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The role of language in consumer behavior: how speaking a foreign language might influence indulgent consumption

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Introduction

The current study aims at presenting an extensive analysis of indulgent behavior under the specific conditions that foreign language use in consumption contexts imposes, thus introducing the foreign-language effect in the domain of self-control. Indulgent behavior has long been associated with abundant consumption and acquisition of hedonic items and other impulse-driven temptations, at the expense of favoring longer-termed and more reasoned personal choices. Indeed, unconstrained impulsive acts, usually driven by hedonic inclinations and indulgences, generate inner conflict that makes it challenging not to indulge.

It is worthy to mention that availability of hedonistically tempting options is increasingly growing in consumption patterns of modern society, and the ability to regulate such hedonic tendencies and being in control even when under pressure may require consistent exertion of self-regulatory behavior. Such dilemma is prompted by two irreconcilable forces: one is motivated to choose the more reasoned and farsighted alternative of long-term goals and exert self-control steadily, while the other is ruled by immediate pleasure and desire. Said inner forces, which stand in opposition, generate ambivalent emotional responses in which guilt and regret have been identified as the main emotional components experienced in the struggle of facing temptations. Besides the pivotal role of emotionality, the most complex mechanisms of decision-making involve the processes of weighing information about currently available options for the purpose of selecting the one that seems most promising and valuable. In order to do so, it is necessary to resort to the most elaborate information-processing systems and pliant behavioral control, which would suggest the implementation of costly skills for cognitive resources.

The current research acknowledges the role of foreign language effects in the domains of self-control and indulgent behavior on the hypothesis that, by providing consumers with information in another language, the decision-making process is predicted to acquire a more analytical connotation and a weakened emotionality drive, thus inhibiting impulsiveness which would otherwise convert in indulgence. Using a foreign language was found to affect the contribution of deliberate mechanisms of cognition to the ultimate decision when multilinguals experience a choice context. Presenting information in a foreign language provokes emotional and psychological detachment from the decisional context, taking more time for the decision-making process to be finalized and demanding more analytical and reflective cognitive sources to elaborate presented inputs. Despite the intuitive appeal of native language emotionality, that lies in the affective and autobiographical dimensions of first language learning context, no contribution in marketing and consumer behavior has explored the implications of the foreign-language effect in the interplay between yielding to temptations and exerting self-control. By uncovering alternative pathways to hindering hedonic overconsumption, this thesis contribution will mainly provide a more comprehensive view of healthy and conscious purchasing behaviors, considering the rationale involved in indulgence. If foreign languages can be used to elicit deliberative thinking and mitigate emotionality-laden reactions, their use might be helpful to advocate self-control exertion and temptations avoidance, for the purpose of addressing maladaptive behavioral patterns of modern society.

The first chapter will focus on defining indulgent behavior patterns and distinctive trends in modern society: self-control can be demanding to apply when living in a world where *busyness* and stress undermine both physical and emotional responses. With such ascending levels of stress, it is crucial to take into consideration how individuals react to stressful circumstances and which factors could be critical in indulgent behavior dynamics. Thus, the relationship between busyness, stress and well-being and their impact on indulgence will be further analyzed.

The second chapter aims at introducing the theoretical background in which the present research is assimilated. The analysis will begin with the definition and characterization of impulses in the process of self-control exertion, before continuing on investigating the occurrence of self-control dilemma. This will be framed in the dual process view of emotional and cognitive processes competing for self-control with particular regard to the more deliberate psychological mechanism of self-licensing. Once the underlying mechanisms of indulgent behavior and self-control failure have been acknowledged, the foreign-language effect will be described in detail.

The third chapter concerns research method and data analysis to test the hypotheses. By providing consumers with information in a different language from their native one, decision-making processes should result more analytical and less emotional, inhibiting indulgence. Nonetheless, analytical thinking was not found to affect the decision-making process when needed information to make the decision was presented in a foreign language while emotionality of the English language was proven to moderate the relationship under analysis, suggesting that language overtone, barriers, and misunderstandings could affect the connection between cognition and emotion when thinking in a foreign language.

Chapter 1. Indulgent behavior trends in leisure time, food and luxury and the use of foreign languages in the market.

Modern society increasingly appeals to the ability to regulate hedonic tendencies and being in control even when under pressure. Affordability and availability of hedonistically tempting options, such as eating decadent meals, purchasing shimmering items from the luxury market and spending one's free time searching for life-changing experiences, may require exerting self-control on a daily basis not to give in to temptation. Such regulating behavior can be demanding to apply when living in a world where *busyness* and stress undermine both physical and emotional responses. Under these circumstances, indulgent behavior works as an outlet for the present worrisome condition, leading consumers to temper stress by relying on over-consumption. Hedonic indulgence is able to provide immediate gratification and perceptible satisfaction that functional obligations may not grant. Hence, consumers are more motivated to indulge in ways that mitigate the overall sense of inner tension.

In particular, indulgent behavior has been analyzed in the main consumption domains of food, luxury and leisure time, which directly influence consumers' well-being. The impact of indulgence, acknowledging the role of language in such type of relationship, and its implications on consumption patterns make these domains relevant to further explore.

1.1 The relationship between *busyness*, stress and leisure time

One of the compounding factors of stress has been identified in *busyness*. Drawing from Gallup's Global Emotions Report (2019), more than one in three individuals stated that they experienced lots of worry, 39%, or stress, 35%, on the day before the survey, serving as an indicator to measure respondents' levels of distress. Over half of the American population reported to experience stress during the day, which is 20% higher than the world average of 35%[1]. As a matter of fact, stress has been labeled as the "health epidemic of the 21st century" by the World Health Organization due to its massive spreading among the population and its harmful repercussions recorded on health[2]. Synchronously, the culture of *busyness* has started to diffuse to the more privileged portion of the population and being busy all the time is now perceived as a lifestyle to aspire to. In contemporary American culture, as noted by professor Bellezza's research on the phenomenon[3], complaining about having to work unrealistic hours and being busy has become a reasonably common trend that has been growing exponentially for the past years. An analysis of holiday cards revealed that mentions of having crazy schedules with no time to spare dramatically increased since the 1960s, as author Brigid Schulte

[1] Gallup. (2019), *Gallup Global Emotions*.
http://cdn.cnn.com/cnn/2019/images/04/25/globalstateofemotions_wp_report_041719v7_dd.pdf
[2] The Huffington Post. *Workplace Stress: The Health Epidemic of the 21st Century*, updated Dec. 6th, 2017.
https://www.huffpost.com/entry/workplace-stress-the-heal_b_8923678
[3] Bellezza, S., Paharia, N., & Keinan, A. (2017), *Conspicuous Consumption of Time: When Busyness and Lack of Leisure Time Become a Status Symbol*. Journal of Consumer Research, 44, 118-138.

investigated in her journal of *busyness*, "Overwhelmed – Work, love and play when no one has time" (2014). Indeed, *busyness* is characterized by two distinctive features: long hours of remunerated employment and lack of leisure time, which were both proven to have a detrimental impact on brain functions. Increased levels of stress due to such circumstances affect mental and physical functions, may narrow attention, impair working memory and interfere with knowledge acquisition[4]. *Busyness* is not synonym for engagement or productivity, and balance between work practices and time to devote to leisure and self-care is imperative to avoid burnout. As of August 2020, more than 34.2 million posts on Instagram used the hashtag *#selfcare* to display pictures with inspirational mantras to read when feeling overwhelmed, as well as quick tips to make users feel better by dedicating some time to oneself.

The act of self-care has become a common practice in the daily routines of stressed individuals. Such term is used to describe any type of activity or behavior that promotes well-being, including physical activity and meditation but also expensive body care treatments and pampering resort stays[5]. Indeed, hospitality is one of the sectors that the industries of leisure time and well-being strongly rely on. Such sector is moving towards creating holistic experiences for guests, providing them with mindfulness and self-care treatments. A clear example is offered by Arctic Bath Hotel, a spa and wellness resort that opened in January 2020 in Northern Sweden[6]. Designed to merge high levels of comfort and luxury while keeping the overall focus on well-being, its spa service provides open-air cold baths – typical of the Nordic tradition – and body care treatments, such as vegan rejuvenating skincare to release toxins and ease tension accumulated in stressful environments.

1.1.1 Stress in the workplace: working times in the US and in Europe

As a matter of fact, one of the top three sources of stress for American citizens is work. In 2017, the American Psychological Association conducted a survey to investigate Americans' relationship with stress, and work was mentioned as its main source by over half of respondents: money (62%) and work (61%) have consistently topped the list of stressors for more than a decade and, in 2017, the future of the nation (63%) gained popularity due to the rising tension that followed presidential election[7]. According to further stress statistics collected by Wrike in 2019, 94% of American workers reported feeling stressed at their workplace. Such data demonstrate that working in a stressful environment is the rule and not the exception. Heavy workload and communication issues with supervisors are two of the main reasons which can make working environments hard to bear[8]. As of 2014, adults employed full time in the United States reported to work an average of 47 hours weekly, which is almost a full workday longer than the amount of time settled by a

[4] Fast Company. *How Busyness Affects Your Brain and Health*, updated June 20th, 2016. https://www.fastcompany.com/3061048/how-busyness-affects-your-brain-and-health

[5] The Globe and Mail. *The commodification of wellness: Self-care has become an industry. But you don't need to spend to feel better,* updated Feb. 16th, 2020. https://www.theglobeandmail.com/life/style/article-self-care-is-valuable-but-it-doesnt-have-to-be-commercial/

[6] Arctic Bath Official Website. https://arcticbath.se/

[7] American Psychology Association. *Stress in America. The State of Our Nation,* updated Nov. 1st, 2017. https://www.apa.org/news/press/releases/stress/2017/state-nation.pdf

[8] The American Institute of Stress. *42 Worrying Workplace Stress Statistics,* updated Sept. 25th, 2019. https://www.stress.org/42-worrying-workplace-stress-statistics

standard 9-5 schedule: precisely 50% of analyzed full time workers stated that they used to work more than 40 hours, and nearly four in ten worked at least 50 hours[9].

In Europe, working time is ruled by the provisions of the Working Time Directive 2003/88/EC. The Directive sets an average maximum of 48 hours of work in a week, a minimum daily rest period of 11 hours and a minimum uninterrupted weekly rest of 35 hours[10]. According to the findings of Eurofound's report Working Time in 2017-2018, France turned out to be the country with the shortest collectively agreed working week in the European Union, with an average of 35.6 hours. Such outcome is likely to reflect the ongoing effect of the Aubry laws (2000), which established a statutory working week of 35 hours. Nevertheless, it is necessary to contemplate as well data on usual weekly hours worked, taking into account factors such as overtime, which is not uncommon to occur. Collectively agreed working hours per week represent weekly working time agreed via collective bargaining at sectoral or company level for full-time workers (Eurofound, 2018), while Eurostat defines usual hours worked as the value of the actual hours worked per week over a reference period of at least four weeks, excluding weeks when absence from work occurs due to holidays, leave or strikes. Full-time employees in the UK reported the longest usual weekly working hours, at 42 hours. Usual weekly hours worked by full-time employees were longer than the average collectively agreed normal working week in all the countries analyzed, with just one exception (Lithuania), demonstrating that the phenomenon of over-working is spreading all over Europe.

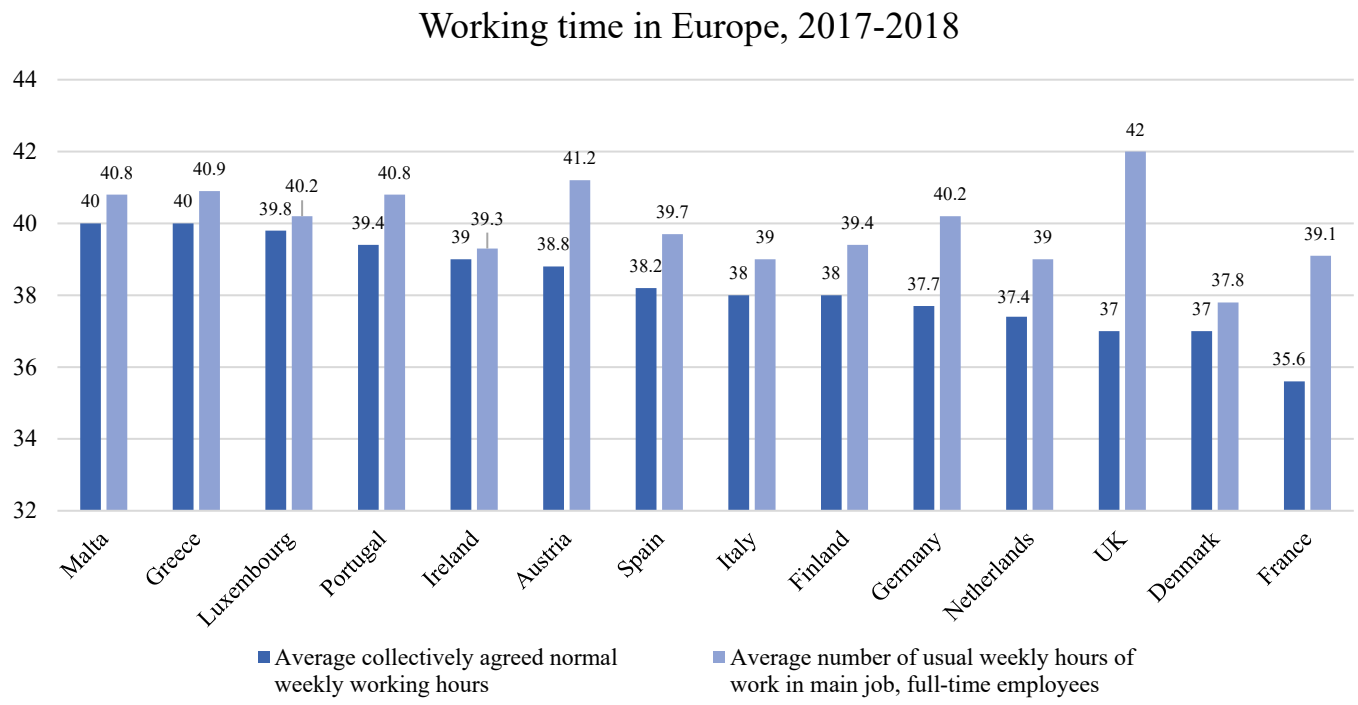

Figure 1. Average collectively agreed normal weekly working hours and average number of usual weekly hours of work in main job, full-time employees. Source: Eurofound, Working time in 2017-2018, 2018.

[9] Gallup. *The 40-Hour Workweek Is Actually Longer -- by Seven Hours,* updated Aug. 29th, 2014. https://news.gallup.com/poll/175286/hour-workweek-actually-longer-seven-hours.aspx

[10] Eurofound. (2018), *Working time in 2017–2018.* https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/report/2019/working-time-in-2017-2018

1.1.2 Lack of leisure time as a symbol of prestige

Busyness has become a marker for social status through a mechanism of possessing sought human capital characteristics and being perceived as in scarce in the job market (Bellezza, 2017). The conception of scarcity is fueled by competitive pressure on the demand side and positive inferences of status in response to *busyness* are driven by such perceptions, uncovering an alternative and intangible type of conspicuous consumption. As a result of such reasoning, conspicuous displays of one's long hours of work and lack of leisure time are associated with prestige and convey the idea of a powerful and exclusive status symbol. Although, in the past century, spending money in luxury goods and services was a way of showing economic power – both in the sense of wealth and social status – the focus has now shifted to intangible assets, valuing time as precious and worthy.

Such shift in status attribution based on working and free time is presumably connected to the rise of knowledge-intensive economies whose characteristics include structured employment markets and abundant demand for human capital. The market for human resources is highly specialized both on the supply side, with individuals investing in education, competence and skills development to build their own human capital, and the demand side, with a large body of companies in competition to contract for the most skilled employees. In the present economy, human capital is perceived as the scarcest economic resource: whereas working hard in economic systems built on agriculture and manufacturing may have been recognized as virtuous, it may not have implied high demand in terms of labor force (Bellezza, 2017). Conversely, in advanced economies such as those of current United States and Europe, long hours of work and *busyness* operate as a signal that one is in possession of desirable human capabilities and is in high demand in the job market, leading to an elevated status ascription.

In 1931, John Maynard Keynes, notable British economist, published his essay titled "Economic Possibilities for Our Grandchildren". The main objective of his piece of work was to describe how society would look like in a century from the age he was living in. According to his forecast, by 2030, standards of life and living conditions in prospering Europe and United States would be so improved that nobody would have to work more than three or four hours a day in order *"to satisfy the old Adam in most of us*[11]*"*. Essentially, the primal need to make a living and providing necessities for life persisted as instinctive, but in the future it could be fulfilled with much less effort than the one required by the demanding regimes of his time.

Keynes' expectations were due to extensive improvements in technological capabilities and progressive accumulation of capital, that were believed by the economist to lead to a fifteen-hour work week. Technological prosperity was supposed to last until the end of the 20th century and, during this time, working population was going to be presented with the challenge of facing massive amounts of leisure time to occupy. The abundance of commodities and resulting lavishness would have driven the search for pastimes that had to take over traditional occupations and satisfy the needs of the entire society, which Keynes expected to struggle in such process.

[11] Keynes, J.M. (1931), *Economic Possibilities for our Grandchildren*.

At approximately the same time, British historical drama series Downton Abbey was set. In one of the scenes of the show, depicting the lives of the aristocratic Crawley family and their domestic servants in the post-Edwardian era, the countess of Grantham Violet Crawley asks for the meaning of the word *weekend*: the term sounds unquestionably new to her, as her life is filled with free time to occupy in triviality and frivolity. Nonetheless, no different condition would have been assumed for a privileged in early 1900.

The status of work and leisure has changed since the days of Downton Abbey, and John Keynes' predictions have yet to become a reality.

1.2 Food over-consumption and implications on consumers' health and behavior

With ascending levels of stress, it is crucial to understand how individuals react to stressful circumstances. Physiologically, over-release of stress hormones – such as cortisol and adrenaline – lead to sleeping disorders and increase the risk of strokes, high blood pressure and heart disease[12]. High cortisol levels, in combination with high insulin levels, may be responsible for an increase in the intake of food high in fat and sugar, when in bodily and emotional distress. Once ingested, fat and sugar-loaded foods seem to have a feedback effect that dampens stress-related physical responses and counteracts heavy concerns. Such reaction may contribute to stress-induced cravings for those foods.

Nonetheless, in the short term, stress may suppress hunger. The hypothalamus, which is a part of the brain whose main function is to connect the nervous system to the endocrine one, produces hormones that restrain the appetite. Besides, adrenal glands pump out adrenaline, triggering the fight-or-flight response and fueling agitated states. If stress is extended for a prolonged period of time, cortisol is released, which instead can boost the appetite. Cortisol can also increase motivation – therefore generating the impulse to eat – and lead to sleep deprivation. Lack of sleep can be identified as another factor influencing over-eating as a response to stress; on average, sleep-deprived people were found to consume an extra 385 calories per day[13]. Such calories tend to be filled with types of food that indulge the brain's reward system. Sugary snacks, like cookies and chocolate, cause a dopamine response which provides a feeling of comfort mitigating the tension, and can also reduce the cortisol response. Eventually, sugar consumption may turn off stress reactions and thereby reinforce habitual overconsumption of these foods in order to feel at ease.

In the long term, diets that are primarily focused on highly processed and sugar-rich food, together with sedentary lifestyles entailing heavy reliance on automobiles, may lead to a worldwide epidemic of obesity. More than half of the population is now overweight in 34 out of 36 OECD countries and almost one in four is obese[14]. Average rates of adult obesity have increased from 21% in 2010 to 24% in 2016, as the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) acknowledges in its report The Heavy Burden of

[12] Everyday Health. *How Stress Affects Your Body, From Your Brain to Your Digestive System,* updated Sept. 6th, 2018. https://www.everydayhealth.com/stress/guide/effects-on-body/

[13] Business Insider. *There's a biological reason why we eat more when we're stressed — and it has a lot to do with sleep*, updated Jan. 24th, 2018. https://www.businessinsider.com/why-we-eat-more-when-stressed-2018-1?IR=T

[14] OECD. (2019), *The Heavy Burden of Obesity: The Economics of Prevention*, OECD Health Policy Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/67450d67-en

Obesity (2019). Lower quality of life and reduced life expectancy, increasing health care costs and higher rates of heart disease and diabetes are just a few of the unfavorable consequences deriving from an unbalanced lifestyle. Constant confrontation with the most instinctive desires in stressful environments is reflected also in the rise of new maladaptive behavior patterns addiction, thus including unhealthy eating and shopping addiction.

1.2.1 Permissible indulge: a growing trend in food

Whereas on one hand over-eating is a phenomenon whose way has been paved by the rise of food delivery and smoother accessibility to unhealthy foods, permissible indulgence has spread as well. Euromonitor's Evolving Trends in Food and Nutrition Report (2019) found that only 23% of interviewed consumers made impulse buying decisions related to food and nutrition, down from 28% in 2013. Such decrease did not depend on consumers being less indulgent, but it is proven to be the predominant consequence of a more carefully planned and permissible indulgence: 25% of consumers purposefully ate healthier during weekdays because they had already arranged to consume larger amounts of fat and sugar-rich meals on the weekend[15]. Consumers are progressively developing an interest in discovering the connection between what they eat and how it affects how they feel, both physically and emotionally, and this is one of the main reasons why they are keeping track of how their meals look like in a week.

Both healthiness and mindful eating are two rapidly growing trends in the food sector: last year, meat-free was the fastest-growing category in percentage terms in the UK – up 18% in value – and *free-from* sales increased by 9%, as recorded by The Grocer Annual Top Products Survey (2019). Although healthy food reached outstanding results, the fastest-growing grocery category in terms of value happened to be chocolate, registering a growth of £183.5 million for 2019[16]. The past year has seen the rise of darker chocolate variants in the United Kingdom – for instance, Ritter Sport Cocoa Selection and Cadbury DarkMilk – alongside "light" formulas, like Cadbury Dairy Milk with 30% less sugar. Such additions, consistent with the latest trends, have helped Cadbury Dairy Milk deliver a £46.4 million gain in 12 months.

Chocolate, followed by cake and cookies, is considered to be the first food that comes to mind when thinking of impulsive eating and indulgence[17]. Indeed, chocolate is more likely to be associated with fat-rich scenarios in which it is merely classified as one of the needed ingredients to bake an indulgent dessert rather than focusing on the health benefits it may generate. Benefits of eating a balanced portion of chocolate are several: it releases dopamine, lowering levels of stress; it can partially fills magnesium deficiencies, with about 176 mg in a 100 g serving (such data refers to dark chocolate, usually considered as the healthier type of chocolate due to its low amount of sugar when the percentage of cocoa is above 60%); it naturally possesses antioxidants

[15] FONA International. (2019), *Trend Insight: Indulgence*. http://www.fona.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/12/Indulgence-FONA-1219_rev.pdf

[16] The Grocer. *Why chocolate has emerged as the biggest winner in grocery,* updated Dec. 16th, 2019. https://www.thegrocer.co.uk/the-grocer-blog-daily-bread/why-chocolate-has-emerged-as-the-biggest-winner-in-grocery/600480.article

[17] FONA International. (2018), *Trend Insight: Indulgence*. http://www.fona.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/FONA_Indulgence-Trend-Insight-1218.pdf

that have been linked to cardiovascular system efficient functioning[18]. Incorrect portion control may inhibit beneficial effects of permissible indulgence and lead to over-eating. Such unpleasant consequences could be avoided by reducing pack sizes to ensure they stay under a precise threshold of calories. These kinds of measures have to be undertaken by manufacturers; managing the right portion size for consumption occasions and balancing the price to match perceived value of proposed snacks have become decisive for success.

In fact, two-thirds of Mondelēz respondents of the survey State of Snacking: Global Consumer Snacking Trends (2019) stated that they often look at portion control when selecting snacks, and 83% of them agreed that a balanced diet can include a little indulgence[19]. Snacking meets a variety of needs, from indulgence to well-being, with 77% of adults worldwide acknowledging that "*there is time and place for healthy snacks and a time and place for indulgent ones*", appreciating both of the options depending on the moment of need. Several reasons were found to be motivating snacks: 78% of respondents declared they snack to experience a sense of comfort; the same percentage to pamper and reward themselves; 76% of them have a snack to boost their mood and 72% to take care of nutritional needs. Additionally, the survey analyzed habits and behaviors of key sub-groups, among which Millennials represented the most populous one. Their motivations to snack were principally to reward themselves (85%), to boost their mood and sense of comfort (84%) and to take care of their nutritional needs (79%).

1.2.2 Millennials in the food domain

Compared to other generations, millennials are more engaged with food: according to data published by Mintel in 2019, 58% of Millennials considered themselves as a "foodie"[20].

Millennials emerged as key influencers during the revolutionary wave of new food products approaching retail shelves: their naturalness with technology and social media, as well as their preference for organic, ethnic and sustainable food products, are two of the distinctive features that define Millennials' behavior in the world of nutrition. As reported by Mondelēz, 78% of them affirmed that food is a major part of their identity and sharing it is recognized as a manner to connect across cultures despite digitalization and globalization.

In fact, it is important to mention that more than half of Millennials take a picture or a video of their food before eating it. Both Facebook and Instagram platforms are used by social media users to succeed in such intent. This is what has been revealed by the analysis of Digimind on social networks content and engagement levels around the world. Each month, the hashtag *#food* accounts for more than 250 million posts. Top reported interests of Instagram users are travel (45%), music (44%) and food and drink (43%), turning the latter into one of the most discussed and photographed topics on the net (Digimind, 2019).

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[18] Health Line. *7 Proven Health Benefits of Dark Chocolate*, updated June 25th, 2018. https://www.healthline.com/nutrition/7-health-benefits-dark-chocolate#section2

[19] Mondelēz International. (2019), *State of Snacking: 2019 Global Consumer Snacking Trends.* https://www.stateofsnacking.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/2019_MDLZ_stateofsnacking_report_GLOBAL_EN.pdf

[20] Digimind. *Instagram: Key Global Statistics 2019*, updated Sept. 9th, 2019. https://blog.digimind.com/en/trends/instagram-key-global-figures-2019

Even though it is highly likely that Millennials obsess over food pictures due to their aspiration of monetizing their lives on social media, deeper motivations are not to be ruled out. Findings from a collection of studies that were published in the Journal of Psychological Science found that delaying eating by performing a short ritual — regardless of how the ritual was performed — positively influenced food perception[21]. Such recurring behavior can be recognized in the process of getting a picture of an appealing plate, entailing the same positive effect on the attitude Millennials may show towards food.

Furthermore, food brands are beginning to adapt to Millennials' tastes and preferences, since such segment is considered to cover 73 million of individuals out of a 7.8 billion global population. In September 2019, Sun Maid Growers of California, globally known for its raisins, announced the reformulation of its yogurt-covered raisins, now Non-GMO Project verified, with new flavor combinations, also available in single-serve and shareable bags to satisfy the need for ecological[22]. Such innovation for a traditional product like Sun Maid raisins was part of the company's goal of repositioning and broadening owned product portfolio to meet the growing need for less processed, healthier, no-added-sugar options appealing to the generation of Millennials and the remainders who share aforementioned values in the food consumption domain.

1.3 Luxury consumption: an overview

Often described as crisis-resistant, the market of luxury – comprising nine segments, led by luxury cars, luxury hospitality and personal luxury goods – grew by 4% in 2019, reaching an estimated value of €1.3 trillion globally[23]. In particular, the core personal luxury goods segment has been growing constantly for the past 25 years, as of €77 billion in revenues in 1995 to €281 billion in 2019, according to Bain & Company Luxury Study 2019.

Such sector is going through unprecedented transformations, which are driven by the convergence of multiple factors: other than the digital revolution, the constant evolution of social media, sustainability issues and the growing impact of the millennial generation are influencing the trends of luxury market.

The rise of technology echoed on several businesses as well. In 2017, for the first time, Italian luxury fashion online retailer Yoox Net-a-Porter Group's online sales revenues from mobile phones outperformed its online sales revenues from personal computers and tablets[24]. Digital luxury is progressively a customer-to-customer economy. The consumer is central to the shopping journey and appears to be the strongest link in the global economic chain. PwC's Global Consumer Insights Survey 2019 showed that the introduction and rise of technological tools have put consumers in a position to demand an omnichannel, socially conscious and social

[21] The Cut. *The Psychological Case for Instagramming Your Food,* updated Mar. 7th, 2016. https://www.thecut.com/2016/03/the-psychological-case-for-instagramming-your-food.html

[22] PR Newswire. *Sun-Maid Revamps its Yogurt Covered Raisins to Better Appeal to Millennials,* updated Sept. 9th, 2019. https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/sun-maid-revamps-its-yogurt-covered-raisins-to-better-appeal-to-millennials-300913394.html

[23] Bain and Company. (2019), *Luxury Goods Worldwide Study*. https://www.bain.com/insights/eight-themes-that-are-rewriting-the-future-of-luxury-goods/

[24] PwC. (2019), *Global Consumer Insights Survey*. https://www.pwc.com/gx/en/consumer-markets/consumer-insights-survey/2019/report.pdf

media-powered experience when making purchases. Smartphones were found to be the most attractive technological platform for online shopping: 24% of the sample – composed of a total of 21,480 respondents from 27 territories – reported to use a mobile phone to shop at least weekly, compared with 23% using a PC and 16% using a tablet.

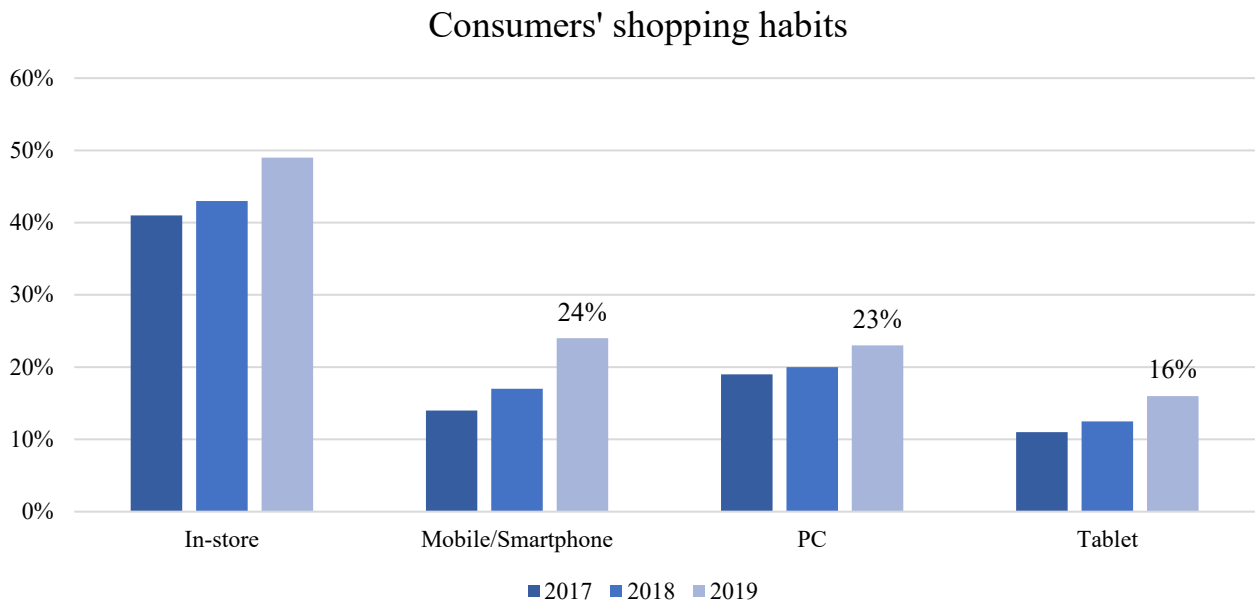

Figure 2. Consumers' shopping habits in-store and online. Source: PwC, Global Consumer Insights Survey, 2019.

Digital involvement is growing and gaining importance in every corner of consumers' life at constant pace: more than half of PwC's respondents paid bills online in 2019, and the same percentage transferred money digitally. According to PwC's findings, the percentage of respondents who bought something online weekly or more frequently rose by five percentage points since the previous year (reaching 31% in 2019) and the share of consumers who never shopped online fell by three percentage points, from 10% to 7%.

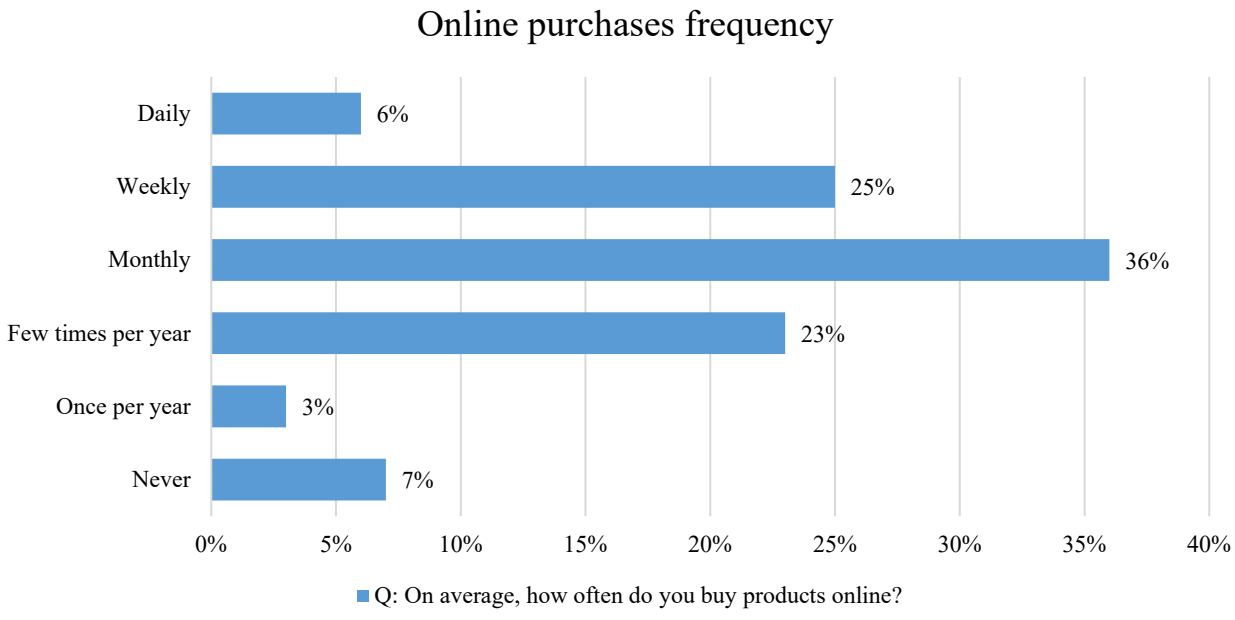

Figure 3. Online purchases frequency. Source: PwC, Global Consumer Insights Survey, 2019.

1.3.1 Engaging luxury customers on social media

Such rapid digitalization led consumers to increasingly make use of social media to express brand preferences. Under these circumstances, the success of luxury brands highly depends on how well firms are communicate their distinctiveness through the channels that customers prefer. According to Digimind, in 2018 almost 50% of luxury purchases were influenced by the interactions that consumers generated with a brand on digital platforms. From an analysis concerning branded content posted online, Instagram resulted to be the most prominent channel of engagement for luxury goods, accounting for 93% of total interactions earned. Furthermore, average engagement rate for a branded post on Instagram was 30%, far higher than the 2% of average engagement earned on Facebook and Twitter posts[25]. Luxury firms have to be mindful in navigating a world of vocal and socially conscious consumers while securing their brand reputation.

Despite the growing interest of regulatory authorities in the establishment and application of norms on transparency in advertising, luxury firms are progressively turning to influencers and niche bloggers, who advocate the brand within interested communities and manage to get a hold of larger audiences of potential customers as well. In 2017, Chanel was named the most influential luxury brand on social media[26]. The firm's content strategy is mostly centered on creative videos: the brand shares full advertisement on YouTube and Facebook official pages and sections of such material are posted on Instagram to stimulate interest in followers and fanatics. In addition, the firm posts behind-the-scenes content on its platforms to provide a broader insight on the history of the brand throughout the year, such as its 'Inside Chanel' series. Another brand which pursues an analogous strategy is Louis Vuitton: the firm engages its followers by giving them exclusive sneak peeks into its products launches and by hosting giveaway events on different digital channels.

The online digital revolution has reached the sector of luxury and some firms are reluctant to embrace it. Adverse responses stem from concerns that using digital tools is likely undermine consumers' sensory experience of luxury products, and that increased accessibility of luxury products online at any time, anywhere, may dilute perceptions of scarcity and inferred value of such goods. On the contrary, digital platforms may also present novel opportunities for luxury products to strengthen their role in consumers' lives and their presence across multiple channels, offline and online. Omni-channel presence favors the generation of a greater demand by allowing consumers to self-select into high-sensory channels (offline) or the low-sensory ones (online) based on their preferences and by encouraging consumers to experience the product through multiple angles. At the same time, concerned companies may consider reconfiguring their digital channels to optimizes consumers' online sensory experience and provide information that complements offline sensory experiences of luxury products. Despite the digital environment may pose a threat to the traditional value proposition of luxury brands, companies have the possibility to make use of such innovative techniques for

[25] Digimind. *93% of Consumer Engagement with Luxury Brands Happens on Instagram,* updated Nov. 30th, 2018. https://www.digimind.com/en/news/93-of-consumer-engagement-with-luxury-brands-happens-on-instagram

[26] Deloitte. (2019), *Global Powers of Luxury Goods.* https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/it/Documents/consumer-business/2019Global%20Powers%20of%20Luxury%20Goods-Deloitte%20Italia.pdf

luxury brands to preserve and integrate the sensory, social, and creative expectations of consumers' offline experience and engagement with luxury.

1.3.2 The future of the luxury market

Bain & Company anticipates that luxury market customer base will expand from 390 million in 2019 to 450 million by 2025 thanks to the growing middle-class, especially from Asian regions. Indeed, in 2019, solely Chinese customers delivered 90% of the growth of global market; government policies and lower price differentials continued to fuel local consumption. Such profitable circumstances will further stimulate entry-price segments, which in 2019 already represented a sizable part of the market (30% for jewelry and 35% in the leather category), as well as the off-price channel, reaching €36 billion with a growth rate of 11%. Moreover, younger generations will be the primary engine of growth of the market of luxury in the coming years. Millennial customers – which consider those who are born between 1980 and 1995 – accounted for 35% of consumption in 2019 and, by 2025, they might reach 45% of the market; meanwhile, Generation Z could experience an exponential growth, making up for 40% of luxury purchases by 2035, up from only 4% in 2019. Given the impact of the two generations on the luxury market, if combined, they are expected to contribute for 130% of the growth between 2019 and 2025 (Bain and Company, 2019), offsetting an inevitable decline in spending by older consumers.

The nature of luxury customers is evolving fast and younger generations are the new frontier of the forthcoming markets. They already represent a growing portion of luxury consumption in Asia and display behaviors that distinguish them from other generations, relying on products and brands to which they feel connected and emotionally engaged, as well as seeking ongoing conversations with brands that will lead to the innovation of value propositions and business models.

1.4 The importance of learning a foreign language

"*If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to him in his language, that goes to his heart.*" – Nelson Mandela.

Concerns about the future of the world's languages have been spreading for the better part of the last few decades. Between 1950 and 2010, more than 200 languages went extinct, according to the UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger (2010). Another 640 are in danger of extinction in Europe, as children no longer learn them from their family heritage as mother tongues, leading to loss of human inheritance and unique cultural awareness that had been conveyed since such languages set in[27].

Even if language loss may be understood as the inescapable aftermath of English dominance, presently necessary to access job market and higher education, the spread of most spoken languages catches on at the expense of the sense of national and cultural identity of minor ones. For instance, among younger generations, Icelandic is being replaced by English[28]. The range and volume of the English language readily accessible to Icelanders has expanded exponentially in the past few years and its impact had such severe repercussions because of intensity of contact with the language and speed of societal changes due to worldwide integration. Secondary school Icelandic teachers reported 15-year-olds holding whole conversations in English, while children are able to distinguish between flashcards but have a hard time recalling words in Icelandic. The Internet worked as a catalyst to accelerate the process of its diffusion; as of 2018, Icelandic was spoken by 340,000 people and, although available, Icelandic versions of different websites – including Facebook – were not in use. Such phenomenon is called digital minorisation and it occurs when a majority language in the real world becomes a minority language on the net.

Multilingual support online cannot be taken for granted: generally, the languages that are used the most on digital platforms are accountable for those that are the most widely spoken offline and online. According to Ethnologue (2020), English, Mandarin Chinese and Hindi are the three most common languages, with respectively more than 1.130 billion, 1.110 billion and 615 million speakers, both as first and second language[29].

1.4.1 Use of foreign languages in Italy and Europe

It is possible to identify trends of multilingualism in the official records of countries that keep track the linguistic profile of their population. Drawing from data like these, it is possible to hint that a significant portion of consumers is influenced by more than one language when in front of decisions, involving consumption-related ones as well.

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[27] National Geographic. *The Race to Save the World's Disappearing Languages,* updated Apr. 16th, 2018. https://www.nationalgeographic.com/news/2018/04/saving-dying-disappearing-languages-wikitongues-culture/

[28] The Guardian. *Icelandic language battles threat of 'digital extinction',* updated Feb. 26th, 2018. https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/feb/26/icelandic-language-battles-threat-of-digital-extinction

[29] Ethnologue. (2020), *What are the top 200 most spoken languages?*. https://www.ethnologue.com/guides/ethnologue200

The latest Istat report about use of Italian and foreign languages in Italy dates back to 2015: knowledge of one or more foreign languages concerned 60.1% of the population aged 6 years and over, regarding more than 34 million Italians[30]. Among those who spoke one or more foreign languages, 48.1% knew English, 29.5% French and 11.1% Spanish. Thus, Italian was the most spoken foreign language among non-natives.

Estimates showed that younger generations were the ones more educated about foreign languages: in youth and adult population up to 34 years old, 80.2% of respondents were able to speak language different than Italian. Between 2006 and 2015, the share of those who knew at least one foreign language did not fluctuate among children and young respondents aged 6-to-24 years (79.4% in 2006 and 80.1% in 2015), meanwhile it increased in all the other age groups, specifically among 55-64 year olds, supporting a growing trend that started in 2000 (when the share was at 34.8% of the considered age group).

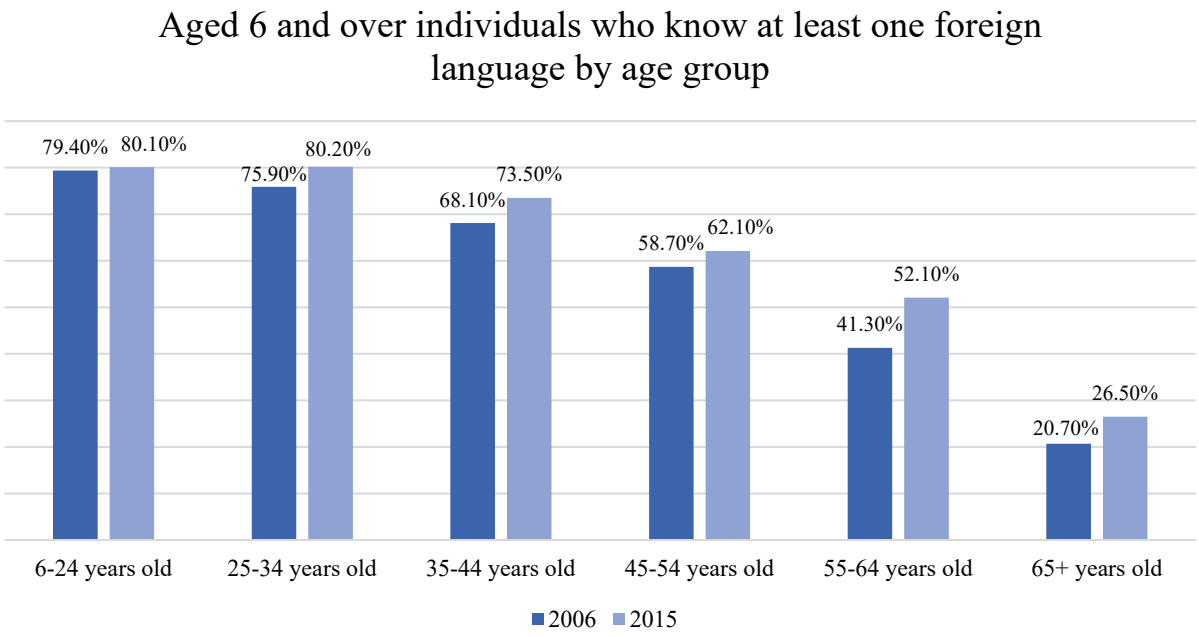

Figure 4. Aged 6 and over individuals who know at least one foreign language by age group. Source: Istat, Use of Italian language, dialects and foreign languages, 2015.

Another differentiation among Italian foreign language speakers can be underlined by means of education level. Among University graduates aged 25 to 44, Istat assessed that 96.1% of them knew at least one foreign language, compared to 55.7% of those who held at most middle school diplomas; 92.3% of graduates between 45 and 64 years old were able to speak a foreign language and these proportions are kept stable in the elderly age group (with 87.6% of University graduates who reported to know at least a foreign language). Such results imply that academic qualification has a significant influence on foreign languages knowledge and generational discrepancies results to be dampened by it. Indeed, school and University are the main channels through which second languages were learnt in Italy (79.4%), followed by study and work trips (14.9%), self-study through books, CDs and DVDs (11.8%), extra-curricular courses and lessons (10.5%) and holidays abroad (9.6%).

[30] Istat. (2015), *L'uso della lingua italiana, dei dialetti e di altre lingue in Italia.* https://www.istat.it/it/files//2017/12/Report_Uso-italiano_dialetti_altrelingue_2015.pdf

More moderate shares of respondents claimed to have learnt the language through informal mediums, such as family, friends, spouses and partners.

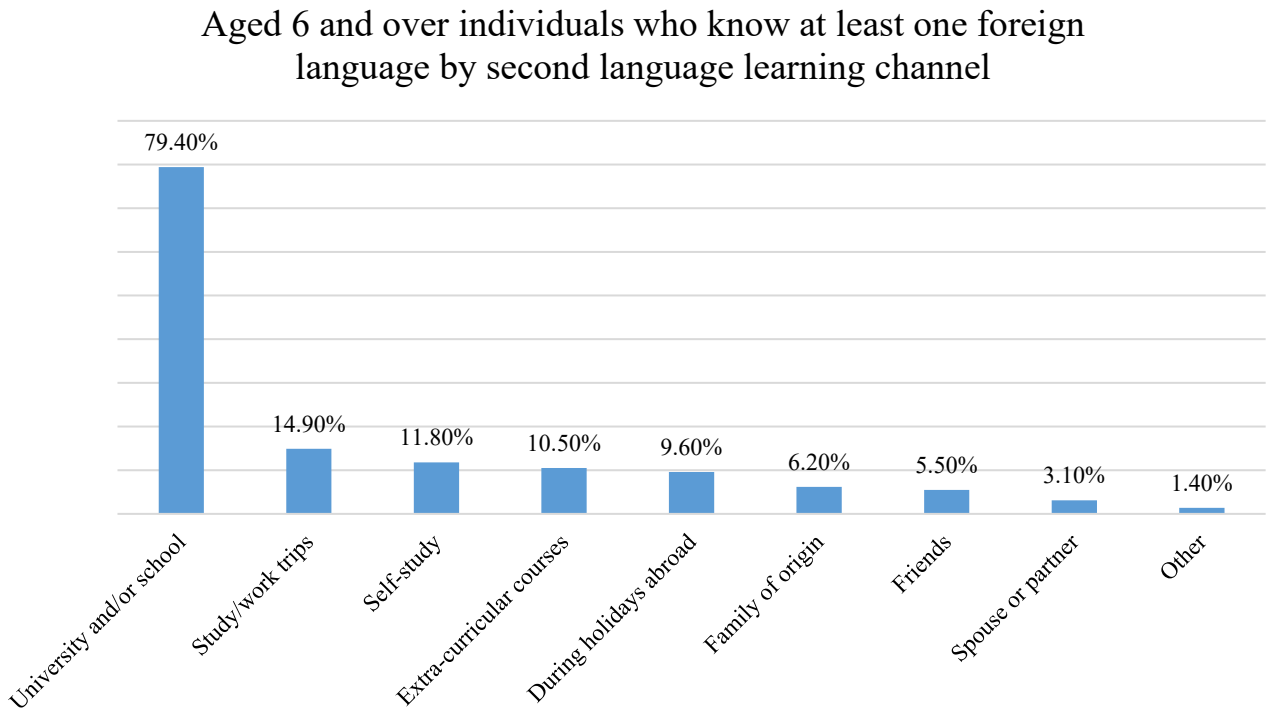

Figure 5. Aged 6 and over individuals who know at least one foreign language by second language learning channel. Source: Istat, Use of Italian language, dialects and foreign languages, 2015.

The European Education Area Report (2018) drafted by the European Commission validated such findings for Italy. A vast majority of young Europeans stated that having experiences abroad is important: 9 out of 10 times this was the answer that respondents were giving[31]. Anyhow, dissimilarities between countries highlighted how mobility for education or work is meaningful for young Italians: among the highest proportions of those who think that it is very important to have experiences abroad, over seven in ten respondents gave this answer in Italy (78%).

The European Union plays an increasingly extensive and complementary role in the area of member States, especially in the case of promotion of cross-border initiatives such as the Erasmus program, which has enabled more 9 million people to study, train, and experience life in another country. As reported by the Commission, over half of young Europeans who had experiences abroad improved their language skills and benefited from discovering unfamiliar cultures and habits. The most frequently mentioned benefits, other than improving language skills (57%) and discovering other cultures (54%), concerned social implications of living far from home (for instance, becoming more open minded and having the opportunity to meet new people were given as answers by more than one third of respondents who had such experiences). Learning new idioms and

[31] European Commission. (2018), *Flash Eurobarometer 466: The European Education Area Report.* https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/dataset/S2186_466_ENG

improving those which are already known represent a compelling objective for young Europeans, leading to an enlargement of language learning market potential.

1.4.2 The rise of language learning apps and Duolingo's success

As a matter of fact, the market of language learning is changing at a rapid pace due to progressive adoption of technological advances in such branch. Increase in the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in the educational sector has started to transform the ways of teaching and learning, creating an interactive and learner-centered environment for online learning to prosper. More precisely, new technologies such as the Internet of Things and cloud computing made the provision and management of online learning applications more accessible. One of the most powerful introductions in education has been the arrival of language learning apps. Portability, responsive touch screens, high-quality image, video recording and voice recognition are only a few of the elements contributing to the multi-sensory experience of language learning via app, facilitating effective acquisitions of contents.

In 2019, digital language learning generated $6 billion in revenues, and such number is projected to rise to $8.7 billion by 2025[32]. According to Technavio, global online language learning market is expected to grow at a compound annual growth rate – constant year-on-year growth rate applied over a specific period of time[33] – of almost 18% from 2020 to 2024[34]. As per Technavio, the adoption of artificial intelligence in online language learning will significantly contribute to market growth over the forecast period: AI main function would be to offer customized solutions for each learner's needs. For instance, Duolingo is already offering AI-powered chatbots that can be employed by users for additional support when involved with the app.

With 30 million monthly active learners, Duolingo is the most downloaded educational app in the world. It was founded by Luis von Ahn and Severin Hacker[35], two computer scientists who were working at Carnegie Mellon University in Pittsburgh when von Ahn got the idea of the application. Having grown up in Guatemala, he wanted to develop an educational platform to learn a language which was accessible with no charge, with the ultimate goal of advancing the chances of getting a job and increasing income potential. Lessons are designed with a simple interface, are no longer than 3 minutes and have the typical characteristics of a gamified approach to language teaching. Along with its appealing offering of more than 30 languages, Duolingo attracts users because its basic ad-supported version is free. Only 1.75% of Duolingo's users pay for its premium version – its cost is about $84 a year – but, since its customer base is extremely large, in 2018 revenues reached $36 million.

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[32] Forbes. *Game of Tongues: how Duolingo built a $700 million business with its addictive language-learning app,* updated July 16th, 2019.
https://www.forbes.com/sites/susanadams/2019/07/16/game-of-tongues-how-duolingo-built-a-700-million-business-with-its-addictive-language-learning-app/#659387863463

[33] Pearson. (2015), *Marketing Metrics: The Manager's Guide to Measuring Marketing Performance.*

[34] Business Wire. *Global Online Language Learning Market 2020-2024,* updated Feb. 27th, 2020.
https://www.businesswire.com/news/home/20200227005365/en/

[35] The Guardian. *Learning the Duolingo – how one app speaks volumes for language learning,* updated Mar. 8th, 2015.
https://www.theguardian.com/business/2015/mar/08/learning-the-duolingo-how-one-app-speaks-volumes-for-language-learning

Furthermore, in 2016 Duolingo started to work on a project that turned out to be a flourishing revenue generator for the company: the Duolingo English Test (DET). Such test costs $49, lasts 45 minutes and can be taken remotely provided that the computer of the student has a camera and speakers to prevent from cheating. The test was designed to compete with the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) which is the dominant English proficiency exam for foreign students, used mainly when applying to American universities. As of today, more than 180 schools, including Ivy Leagues such as Yale and Columbia University, already accept the DET as a substitute for the TOEFL, and scores of the two tests were found to be highly correlated, ensuring fair recognition of results regardless of which test the student took.

1.4.3 Promoting language diversity online

Nevertheless, the process of learning a language can take a while and, in the meantime, potential consumers may face challenges that negatively influence the customer journey. Considering such matter, The Flash Eurobarometer User Language Preferences Online was conducted by the European Commission in order to examine Internet users' attitudes and opinions towards the use of different languages on the Internet: the survey addressed Internet users in the EU about their language preferences when browsing blogs, websites and apps[36]. The results of the survey, which was taken almost 10 years ago, already showed the need for online translations and language inclusivity, so that Internet users were not excluded from surfing the web if lacking language skills.

Although 9 in 10 European Internet users said that, when given the choice of languages, they preferred visiting the website in their own one, a slim majority (53%) would accept browsing the English version of a website if their language was not available for navigation. English, indeed, is the most spoken language in the world, if considering both native and non-native speakers. When respondents were asked for which Internet activities they had to use a language other than their native, 81% of them stated that they occasionally had to when browsing to get information, or when reading the news. Approximately 6 in 10 interviewees affirmed that they communicated with friends in at least one language other than their own, and slightly more than half when communicating for professional reasons. The corresponding share for searching or purchasing products (online shopping) and services (tourism) was 56%. Essentially, more than half of Europeans are believed to be capable of understanding at least one foreign language when having to complete an online purchase on a website that does not provide them with their native idiom.

The relationship between language and the Internet is a growing area of policy interest, as it is clear that the use of language affects the experience of the user when browsing the Internet. For the time being, promoting language diversity online still requires concerted effort. In order to be a responsive part of the online social community and fully understand the massive amount of information which can be found on the net, it seems necessary to speak and comprehend at least one of the dominant digital languages, which coincide with the most spoken in the physical world – among them, English, Mandarin Chinese, Spanish.

[36] European Commission. (2011), *Flash Eurobarometer 313 - User Language Preferences Online: Analytical Report.* https://ec.europa.eu/commfrontoffice/publicopinion/flash/fl_313_en.pdf

Inequality in information reception and representation in different languages online can also affect how individuals understand availability of options and their subsequent behavior when in front of different scenarios. In a case study of the West Bank, searching for "restaurant" on Google Maps in Hebrew, Arabic and English brought back different results for each language[37]: searches in Arabic in areas of Palestinian control resulted in only 5% to 15% of the number of results that the same search generated in Hebrew. English searches produced between four to five times more results than in Arabic.

Translation technologies offer a solution to impair online language differences: in 2011, the United Nations declared access to the Internet as a basic human right. But access alone is not sufficient to bring together billions of individuals who may not be able to communicate with each other once connected. Studies of the European Commission showed that economic benefits of competence in more than one language are not limited to English (which is also referred as *lingua franca* because of its common adoption by speakers whose native languages are different). Although high levels of proficiency in English are essential to fairly confront the challenges of modern society, there is still a need for the understanding of the social, political, and technical systems of other foreign countries, as well as their identity and cultural habits. In shaping policy and priorities, it is important to balance economic and non-market related interests – intellectual, cultural, individual and societal factors. Current needs and demands of the present historical moment must also be considered alongside changing global patterns of economic and cultural exchange, and what such basis might imply for the needs of languages in the future.

[37] The Guardian. (2017), *The digital language divide*. http://labs.theguardian.com/digital-language-divide/

Chapter 2. Theoretical background: cognition and emotion in indulgence and the role of the foreign-language effect in consumer behavior.

The issues of self-control, self-control dilemma and indulgent behavior will be discussed in the first section of this chapter. The analysis will begin with the definition and characterization of impulses in the process of self-control exertion. Given their instinctive nature, their function is intrinsic in human existence and cannot be neglected when debating on the mechanisms of self-regulation strategies. The primary activities involved in self-control exertion will be mentioned, before the analysis continues on investigating other innate components of the process: the emotional forces driving self-control failures in favor of immediate temptations. Myopic and hyperopic self-control problems will be introduced, as guilt and regret have been identified as pertaining to both short-sighted (e.g., myopia) and far-sighted preferences (e.g., hyperopia), being two of the main emotional constituents experienced in the struggle of resisting temptations. The occurrence of self-control dilemma will be framed in the dual process view of emotional and cognitive processes competing for self-control with particular regard to the more deliberate psychological mechanism of self-licensing, describing the tendency of individuals to rely on reason and arguments to justify indulgent choices. The first section will conclude with a discussion on ego depletion and its implications on consumer self-controlled behavior, arguing that effortful execution of cognitive processes could promote indulgent behavior. Once the underlying mechanisms of indulgent behavior and self-control failure have been acknowledged, the foreign-language effect will be described in detail. Recent findings underlined the impact of the language being used in decision-making contexts: using foreign languages was found to disengage emotional reactivity and socio-moral norms, as well as introducing cognitive load on the mental capacities of the individuals. The current study aims at implementing in the domain of indulgent behavior both the reduced-emotionality and the increased-systematicity accounts of thinking in a foreign language, provided that no contribution in marketing and consumer behavior has explored the implications of the foreign-language effect in the interplay between yielding to temptation and exerting self-control.

2.1 Analysis of indulgent behavior and its underlying mechanisms

Whereas personal goals may portray desirable end states that everybody would customarily wish to approach, a vast majority of relevant long-term objectives require individuals not to yield to lower priority temptations that could otherwise prevent the attainment of such enduring goals. For instance, dieters may know what the right choice is in order to stay in shape and lose weight, and it happens to be going to the gym and working out also on Saturdays. However, chances to go out with friends and blissfully finish an indulgent meal with a rich chocolate dessert are not missed, especially during a moment thoroughly off the restrains of work and deadlines such as the weekend. In these instances, it is clear that dieters prefer the immediate and short-term satisfaction of a tasty treat at the expense of approaching the longer-term and challenging goal to get fit. Under other consumption circumstances, it is realistic to affirm that individuals experience the struggle

of trying not to yield to temptation but favor necessities over other 'sinful' inclinations, associated with indulgences. Axiomatically, indulgent behavior has been identified with copious consumption and acquisition of luxury items, hedonics, and other pleasing temptations that satisfy self-centered desires (Baumeister 2002; Kivetz & Simonson 2002; Mukhopadhyay & Johar 2009).

Despite immediate hedonic-driven choices are able to provide positive frames of mind at present moment (Alba & Williams, 2013), give into temptations could also cause severe psychological conflict and estrangement from long-term objectives: indeed, when in the middle of potentially tempting circumstances (e.g., going out for dinner when dieting, going to the mall when trying to save money), individuals might lose the sense of long-term goals, exemplifying a myopic self-control behavior by getting carried away by the more indulgent but regretful option, that is seeking immediate rewards, which temporarily outweighs more salient compensation coming from the attainment of longstanding goals (Keinan & Kivetz, 2008; Kivetz & Keinan, 2006; Kivetz & Zheng, 2006). Two irreconcilable forces prompt the dilemma: one is motivated to choose the more reasoned and farsighted alternative of long-term goals and exert self-control steadily, while the other is ruled by immediate pleasure and desire. Said inner forces, which stand in opposition, generate ambivalent emotional responses; whereas guilt and regret have been identified as the main emotional components experienced in the struggle of facing temptations (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Kivetz & Simonson, 2002; Rook, 1987), immediate pleasure and positive affective outcomes deriving from the acquisition of hedonic goods arise as well, hindering decision-making processes. In such instances, urgent hedonic longings turn into compelling temptations which can be confronted by virtue of the rules of self-control.

2.1.1 The key role of impulses and self-conflict override in self-control

Self-control has been identified as the ability to overrule immediate urges in order to reach a long-term goal, involving the active capability of prioritizing long-term over short-term gratification (Hofmann et al., 2009, p. 163). Although the notions of volition and self-control have long been of philosophical, religious, and legal interest, they have recently turned into a concern for psychologists and decision-making scholars too, as the recognition of the distinctively human trait of being able to alter responses to immediate and situational stimuli in the place of acting on pure instinct was given more prominence. Psychologists have been concerned mainly with the connection between impulsivity and dieting, addiction, and other self-regulation issues (Baumeister et al., 1994; Heatherton & Baumeister, 1991; Polivy et al., 1986), whilst economists developed a special interest for inconsistent preferences because of their inference on macroeconomic policies and individual approach to savings (Thaler & Shefrin, 1981). The majority of unconstrained impulsive behaviors interferes with the attainment of long-term goals and generate conflict in daily life, leading experts and academics to believe that the understanding of self-regulation could be valuable in order to address common maladaptive behavioral patterns of modern society involving self-control, such as overspending, gambling, and binge eating which inhibit the superior purposes of saving money and staying healthy (Baumeister et al., 1994; Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). Over the past three decades, psychological

theory and research investigated the mechanisms undergoing self-regulation and newfound models have been applied to the field of consumer behavior, given their abovementioned societal implications (e.g., Baumeister, 2002; de Witt Huberts et al., 2012; Keinan & Kivetz, 2008; Khan & Dhar, 2006; Kivetz & Keinan, 2006).

Central to the concepts of self-control and self-regulation, terms that are used interchangeably to a large extent in the literature (Baumeister, 2002; Baumeister, 2016; Baumeister & Vohs, 2004; Hofmann et al., 2009), is the idea of overriding impulses by an act of willpower: such process has been typically framed in the struggle between the two psychological forces of self-restraint and instant desire. Performing any act of self-control entails that behavioral responses to immediate stimuli are not taken on impulses, but rather behavioral outcomes leverage on self-regulation to avoid contrast with abstract and concrete motivations aiming at longer-term objectives. Even if individuals are able to plan their immediate future behavior and resist cravings fairly consistently, impulsivity still persists as a part of their nature.

The term impulse is defined as "*an inclination to perform a specific loosing behavior, especially when approaching an instinct-driven and predominantly hedonic situation, also depicted as an urge to act on the temptation at hand*" (Hofmann et al., 2009, p.163). Many theories of personality psychology addressed impulsiveness and constraint as crucial aspects of human behavior, drawing from widely distinct backgrounds: such theories range from biological process and psychodynamics to cognitive self-regulation research, and they all recognized both impulse and self-regulation as ingrained behavioral features whose valuable characteristics can be reaped under appropriate circumstances (Baumeister, 2002; Carver, 2005; Hofmann et al. 2009). For instance, if manifested as a mere act of spontaneity, purposely responding to impulses can bring to individuals a sense of vigor to the experience they are having (Dickman, 1990), in consideration of the fact that there do exist a few genuinely irresistible impulses which are linked to the fulfillment of physical functions and cannot be failed physiologically (Baumeister, 2002). On the other hand, impulses to indulge in luxury items or junk food cannot be added to the functionality of physiology, and they are likely to emerge from the interplay of triggering conditions coming from the environment and need states residing within the person (Hofmann et al., 2012).

Impulses tend to arise when more primitive instincts (e.g., hunger, thirst) meet activating stimuli that are able to satisfy such immediate desires when encountered in the environment (Hofmann et al. 2009). For example, hunger represents the primitive instinct, whereas the wish to enjoy a grilled cheeseburger for dinner after a long day at work can be identified as an impulsive eagerness. Indeed, impulses are instant and tend to be well-defined in a temporal and a spatial sense (Hofmann et al., 2009), mainly focused on short-term gratifications: if approached with no resistance and consistent self-control, such instincts could be automatically transformed into actions (Carver, 2005). For instance, behavioral execution of impulsive inclinations could function so effortlessly that individuals may not be even consciously aware of the process – at least not until the source that is satisfying the hedonic impulse has come to a natural end (a common illustration of how this mechanism works relates to the easiness with which the bottom of the bag of chips can be reached without noticing while watching a TV show; Hofmann et al., 2009). Baumeister (2002) states that such impulsive behavior is most relevant when it contradicts long-term goals, thus generating regret. Although in the domain of consumer

behavior, individuals frequently refer to uncontrollable urges driving them toward impulse purchases, Baumeister disagrees with the notion of 'irresistible' impulses. Alternatively, he suggests that most claims of irresistible impulses are 'more a matter of rationalization than of genuinely being helpless against strong desires' (2002, p.671). Self-regulation failure, in fact, does not occur when the impulses are felt, but when they are acted on (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). In order to be successful, self-control requires individuals not to yield to temptations that drive the attainment of immediate pleasure, as this tends to lead to self-regulation failure in the short term and detrimental consequences in the long run (Hoch & Lowenstein, 1991). Accordingly, self-regulation operates as the more controlled process that, over time, might override almost inevitable negative consequences rather than solely preventing the primitive drive to be act on.

Drawing from the work of Carver and Scheier (1981), the process of enacting self-control can be split into three primary activities which, if not effectively implemented, may jeopardize self-regulation and prompt indulgent behavior. The first one is setting clear standards, accurately determined by the individual according to their personal abilities and realistic aspirations. Examples of standards may indicate an ideal weight that is the dieter's goal, or a certain level of monthly savings in anticipation of retirement; these represent ideals and targets that specify a desired response when fighting urges (Baumeister, 2002). Within the context of consumer behavior, shoppers who know precisely what they need to buy are considered to be less likely to indulge in impulsive purchases than those with no clear mind on the task. The second crucial ingredient of self-control involves monitoring one's behavior in accordance with the expectations stemming from set standards. Keeping track of one's own progress – and eventual standstills – can be meaningful to prevent self-control failures, as failing to monitor planned actions is usually one of the most common reasons leading to further loss of self-regulation (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). Casually monitoring spending habits renders impulses purchases and indulgent choices more likely to happen: for many consumers, shopping is considered as a form of entertainment, so that it should not be surprising to learn that many purchases may occur without being planned (Roberts & Manolis, 2012). As shopping becomes all-consuming with sights, sounds, and many temptations which are typical of the retail environment, individuals lose themselves in the 'here and now' and succumb to more immediate sensations and events, resulting in little regard for negative consequences associated with self-control lapses. The last activity relates to the ability to change detrimental patterns of behavior and switch to self-regulating responses. The idea is that, when individuals are revealed to have failed their standards throughout the monitoring process of their behavior, they might activate a series of more vigilant actions in order to change their unfulfilling current state. To override incipient responses and restrain impulses, self-regulation can interrupt impulse-oriented mechanisms and build regulation over already established patterns deriving from active stimuli and implicit responses.

2.1.2 The emotional relevance of myopia and hyperopia in the domain of self-regulation

Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) labeled self-control failures in favor of immediate temptations as time-inconsistent preferences: sudden and powerful urges to succumb to short-term allurements can temporarily override longer-sighted preferences and reshape consumer behavior. Said shift in time perspective, which

stands at the basis of the majority of self-control literature, represents a transient change in preferences, providing that present conditions are outweighed on future paths.

Yielding to hedonic temptations is also referred to as 'myopia', indicating that short-sighted and impulsive-oriented behavior occurs when individuals lose sight of long-term goals and show present-biased preferences leading to regret whereby, in retrospect, they wish they had behaved more responsibly (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006; Kivetz & Simonson, 2002). Considering the future implications of indulgent behavior, it is better to choose virtuously and abstain from tempting options, since acting on impulses might increase the distance between one and their goals and could generate a sense of guilt in the decision maker. Impulsive decisions, neglecting self-control efforts and long-term interests, are thus considered to be less optimal in comparison to well-reasoned ones which imply delayed rewards, as indulgence is associated with guilt and regret about the route taken in yielding to short-term temptations. Indeed, indulgences are at a natural disadvantage relative to utilitarian necessities because it is possible to justify reasonably the need for the latter whereas one could more easily do without the luxury of temptations (Okada, 2005). Whereas luxuries have been characterized as objects of desire which provide pleasure, necessities are utilitarian objects that relieve an unpleasant state of discomfort. Given the fact that indulgence is interpreted as wasteful, negative feelings of guilt and regret arise functioning as indicators of what 'doing the right thing' requires (Kivetz & Simonson, 2002).

Besides, Kivetz and Simonson (2002) argued that individuals often suffer from an opposite form of self-control conflict, involving excessive farsightedness and future-biased preferences which was defined as 'hyperopia'. Hyperopic consumers show strong resistance and aversion to indulgence and, as a result, they experience profound negative effects on life satisfaction in the domain of consumption choices (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006). By focusing on acquiring utilitarian alternatives and their long-term benefits, acting responsibly, and doing the right thing, they are aware of the fact that short-term indulgence could be detrimental for the attainment of goals and decide not to act on it. Importantly, hyperopic behavior is not likely to be restricted to narrow clusters of consumers, but research suggests that some degree of underspending in non-necessities may exist across a wide range of individuals and characterize consumption habits of a large portion of consumers (Haws & Poynor, 2008).

As virtues and necessities are over-emphasized at the expense of hedonic luxuries, an approach to indulgence that would contribute to reduce the sense of regret associated with the indulgent choice (i.e., indulgence in line with long-term best interests) is more likely to engage those who show hyperopic tendencies. Indeed, repenting for prioritizing the inappropriate alternative is not exclusively linked with myopic behavior, provided that Kivetz and Keinan (2006) demonstrated how feelings of regret with regard to virtuous choices result enhanced with temporal separation. In one of their studies (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006), they explored feelings of regret experienced by college students when they were asked to think about how they spent their past winter break, and by alumni reflecting on their college winter breaks from 40 years before. Findings showed that, when evaluating near-past decisions, participants regretted choices of indulgence rather than virtue and, when evaluating distant past decisions, they would regret righteous decisions more than supposed myopic ones.

Inconsistent evaluations emerged due to broader temporal perspective dampening the stress of indulgence-induced guilt while emphasizing the feeling of missing out on pleasurable experiences.

As a matter of fact, self-assessment emotions such as guilt and regret may fulfill an important self-regulatory function by providing internal feedback on the path to meet one's standards (Baumeister et al. 2007; Carver & Scheier, 1981). Accordingly, self-conscious emotions are the consequence of one's attributions of events, ranging from the transgression of self-regulatory standards to doing particularly well on them (Hofmann et al., 2013). Both temptations and personal goals offer positive outcomes that individuals may wish to achieve: whereas satisfying the most utilitarian necessities and needs (e.g., buying a practical car, eating healthy) is considered responsible and farsighted, yielding to hedonic temptations (e.g., buying a luxury car, eating a chocolate cake) is viewed as impulsive and wasteful, providing immediate gratification but hindering long-term goals (Keinan & Kivetz, 2008). During tempting episodes, individuals are torn between immediate hedonic payoffs stemming from the fulfillment of self-centered desires and delayed long-term costs associated with ultimate goals, and find themselves puzzled in a self-control dilemma.

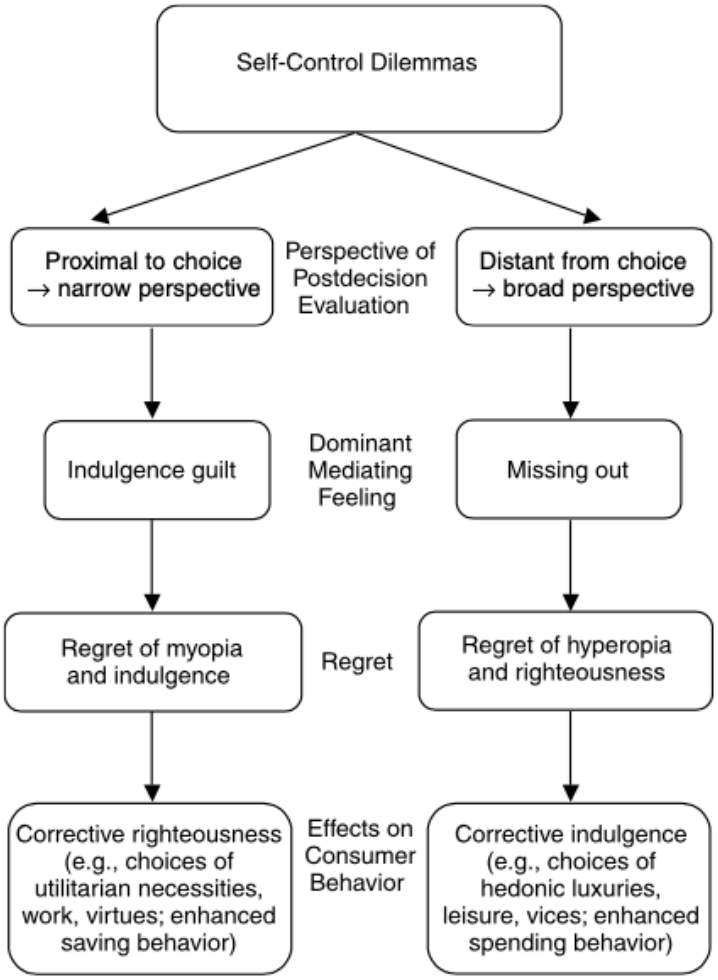

Figure 6. The effects of self-control regret on consumer behavior: a conceptual framework. Source: Keinan & Kivetz, 2008, p. 677.

2.2 Cognition and emotion interplay in self-control dilemmas

Conceptualizing self-control as two co-existing but opposing forces that activate in goal pursuit denotes the need to prioritize the intentions that drive individual behavior according to an order of preferences which, in an optimal perspective, addresses the importance of delayed benefits rather than more urgent appeals. Self-control dilemma is faced whenever the attainment of alluring desires or temptations have long-term costs that conflict with delayed rewards and benefits, prompting a shift in time consistency and hierarchy of preferences towards a myopic-driven order (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Vosgerau et al, 2019).

Asymmetry in the prominence of the two opposing interests implies distinct dynamics, or choice patterns, that affect consumer behavior: resolving the goal conflict in favor of immediate gratification lead to regretting one's choice, in the sense that if that same consumer were facing the same decision again, he would act towards higher-ordered and longer-term interests rather than present-biased preferences (Baumeister, 2002; Keinan & Kivetz, 2008; Khan & Dhar, 2006; Kivetz & Keinan, 2006; Vosgerau et al, 2019). Lasting regret of myopia, a concept which was discussed in the previous paragraph, is particularly likely to happen when consumers can clearly identify the farsighted option but nevertheless transgress to indulge and seek short-term rewards. Self-control exertion solves the tension between goals and temptations, permitting to act in accordance with long-term rather than short-term concerns and choosing to engage in the delayed-benefit activities of life and avoid the delayed-cost driven decisions. For all the above reasons, resolving such dilemma requires individuals to resort to principles and reason-based choices to control impulsive stimuli and secure postponement of hedonic experiences (Kivetz & Simonson, 2002; Kivetz & Zheng, 2006).

Many psychological models of self-regulation adopted the dual process view of impulse and self-control, which gained prominence in illustrating all types of cognitive and behavioral mechanisms behind self-regulation. Even though distinct terminologies have been used to describe dual-process models, they all share the generic assumptions that cognitive capabilities engage two different processes which compete for control, one driven by emotions and intuition while the other is steered by deliberate thought. Among the terms that have been used to describe the functioning of these two systems, it is possible to identify the labels of hot emotional versus cool cognitive (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999), impulsive versus reflective (Strack & Deutsch, 2004), and reflexive versus reflective (Lieberman, 2007).

For instance, according to the hot/cool approach to self-regulation (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999), self-control is typically conceptualized as part of the cool-cognitive system which drives goal-directed behavior and demands volitional control to consider the long-term implications of resisting temptations. The cool system operates by pragmatic principles, such as "do it if it makes sense" (de Ridder et al., 2012), and is associated with high self-control, rational self-interest, and lack of impulsive decision-making. In contrast, the hot system operates by feeling-oriented principles ("do it if it feels good"; de Ridder et al., 2012) and is associated with low self-control and the potential for impulsive actions.

Similarly, according to the Reflective-Impulsive model (Strack & Deutsch, 2004), impulses are believed to rise from the activation of associative clusters originated with no means of consciousness by coactivation of external stimuli, affective reactions, and behavioral tendencies during the learning process of the organism

and repeated exposure to perceptual inputs (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Once established, associative clusters can be easily reactivated by the encounter with such perceptual inputs or by internal triggering conditions that relate to states of homoeostatic dysregulation, like hunger and thirst. For instance, repeated experience with chocolate impels the formation of an associative cluster that connects the concept of chocolate to a positive affect (generated after the taste), but also to the behavioral schema that enabled to achieve the positive affect, i.e. eating a piece of chocolate (Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Future circumstances in which the same individual encounters chocolate may suggest that the chocolate cluster gets reactivated and may trigger automatically the corresponding impulse associated to the hedonic benefit, and the corresponding behavioral schema of eating the chocolate.

The reflective system, in turn, will seize control and allow for more rational and thoughtful choices. It is responsible for higher-ordered mental operations, achieved through relatively slow and controlled processes of judgment, inhibiting impulses for the sake of long-term goal pursuit (Hofmann et al., 2009). Whereas extensive literature on self-regulation failure and self-control dilemma predominantly drew attention on antecedents of failure stemming from overactive impulsive systems and on indicators of a fallacious reflective one, deliberate reasoning can also play a substantial role in the failure process by enabling individuals to rely on intended justifications and strategically employ schemas of reason to made acceptable such failure to oneself through a justification-based account, also known as self-licensing effect.

2.2.1 Deliberate justifications for indulgent behavior: self-licensing effect

The psychological mechanism describing the tendency of individuals to rely on reason and arguments to justify their choices is called self-licensing. The effect has been defined as "*the act of making excuses for one's discrepant behavior before actual enactment, such that the prospective failure is made acceptable for oneself*" (de Witt Huberts et al., 2014, p. 121), positing that individuals often seek or construct reasons and justifications to conciliate controversial inner forces in favor of the indulgent alternative within reach (Shafir et al., 1993). Accordingly, there is active and contemplative cognitive participation in the process of choosing immediate rewards, leveraging on deliberate reasoning to justify self-control failure. Thus, indulgence is not exclusively determined by ones' capacity to control behavior and focus on longsighted objectives, but also by the availability of reasons that may justify the prospective indulgence and trigger action by liberating to act on short-term motivations in front of inner conflicts (de Witt Huberts et al., 2012; de Witt Huberts et al., 2014). What the distinct arguments that have been studied to date have in common (e.g., altruistic and laudable acts, Khan & Dhar, 2006; effort and achievement, de Witt Huberts et al., 2012; prior restraint, Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2009) is that they seem to entail some kind of entitlement which renders the justification legitimate (Kivetz & Zheng, 2006).

Justification is also causally related to indulgent behavior, rather than simply being a post-hoc rationalization of the unhealthy choice that was taken. Priming justification use (via an ostensibly unrelated task on relationship dilemmas) was studied by Taylor et al. (2014), with the aim of investigating the role of justifications in the gap between intentions and action: participants who were asked to think of justifications

to use not to go on holiday with their partners but rather with their friends (prime condition) subsequently consumed an average of 28.90 grams of chocolates in comparison to participants who were not asked to generate justifications (control condition), who consumed an average of 24.90 grams during the taste test they were subjected to. As such, capacity to reason and rely on reflective mechanisms become a liability in the domain of regulation failure, challenging the perspective according to which impulsive and automatic inner forces take the lead and prompt yielding to temptations.

It is worthy to notice that direct assessments of self-licensing dynamics may interfere with the process of justifications, particularly when individuals under study become aware of the fact that they are generating excuses to yield to temptations. Prinsen et al. (2018) managed to assess self-licensing effects indirectly and found supporting evidence for the proposition that self-licensing promotes initial self-regulation failure due to its conflict-resolving qualities: participants of their study were presented with a list of 'circumstances' they might have encountered in a span of time of two hours and were asked to indicate which ones applied to them, unknowingly of the fact that these represented generally employed justifications (e.g., 'I was bored', 'I worked hard') for indulgent behavior (Taylor et al., 2014). The study employed a momentary assessment design in which one hundred thirty-six female participants, aiming at losing weight or eating healthy, were asked to fill out surveys eight times per day for one week for the purpose of reporting food temptation strength, goal conflict and resistance, enactment and license opportunity.

Further evidence for justifications as a facilitator of self-oriented and reflective behavior was found in consumer choice research, focusing on the analysis of hedonic versus utilitarian choices (e.g., Khan & Dhar, 2006; Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2009; Okada, 2005). Justifying expenses on hedonic goods is acknowledged as more challenging than justifying spending for utilitarian necessities (Thaler, 1991). As hedonic goods deliver benefits in the form of experiential enjoyment, which is more difficult to evaluate and quantify than the practical benefits that utilitarian goods deliver, indulgent behavior can result harder to justify in decision contexts of self-regulation dilemmas when consumers' motivated choices appear to be senseless (Okada, 2005). Purchase likelihood of the hedonic option is enhanced by means of justifications which aim at reducing guilt and negative attributions associated with this alternative. Whenever consumers believe that they earned the right to indulge and feel justified to proceed with hedonic choices, guilt is weakened, and indulgent behavior is more likely to occur.

Similar to the behavioral outcomes of indulgence induced by guilt-reduction mechanisms, Khan and Dhar (2006) proved that consumers whose prior choices were to be defined as ethical or reasonable in spending would be more likely to indulge in hedonic purchases later on. Indeed, the expression of an intention to act virtuously in a prior task was demonstrated to license subsequent preference for luxury items, by decreasing negative self-attributions associated with hedonic consumption. As Khan and Dhar (2006) did not thoroughly consider process-level explanations of the licensing effect but rather focused on self-concept boost, Mukhopadhyay and Johar (2009) specified in great detail the deliberate cognitive processes employed by consumers in justifications for indulgence. The authors identified shopping restraint as another source of justification that could prompt indulgent behavior: salient past restraint at the opportunity to impulse buying

causes consumers to reward themselves by choosing indulgence over non-indulgence, as they feel justified in acquiring products from which they can benefit in the short term. Both of these studies proved that good behavior could be used to justify indulgent preferences regardless if the laudable act entailed investing effort and time or yielding to indulgence. Similar results were obtained taking into account perceived effort: individuals who were led to believe that they had completed two tasks consumed on average 130 calories more than participants who performed the same activity but thought they had only completed one task (de Witt Huberts et al., 2012). Considering such findings, relevant evidence emphasizing the facilitative role of justifications on norm-violating and indulgent behavior suggests that justification-based mechanisms can result explanatory for self-regulatory failure across distinct domains. Under circumstances of entitlement, which make justifications legitimate, consumers may strategically decide to indulge themselves, signaling an episode of successful self-regulation.

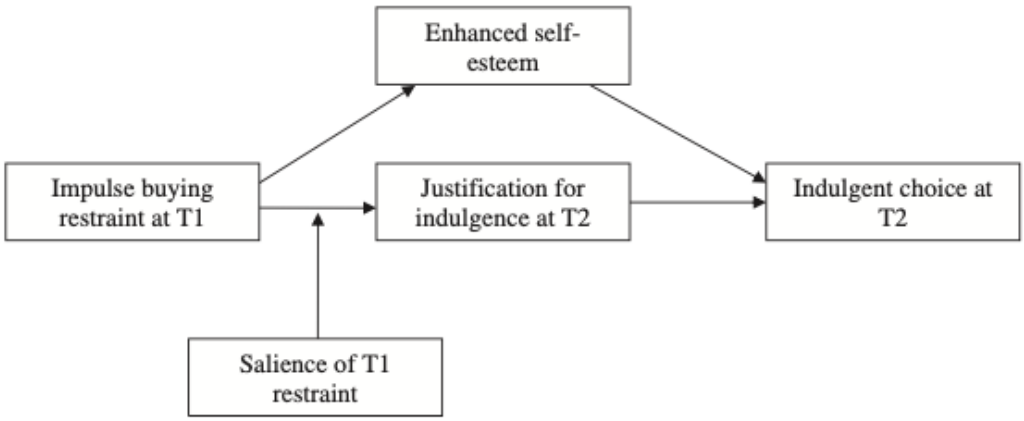

Figure 7. Conceptual framework for "Indulgence as self-reward for prior shopping restraint: A justification-based mechanism". Source: Mukhopadhyay & Johar, 2009, p. 335.

2.2.2 Ego depletion and its implications on consumer self-controlled behavior

The dominant approach to self-control presumes that the capacity to implement self-regulating responses is limited in time, meaning that performing any act of self-control gradually depletes its resources until it can no longer be exercised (Baumeister et al., 1994; Muraven et al., 1999; Vohs & Heatherthon, 2000). The state of reduced capacity to engage in volitional actions is known as ego depletion and can be restored after short-term exhaustion, replenishing by reason of rest (Baumeister, 2016). Such resource has long been compared to the functioning of a muscle: just as with repeated use of muscles that slowly fatigue, so there is fatigue in self-control exertion. Nonetheless, the ability to self-regulate can grow stronger through regular exercise, as Baumeister proposed in its strength model of self-control (1994): this suggests that effortful and controlled behavior gets depleted by any act that draws in self-regulation, impairing subsequent tasks that require self-control exertion if the span of time between the two acts does not allow the resource to recover.

The implications of the strength model on consumer behavior are understandable: consumers in a state of ego depletion are more likely to make impulse-driven shopping and indulge in hedonic purchases while neglecting their long-term goals of saving money or purchasing only functional items from which they could steadily benefit over time. Whereas much spending is fairly inevitable and related to routine utilities, indulgent buying is still faced by consumers when in front of many tempting consumption choices. In this regard, the process of decision-making was found to employ the same resources of energy of self-control: as it was assessed by Vohs and colleagues (2008) in their field experiment that took place in a mall, the more shopping-related choices consumers had made throughout the day, the faster they gave up on arithmetical problems they were asked to sort out for the purpose of the study. From Vohs' conclusions, it can be argued that ego-depleted consumers will be less likely to delay gratification and will be particularly vulnerable to impulse purchases, entailing that self-regulatory resource availability can predict whether individuals are able to resist the impulse to indulge in accessible temptations. Self-regulatory resources are conceptualized as a generalized pool of energy and strength, which make possible to overcome incipient urges and act virtuously even in tempting consumption circumstances. Nonetheless, the pool of resources is global, so that self-regulated behaviors across a variety of situations might pull from it: Vohs and Faber (2007) proved that individuals who experienced a loss of self-regulatory resources through thought suppression (i.e., having not to think about a white bear) tended to overspend in comparison to participants whose cognitive resource supply was intact.

On the basis of such reasoning, the complexity that some consumption occasions and customer journeys may entail could thus result in ego depletion: consumers may have to keep in mind a shopping list, based on basic needs and anticipated wants; they may have to recall the maximum amount of money that can be spent and which portion of it, if any, can be assigned to indulgences; they have to elaborate additional information acquired along the way and decide what to make of it. Hence, choice, to the extent that it requires greater decision-making to carry out among accessible options, can become burdensome and counterproductive, as feelings of frustration and defeat may accompany considerably large assortments of items and overwhelm potential consumers. The most complex mechanisms of decision-making involve the processes of weighing information about currently available options for the purpose of selecting the option that seems most promising and valuable. In order to do so, it is necessary to resort to the most elaborate information-processing systems and the most pliant behavior control, which would suggest the implementation of costly skills for cognitive resources. Effortful execution of cognitive processes may entail higher degree of concentration in order to evaluate pros and cons of a choice, and make use of more deliberate and slow mental processes when forced to come up with justifications for the fast-food delivery that a consumer on his weight loss journey indulged in, or to interpret the meaning to a word written on a foreign product just launched on the market that a curious customer is eager to try. The global reach of online marketing and advertising, for instance, must cross cultural borders while still appeal to consumers who can only be approached through a screen, having regard to communicate – as understandably as possible – benefits and characteristics of products. In this regard, studies in the domain of marketing and social sciences have not yet explored the dissimilar ways in which consumers who are fluent in more than one language process linguistic information differently from monolinguals, if not

for research on preference expression modality on self-control (Klesse et al., 2015). Resultantly, the current study aims at introducing the foreign language effects in the domains of self-control and indulgent behavior, on the hypothesis that, by depleting cognitive resources and weakening emotional connections, foreign language processing influences reflective systems in performing corrective functions and monitoring of self-control, thus prompting indulgent behavior.

2.3 The foreign-language effect in cognitive and emotional processes

Whereas it may be intuitive that individuals who speak multiple languages would make the same choice regardless of the language they are using, recent studies on the topic demonstrated that linguistic application actually affects diagnostic approach to the domains of judgment and decision-making. Research on language and thought has traditionally focused on the extent to which formal aspects of languages and their grammatical structure influence individuals' cognition. For instance, speakers of languages for which an entity is denoted by the feminine gender have been proven to perceive the entity as having more female characteristics than speakers of languages for which the same entity is denoted by a male gender (Hadjichristidis et al., 2019). The impact that using a language different from one's native can make on reasoning and perceptivity has been only recently addressed and firstly interpreted in the context of dual-process theories of decision-making, under the name of foreign-language effect. Such effect has been defined as "*the activation of systematic reasoning processes by thinking in a foreign language*" (Cipolletti et al, 2016, p. 23). Indeed, using a foreign language was found to affect the contribution of deliberate mechanisms of cognition to the ultimate decision when multilinguals experience a choice context (Costa et al., 2014a; Costa et al., 2014b; Hayakawa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012).

Therefore, when Costa et al. (2014b) presented bilinguals with the well-known footbridge dilemma, in which saving the life of five individuals involves actively sacrificing the life of another person (Thomson, 1986), moral principles were found to depend on language: individuals were more willing to make the sacrifice of one human life if the dilemma was presented in their second language. To the extent that making a choice is the result of the interaction between cognitive and emotional processes, language status seems to reshape the perception of moral concepts by altering such interplay, as moral rules are not particularly salient if not elaborated in a native language (Hayakawa et al., 2017). Most likely, a foreign language reduces emotional reactivity, promoting cost-benefit considerations and deliberate reasoning, leading to an increase in utilitarian moral judgments (i.e., producing the greatest good for the greatest number; Cipolletti et al., 2016).

The motivation to present participants with moral dilemmas in different language came from previous studies on decision-making. Keysar's et al. (2012) findings are considered to be pivotal for research in the field; the authors examined whether intuitive biases could be either strengthened or weakened if a decision-making dilemma was presented in a foreign language as opposed to the native one. Relying on the premise that processing non-native language wording was believed to increase cognitive load on individuals' mental capacity (Favreau & Segalowitz, 1983), subsequent reduced fluency and less automatic processing in foreign

language conditions were believed to prompt more cognitive-demanding mechanisms in order to reason, in a way that individuals may wish to prevent by acting on impulses. Indeed, drawing from findings in the domains of self-regulation and decision-making, dual-process theories of impulse and self-control are well-known for illustrating cognitive mechanisms that drive conflict-solving behavior, whether it is more analytic, rule governed, and systematic or intuitive, affective, and heuristic (Hofmann et al., 2009; Kahneman, 2011; Keysar et al., 2012). Under circumstances of cognitive overload, such as elaborating information in a non-native and non-spontaneous language, making the most rational decisions happens to be too cognitively demanding for decision makers, who struggle to commit to formal and logical processes and eventually resort to quick strategies that allow to make a satisfactory decision with the minimum possible consumption of cognitive energy, often entailing biases and approximate reasoning (Keysar et al., 2012).

Yet, Keysar et al. (2012) identified the foreign-language effect as one of the factors increasing the contribution of deliberate and thoughtful reasoning in choice contexts, thus reducing decision biases. The framework in which the foreign-language effect was firstly assessed entailed the notions of loss aversion and framing effect. Loss aversion refers to individuals' tendency to outweigh negative outcomes as compared to positive ones, resulting in different ultimate choices when evaluating the same outcome depending on whether such outcome is framed as a gain or a loss (Kahneman, 2011). Indeed, framing often comes in the form of gains or losses: drawing from research in the field of behavioral economics, findings showed that individuals are willing to choose risky alternatives to avoid negative outcomes (demonstrating a risk seeking approach in the domain of losses) but become much more conservative when evaluating positive outcomes involving the same magnitude (acting risk averse in the domain of gains; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). This idea is one of the foundations of prospect theory, which describes how individuals estimate perceived likelihood of alternatives they are faced with and eventually choose between different prospective options (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Thus, according to Kahneman and Tversky's prospect theory and framing effect implications, individuals would prefer to save the lives of 200 out of 600 people for sure rather than to take a chance of saving all of them. Anyhow, if the choice is framed in terms of lives lost (400 out of 600), they would become risk seeking and would prefer to give a chance to the more dangerous alternative to try and save them all, even if the outcomes of the two options do not change across the conditions but are just framed according to distinct perspectives. The scenario that was just introduced depicts the so-called Asian disease problem, used by Kahneman and Tversky to delve into framing effects (1979).

In the experiments conducted by Keysar and colleagues (2012), multilingual participants were presented with a modified version of the original Asian disease problem, and they were asked to choose between one of the options, either in their native or foreign language depending on which condition they were subjected to. Interestingly, it was found that respondents of non-native language exhibited cognitive biases less frequently: when the problem was presented in the native language of respondents (i.e. English for Study 1a), 77% of participants who answered the gain-frame problem preferred the safest option, whereas only 47% of the participants who were presented with the loss-frame problem preferred the corresponding option, despite the chosen alternatives described identical outcomes. Crucially, such asymmetry disappeared when the decision

was made in a foreign language (i.e. Japanese for Study 1a, English as a second language for Study 1b and French for Study 1c were considered throughout the experiments). This can be interpreted as significant evidence that the use of a non-native language reduces the gain-loss asymmetry in risk preference and increases systematic thinking, resulting in a choice unfettered by cognitive biases and framing influence, which would have motivated participants to choose the safest option in the gain-frame condition and the riskiest one in the loss-frame condition regardless of the uniformity of the presented outcomes.

It is intuitive to expect that optimal choices are those that are made with thoughtful mindsets and, on the basis that using a foreign language prompts lucid deliberation and rationale, its use can lead to better choices. As the foreign-language effect is proven to affect decision-making processes, consumers who routinely face choice contexts in a foreign language rather than their native one might be less biased when in doubt whether or not spending money or saving it. Anyhow, the emotional aspect of choice, favoring hedonic and impulsive temptations, is intrinsic in human nature and has to be taken into account when discussing the processes of decision-making. The impact of emotions on judgments, evaluations, and decisions has long been important to consumer behavior, as it is crucial to have a full understanding of what drives the experience of discrete emotional states and how these uniquely affect decision-making and consumption choices. For this reason, Costa et al. (2014a) extended Keysar and colleagues' research (2012) and conducted several studies involving psychological accounting biases and decision-making under risk to further investigate the interplay between foreign-language effect and emotionality. They contributed to the literature observing that the foreign-language effect is present not only when the problem involves human lives, but also in contexts of economic gains and losses which potentially reduces participants' emotional reaction.

In many circumstances, emotions can result helpful, such as by providing quick and spontaneous evaluations of complex information when there is little time or few resources available to engage in careful deliberation. Thus, the emotional connotation of decision-making processes appears to be a prominent aspect involved in the foreign-language effect, in contrast to increased cognitive factors which also modulate its impact, and it will be investigated in detail in the next paragraph.

2.3.1 The origin of the foreign-language effect: the emotional context of language learning

Although it is true that the foreign-language effect manifests as a very robust phenomenon under a variety of contexts, scholars have not yet reached an unanimously agreed explanation for the processes which prime such effect. The majority of the findings on the phenomenon concluded that its upstream outcomes emerge from two underlying and intertwined mechanisms, both contributing to impair decision-making biases and to boost deliberate responses from reflective systems: one of the two mechanisms has been attributed to a reduction in emotional processing of the alternatives when scenarios are presented in a non-native language (Harris et al., 2003; Costa et al., 2014a; Costa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012), while the other has been identified in the unconscious fostering of deliberate and reasoned thinking promoted by a foreign language context (Hayakawa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012; Pavlenko, 2012). More specifically, growing literature on emotionality differences between native and foreign languages has been focusing on cultivating a new

perspective on the relationship between cognition and emotion, in the light of recent studies that emphasized the role of affective processing in language production (Harris et al., 2003; Pavlenko, 2005; Pavlenko, 2012; Puntoni et al., 2008).

To date, the largest questionnaire-based study of multilingualism and emotionality has been conducted by Dewaele and Pavlenko (2005), with the aim of grasping the way perceived emotions and language choice operated in bilingual and multilingual speakers. It is worthy to mention that in their research, Dewaele and Pavlenko (2005) adopted a use-based definition of bilinguals which has long been accepted in the literature: such individuals have been defined as speakers who use two or more languages in their everyday lives, either simultaneously (e.g., the individual is part of a bilingual family) or sequentially (e.g., in the context of studying abroad or immigration; Pavlenko, 2012, p. 406). As a matter of fact, the term multilingualism tends to be included in the category of bilingualism, since the majority of studies on the foreign-language effect focused only on two of the languages spoken by multilinguals (who may in fact speak more; Pavlenko, 2012; Puntoni et al., 2008). Hence, the classification of 'multilingual' serves as a reminder that a greater variety of language combinations, language learning histories, and contexts of use is still to be explored (Pavlenko, 2012).

The Bilingualism and Emotions Questionnaire (BEQ) which they administered was in English, and it was freely accessible online between 2001 and 2003. It was divided into three sections, which respectively investigated on (1) language learning proficiency and history of respondents, (2) language choice for expression and perceptions of emotionality of languages and word types, (3) the relationship between participants' languages and emotions (Pavlenko, 2005). The final database of the study included 1579 multilinguals who shared their experiences with speaking multiple languages and how such expertise affected their emotionality responses under real-life circumstances. The large number of diverse participants conferred considerable statistical power to the analysis, which resulted useful for discerning broad patterns of responses and for ruling out the hypothesis that foreign language effects may be due to language-specific, morphological, or syntactical factors.

Dewaele and Pavlenko learnt that first acquired language (also referred to as L1) was rated as significantly more emotional for multilingual individuals who were more likely to use it for expressions of affection, showing the degree of perceived emotionality of other languages to gradually decrease for order of acquisition of the language (e.g., L1 as first language, L2 as second language, and so on; Pavlenko, 2012). Indeed, nearly half of the BEQ respondents evaluated the sentence 'I love you' to have greater emotional resonance in their first language, as using native language was reported to trigger feelings of naturalness and spontaneity by respondents who, at the time, were in a multilingual couple or had been in one before.

Drawing from research previous to Dewaele and Pavlenko's, bilingual individuals had already been found to be more emotional when talking in their L1: Bond and Lai (1986) demonstrated that they engaged in longer conversations about distressing topics in their second language, as they were not feeling as embarrassed as they would if the conversation were to be held in their native language. The authors reasoned that, as the second language is usually mastered in more emotionally neutral settings than the native one, less arousal would be conditioned to the use of the second language. Thus, the tendency to speak about embarrassing and

unsettling topics in an attempt to avoid first language expressions could operate as a distancing mechanism, enabling bilingual and multilingual individuals to express their thoughts more openly since the burden of discussing such matters would be too disquieting to handle in their first language.

The understanding of the relationship between the use of native language and anticipated emotionality is attributable to the learning setting, or context, of the language. Indeed, a first language, assumed to be the most proficient one for multilingual individuals, is universally learned in highly emotional conditions which are those of attachment to parental figures. According to Pavlenko's theory of language embodiment (2005), affective socialization in early childhood operates as the process of integration of phonological forms of words and phrases together with information from visual, auditory, olfactory, and tactile modalities, autobiographical memories, and affect. During the process of verbal storing and conditioning, firstly supported by parental figures and family, some words become linked to positive memories of endorsement and comfort, others to negative memories of disapproval and prohibition. Therefore, language abilities acquire both affective and autobiographical dimensions, forming language-dependent memory as well as emotional evocativeness for L1, as words and phrases in the first language are linked to emotionally relevant personal memories. For instance, family context and other early socializing agents enforce verbal sanctions that are associated with the discussion of certain tabooed matters, and they do so by punishing violations of the social order through the use of reprimands and admonitions (Pavlenko, 2005). Such mechanism operates since the child's first language productions. In line with this theory, immigrants' childhood memories were reported to be felt more emotionally charged when described in native language (Pavlenko, 2012). Thus, early age of acquisition functions as a proxy for a more emotional context of learning: the first language tends to be learned in the context of family life and thus is consistent with individuals' earliest encounters with emotions and feelings. Differently, second and foreign languages are frequently the languages of schooling and work and are associated with emotional autonomy and decontextualized contexts of learning (Harris et al., 2006). For instance, Harris et al. (2003) demonstrated that childhood reprimands and taboo words elicited stronger physiological responses, in terms of emotional evocativeness, in speakers' native language (e.g., Turkish) as opposed to equivalent words in their second language, which was learned after the age of 12.

According to their study, native Turkish speakers who were living in the United States were asked to hear and read a variety of word types in their native language and their second one (English). Participants responded to items by rating them for pleasantness, meanwhile skin conductance activity was monitored via fingertip electrodes, considering that one way to measure the emotional impact of words is through their effect on autonomic reactivity and differential responsiveness, that can be both tracked with galvanic skin response (Harris et al., 2003). Items that were tested included taboo words that were selected to be emotionally evocative (e.g., curse words), reprimands and admonishments that parents typically use to readdress children's behavior (e.g., "Don't do that!"), positive words (e.g., joy, kind), and neutral words (e.g., door, column) of frequent use in spoken language. Findings showed that strongest skin conductance response differentials between first language and second language were elicited by childhood reprimands and taboo words. Besides, during the debriefing session, several participants mentioned that they could hear, in their mind, Turkish family members

addressing reprimands to them. In this case, regardless of the fact that respondents had lived for a reasonable period of their life in an English-speaking country, multilinguals still identified as their language of dominance and emotion their first language.

Nevertheless, the role of emotional implications of foreign languages use has been exemplified in everyday life but, in the domain of consumer behavior, it still has to be thoroughly analyzed and grasped. One of the few relevant studies on the topic concerns the role of foreign languages in marketing messages. Indeed, consumers have been found to perceive the same marketing slogan as being less affect-laden when presented in a foreign language rather than in their native one (Puntoni et al., 2008). Puntoni and colleagues (2008) asked several groups of bilinguals to rate advertising slogans for their emotional intensity. The slogans spanned a variety of product and services categories: hotels, amusement parks, as well as frozen food. The slogans were created using as a starting point American slogans unknown in Europe, which were later translated to Dutch and French. Across five experiments, previously validated theories on language emotionality were reported to apply to the domain of marketing messages too, with important second-order consequences for consumer behavior. Given that emotionality plays a key role in products and services perception, the language in which options are presented may exert a relevant influence on consumer choice. For instance, when products differ in terms of emotional versus more cognitive benefits (e.g., taste experience versus health consequences in the choice between chocolate cake versus fruit salad; Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999), the impact of emotional benefits relative to more cognitive ones might be higher in first language rather than in the second, as nativeness is associated with emotional reactivity and connection. This might lead to the conclusion that self-control dilemmas in consumer behavior, when farsighted alternatives of long-term goals are challenged by immediate emotional benefits deriving from tempting indulgences, could leverage from the use of foreign languages to get solved in accordance to higher-ordered preferences, instead of leaning on emotionally invested decisions.

2.3.2 The psychological distancing mechanism account of the foreign-language effect

An alternate explanation that gives a reason for the foreign-language effect to occur supports the hypothesis that using a foreign language allows more deliberative reasoning by promoting analytical thinking. This hypothesis was introduced by Keysar et al. (2012) and has been the first of many theses on increased systematicity of foreign language use. The two accounts of emotionality reduction and increased systematicity have been considered to operate separately, entailing that thinking in one's non-native language activates systematic processing characteristic typical of the reflective system (Cipolletti et al., 2016), as well as consecutively. Hence, according to this latter interpretation of the phenomenon, the foreign-language effect would result from an emotional reactivity decrease which, in turn, may impair the enforcement of affective states in favor of reasoning and analytical evaluations (Costa et al., 2014a). Regardless of the fact that they function independently or sequentially, they are assumed to be complementary and related to each other: both eventualities stress that the foreign-language effect stems from alteration in the influence that both intuitive and deliberative cognitive processes exert in the course of decision-making processes. In brief, according to the increased systematicity account, the foreign-language effect is believed to be the result of decreased

cognitive processing fluency and increased psychological distance which prompt reasoning processes to be more deliberate and impartial, construing a more comprehensive and thoughtful perspective on the decision to make. Likewise, it is possible to conclude that thinking and speaking in a second language puts distance from intuitive and immediate cognitive processes, as doing so is grounded in rational and analytic thinking.

In support of the reduced cognitive fluency approach, Favreau and Segalowitz (1983) analyzed reading rates of bilinguals, showing that individuals who otherwise appear to be equally fluent in both languages frequently find reading in the second language to be more difficult and slower than in the first one, in spite of apparent speaking facility in both languages. Since longer duration of fixation time of eye movements when reading presumably reflects slower information-processing time, Favreau and Segalowitz (1983) concluded that bilinguals required more time to process the same amount of information if presented in their non-native language. Indeed, a cognitively charged activity such as reading involves a number of practiced operations that are likely to be fairly automatic or strategically managed, such as recognizing a word without reliance on text structure and deriving sentence meaning from contextual information. For many bilinguals, some of these may be fairly automatic in the first language, but the same operations may not be intuitive in the second one. As cognitive processes are less automatic in L2, the source for increased systematicity and psychological distancing can be identified in processing difficulty and reduced analytical fluency in foreign language conditions.

Other studies were conducted in the domain of honesty and morality: for instance, Bereby-Meyer and colleagues (2020) evaluated the role of language and communications in the theory of dishonest behavior and found that, on average, polyglots cheated more on the result of a casual task (e.g., rolling dice) when they were using their native languages as compared to non-native languages. Findings showing that '*honesty speaks a second language'* (Bereby-Meyer et al., 2020; p. 632) were believed to be predicted by dual-system accounts suggesting that dishonesty is an automatic tendency, and provided that using a foreign language is less intuitive and requires cognitive effort to be made, bilinguals might have had more time to deliberate over their decisions and overcome the temptation to lie. Moreover, the idea that temptation is reduced in a foreign language is in line with the results of a study about preference expression modality in the food domain. Klesse and colleagues (2015) presented native German speakers who were dining in a restaurant with a tempting dessert (e.g., chocolate mousse) and a healthy option (e.g., fruit salad). The authors predicted that stating out loud which alternative they were willing to consume would have prompted more indulgent choices compared to manual modalities of preference expressions (e.g., button-pressing), except for when individuals were required to speak in a foreign language. The results of the study conformed to their predictions: when participants expressed their choice orally in German, the majority of them chose the chocolate mousse, whereas only 40% of respondents in the foreign language condition indulged in the mousse.

Figure 8. Experimental set-up: manual expression of preference (e.g., button-pressing) and oral expression of preference. Source: Klesse et al., 2015, pp. 545-547.

2.3.3 Implementing the foreign-language effect in consumer self-control and indulgent behavior

As already discussed, presenting information in a foreign language provokes emotional and psychological detachment from the decision context, taking more time for the decision-making process to be finalized and demanding more analytical and reflective cognitive sources to elaborate presented inputs. The prediction that native languages possess meaningful emotionality implications will not come as a surprise to more introspective bilinguals and linguistic enthusiasts. Choosing the language of communication is an ever-increasingly important factor that determines whether marketing messages and products characteristics are effectively addressed to consumers that today have access to all kinds of platforms to complete their purchases. Despite the intuitive appeal of native language emotionality, that lies in the affective and autobiographical dimensions of first language learning context, no contribution in marketing and consumer behavior has explored the implications of the foreign-language effect in the interplay between yielding to temptations and exerting self-control. Self-control efforts can solve the tension between long-term goals and immediate temptations, permitting to act in accordance with higher-ordered rather than impulse-driven preferences, and choosing to engage in the delayed-benefit activities of life and avoid the delayed-cost driven decisions. Since up to date, it is unknown whether the use of a foreign language in decision-making processes and self-control dilemmas has pervasive effects on relative involvement of intuitive and rational processes in such circumstances. Nevertheless, studies on self-regulation demonstrated that individuals might resort to logical

principles and reason-based choices to control impulsive stimuli and secure delayed achievement of life-long objectives rather than indulge in temporary satisfaction.

Since analytical and deliberate processing are proven to be employed when thinking in a foreign language, indulgent behavior is likely to face the effect of such relation. Confrontation with tempting products may elicit self-control dilemmas that, impulsively, would be solved in favor of present-biased preferences. By providing consumers with information in another language, the decision-making process is predicted to acquire a more analytical connotation, and such reasoning processes should inhibit impulsiveness resulting in indulgence.

Nonetheless, another essential feature of the choice context that should not be underestimated is the emotional charge of the self-control dilemma. Yielding to temptations has been consistently associated with positive affective outcomes deriving from the acquisition of hedonic goods, but it is worthy to point out that acting on impulses also increases the distance between one and their goals and generate guilt. Given the negative meaning of luxuries and indulgences, considered as wasteful objects of desires which hinder personal goals, and the influence of phenomena such as myopia and hyperopia in the choice context, the foreign-language effect may present important second-order consequences for consumer behavior in tempting circumstances: as nativeness of the language was reported to trigger emotional reactivity and connection, the use of a foreign language in product presentation could prompt preferences for the non-indulgent option since the emotional component of the choice results attenuated and loses the role of main driver of the indulgent choice.

Although the number of bilingual consumers is expanding, research on the impact of language on consumption-related decision-making processes is still limited. This study aims at extending the foreign-language effect literature and its implications in the indulgent behavior and overconsumption domain. The present work seeks to answer the following question: can the use of a foreign language in consumption choice contexts reduce indulgent behavior due to increased cognitive processing and reduced emotional reactivity regarding the decision to make?

By uncovering alternative pathways to hindering hedonic overconsumption, this thesis contribution will mainly provide a more comprehensive view of healthy and conscious behaviors that consider the rationale involved in indulgence. If foreign languages can be used to elicit deliberative thinking and mitigate emotionality-laden reactions, their use might be helpful to advocate self-control exertion and avoidance of temptations, for the purpose of addressing maladaptive behavioral patterns of modern society.

Chapter 3. Methodology and analysis

Based on the research question which has been introduced in the previous chapter, the main objective of this section is to address the gap in knowledge concerning foreign-language effect repercussions in the domains of indulgence and consumer behavior. Research on the impact of language use in consumption-related decision-making processes is still limited, as relevant studies on the topic mainly focused on the analysis of the role of foreign languages in the relationship between marketing messages and consumers' emotional reactions.

The global reach of online marketing and advertising makes choosing the language of communication an ever-increasingly important factor that determines whether marketing messages and products characteristics are effectively addressed to consumers, presently accessing all kinds of platforms to complete their purchases. In this regard, studies in the domain of marketing and social sciences have not yet explored the dissimilar ways in which consumers who speak more than one language process linguistic information differently from monolinguals. Considering that large portions of potential consumers are approached remotely, perhaps through platforms and channels that not always provide appropriate translations of information, having regard to communicate as understandably as possible benefits and characteristics of products cannot be neglected in the evaluation of products presentation.

Confrontation with tempting products may elicit self-control dilemmas that, impulsively, would be solved in favor of present-biased preferences. We argue that, by providing consumers with information in a foreign language they know, the decision-making process is predicted to acquire a more analytical connotation and a weakened emotionality drive, and such reasoning processes should inhibit impulsiveness which would otherwise convert in indulgence. The current study aims at extending the foreign-language effect literature as well as the one regarding indulgent behavior and overconsumption, so to demonstrate that greater analytical thinking and reduced emotionality brought about by a foreign language affect willingness to buy luxury items which are typically associated with indulgence.

Based on these premises, it is possible to state the following hypotheses that the present research aims at testing:

HP1: Presenting marketing stimuli in a foreign language (vs. native language) will decrease willingness to buy luxury items due to greater analytical thinking associated with the language of the choice.

HP2: Presenting marketing stimuli in a foreign language (vs. native language) will decrease willingness to buy luxury items due to a weakened degree of emotionality associated with the language of the choice.

3.1 Research design

The method in use in this study consisted in an online experimental survey developed through the Qualtrics software. The use of Qualtrics platform allowed for several measures and settings, including scenario descriptions and the use of randomized flows that consumers could be exposed to. Such features were necessary to conduct the experimental survey and to test the hypotheses. The questionnaire was shared through main social media platforms (Facebook, WhatsApp, LinkedIn, etc.) and reached a sample of 131 respondents. Respondents were exposed to the online survey which randomly provided them with one of two scenarios (English Language product description vs. Italian Language product description), thus setting up a between-subject experimental design. Respondents were asked to read carefully the description of a luxury product (i.e., luxury sunglasses) in the presented language and they were asked to imagine liking the sunglasses and wanting to buy the item, but being on budget. The description of the item included several features about color, frame, lenses and additional components of the shades, without mentioning neither brand nor product names. Willingness to buy the pair of luxury sunglasses was used as a measure of indulgent behavior as previous research already used the item to represent a frivolous and expensive purchase for oneself, in line with the features of indulgent behavior (Khan & Dhar, 2006).

The English scenario was presented as follows:

Imagine that you want to buy a **pair of sunglasses** on a famous online fashion retailer. You really like the sunglasses, but **you are on a budget** and **they are definitely more expensive than you thought** they would be. The shades that you want to buy are produced by a **very famous luxury brand** and have the following features:

- Color: **gold**
- Frame**: 100% lightweight metal**
- Dark-tinted **tempered glass lenses**
- **Adjustable silicone nose pads** for extra comfort
- Slim arms with curved temple tips for a **secure fit**
- **Total UV protection**

The Italian scenario was presented as follows:

Immagina di voler acquistare un **paio di occhiali da sole** su un famoso e-commerce di moda. Gli occhiali ti piacciono molto, ma hai un **budget limitato** e il modello è decisamente **più costoso** di quanto pensassi. Questi occhiali da sole sono prodotti da un **brand di lusso molto famoso e** hanno le seguenti caratteristiche:

- Colore: **oro**
- Montatura**: 100% in metallo, leggera e resistente**
- Lenti**:** scure in **cristallo temperato**
- **Naselli regolabili in silicone** per un comfort extra
- Stanghette sottili con estremità ricurve per una **vestibilità sicura**
- **Protezione totale dai raggi UV**

After the assessment of willingness to buy, further questions were presented to respondents, in order to gather data about language learning proficiency and history of respondents, as well as analytical thinking impact on the decision and perceived emotionality of English and Italian Language. At the end of the survey, respondents were asked to answer demographic questions about their age, gender and education. All the questions presented to respondents after the scenario were written in the language of associated condition (Italian vs. English) and can be found integrally in the Appendix (Annex I).

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Willingness to buy

Respondents were firstly asked to express their willingness to buy the pair of luxury sunglasses. They were asked to report their answers on a 7-point Likert scale going from "Strongly disagree" for the English scenario and "Fortemente in disaccordo" for the Italian one (1), to "Strongly agree" for the English scenario and "Fortemente d'accordo" for the Italian one (7), in accordance to 4 different items:

- "I would never buy these luxury sunglasses."/"Non comprerei mai questi occhiali da sole di lusso.";
- "I would feel guilty if I buy these luxury sunglasses."/"Mi sentirei in colpa se comprassi questi occhiali da sole di lusso.";
- "Whenever possible, I avoid buying luxury sunglasses."/"Se possibile, eviterei di acquistare occhiali da sole di lusso.";
- "I don't like the idea of owning luxury sunglasses."/"Non mi piace l'idea di possedere occhiali da sole di lusso.".

Items for willingness to buy were adapted from Topçu & Kaplan (2015), antecedently used to measure willingness to buy foreign products in relation to ethnocentric tendencies and world-minded attitudes of consumers.

3.2.2 Analytical thinking

Analytical thinking was assessed right after willingness to buy, based on the assumption that thinking and speaking in a second language puts distance from intuitive and immediate cognitive processes, as doing so is grounded in rational and analytic thinking (Costa et al., 2014a). An adaptation of Pacini & Epstein's Rational-Experiential Inventory test (1999) was used in order to measure the degree to which analytical thinking and rationality contributed to the choice to purchase luxury sunglasses. Respondents were asked to indicate on a Likert scale from 1 to 7 – with divergent end-points – to what extent shown statements corresponded to their own perceptions.

3.2.3 English language proficiency

Respondents who were assigned to the English Language condition were asked to complete a proficiency quiz, which involved reading a paragraph in English and giving answer to a multiple-choice question about what they had just read. Only participants who answered the question correctly were allowed to participate in the experiment, as incorrect answers were interpreted as lack of understanding of the language. Full text can be found in the Appendix (Annex I).

3.2.4 Self-control

Measures of self-control were adapted from State Self-Control Capacity Scale (Twenge et al., 2004). Ten items were presented to respondents, who were asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 ("Not at all"/"Per niente") to 5 ("Very much"/"Assolutamente"), to what extent they agreed with the statements. Self-control measures were later used in the analysis as a control variable.

3.2.5 Nativeness, dominance and order of acquisition of spoken languages

Once self-control measures were assessed, respondents were asked about nativeness and dominance of the languages they spoke. Respondents could select "Italian", "English" and "Other" when they were asked which language was their native and which language they considered to be their dominant. Nativeness and dominance, together with the order in which spoken languages have been acquired, were measured in accordance with the items of the Bilingualism and Emotions Questionnaire (BEQ), the largest questionnaire-based study of multilingualism and emotionality to date. Dewaele and Pavlenko (2005) conducted the analysis to grasp the way in which perceived emotions and language choice operated in bilingual and multilingual speakers. Other items from this questionnaire were used to measure perceived emotionality of Italian and English.

Respondents were also asked to indicate the order in which they acquired the language ("Italian"; "English"; "Other") and at which age they started learning each language.

3.2.6 Context of acquisition and self-rating of English and Italian language

Another variable which was taken in consideration for data analysis was context of acquisition of English and Italian language. Respondents were presented with the following question: "Considering Italian and English, was acquisition of these languages naturalistic (family context, outside of school), instructed (school or academic context), or both? N.B.: First language acquisition refers to the way children learn their native language. Second language acquisition refers to the learning of another language or languages besides the native language." in the English language condition; "Considerando l'italiano e l'inglese, hai acquisito queste lingue naturalisticamente (in contesto familiare, non scolastico), accademicamente (in contesto scolastico), o entrambi? N.B.: Per acquisizione della prima lingua si intende il modo in cui i bambini imparano la loro lingua madre. Per acquisizione della seconda lingua si intende l'apprendimento di un'altra lingua oltre

alla quella madre.” in the Italian language condition. Context of acquisition was analyzed as the understanding of the relationship between native language use and anticipated emotionality is attributable to the learning context of the language: a first language, assumed to be the most proficient one for multilingual individuals, is universally learned in highly emotional conditions which are those of attachment to parental figures. Differently, second and foreign languages are frequently the languages of schooling and work and are associated with emotional autonomy and decontextualized contexts of learning (Harris et al., 2006). Indeed, the definition of language acquisition was emphasized and clearly disclosed to respondents due to such impactful differences in the outcomes brought about by distinct learning contexts.

Thus, participants rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (“Poor”/”Competenza bassa”) to 5 (“Native ability”/”Competenza nativa”) their proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing both in English and in Italian.

3.2.7 Emotionality of English and Italian language

Finally, perceived emotionality of English and Italian language was measured through an adaptation of the Bilingualism and Emotions Questionnaire’s section investigating on the relationship between participants’ languages and emotions (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2005). Respondents were presented with six subjective statements about English and Italian language, and they were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (“Not at all”/”Per niente d’accordo”) to 5 (“Absolutely”/“Assolutamente d’accordo”) to what extent they corresponded to their own perceptions. The items involved the following statements: “Italian language is useful.”/“L'italiano è una lingua utile.”; “Italian language is colorful.”/“L'italiano è una lingua espressiva.”; “Italian language is rich.”/ “L'italiano è una lingua ricca.”; “Italian language is poetic.”/“L'italiano è una lingua poetica.”; “Italian language is emotional.”/“L'italiano è una lingua emotiva.”; “Italian language is cold.”/“L'italiano è una lingua fredda.” to measure emotionality of the Italian language; “English language is useful.”/“L’inglese è una lingua utile.”; “English language is colorful.”/“L'inglese è una lingua espressiva.”; “English language is rich.”/ “L'inglese è una lingua ricca.”; “English language is poetic.”/“L'inglese è una lingua poetica.”; “English language is emotional.”/“L'inglese è una lingua emotiva.”; “English language is cold.”/“L'inglese è una lingua fredda.” to measure emotionality of the English language.

3.3 Data analysis

3.3.1 Data cleaning

Data collected through Qualtrics was transferred to SPSS Statistics version 25.0 to conduct the analysis. Through data cleaning, 2 respondents were excluded because of uncomplete answers and missing values. The remaining respondents were therefore 129, whose answers were used in the following analysis. All the respondents exposed to the English language condition passed the language proficiency assessments and thus their responses were ordinarily analyzed.

3.3.2 Descriptive statistics

In the first place, descriptive statistics analyses were run with the main objective of describing the sample. The final sample included 129 respondents, 40.3% of which were men (*n* = 52), 58.1% women (*n* = 75) and 1.6% other gender (*n* = 2). Age covered a range from 15 to 61 years old, with a mean value for the variable of 31.17 years old. More than 60% of the sample, precisely 68.2% of total respondents, completed either an undergraduate degree (*n* = 48) or a master's degree (*n* = 40). Thus, the majority of respondents (61.2%) was represented by students, still enrolled in university.

Almost all the respondents were native Italians (96.1%) and considered Italian language as their dominant one (93.8%), with the remaining respondents being native English speakers (2.3%) or other (1.6%). Such data is crucial to define the sample of respondents who took part in the study: as the foreign-language effect were to be assessed, consistency of Italian natives' presence in the respondents' pool provided an appropriate sample for the study. The negligible difference which was reported between the values of nativeness and dominance may be explained by the exposure to English language contexts since a very young age on behalf of the respondents. In point of fact, for the most part of the sample, respondents who acquired English as a second language were a vast majority (91.5%), with a mean age of acquisition of 8.4 years old, which can be associated with early scholar acquisition. As a further proof, 80.6% of respondents stated to have acquired English in a scholastic or academic context.

Another variable which was measured was self-rating proficiency for both considered languages, with a mean value of 4.8 for Italian Language, ascribable to the "Native" label, and 3.3 for the English Language, ascribable to the "Good" label.

3.3.3 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was used as a reliability measure with the objective of evaluating the correlation between the items measured with the analyzed scale. Cronbach's alpha value is considered acceptable, thus reliable, when greater than 0.70 (Gripsrud et al., 2010). A reliability test was firstly conducted for the scales that measured the dependent variable (willingness to buy), hypothesized mediator and moderator (analytical thinking and emotionality) and control variable of the study (self-control).

Results of the reliability test (applied to the English condition scales) were the following:

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,804	4

Statistiche elemento-totale

	Media scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Varianza scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Correlazione elemento-totale corretta	Alpha di Cronbach se viene eliminato l'elemento
WTB_1	13,00	18,897	,627	,751
WTB_2	12,61	22,173	,509	,804
WTB_3	12,34	20,262	,625	,753
WTB_4	13,71	16,691	,729	,697

Figure 9. Cronbach's Alpha for willingness to buy (WTB). Source: SPSS.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,872	4

Statistiche elemento-totale

	Media scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Varianza scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Correlazione elemento-totale corretta	Alpha di Cronbach se viene eliminato l'elemento
AT_1	9,88	21,693	,672	,858
AT_2	10,29	20,726	,734	,833
AT_3	10,34	20,504	,769	,820
AT_4	10,27	20,891	,732	,834

Figure 10. Cronbach's Alpha for analytical thinking (AT). Source: SPSS.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,856	10

Statistiche elemento-totale

	Media scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Varianza scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Correlazione elemento-totale corretta	Alpha di Cronbach se viene eliminato l'elemento
SC_1	20,95	42,980	,740	,827
SC_2	21,22	45,485	,588	,841
SC_3	21,44	48,147	,345	,862
SC_4	21,61	48,449	,394	,856
SC_5	21,34	43,849	,687	,832
SC_6	21,17	42,178	,775	,823
SC_7	21,41	46,108	,522	,846
SC_8	21,03	41,482	,742	,825
SC_9	20,98	44,224	,578	,842
SC_10	21,64	53,337	,192	,865

Figure 11. Cronbach's Alpha for self-control (SC). Source: SPSS.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	N. di elementi
,747	6

Statistiche elemento-totale

	Media scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Varianza scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Correlazione elemento-totale corretta	Alpha di Cronbach se viene eliminato l'elemento
EMOT_1	14,36	15,957	,150	,773
EMOT_2	15,80	11,682	,580	,687
EMOT_3	16,07	10,375	,578	,684
EMOT_4	16,27	8,891	,760	,615
EMOT_5	16,51	9,599	,685	,645
EMOT_6	17,36	15,164	,121	,785

Figure 12. Cronbach's Alpha for emotionality (EMOT). Source: SPSS.

As it is possible to observe from the tables above, scales resulted to be highly reliable in the extent to which they produced consistent results with the items being measured. The analysis showed very good internal consistency within their measurements, although minor issues were registered in the case of the variable emotionality, which showed the lowest value for alpha (6 items; α =0.747) and, if its last item were to be deleted from the analysis, its value would increase by 0.38. Nonetheless, all measures for the analyzed variables evaluated in the study are greater than 0.70 and then are proved reliable.

3.3.4 Conceptual model and PROCESS results: mediation and moderation analysis

Once reliability was assessed, the conceptual model was tested through SPSS additional extension PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). In order to prove Hypothesis 1, considered variables for the regression analysis were identified in English/Italian language as independent variable (X), willingness to buy as dependent variable (Y) and analytical thinking as mediator (M). Mean values of willingness to buy and analytical thinking items were used to conduct the analysis. Such analysis was run to prove whether analytical thinking significantly mediated the relationship between language used in the scenario and willingness to buy, expecting that willingness to buy would result weakened in the English language condition due to the operation of analytical thinking mechanisms.

In order to show mediation, three effects must hold: firstly, the independent variable (English/Italian language) must have an effect on the mediator variable (analytical thinking). In point of fact, according to the increased systematicity account of the foreign-language effect, the effect is believed to be the result of increased psychological distance caused by the use of a foreign language, which prompts reasoning processes to be more deliberate and impartial. Consequently, the independent variable (English/Italian language) must have an effect on the outcome variable (willingness to buy) and, when regressing willingness to buy on both the mediator and the independent variable, the effect of the independent variable must be weaker than when it is by itself. Thus, the results of such analysis would contribute to answer Hypothesis 1. The analysis showed significant interaction in the main effect, meaning that language of the scenario influences willingness to buy (ß=0.6228; LLCI=0.0848, ULCI=1.1609), but no significance has been found when the mediator (analytical thinking) was included into the analysis (direct effect=0.6073, $p<0.05$; LLCI=0.1565, ULCI=1.0580; indirect effect=0.0156, $p>0.05$; LLCI= -0.2725, ULCI=0.2948).

Perceived emotionality was further tested as a moderator. Although a two-way ANOVA could have been run to evaluate the moderation significance of emotionality on the relationship between English/Italian language and willingness to buy, the conceptual model was tested through PROCESS, as using SPSS extension allows to verify directly the moderator effect as a continuous variable (which would be the case for emotionality) when the independent variable is categorical. Both emotionality of the English language and emotionality of the Italian language were separately tested as moderators. In both cases, the model was found statistically significant (English: $F(4,124)=2.9928$; $p<0.05$; Italian: $F(4,124)=2.5191$; $p<0.05$) but significant moderation effect was exclusively confirmed in the case of English language (ß= -0.9193; LLCI= -1.7170, ULCI= -0.1217).

These results partially confirm Hypothesis 2 while rejecting Hypothesis 1. Whereas analytical thinking was not found to mediate the relationship between language use and willingness to buy, the degree of perceived emotionality was proved to affect willingness to buy when the scenario was described in the English language. Full SPSS output can be found in the Appendix (Annex II).

3.4 Discussion

The present study aimed at extending the foreign-language effect literature, as well as indulgent behavior and overconsumption framework, by demonstrating that greater analytical thinking and reduced emotionality brought about by foreign language use affect willingness to buy luxury items (i.e. sunglasses) which are typically associated with indulgence. Analytical thinking was predicted to mediate such relationship; therefore, if presenting consumers with marketing stimuli in a foreign language could be used to elicit deliberative thinking in the decision-making process, willingness to indulge should result weakened, as indulgence tends to satisfy immediate and self-centered desires, impairing the functioning of self-regulation mechanisms. Nonetheless, analytical thinking was not found to affect the decision-making process when needed information to make the decision was presented in a foreign language. Thus, it can be stated that the foreign-language effect on decision-making and consumer behavior is most likely determined by multiple factors which not only increase psychological distance and promote deliberation. Although such effect manifests as a very powerful phenomenon under a variety of distinct circumstances, researchers have not yet reached an unanimously agreed explanation for the processes which prime such effect and have explained the foreign language effect to emerge from both the reduction in emotional processing of the information when scenarios are presented in a non-native language (Harris et al., 2003; Costa et al., 2014a; Costa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012), and the automatic fostering of deliberate and reasoned thinking promoted by a foreign language context (Hayakawa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012; Pavlenko, 2012). Since no significant findings supported the reasoned thinking account, perhaps the most relevant mechanism which makes possible for the effect to function may be primarily identified in the reduction in emotional resonance associated with foreign language use.

Indeed, emotionality of the English language was proven to moderate the relationship under analysis: considering that indulgence-driven choices are emotionally and instinctively charged, presenting an imaginative scenario in a non-native language did hamper the emotive dimension of the decision and led to a reduced degree of willingness to buy and thus indulgent behavior. Reduced emotionality of foreign language for multilinguals had already been tested in different domains and the current study extends such findings to the concerns of consumer behavior and decision-making, broadening known literature and presenting new evidence on the matter.

Ultimately, it is worth to mention that the model was found significant when testing both hypotheses, meaning that use of language influences willingness to buy. Assuming that the increased systematicity and the emotionality reduction accounts are not always the reasons why such relationship occurs and adjusts, it might be possible that language overtone, barriers, and misunderstandings could affect the connection between the

two variables, perhaps creating circumstances of distress that consumers, when in the middle of a shopping session, would prefer to avoid.

3.4.1 Managerial implications

Although the number of multilingual consumers is expanding, research on the impact of language use on consumption-related decision-making processes is still limited. The global reach of online marketing and advertising, for instance, must cross cultural borders and appeal to consumers who can only be approached through a screen, having regard to communicate – as understandably as possible – benefits and characteristics of products and services they cannot physically experience before the purchase. In terms of online shopping, the current research provides crucial findings for one of the main characteristics that a hypothetical e-commerce should consider for its settings: the language in which product information is provided. If use of language in the description of a product has an impact on its willingness to buy, e-commerce vendors should decide wisely how to develop user interfaces with regard to available languages for potential consumers. Given that the analytical thinking hypothesis was not confirmed, reduced emotionality of foreign languages persists. Thus, if the managerial objective is to reach a greater number of foreign targets, one of the most reasonable strategies could involve the translation of website pages in as many different languages and idioms as possible, so to leverage on the emotional aspects of the choice when online shopping. Which language to use in the marketplace is acquiring more and more importance and past research in this domain has focused mainly on advertising and persuasion contexts (Puntoni et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the foreign-language effect has evident implications on consumer behavior and decision-making processes which cannot be neglected. Indeed, the nature of the language does have a systematic effect, which is critical for Internet-based research considering the circumstances of globalization of the 21th century.

Plus, taking into account the negative meaning of indulgent behavior and luxury overconsumption, considered as wasteful objects of desires which hinder personal goals, and the influence of phenomena such as myopia and hyperopia in the choice context, the foreign-language effect may present important second-order consequences for consumer behavior in tempting circumstances: as nativeness of the language is reported to trigger emotional reactivity and connection, the use of a foreign language in product presentation could prompt preferences for the non-indulgent option since the emotional component of the choice results attenuated and loses the role of main driver of indulgence also in real-life situations.

All these findings and implications are crucial as they have repercussions on the understanding of the foreign-language effect in consumption-related context, as well as on the connection between language and emotion. In an increasingly globalized and multilingual society, the analysis of the contributing factors affecting the way multilinguals make decision is paramount to an array of societally central domains, ranging from politics to education to economics which are daily affected by a plurality of languages and contexts which cannot indulge in misunderstandings.

3.4.2 Limitations and future research

Given the nature of the research, it is worth to mention few limitations that future studies may be able to confront later on. First of all, as the questionnaire gathered data from respondents' self-reported measures, contradictory patterns might have been reported in terms of willingness to buy and perceived emotionality or employment of analytical thinking which do not correspond to actual behavior in consumption-related circumstances influenced by the use of language. It is possible that there might exist a discrepancy between consumers' reported willingness to buy luxury sunglasses that they were presented in the study and their actual intentions towards the product if they were to purchase it in another given moment. Future research might therefore observe consumers' behavior in real life circumstances, developing an experimental condition of realistic exposure to the scenarios to verify if findings differed. For instance, the foreign-language effect has mostly been tested in contexts involving emotional connotation. Hence, it is not possible to state whether the use of foreign language may affect tendencies and motivations in domains that do not carry emotionality-laden information. Despite the fact that it is reasonable to predict that when language proficiency approaches native levels, language status should have a minimal effect on individuals' behavior, exceedingly lower levels of language proficiency may pose a heavy burden on cognitive processing and understanding. This is yet to be proven and future research could confront such gap in the literature.

Another limitation involves the questionnaire design and hypothetical language barriers. Even if language proficiency for the English scenario was tested and self-rating for Italian and English language were gathered, participants could still have experienced language barriers that could have influenced their understanding of the questions and their acknowledging of responses. Self-rating measures cannot be considered the most reliable to assess language proficiency. This might be a reason why a different experimental design might lead to more significant results. Moreover, it is paramount to consider that the scenario that respondents were presented with was purely imaginative, thus considerations about real world-based preferences of consumers cannot be neglected for the purpose of analyzing the final results of the study. Luxury sunglasses can be considered as a hedonic product that is not of interest for the entire population, negatively affecting its willingness to buy. Although luxury sunglasses have been previously used for research on indulgent behavior (Khan & Dhar, 2006), such explication does not imply that other products would generate the same results. Future research might address this limitation by testing other hedonic categories and items. Therefore, future studies are encouraged to test for different marketing messages and presentation of products, considering in the analysis different languages that the present study, for procedural reasons, had to neglect.

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Appendix

Annex I: Qualtrics Survey.

Start of Block: INTRO

INTRO

Gentile partecipante,
sono una studentessa di Marketing presso l'Università Luiss Guido Carli e sto conducendo una ricerca per la mia tesi di Laurea Magistrale.

Il questionario richiede **5 minuti** per essere completato e la tua risposta sarà fondamentale per la corretta realizzazione dello studio.

Ti chiedo, per favore, di **leggere attentamente le domande** e di rispondere in maniera adeguata.

Ti ricordo che **non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate**, le **risposte** sono **anonime** e verranno utilizzate solo a fini della ricerca.

Grazie per il tuo aiuto!

Page Break

End of Block: Intro

Start of Block: ITALIANO

SCENARIO ITALIANO

Per favore, leggi con attenzione lo scenario qui sotto e rispondi alle domande sulla base delle tue scelte personali.

Immagina di voler acquistare un **paio di occhiali da sole** su un famoso e-commerce di moda. Gli occhiali ti piacciono molto, ma hai un budget limitato e il modello è decisamente **più** costoso di quanto pensassi. Questi occhiali da sole sono prodotti da un **brand di lusso molto famoso e** hanno le seguenti caratteristiche:

- Colore: **oro**
- Montatura**: 100% in metallo, leggera e resistente**
- Lenti**:** scure in **cristallo temperato**
- **Naselli regolabili in silicone** per un comfort extra
- Stanghette sottili con estremità ricurve per una **vestibilità sicura**
- **Protezione totale dai raggi UV**

WTB

Per favore indica su una scala da 1 (Fortemente in disaccordo) a 7 (Fortemente d'accordo) quanto sei in accordo con le seguenti affermazioni:

	Fortemente in disaccordo (1)	In disaccordo (2)	Leggermente in disaccordo (3)	Né in disaccordo né d'accordo (4)	Leggermente d'accordo (5)	D'accordo (6)	Fortemente d'accordo (7)
Non comprerei mai questi occhiali da sole di lusso. (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Mi sentirei in colpa se comprassi questi occhiali da sole di lusso. (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Se possibile, eviterei di acquistare occhiali da sole di lusso. (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Non mi piace l'idea di possedere occhiali da sole di lusso. (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

ANALYTICAL THINKING

Per favore indica su una scala da 1 a 7 in che misura tali affermazioni sono in accordo con le tue percezioni.

La mia decisione finale sull'acquisto degli occhiali è stata guidata da:

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
I miei pensieri	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Le mie emozioni
La mia parte prudente	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	La mia parte impulsiva
Testa	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Cuore
La mia parte razionale	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	La mia parte emotiva

Page Break

SELF-CONTROL

Per favore indica su una scala da 1 (Per niente) a 5 (Assolutamente) quanto sei in accordo con le seguenti affermazioni:

	Per niente (1)	Leggermente (2)	Neutrale (3)	Abbastanza (4)	Assolutamente (5)
Mi sento mentalmente esausto. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Mi sento svuotato. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Se mi venisse affidato un compito difficile in questo momento, mi arrenderei facilmente. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Non riesco ad assorbire nessuna informazione. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
La mia mente si sente disorientata in questo momento. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
La mia energia mentale si sta esaurendo. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Sto avendo difficoltà a controllare i miei impulsi. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Al momento dovrei sforzarmi molto per concentrarmi su qualcosa. (8)	○	○	○	○	○
Se fossi tentato da qualcosa in questo momento, sarebbe difficile resistere. (9)	○	○	○	○	○
Mi sento pronto per concentrarmi. (10)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

NATIVE LANGUAGE

Qual è la tua lingua nativa?

- ○ Italiano (1)
- ○ Inglese (2)
- ○ Altro (3)

DOMINANT LANGUAGE

Quale consideri essere la tua lingua dominante?

- ○ Italiano (1)
- ○ Inglese (2)
- ○ Altro (3)

Page Break

ORDER & AGE

Considerando l'**italiano** e l'**inglese**, quali di queste lingue conosci e in che ordine le hai apprese? Seleziona l'opzione opportuna nella tabella sottostante e indica (in numero) l'età in cui hai iniziato ad imparare ogni lingua.

	Ordine di acquisizione			Età (in numero)
	Italiano (1)	Inglese (2)	Altro (3)	(1)
Prima lingua (1)	○	○	○	
Seconda lingua (2)	○	○	○	

CONTEXT OF ACQUISITION

Considerando l'**italiano** e l'**inglese,** hai acquisito queste lingue naturalisticamente (in contesto familiare, non scolastico), accademicamente (in contesto scolastico), o entrambi?

N.B.: Per acquisizione della prima lingua si intende il modo in cui i bambini imparano la loro lingua madre. Per acquisizione della seconda lingua si intende l'apprendimento di un'altra lingua oltre alla quella madre.

	Naturalisticamente (1)	Accademicamente (2)	Entrambi (3)
Italiano (1)	○	○	○
Inglese (2)	○	○	○

SELF-RATING ITALIANO

Indica su una scala da 1 (Competenza bassa) a 5 (Competenza nativa) quanto sei in grado di parlare, comprendere, leggere e scrivere in **italiano**.

	Competenza bassa (1)	Competenza discreta (2)	Competenza buona (3)	Competenza molto buona (4)	Competenza nativa (5)
Parlare (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Comprendere (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Leggere (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Scrivere (4)	○	○	○	○	○

SELF-RATING INGLESE

Indica su una scala da 1 (Competenza bassa) a 5 (Competenza nativa) quanto sei in grado di parlare, comprendere, leggere e scrivere in **inglese**.

	Competenza bassa (1)	Competenza discreta (2)	Competenza buona (3)	Competenza molto buona (4)	Competenza nativa (5)
Parlare (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Comprendere (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Leggere (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Scrivere (4)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

EMOTIONALITY ITALIANO

Di seguito trovi alcune **affermazioni soggettive sulla lingua italiana**. Per favore indica su una scala da 1 (Per niente d'accordo) a 5 (Assolutamente d'accordo) in che misura tali affermazioni sono in accordo con le tue percezioni.

	Per niente d'accordo (1)	Leggermente d'accordo (2)	Più o meno d'accordo (3)	Abbastanza d'accordo (4)	Assolutamente d'accordo (5)
L'italiano è una lingua utile. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
L'italiano è una lingua espressiva. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
L'italiano è una lingua ricca. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
L'italiano è una lingua poetica. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
L'italiano è una lingua emotiva. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
L'italiano è una lingua fredda. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

EMOTIONALITY INGLESE

Di seguito trovi alcune **affermazioni soggettive sulla lingua inglese**. Per favore indica su una scala da 1 (Per niente d'accordo) a 5 (Assolutamente d'accordo) in che misura tali affermazioni sono in accordo con le tue percezioni.

	Per niente d'accordo (1)	Leggermente d'accordo (2)	Più o meno d'accordo (3)	Abbastanza d'accordo (4)	Assolutamente d'accordo (5)
L'inglese è una lingua utile. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
L'inglese è una lingua espressiva. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
L'inglese è una lingua ricca. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
L'inglese è una lingua poetica. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
L'inglese è una lingua emotiva. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
L'inglese è una lingua fredda. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

End of Block: ITA

Start of Block: ENG

SCENARIO INGLESE

Please, read carefully the description of the scenario below. Then, answer the questions based on your own personal choice.

Imagine that you want to buy a **pair of sunglasses** on a famous online fashion retailer. You really like the sunglasses, but you are on a budget and they are definitely more expensive than you thought they would be.

The shades that you want to buy are produced by a **very famous luxury brand** and have the following features:

- Color: **gold**
- Frame**: 100% lightweight metal**
- Dark-tinted **tempered glass lenses**
- **Adjustable silicone nose pads** for extra comfort
- Slim arms with curved temple tips for a **secure fit**
- **Total UV protection**

WTB

Please, indicate on a scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I would never buy these luxury sunglasses. (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would feel guilty if I buy these luxury sunglasses. (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Whenever possible, I avoid buying luxury sunglasses. (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don't like the idea of owning luxury sunglasses. (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

ANALYTICAL THINKING

Please, indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 to what extent these statements correspond to your own perceptions.

My final decision about the purchase of the sunglasses was driven by:

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
My thoughts	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	My feelings
My prudent self	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	My impulsive self
My head	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	My heart
The rational side of me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	The emotional side of me

Page Break

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Please, read the text below and answer the question.

Jane is a student at a university. She receives financial aid, but the amount of money she gets depends on the quality of her grades, so if she fails a class, she receives less money to pay her tuition. This causes her stress, but she is enjoying her classes.

Which of the following statements is true?

- ○ Jane is a teacher. (1)
- ○ Jane dislikes her courses. (2)
- ○ Jane does not receive financial aid and is paying for university by herself. (3)
- ○ Jane needs to have good grades to get more money to pay her tuition. (4)

Page Break

SELF-CONTROL

Please, indicate on a scale from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Very much) to what extent you agree with the following statements:

	Not at all (1)	A little (2)	Neutral (3)	Quite (4)	Very much (5)
I feel mentally exhausted. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
I feel drained. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
If I were given a difficult task right now, I would give up easily. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
I can't absorb any information. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
My mind feels unfocused right now. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
My mental energy is running low. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
I am having a hard time controlling my urges. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Right now, it would take a lot of effort for me to concentrate on something. (8)	○	○	○	○	○
If I were tempted by something right now, it would be difficult to resist. (9)	○	○	○	○	○
I feel ready to concentrate. (10)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

NATIVE LANGUAGE

Which is your native language?

- ○ Italian (1)
- ○ English (2)
- ○ Other (3)

DOMINANT LANGUAGE

Which do you consider to be your dominant language?

- ○ Italian (1)
- ○ English (2)
- ○ Other (3)

Page Break

ORDER & AGE

Considering **Italian** and **English**, which of these languages do you know and what order did you learn them in? Please, select the appropriate option from the table below and indicate (in number) the age at which you started learning each language.

	Order of acquisition			Age (in number)
	Italian (1)	English (2)	Other (3)	(1)
First language (1)	○	○	○	
Second language (2)	○	○	○	

CONTEXT OF ACQUISITION

Considering **Italian** and **English**, was acquisition of these languages naturalistic (family context, outside of school), instructed (school or academic context), or both?

N.B.: First language acquisition refers to the way children learn their native language. Second language acquisition refers to the learning of another language or languages besides the native language.

	Naturalistic (1)	Instructed (2)	Both (3)
Italian (1)	○	○	○
English (2)	○	○	○

SELF-RATING ITALIAN

On a scale from 1 (Poor) to 5 (Native ability), how do you rate yourself in speaking, understanding, reading and writing in **Italian**?

	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Good (3)	Very good (4)	Native ability (5)
Speaking (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Comprehension (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Reading (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Writing (4)	○	○	○	○	○

SELF-RATING ENGLISH

On a scale from 1 (Poor) to 5 (Native ability), how do you rate yourself in speaking, understanding, reading and writing in **English**?

	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Good (3)	Very good (4)	Native ability (5)
Speaking (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Comprehension (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Reading (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Writing (4)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

EMOTIONALITY ITALIAN

Here are some **subjective statements about Italian language**. Please, rate on a scale from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Absolutely) to what extent they correspond to your own perceptions.

	Not at all (1)	Somewhat (2)	More or less (3)	To a large extent (4)	Absolutely (5)
Italian language is useful. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Italian language is colorful. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Italian language is rich. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Italian language is poetic. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Italian language is emotional. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Italian language is cold. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

EMOTIONALITY ENGLISH

Here are some **subjective statements about English language**. Please, rate on a scale from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Absolutely) to what extent they correspond to your own perceptions.

	Not at all (1)	Somewhat (2)	More or less (3)	To a large extent (4)	Absolutely (5)
English language is useful. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
English language is colorful. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
English language is rich. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
English language is poetic. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
English language is emotional. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
English language is cold. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

Page Break

End of Block: ENG

Start of Block: Descrittive

*

ETA’

Età (in numero):

_____

GENERE

Genere:

- ○ Maschio (1)
- ○ Femmina (2)
- ○ Altro (3)

OCCUPAZIONE

Occupazione:

- ○ Studente (1)
- ○ Libero professionista (2)
- ○ Impiegato (3)
- ○ Disoccupato (4)
- ○ Altro (5)

ISTRUZIONE

Livello di istruzione più alto raggiunto:

- ○ Licenza media (1)
- ○ Diploma (2)
- ○ Laurea triennale (3)
- ○ Laurea a ciclo unico/magistrale (4)
- ○ Master (5)
- ○ Altro (6)

End of Block: Descrittive

Annex II: SPSS output.

Tabella delle frequenze

Genere:

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	Maschio	52	40,3	40,3	40,3
	Femmina	75	58,1	58,1	98,4
	Altro	2	1,6	1,6	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

Occupazione:

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	Studente	79	61,2	61,2	61,2
	Libero professionista	11	8,5	8,5	69,8
	Impiegato	19	14,7	14,7	84,5
	Disoccupato	4	3,1	3,1	87,6
	Altro	16	12,4	12,4	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

Livello di istruzione più alto raggiunto:

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	Licenza media	1	,8	,8	,8
	Diploma	27	20,9	20,9	21,7
	Laurea triennale	48	37,2	37,2	58,9
	Laurea a ciclo unico/magistrale	40	31,0	31,0	89,9
	Master	11	8,5	8,5	98,4
	Altro	2	1,6	1,6	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

Figure 13. Frequency tables: Gender, Occupation, Education. Source: SPSS.

Descrittive

Statistiche descrittive

	N	Minimo	Massimo	Media	Deviazione std.
Età (in numero):	129	15	61	31,17	13,549
Numero di casi validi (listwise)	129				

Figure 14. Descriptive Statistics: Age. Source: SPSS.

Tabella delle frequenze

NATIVENESS

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	124	96,1	96,1	96,1
	2,00	3	2,3	2,3	98,4
	3,00	2	1,6	1,6	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

DOM

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	121	93,8	93,8	93,8
	2,00	6	4,7	4,7	98,4
	3,00	2	1,6	1,6	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

ORD_ita

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	124	96,1	96,1	96,1
	2,00	4	3,1	3,1	99,2
	3,00	1	,8	,8	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

ORD_eng

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	4	3,1	3,1	3,1
	2,00	118	91,5	91,5	94,6
	3,00	7	5,4	5,4	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

context_ita

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	96	74,4	74,4	74,4
	2,00	3	2,3	2,3	76,7
	3,00	30	23,3	23,3	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

context_eng

		Frequenza	Percentuale	Percentuale valida	Percentuale cumulativa
Valido	1,00	3	2,3	2,3	2,3
	2,00	104	80,6	80,6	82,9
	3,00	22	17,1	17,1	100,0
	Totale	129	100,0	100,0	

Figure 15. Frequency tables: Language Nativeness, Language Dominance, Order and Context of Acquisition. Source: SPSS

Descrittive

Statistiche descrittive

	N	Minimo	Massimo	Media	Deviazione std.
Ord_age_ita	129	,00	24,00	1,3876	2,43127
Ord_age_eng	129	,00	41,00	8,3798	5,22493
Numero di casi validi (listwise)	129				

```
DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=SR_i SR_e
  /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.
```

Descrittive

Statistiche descrittive

	N	Minimo	Massimo	Media	Deviazione std.
Self_rating_ita	129	2,50	5,00	4,8353	,44906
Self_rating_eng	129	1,00	5,00	3,3779	,89493
Numero di casi validi (listwise)	129				

Figure 16. Descriptive Statistics: Order of Acquisition, Self-rating. Source: SPSS.

```
************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.1 ******************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 4
    Y = WTB_tot
    X = ITA_ENG
    M = AT_tot

Statistical Controls:
CONTROL= SC_tot

Sample size
        129

**************************************************************************
Outcome: AT_tot

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,0828      ,0068     2,4198      ,4345     2,0000   126,0000      ,6486

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,9975      ,4472     6,7035      ,0000     2,1126     3,8824
ITA_ENG      -,0292      ,2807     -,1039      ,9174     -,5846      ,5263
SC_tot        ,1677      ,1806      ,9283      ,3550     -,1898      ,5251
```

```
Outcome: WTB_tot

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5816      ,3383     1,5933    21,2978     3,0000   125,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     4,9894      ,4226    11,8061      ,0000     4,1530     5,8258
AT_tot       -,5340      ,0723    -7,3869      ,0000     -,6771     -,3909
ITA_ENG       ,6073      ,2278     2,6662      ,0087      ,1565     1,0580
SC_tot        ,2040      ,1471     1,3870      ,1679     -,0871      ,4950

**************************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL ****************************
Outcome: WTB_tot

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,2222      ,0494     2,2706     3,2724     2,0000   126,0000      ,0412

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,3888      ,4331     7,8236      ,0000     2,5316     4,2459
ITA_ENG       ,6228      ,2719     2,2908      ,0236      ,0848     1,1609
SC_tot        ,1144      ,1750      ,6541      ,5142     -,2318      ,4607

****************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS ********************

Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         SE          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      ,6228      ,2719     2,2908      ,0236      ,0848     1,1609

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         SE          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      ,6073      ,2278     2,6662      ,0087      ,1565     1,0580

Indirect effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
AT_tot      ,0156      ,1460     -,2725      ,2948

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
AT_tot      ,0102      ,0961     -,1776      ,1954

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
AT_tot      ,0050      ,0468     -,0871      ,0947

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
AT_tot      ,0250     3,3694    -1,4151      ,4935

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
AT_tot      ,0257    33,5832     -,6921      ,8161

******************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS *************************

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:
     5000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
    95,00
```

Figure 17. Mediation output with mediator: Analytical thinking. Source: SPSS.

```
************* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.1 ******************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = WTB_tot
    X = ITA_ENG
    M = EMOT_ita

Statistical Controls:
CONTROL= SC_tot

Sample size
        129

**************************************************************************
Outcome: WTB_tot

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,2741      ,0752     2,2447     2,5191     4,0000   124,0000      ,0446

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,5831      ,4546     7,8822      ,0000     2,6833     4,4828
EMOT_ita     -,5518      ,3255    -1,6949      ,0926    -1,1961      ,0926
ITA_ENG       ,5646      ,2722     2,0742      ,0401      ,0258     1,1034
int_1        -,6968      ,6852    -1,0168      ,3112    -2,0530      ,6595
SC_tot        ,1466      ,1802      ,8136      ,4174     -,2100      ,5032

Product terms key:

 int_1    ITA_ENG     X     EMOT_ita

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
         R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      ,0077     1,0340     1,0000   124,0000      ,3112

**************************************************************************
```

Figure 18. Moderation output with moderator: Emotionality of Italian Language. Source: SPSS.

```
************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.1 ******************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = WTB_tot
    X = ITA_ENG
    M = EMOT_eng

Statistical Controls:
CONTROL= SC_tot

Sample size
        129

**************************************************************************
Outcome: WTB_tot

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,2967      ,0880     2,2134     2,9928     4,0000   124,0000      ,0213

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,6597      ,4343     8,4273      ,0000     2,8002     4,5192
EMOT_eng     -,0656      ,2002     -,3276      ,7438     -,4618      ,3306
ITA_ENG       ,6234      ,2684     2,3223      ,0218      ,0921     1,1547
int_1        -,9193      ,4030    -2,2813      ,0242    -1,7170     -,1217
SC_tot        ,1223      ,1729      ,7071      ,4808     -,2200      ,4645

Product terms key:

 int_1    ITA_ENG     X     EMOT_eng

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
         R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      ,0383     5,2046     1,0000   124,0000      ,0242

**************************************************************************
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Figure 19. Moderation output with moderator: Emotionality of English Language. Source: SPSS.

Summary

The objective of this research is to present an analysis of indulgent behavior under the distinguishing conditions that foreign language use in consumption contexts imposes. Indulgent behavior has long been identified with copious consumption and acquisition of luxury items, hedonics, and other pleasing temptations that satisfy self-centered desires (Baumeister 2002; Kivetz & Simonson 2002; Mukhopadhyay & Johar 2009). Availability of hedonistically tempting options, such as eating decadent meals, purchasing shimmering items from the luxury market and spending one's free time searching for life-changing experiences, may require exerting self-control on a daily basis not to give in to temptation. Such self-regulating behavior can be demanding to apply when living in a world where *busyness* and stress undermine physical and emotional responses. Under these circumstances, indulgent behavior works as an outlet for the present worrisome condition, leading consumers to temper stress by relying on over-consumption: whereas hedonic indulgence is able to provide immediate gratification and perceptible satisfaction, functional obligations may not grant such benefits in the short term. Hence, consumers are more motivated to indulge in ways that mitigate the overall sense of inner tension and that provide fast gratification.

More specifically, indulgent behavior has been analyzed in the main consumption domains of food, luxury and leisure time, which directly influence consumers' well-being. Although over-eating is a phenomenon whose way has been paved by the rise of food delivery and smoother accessibility to unhealthy foods, permissible indulgence is spreading as well. Euromonitor's Evolving Trends in Food and Nutrition Report (2019) found that only 23% of interviewed consumers made impulse buying decisions related to food and nutrition, down from 28% in 2013. Such decrease did not depend on consumers being less indulgent, but it is proven to be the predominant consequence of a more carefully planned and permissible indulgence. Both healthiness and mindful eating are two rapidly growing trends in the food sector: last year, meat-free was the fastest-growing category in percentage terms in the UK – up 18% in value – and *free-from* sales increased by 9%, as recorded by The Grocer Annual Top Products Survey (2019). Nonetheless, the fastest-growing grocery category in terms of value happened to be chocolate, registering a growth of £183.5 million for 2019 (The Grocer, 2019). The past year has seen the rise of darker chocolate variants in the United Kingdom – for instance, Ritter Sport Cocoa Selection and Cadbury DarkMilk – alongside "light" formulas, like Cadbury Dairy Milk with 30% less sugar. Such additions, consistent with the latest trends, have helped Cadbury Dairy Milk deliver a £46.4 million gain in 12 months.

Chocolate, followed by cake and cookies, is considered to be the first food that comes to mind when thinking of impulsive eating and indulgence (FONA International, 2018). Indeed, chocolate is more likely to be associated with fat-rich scenarios in which it is merely classified as one of the needed ingredients to bake an indulgent dessert rather than focusing on the health benefits it may generate. Benefits of eating a balanced portion of chocolate are several: it releases dopamine, lowering levels of stress; it can partially fills magnesium

deficiencies, with about 176 mg in a 100 g serving (such data refers to dark chocolate, usually considered as the healthier type of chocolate due to its low amount of sugar when the percentage of cocoa is above 60%); it naturally possesses antioxidants that have been linked to cardiovascular system efficient functioning (HealthLine.com, 2018). Incorrect portion control may inhibit beneficial effects of permissible indulgence and lead to over-eating. Such unpleasant consequences could be avoided by reducing pack sizes to ensure they stay under a precise threshold of calories. These kinds of measures have to be undertaken by manufacturers; managing the right portion size for consumption occasions and balancing the price to match perceived value of proposed snacks have become decisive for success.

Compared to other generations, millennials are more engaged with food: according to data published by Mintel in 2019, 58% of Millennials considered themselves as a "foodie" (Digimind, 2019). Millennials emerged as key influencers during the revolutionary wave of new food products approaching retail shelves: their naturalness with technology and social media, as well as their preference for organic, ethnic and sustainable food products, are two of the distinctive features that define Millennials' behavior in the world of nutrition. Furthermore, younger generations will be the primary engine of growth for the market of luxury in the coming years. Millennial customers accounted for 35% of luxury items consumption in 2019 and, by 2025, they might reach 45%. Such sector is going through unprecedented transformations, which are driven by the convergence of multiple factors: other than the digital revolution, the constant evolution of social media, sustainability issues and the growing impact of the millennial generation are influencing the trends of luxury market.

The rise of technology echoed on several businesses as well. In 2017, for the first time, Italian luxury fashion online retailer Yoox Net-a-Porter Group's online sales revenues from mobile phones outperformed its online sales revenues from personal computers and tablets (PwC, 2019). Digital luxury is progressively a customer-to-customer economy. The consumer is now central to the shopping journey and appears to be the strongest link in the global economic chain. PwC's Global Consumer Insights Survey 2019 showed that the introduction and rise of technological tools have put consumers in a position to demand an omnichannel, socially conscious and social media-powered experience when making purchases. Omni-channel presence favors the generation of a greater demand by allowing consumers to self-select into high-sensory channels (offline) or the low-sensory ones (online) based on their preferences and by encouraging consumers to experience the product through multiple angles. At the same time, concerned companies may consider reconfiguring their digital channels to optimizes consumers' online sensory experience and provide information that complements offline sensory experiences of luxury products. Despite the digital environment may pose a threat to the traditional value proposition of luxury brands, companies have the possibility to make use of such innovative techniques for luxury brands to preserve and integrate the sensory, social, and creative expectations of consumers' offline experience and engagement with luxury.

The act of self-care has become a common practice in the daily routines of stressed individuals. Such term is used to describe any type of activity or behavior that promotes well-being, including physical activity and meditation but also expensive body care treatments and pampering resort stays. Indeed, hospitality is one of the sectors that the industries of leisure time and well-being strongly rely on. Such sector is moving towards

creating luxury holistic experiences for guests, providing them with mindfulness and self-care treatments. A clear example is offered by Arctic Bath Hotel, a spa and wellness resort that opened in January 2020 in Northern Sweden. Designed to merge high levels of comfort and luxury while keeping the overall focus on well-being, its spa service provides open-air cold baths – typical of the Nordic tradition – and body care treatments to release toxins and ease tension accumulated in stressful environments. As a matter of fact, one of the top three sources of stress for American citizens is work. In 2017, the American Psychological Association conducted a survey to investigate Americans' relationship with stress, and work was mentioned as its main source by over half of respondents: money (62%) and work (61%) have consistently topped the list of stressors for more than a decade.

As of 2014, adults employed full time in the United States reported to work an average of 47 hours weekly, which is almost a full workday longer than the amount of time settled by a standard 9-5 schedule: precisely 50% of analyzed full time workers stated that they used to work more than 40 hours, and nearly four in ten worked at least 50 hours (Gallup, 2014). In Europe, working time is ruled by the provisions of the Working Time Directive 2003/88/EC. The Directive sets an average maximum of 48 hours of work in a week, a minimum daily rest period of 11 hours and a minimum uninterrupted weekly rest of 35 hours (Eurofound, 2018). *Busyness* has become a marker for social status through a mechanism of possessing sought human capital characteristics and being perceived as in scarce in the job market (Bellezza, 2017). The conception of scarcity is fueled by competitive pressure on the demand side and positive inferences of status in response to *busyness* are driven by such perceptions, uncovering an alternative and intangible type of conspicuous consumption. As a result of such reasoning, conspicuous displays of one's long hours of work and lack of leisure time are associated with prestige and convey the idea of a powerful and exclusive status symbol. Although, in the past century, spending money in luxury goods and services was a way of showing economic power – both in the sense of wealth and social status – the focus has now shifted to intangible assets, valuing time as precious and worthy. In 1931, John Maynard Keynes, notable British economist, published his essay titled "Economic Possibilities for Our Grandchildren". The main objective of his piece of work was to describe how society would look like in a century from the age he was living in. According to his forecast, by 2030, standards of life and living conditions in prospering Europe and United States would be so improved that nobody would have to work more than three or four hours a day in order *"to satisfy the old Adam in most of us"* (Keynes, 1931). Essentially, the primal need to make a living and providing necessities for life persisted as instinctive, but in the future it could be fulfilled with much less effort than the one required by the demanding regimes of his time.

Keynes' expectations were due to extensive improvements in technological capabilities and progressive accumulation of capital, that were believed by the economist to lead to a fifteen-hour work week. Technological prosperity was supposed to last until the end of the 20th century and, during this time, working population was going to be presented with the challenge of facing massive amounts of leisure time to occupy. The abundance of commodities and resulting lavishness would have driven the search for pastimes that had to

take over traditional occupations and satisfy the needs of the entire society, which Keynes expected to struggle in the process.

At approximately the same time, British historical drama series Downton Abbey was set. In one of the scenes of the show, depicting the lives of the aristocratic Crawley family and their domestic servants in the post-Edwardian era, the countess of Grantham Violet Crawley asks for the meaning of the word *weekend*: the term sounds unquestionably new to her, as her life is filled with free time to occupy in triviality and frivolity. Nonetheless, no different condition would have been assumed for a privileged in early 1900.

The status of work and leisure has changed since the days of Downton Abbey, and John Keynes' predictions have yet to become a reality.

The impact of indulgence, acknowledging the role and implications of language use on consumption patterns on the hypothesis that, by depleting cognitive resources and weakening emotional connections foreign language processing influences the corrective functioning of self-control, makes these domains relevant to further explore.

Self-control has been identified as the ability to overrule immediate urges in order to reach a long-term goal, involving the active capability of prioritizing long-term over short-term gratification (Hofmann et al., 2009, p. 163). Despite immediate gratification satisfaction is able to provide positive frames of mind at present moment (Alba & Williams, 2013), give into such temptations may also cause psychological conflict and estrangement from long-term objectives: indeed, when in the middle of potentially tempting circumstances (e.g., going out for dinner when dieting, going to the mall when trying to save money), individuals might lose the sense of long-term goals, exemplifying a myopic self-control behavior by getting carried away by the more indulgent but regretful option, that is seeking immediate rewards, which temporarily outweighs more salient compensation coming from the attainment of longstanding goals (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006; Kivetz & Zheng, 2006). Two irreconcilable forces prompt the dilemma: one is motivated to choose the more reasoned and farsighted alternative of long-term goals and exert self-control steadily, while the other is ruled by immediate pleasure and desire. In such instances, urgent hedonic longings turn into compelling temptations which can be confronted by virtue of the rules of self-control.

Central to the concepts of self-control and self-regulation, terms that are used interchangeably to a large extent in the literature (Baumeister, 2002; Baumeister, 2016; Baumeister & Vohs, 2004; Hofmann et al., 2009), is the idea of overriding impulses by an act of conscious willpower: performing any act of self-control entails that behavioral responses to immediate stimuli are not taken on impulses, but rather leverage on self-regulation to resist cravings and impulses fairly consistently. Impulses tend to arise when more primitive instincts (e.g., hunger, thirst) meet activating stimuli that are able to satisfy such immediate desires when encountered in the environment (Hofmann et al. 2009). For example, hunger represents the primitive instinct, whereas the wish to enjoy a grilled cheeseburger for dinner after a long day at work can be identified as an impulsive eagerness. Indeed, impulses are instant and tend to be well-defined in a temporal and a spatial sense (Hofmann et al., 2009), mainly focused on short-term gratifications. Research affirms that such impulsive behavior is most relevant when it contradicts long-term goals, thus generating regret (Baumeister, 2002). Although in the

domain of consumer behavior, individuals frequently refer to uncontrollable urges driving them toward impulse purchases, Baumeister disagrees with the notion of 'irresistible' impulses. Alternatively, he suggests that most claims of irresistible impulses are 'more a matter of rationalization than of genuinely being helpless against strong desires' (2002, p.671). Self-regulation failure, in fact, does not occur when the impulses are felt, but when they are acted on (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). Accordingly, in order to be successful, self-control requires individuals not to yield to temptations that drive the attainment of immediate pleasure, as this tends to lead to self-regulation failure in the short term and detrimental consequences in the long run (Hoch & Lowenstein, 1991). Drawing from the work of Carver and Scheier (1981), the process of enacting self-control can be split into three primary activities which, if not effectively implemented, may jeopardize self-regulation and prompt indulgent behavior. The first one is setting clear standards, accurately determined by the individual according to their personal abilities and realistic aspirations. Within the context of consumer behavior, shoppers who know precisely what they need to buy are considered to be less likely to indulge in impulsive purchases than those with no clear mind on the task. The second crucial ingredient of self-control involves monitoring one's behavior in accordance with the expectations stemming from set standards. Keeping track of one's own progress – and eventual standstills – can be meaningful to prevent self-control failures, as failing to monitor planned actions is usually one of the most common reasons leading to further loss of self-regulation (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). Casually monitoring spending habits renders impulses purchases and indulgent choices more likely to happen: for many consumers, shopping is considered as a form of entertainment, so that it should not be surprising to learn that many purchases may occur without being planned (Roberts & Manolis, 2012). The last activity relates to the ability to change detrimental patterns of behavior and switch to self-regulating responses. The idea is that, when individuals are revealed to have failed their standards throughout the monitoring process of their behavior, they might activate a series of more vigilant actions in order to change their unfulfilling current state. To override incipient responses and restrain impulses, self-regulation can build regulation over established patterns deriving from active stimuli and implicit responses. Indeed, unconstrained impulsive acts, usually driven by hedonic inclinations and indulgences, interfere with the attainment of long-term goals and generate inner conflict which cannot be solved unless individuals face such self-control dilemma.

Conceptualizing self-control as two co-existing but opposing forces that activate in goal pursuit denotes the need to prioritize the intentions that drive individual behavior according to an order of preferences which, in an optimal perspective, addresses the importance of delayed benefits rather than more urgent appeals. Self-control dilemma is faced whenever the attainment of alluring desires or temptations have long-term costs that conflict with delayed rewards and benefits, prompting a shift in time consistency and hierarchy of preferences towards a myopic-driven order (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; Vosgerau et al, 2019). Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) labeled self-control failures in favor of immediate temptations as time-inconsistent preferences: sudden and powerful urges to succumb to short-term allurements can temporarily override longer-sighted preferences and reshape consumer behavior. Said shift in time perspective, which stands at the basis of the majority of

self-control literature, represents a transient change in preferences, providing that present conditions are outweighed on future paths.

Yielding to hedonic temptations is also referred to as 'myopia', indicating that short-sighted and impulsive-oriented behavior occurs when individuals lose sight of long-term goals and show present-biased preferences leading to regret whereby, in retrospect, they wish they had behaved more responsibly (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006; Kivetz & Simonson, 2002). Considering the future implications of indulgent behavior, it is better to choose virtuously and abstain from tempting options, since acting on impulses might increase the distance between one and their goals and could generate a sense of guilt in the decision maker. Indeed, indulgences are at a natural disadvantage relative to utilitarian necessities because it is possible to justify reasonably the need for the latter whereas one could more easily do without the luxury of temptations (Okada, 2005). Whereas luxuries have been characterized as objects of desire which provide pleasure, necessities are utilitarian objects that relieve an unpleasant state of discomfort. Given the fact that indulgence is interpreted as wasteful, negative feelings of guilt and regret arise functioning as indicators of what 'doing the right thing' requires (Kivetz & Simonson, 2002).

Besides, Kivetz and Simonson (2002) argued that individuals often suffer from an opposite form of self-control conflict, involving excessive farsightedness and future-biased preferences which was defined as 'hyperopia'. Hyperopic consumers show strong resistance and aversion to indulgence and, as a result, they experience profound negative effects on life satisfaction in the domain of consumption choices (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006). By focusing on acquiring utilitarian alternatives and their long-term benefits, acting responsibly, and doing the right thing, they are aware of the fact that short-term indulgence could be detrimental for the attainment of goals and decide not to act on it. Importantly, hyperopic behavior is not likely to be restricted to narrow clusters of consumers, but research suggests that some degree of underspending in non-necessities may exist across a wide range of individuals and characterize consumption habits of a large portion of consumers (Haws & Poynor, 2008).

Asymmetry in the prominence of the two opposing interests implies distinct dynamics, or choice patterns, that affect consumer behavior. Self-control exertion solves the tension between goals and temptations, permitting to act in accordance with long-term rather than short-term concerns and choosing to engage in the delayed-benefit activities of life and avoid the delayed-cost driven decisions. For all the above-described reasons, resolving such dilemma requires individuals to resort to principles and reason-based choices to control impulsive stimuli and secure postponement of hedonic experiences (Kivetz & Simonson, 2002; Kivetz & Zheng, 2006). Many psychological models of self-regulation adopted the dual process view of impulse and self-control, which gained prominence in illustrating all types of cognitive and behavioral mechanisms behind self-regulation. Even though distinct terminologies have been used to describe dual-process models, they all share the generic assumptions that cognitive capabilities engage two different types of processes which compete for control, one driven by emotions and intuition while the other is steered by deliberate thought.

Whereas extensive literature on self-regulation failure and self-control dilemma predominantly drew attention on antecedents of failure stemming from overactive impulsive systems and on indicators of a fallacious

reflective one, deliberate reasoning can also play a substantial role in the failure process by enabling individuals to rely on intended justifications and strategically employ schemas of reason to made acceptable such failure to oneself through a justification-based account, also known as self-licensing effect. The effect has been defined as "*the act of making excuses for one's discrepant behavior before actual enactment, such that the prospective failure is made acceptable for oneself*" (de Witt Huberts et al., 2014, p. 121), positing that individuals often seek or construct reasons and justifications to conciliate controversial inner forces in favor of the indulgent alternative within reach (Shafir et al., 1993). Accordingly, there is active and contemplative cognitive participation in the process of choosing immediate rewards, leveraging on deliberate reasoning to justify self-control failure. Thus, indulgence is not exclusively determined by ones' capacity to control behavior and focus on longsighted objectives, but also by the availability of reasons that may justify the prospective indulgence and trigger action by liberating to act on short-term motivations in front of inner conflicts. Justifying expenses on hedonic goods is acknowledged as more challenging than justifying spending for utilitarian necessities (Thaler, 1991). As hedonic goods deliver benefits in the form of experiential enjoyment, which is more difficult to evaluate and quantify than the practical benefits that utilitarian goods deliver, indulgent behavior can result harder to justify in decision contexts of self-regulation dilemmas when consumers' motivated choices appear to be senseless (Okada, 2005). Whenever consumers believe that they earned the right to indulge and feel justified to proceed with hedonic choices, guilt is weakened, and indulgent behavior is more likely to occur.

Self-regulatory resources are conceptualized as a generalized pool of energy and strength, which make possible to overcome incipient urges and act virtuously even in tempting consumption circumstances. The dominant approach to self-control presumes that the capacity to implement self-regulating responses is limited in time, meaning that performing any act of self-control gradually depletes its resources until it can no longer be exercised (Baumeister et al., 1994; Muraven et al., 1999; Vohs & Heatherthon, 2000). The state of reduced capacity to engage in volitional actions is known as ego depletion and can be restored after short-term exhaustion, replenishing by reason of rest (Baumeister, 2016). Such resource has long been compared to the functioning of a muscle: just as with repeated use of muscles that slowly fatigue, so there is fatigue in self-control exertion. Nonetheless, the ability to self-regulate can grow stronger through exercise, as Baumeister proposed in its strength model of self-control (1994): this suggests that effortful and controlled behavior gets depleted by any act that draws in self-regulation, impairing subsequent tasks that require self-control exertion if the span of time between the two acts does not allow the resource to recover.

The implications of the strength model on consumer behavior are understandable: consumers in a state of ego depletion are more likely to make impulse-driven shopping and indulge in hedonic purchases while neglecting their long-term goals of saving money or purchasing only functional items from which they could steadily benefit over time. Whereas much spending is fairly inevitable and related to routine utilities, indulgent buying is still faced by consumers when in front of many tempting consumption choices. Hence, choice, to the extent that it requires greater decision-making to carry out among accessible options, can become burdensome and counterproductive, as feelings of frustration and defeat may accompany considerably large assortments of

items and overwhelm potential consumers. The most complex mechanisms of decision-making involve the processes of weighing information about currently available options for the purpose of selecting the one that seems most promising and valuable. The global reach of online marketing and advertising, for instance, must cross cultural borders while still appeal to consumers who can be only be approached through a screen, having regard to communicate – as understandably as possible – benefits and characteristics of products. In this regard, studies in the domain of marketing and social sciences have not yet explored the dissimilar ways in which consumers who are fluent in more than one language process linguistic information differently from monolinguals, if not for research on preference expression modality on self-control (Klesse et al., 2015).

In point of fact, research on language and thought traditionally focused on the extent to which formal aspects of languages and their grammatical structure influence individuals' cognition. The impact that using a language different from one's native can make on reasoning and perceptivity has been only recently addressed and firstly interpreted in the context of dual-process theories of decision-making, under the name of foreign-language effect. Such effect has been defined as "*the activation of systematic reasoning processes by thinking in a foreign language*" (Cipolletti et al, 2016, p. 23). Relying on the premise that processing non-native language wording was believed to increase cognitive load on individuals' mental capacity (Favreau & Segalowitz, 1983), subsequent reduced fluency and less automatic processing in foreign language conditions were believed to prompt more cognitive-demanding mechanisms in order to reason, in a way that individuals may wish to prevent by acting on impulses. Indeed, drawing from findings in the domains of self-regulation and decision-making, dual-process theories of impulse and self-control are well-known for illustrating cognitive mechanisms that drive conflict-solving behavior, whether it is more analytic, rule governed, and systematic or intuitive, affective, and heuristic (Hofmann et al., 2009; Kahneman, 2011; Keysar et al., 2012).

It is indeed true that the foreign-language effect manifests as a very robust phenomenon under a variety of contexts, but scholars have not yet reached an unanimously agreed explanation for the processes which prime such effect. The majority of the findings on the phenomenon concluded that its upstream outcomes emerge from two underlying and intertwined mechanisms, both contributing to impair decision-making biases and to boost deliberate responses from reflective systems: one of the two mechanisms has been attributed to a reduction in emotional processing of the alternatives when scenarios are presented in a non-native language (Harris et al., 2003; Costa et al., 2014a; Costa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012), while the other has been identified in the unconscious fostering of deliberate and reasoned thinking promoted by a foreign language context (Hayakawa et al., 2017; Keysar et al., 2012; Pavlenko, 2012). More specifically, growing literature on emotionality differences between native and foreign languages has been focusing on cultivating a new perspective on the relationship between cognition and emotion, in the light of recent studies that emphasized the role of affective processing in language production (Harris et al., 2003; Pavlenko, 2005; Pavlenko, 2012; Puntoni et al., 2008).

The largest questionnaire-based study of multilingualism and emotionality has been conducted by Dewaele and Pavlenko (2005), with the aim of grasping the way perceived emotions and language choice operated in bilingual and multilingual speakers. The authors learnt that first acquired language (also referred to as L1) was

rated as significantly more emotional for multilingual individuals who were more likely to use it for expressions of affection, showing the degree of perceived emotionality of other languages to gradually decrease for order of acquisition of the language (e.g., L1 as first language, L2 as second language, and so on; Pavlenko, 2012).

Drawing from research previous to Dewaele and Pavlenko's, bilingual individuals had already been found to be more emotional when talking in their L1: Bond and Lai (1986) demonstrated that they engaged in longer conversations about distressing topics in their second language, as they were not feeling as embarrassed as they would if the conversation were to be held in their native language. The authors reasoned that, as the second language is usually mastered in more emotionally neutral settings than the native one, less arousal would be conditioned to the use of the second language. Thus, the tendency to speak about embarrassing and unsettling topics in an attempt to avoid first language expressions enables bilingual and multilingual individuals to express their thoughts more openly since the burden of discussing such matters would be too disquieting to handle in their first language. The understanding of the relationship between the use of native language and anticipated emotionality is attributable to the learning setting, or context, of the language. Indeed, a first language, assumed to be the most proficient one for multilingual individuals, is universally learned in highly emotional conditions which are those of attachment to parental figures. According to Pavlenko's theory of language embodiment (2005), affective socialization in early childhood operates as the process of integration of phonological forms of words and phrases together with information from visual, auditory, olfactory, and tactile modalities, autobiographical memories, and affect. During the process of verbal storing and conditioning, firstly supported by parental figures and family, some words become linked to positive memories of endorsement and comfort, others to negative memories of disapproval and prohibition. Thus, early age of acquisition functions as a proxy for a more emotional context of learning: the first language is consistent with individuals' earliest encounters with emotions and feelings. Differently, second and foreign languages are frequently the languages of schooling and work and are associated with emotional autonomy and decontextualized contexts of learning (Harris et al., 2006).

Given that emotionality plays a key role in contexts perception, the language in which consumption options are presented may exert a relevant influence on consumer choice. For instance, when products differ in terms of emotional versus more cognitive benefits (e.g., taste experience versus health consequences in the choice between chocolate cake versus fruit salad; Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999), the impact of emotional benefits relative to more cognitive ones might be higher in first language rather than in the second, as nativeness is associated with emotional reactivity and connection. This might lead to the conclusion that self-control dilemmas in consumer behavior, when farsighted alternatives of long-term goals are challenged by immediate emotional benefits deriving from tempting indulgences, could leverage from the use of foreign languages to get solved in accordance to higher-ordered preferences, instead of leaning on emotionally invested decisions.

An alternate explanation that gives a reason for the foreign-language effect to occur supports the hypothesis that using a foreign language allows more deliberative reasoning by promoting analytical thinking. This hypothesis was introduced by Keysar et al. (2012) and has been the first of many theses on increased

systematicity of foreign language use. According to the increased systematicity account, the foreign-language effect is believed to be the result of increased psychological distance which prompts reasoning processes to be more deliberate and impartial, construing a more comprehensive and thoughtful perspective on the decision to make. Likewise, it is possible to conclude that thinking and speaking in a second language puts distance from intuitive and immediate cognitive processes, as doing so is grounded in rational and analytic thinking.

In support of the reduced cognitive fluency approach, Favreau and Segalowitz (1983) analyzed reading rates of bilinguals, showing that individuals who otherwise appear to be equally fluent in both languages frequently find reading in the second language to be more difficult and slower than in the first one, in spite of apparent speaking facility in both languages. Since longer duration of fixation time of eye movements when reading presumably reflects slower information-processing time, Favreau and Segalowitz (1983) concluded that bilinguals required more time to process the same amount of information if presented in their non-native language. Indeed, a cognitively charged activity such as reading involves a number of practiced operations that are likely to be fairly automatic or strategically managed, such as recognizing a word without reliance on text structure and deriving sentence meaning from contextual information. For many bilinguals, some of these may be fairly automatic in the first language, but the same operations may not be intuitive in the second one. As cognitive processes are less automatic in L2, the source for increased systematicity and psychological distancing can be identified in processing difficulty and reduced analytical fluency in foreign language conditions.

In addition to that, past research was conducted in the domain of honesty and morality, proving that temptation was reduced in a foreign language and that indulge was less likely to occur under such circumstances requiring higher employment of cognitive resources (Klesse et al., 2015).

Despite the intuitive appeal of native language emotionality and the alternate hypothesis of heightened analytical thinking in a foreign language, no contribution in marketing and consumer behavior has explored the implications of the foreign-language effect in the interplay between yielding to temptations and exerting self-control, with the potential outcome of indulgent behavior. Confrontation with tempting products may elicit self-control dilemmas that, impulsively, would be solved in favor of present-biased preferences. We argue that by providing consumers with information in another language, the decision-making process is predicted to acquire a more analytical connotation and a weakened emotionality drive, and such reasoning processes should inhibit impulsiveness which would otherwise convert in indulgence. The current study aims at extending the foreign-language effect literature as well as the one regarding indulgent behavior and overconsumption, so to demonstrate that greater analytical thinking and reduced emotionality brought about by a foreign language affect willingness to buy of luxury items which are typically associated with indulgence. Based on these premises, it is possible to state the following hypotheses that the present research aims at testing:

HP1: Presenting marketing stimuli in a foreign language (vs. native language) will decrease willingness to buy luxury items due to greater analytical thinking associated with the language of the choice.

HP2: Presenting marketing stimuli in a foreign language (vs. native language) will decrease willingness to buy luxury items due to a weakened degree of emotionality associated with the language of the choice.

Analytical thinking was predicted to mediate such relationship; therefore, if presenting consumers with marketing stimuli in a foreign language could be used to elicit deliberative thinking in the decision-making process, willingness to indulge should result weakened, as indulgence tends to satisfy immediate and self-centered desires, impairing the functioning of self-regulation mechanisms. Nonetheless, analytical thinking was not found to affect the decision-making process when needed information to make the decision was presented in a foreign language. Thus, it can be stated that the foreign-language effect on decision-making and consumer behavior is most likely determined by multiple factors which not only increase psychological distance and promote deliberation.

Indeed, emotionality of the English language was proven to moderate the relationship under analysis: considering that indulgence-driven choices are emotionally and instinctively charged, presenting an imaginative scenario in a non-native language did hamper the emotive dimension of the decision and led to a reduced degree of willingness to buy and thus indulgent behavior. Reduced emotionality of foreign language for multilinguals had already been tested in different domains and the current study extends such findings to the concerns of consumer behavior and decision-making, broadening known literature and presenting new evidence on the matter.

Although the number of multilingual consumers is expanding, research on the impact of language use on consumption-related decision-making processes is still limited. If use of language in the description of a product has an impact on its willingness to buy, e-commerce vendors should decide wisely when developing the user interface with regard to available languages for potential consumers. Given that the analytical thinking hypothesis was not confirmed, reduced emotionality of foreign languages persists. Thus, if the objective is to reach a greater number of foreign targets, one of the most reasonable strategies could involve the translation of website pages in as many different languages and idioms as possible, so to leverage on the emotional aspects of the choice when online shopping. The nature of the language does have a systematic effect, which is critical for Internet-based research considering the circumstances of globalization of the 21th century.

Plus, taking into account the negative meaning of indulgent behavior and luxury overconsumption, considered as wasteful objects of desires which hinder personal goals, and the influence of phenomena such as myopia and hyperopia in the choice context, the foreign-language effect may present important second-order consequences for consumer behavior in tempting circumstances: as nativeness of the language is reported to trigger emotional reactivity and connection, the use of a foreign language in product presentation could prompt preferences for the non-indulgent option since the emotional component of the choice loses the role of main driver of the indulgent choice in real-life situations.

All these findings and implications are crucial as they have repercussions on the understanding of the foreign-language effect in consumption-related context, as well as on the connection between language and emotion.

In an increasingly globalized and multilingual society, the analysis of the contributing factors affecting the way multilinguals make decision is paramount to an array of societally central domains, ranging from politics to education to economics which are daily affected by a plurality of languages and contexts which cannot indulge in misunderstandings.