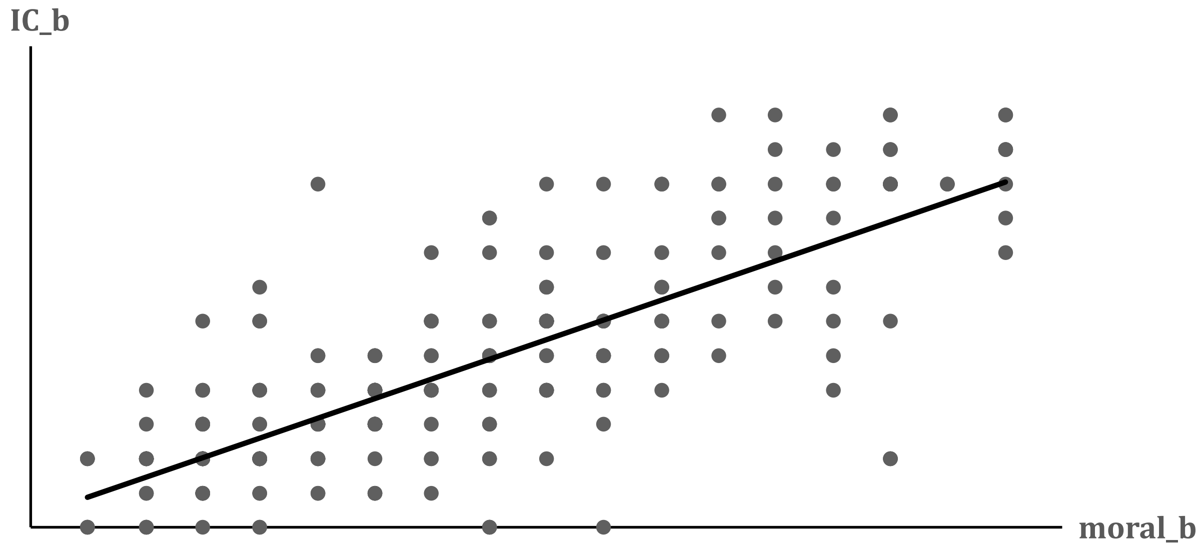


*Figure 5: Correlation between moral legitimacy perception in a social setting and intention to consume tobacco in a social setting*

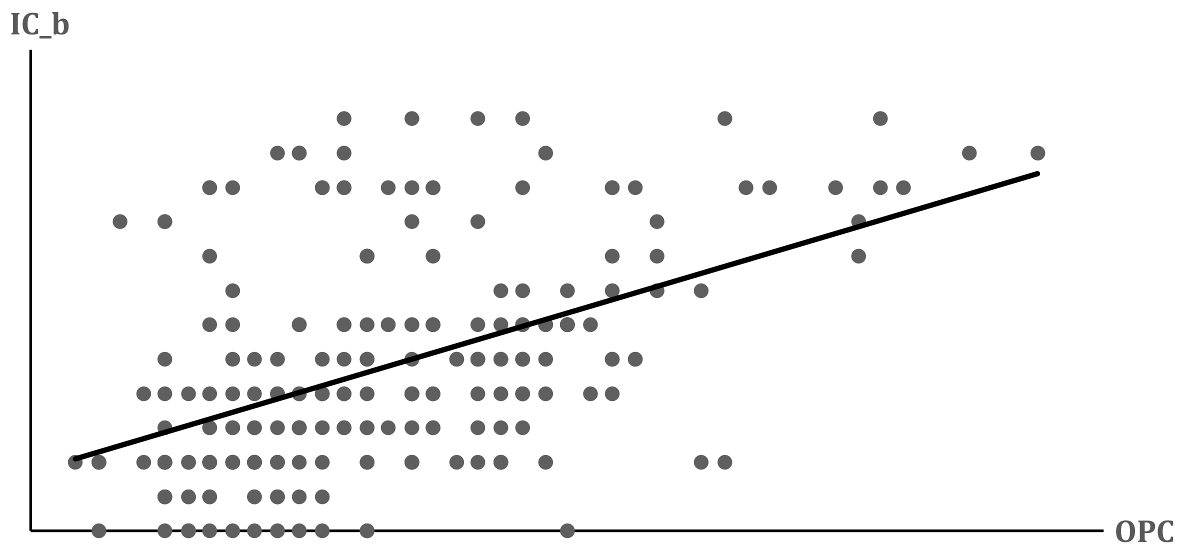


*Figure 6: Correlation between own pleasure from consuming tobacco and intention to consume tobacco in a social setting*

## APPENDIX 3. LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

| Variable | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Intention to consume in a private setting | (IC_a) | . | | | | | | | |
| 2. Moral legitimacy in a private setting | (moral_a) | 0,000 *** | . | | | | | | |
| 3. Social legitimacy in a private setting | (soc_a) | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | . | | | | | |
| 4. Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | . | | | | |
| 5. Gender | | 0,475 | 0,162 | 0,493 | 0,322 | . | | | |
| 6. Age | | 0,349 | 0,000 *** | 0,025 * | 0,055 | 0,000 *** | . | | |
| 7. Education | | 0,291 | 0,243 | 0,194 | 0,208 | 0,400 | 0,344 | . | |
| 8. Residence | | 0,113 | 0,289 | 0,257 | 0,416 | 0,027 * | 0,052 | 0,296 | . |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 1: Levels of statistical significance of the correlations between the variables in a private setting*

| Variable | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Intention to consume in a social setting | (IC_b) | . | | | | | | | |
| 2. Moral legitimacy in a social setting | (moral_b) | 0,000 *** | . | | | | | | |
| 3. Social legitimacy in a social setting | (soc_b) | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | . | | | | | |
| 4. Own pleasure from consuming tobacco | (OPC) | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | 0,000 *** | . | | | | |
| 5. Gender | | 0,203 | 0,003 ** | 0,055 | 0,322 | . | | | |
| 6. Age | | 0,079 | 0,007 ** | 0,008 ** | 0,055 | 0,000 *** | . | | |
| 7. Education | | 0,352 | 0,391 | 0,288 | 0,208 | 0,400 | 0,344 | . | |
| 8. Residence | | 0,495 | 0,033 * | 0,083 | 0,416 | 0,027 * | 0,052 | 0,296 | . |

**Notes:** *Statistically significant at the 0.05 level; **Statistically significant at the 0.01 level; ***Statistically significant at the 0.001 level

*Table 2: Levels of statistical significance of the correlations between the variables in a social setting*