CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we will review literatures with regards to some background of the mobile phone influence and proliferation into people's day-to-day activities. Next, is an overview of the various market segmentation concepts, specifically on consumer psychographics and demographic characteristics. More significantly, there were also discussion on how previous empirical research findings pertaining to these two characteristics, could be best employed to identify the differences of the heavy and light users profile.

2.1 MOBILE PHONE USAGE

Mobile phone, initially finds its place in people's home and the role of people's lives through processes such as design, advertising and all the media discourses upon them. But, afterwards, households and individuals invest on mobile phone with their own significance (Haddon, 1998). Interestingly, the mobile phone is the first technology, which clearly defines itself as a possession for personal use. Prior to the mobile phone, other communicative technologies such as the telephone, radio and television were part of the collective means for common use by various members of the family (Fortunati, 1995).

A mobile phone is, in principle use for real-time conversation and to increase the possibilities for nearness over distance. A study by Tannenbaum (1991) found that people perceived mobile phones as advantageous when they wanted to exert control over their work environment or to manage their family responsibilities (Hsu, 1992; Kopomaa, 2000). With the introduction of the mobile phone, there is an advantage of increase flexibility and minimizing the need to be physically present at a workplace. Contact potential is maximize and people can be reach anywhere and anytime (Ling, 1996a; Ling, 1996b; Kopomaa, 2000).
De Gournay (1997) in his investigations has reported that traveling professionals now have a more intense collaboration with colleagues remaining at the company base in order to filter and exploit information, but also to involve them in any negotiations from a distance. These traveling managers also overcome the effects of distance by a constant actualization of the real time. They have the capacity of condense their workload as well as their social life, into perfectly bounded and synchronized sequences. Thus the use of mobile phone in this case is corresponding with their need to realize objectives, priorities and needs, which integrate activities once and for all (De Gournay, 1997; Kopomaa, 2000).

The mobile phone in its own way is a meeting place and a popular “place” for spending time, without physical or geographical boundaries. The use of mobile phones implies a privatization of the public space. With the mobile phone, the user separates him or herself from the surrounding bubble that is necessary for the private speech act (Kopomaa, 2000). In this context, the mobile phone is the communicative technology that best answers the needs of an individual who is trying to personalize communication. Moreover, mobile phone allows users to communicate wherever and whenever they wish in a relaxing manner (Fortunati, 1995; Kopomaa, 2000).

Mobile phones, in general are also part of our dress, or as some advertisers say they are “technological jewellery”. In Italy, the mobile phone represents a violent aesthetic break and it is not only something to save time in their daily businesses but also an extremely powerful tool to show-off (Haddon, 1997). As such also, mobile phone can be seen as a command of social symbol. The Sussex Group (1997) in their research noted that the mobile phone has already able to send out social messages about its users, that they are busy and in demand. In terms of design, the mobile phone can become more diverse in its appearance as it becomes more commoditized. Furthermore, with handsets become much smaller and lighter nowadays, it is much easier for users to carry the handset with them all the time if they want to.
The mobile phone, thus far, has follow the path of a number of previous ICTs such as the personal computer, in the manner of becoming relatively more establish as a work technology first before finding personal applications and reaching a mass market. It could be anticipated that this route of product introductory will continue to be important. De Gourmay (1997) show how business users establish the principle of using the mobile phone for accessing information and for data communications. If this work related use becomes more common, we may expect a future market for using the mobile to access data for personal related matters. For instance, upon arrival in a new location, we will be able to download a map, seek information about the surroundings from a remote database, or send e-mail to friends to describe where we are. In other words, experiences at work may provide a basis for person-to-service communications, which is beyond the current person-to-person use of the mobile phone.

Also, as pointed out by Haddon (1997) and De Gourmay (1997) in their research, the mobile phone is part of an ensemble of specifically portable technologies which collectively as well as individually provides new options as regards how to organize work and private life both when people are in transit as well as when they are away from the home base. As such, mobile telephony should not be seen in isolation from the social, cultural and wider technological context (Haddon, 1997). In other words, the mobile phone has become part of society's culture as well as lifestyle depend on different needs of the users.

2.2 MOBILE PHONE USAGE MEASUREMENT

Ever since the introduction of the "80/20 rule", many managers of packaged goods have attempted to target consumers based on the volume they purchased (Haley, 1984) or consumed (Wansink, 1997a, 1998b). The "heavy-half" concept suggests that 80% of a given product's volume is consumed by 20% of its consumers (Twedt, 1964). Twedt (1964) is also the first to suggest that the users of a product or service can be divided into heavy users and light users. He was
very optimistically that volume of product purchase would replace demographic measures in marketing surveys.

In the study of soybean profiling by Wansink et. al, (2001), two basic techniques that have been used to cluster heavy users are the simple mean comparison method and the basic clustering method. The mean comparison method simply divides "heavy half" consumers from "light half" and evaluates the mean differences between the two groups. However, the simple mean comparison method of profiling heavy users has often been dismissed as too crude, but the basic clustering method has also been met with skepticism (Frank and Green 1968; Welss 1975)

Heavy users form a critical segment for the consumption of a wide range of commodities, such as beef, eggs, grapefruit and soy (Wansick et. al, 2001). Most user profiling research, especially heavy user studies, are typically focused on food and fast-moving consumer packaged goods (Wansink and Gilmore, 1999) Some studies have found that heavy users are more deal prone while other studies found that they are innovators or early adopters (Morgan 1979). There was also another studies found that active or heavy investors generally have higher income when compared to passive or light investors (Barnewell, 1987; Warren et. al., 1990; Lim, 1992). Although heavy users can be a critical segment for marketers to target, many studies incorrectly concluded that heavy users are not especially different from light users (Clancy and Schulman, 1994). There are studies which generated only modest descriptive and explanatory power (Goldsmith et. al 1994) and many attempts to profile heavy users have been unsuccessful due to methodological and measurement problems (Bass et. al, 1968; Wind 1978).

In this study, it was suggested that the respondents to be distinguish according to their usage consumption based on users average monthly bill.
2.3 MARKET SEGMENTATION

Since Smith's (1956) introduction of market segmentation, marketing practitioners and academics have adopted the concept enthusiastically. The benefits of market segmentation seem appealing. This may include a full understanding of a market; the ability to predict behaviour accurately; and an increased likelihood of detecting and exploiting new market opportunities (Kotler, 1988).

Segmentation is particularly useful in developing marketing objectives because it identifies important subgroups in the population as more efficient marketing targets than others (Yankelovich, 1964). In other words, to effectively plan strategies, marketers must select target segments and reach them with messages in appropriate media. As Bass, Tigert and Lonsdale (1968) asserted, the issue of segmenting markets is a problem area with immense practical consequences.

The most discussed dimension of market segmentation theory is the bases to used in forming segments. The evolution of the theory could also be described according to the different criteria suggested. The first criterion is a natural one. The early merchants divided their market geographically. Namias (1959) studied how intentions to purchase household durables correlated with actual purchases and found out that people living in town or small cities were more likely to carry out their intentions to buy durable household goods than consumers in large cities. However, as companies grew nationwide while the transportation distribution systems have been well developed, geographic segmentation lost its importance.

The next criterion suggested was that of demographic variables. In 1957, Friend and Kravis announced that they had found some interesting patterns of consumption among American consumers representing different demographic characteristics. Their hypothesis is that families could be segmented according to occupation, race, income class and other socio-economic characteristics.
Martineau (1958) conducted a study involving 3880 households in the Chicago area and found a connection between social class and purchasing behaviour. He found that lower and middle classes preferred totally different types of retail stores.

Psychographic research was defined by Wells (1975) as the basic premise of lifestyle research. This research findings would provide useful consumer information in which the more the marketers know and understand about their customers, the more effectively they can communicate and market to them. Thus, the focus has shifted from the external person-oriented characteristics to the understanding of consumer behaviour. In addition, motivation research encourages marketers to find reasons for consumer behaviour from personality and lifestyle characteristic and set the foundations for psychographic segmentation. Under the influence of buyer behaviour theory, market segmentation researchers focus on the behavioural characteristics. However, psychographic data are costly to assemble and difficult to interpret objectively (Wells, 1974). For example, Katz and Lancaster (1989) cited the lack of adequate audience data as one of the primary drawbacks for advertising on cable television programs.

Behavioural segmentation was first introduced by Twedt (1964), who suggested that the users of a product or service could be divided into heavy users and light users. He analyzed the degrees of purchase concentration of 700 households in 18 product categories and arranged the purchasing households in order of their purchase volume and separated the households at the median into halves. He found out that one household from the heavy purchase group as much as nine households in the light purchaser group, and that the heavy and light users could be distinguished on the basis of their demographic characteristics. Although the study showed that the correlation between demographic variables and the purchasing volume was not strong Twedt forecast optimistically that volume of product purchase would replace demographic measures in marketing surveys.
As Bass, Tiger and Lonsdale (1968) asserted, there are many ways to approach a segmentation task. As such, we have utilized the demographic and lifestyle factors in the quest of finding valid segmentation criteria for the 10.4 million (as of 2003) mobile phone subscribers in the country which is nearly half of the population.

2.4 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic variables refer to a broad spectrum of personal characteristics including intellectual abilities, domain-specific knowledge, gender, age experience, education, professional orientation, organization level and so forth. The validity of using demographic variables as important information leverage marketing intelligence is very well supported in the literature (Frank et al., 1972).

In fact, demographic variables have long been used as a foundation for segmenting the market for financial services (Warren, Steven and McConkey, 1990; Lim 1992). Some studies found that active or heavy investors generally have higher income when compared to passive or light investors (Barnewell, 1987; Warren et al., 1990; Lim, 1992). In addition, Warren et al. (1990) in their study, found that heavy investors tend to reside in households with no children living at home or in households with children of 18 years of age or older. These investors or their spouses tend to be full-time homemakers, in terms of education, have at least one to three years of college. As for light investors, it was found most of them are singles or widows, or if married, still have children at home.

In a study on the role of demographics in influencing consumer expenditures, income and savings by Friends and Kravis (1957), found that these families could be segmented according to occupation, race, income class and other socio-economic characteristics. On the other hand, Jean Namias (1959) found correlation between family life cycle, intention to buy household durables and actual purchases.
In examining the role of demographics in influencing consumer ethnocentrism, several studies have found that males, better educated consumers and those with higher incomes tend to be less ethnocentric (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Sharma, Shimp and Sin, 1995).

Several studies showed that Internet users differed from non-Internet users in age, education and income (Hoffman and Novak, 1996; Coyle, 1998; Korgaonkar and Wolin, 1999; Howard, Rainie and Jones, 2001). Regarding offline gaming behaviours, Youn and Lee (2002) found that adult computer game players are relatively young and well educated people with above average income while gender gaps among computer gamers are not noticeable.

In general, age has been consistently significantly and positively related to attitude towards products. Some researches showed younger consumers have more open attitudes about or are more positive towards foreign products (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Wall, Majorie and Heslop, 1986; Wang, 1978). On the other hand, Han (1988) examine consumer patriotism and its relationship with choice of domestic versus foreign products. He found that patriotic consumers are older than less patriotic consumers.

Besides, studies on the holding of credit card conducted by Plummer (1971) and Awh and Waters (1974), found that the holders of credit card tend to have higher education as compare to the non-holders. Credit card holders are more likely to be professionals (Plummer, 1971; Kinsey, 1982). With respect to age, Plummer (1971) and Awh and Waters (1974) found that card holders tend to be younger when compare with non-holders. Kinsey (1982), however, found that the probability of holding cards increased with age until age 50 and then declined.

Apart from that, the concept of sex-role identity has enjoyed a relative success in explaining some consumer behaviour (1974; Debevec and Leyer, 1986; Jaffe and Berger, 1988; Leigh, Rethans and Whitney, 1987). The results of gender as correlate in marketing studies have produce remarkable results. Several studies
found that females tend to rate foreign-made products more favorable than men (Schooler, 1971; Wang, 1978). On the other hand, Mclain and Sternquist (1991) found no relationship between gender and degree of ethnocentrism of consumers.

Youn, Lee and Doyle (2003) conducted a study to profile adult online gamers with regards to demographic, motivational and attitudinal characteristics by using 2002 DDB Needham Lifestyle Survey data. They manage to determine demographic and psychographics differences and similarities between online gamers and non-gamers. The results shows that online gamers and non-gaming Internet users are liable to be younger, more educated, and better off financially than non-Internet users.

In the Malaysian context, a research by Kaur (1990) found that income increases the incidence of holders of credit card increases while greater percentage of cardholders comes from the high education group. In terms of marital status, higher percentage of cardholders tends to come from married with children group. Nevertheless, no significant correlation found between age and ethnicity with credit cardholding.

Ezlika (2000) found that investors of Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange have significant differences in terms of investor’s age, gender, occupation, monthly personal income and monthly household income while no significant correlation found between ethnicity, marital status and educational level. Active investors tend to be males, in their age of 25 years old or below, and 36 years old and above, who owned business and are professionals with higher personal and household income.

Demographic dimensions have thus far received broader acceptance because of its easy quantification and consumer classification (Wells, 1975). Some researchers believe demographic profiles of heavy users provide safe surrogates for psychographic profiles (Assael and Poltrack, 1994; Groenhaug and Zaltman, 1981). However, many researchers had criticize demographic segmentation
(Levitt 1960; Sissors, 1966; Barnett, 1969) and argue that demographic characteristics are too general to be meaningful in identifying market segments. Barnett (1969) pointed out that Friend and Kravis (1957) have use general and independent purchase categories such as food and housing, and that data used on them are too general in order to show any real consumption patterns. According to Sheth (1974) demographic variables have been shown to be poor predictors of brand choice behaviour, partly because of narrowing differences in income, education and occupational status in an affluent mass consumption society.

Clearly, a defined segment can be identified using demographics variables, but entire markets cannot usually be segmented by this method alone (Beane and Ennis, 1987). Thus, lifestyle or psychographic study has been used as a complementary tool to demographic profiling by some marketers to captivate their customers.

2.5 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND PSYCHOGRAPHICS

The concept of lifestyle and its relationship to marketing was first introduced by Lazer (1963). He defined it as the distinctive of characteristics made of living of a whole society or segment thereof. This attempt to develop quantitative measures of lifestyle was initially referred to as psychographics (Demby, 1994). In fact, the terms psychographics and lifestyle are frequently used interchangeably (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004).

Lifestyle is basically how a person lives. It is how one enacts his or her self-concept. It is determine by the person's past experiences, innate characteristics and current situation, which would influence all aspects of one's consumption behaviour. One's lifestyle is a function of inherent individual characteristics that have been shaped and formed through social interaction as the person evolves through the life cycle (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 2004).
The focus of marketers and consumer researchers has generally been on identifying the broad trends that influence how consumers live, work and play. It allows a population to be viewed as distinct individuals with feeling and tendencies, addressed in compatible groups or segments to make more efficient use of mass media.

Commonly, researchers tend to equate psychographics with the study of lifestyles. Psychographics research is use by market researchers to describe a consumer segment so as to help an organization reach and understand its customers better. Hence, lifestyle patterns provide broader, more three-dimensional views of consumers so that marketers can think about them more intelligently. The basic premise of lifestyle research is that the more marketers know and understand about their customers, the more effectively they can communicate with and serve them (Kaynak and Kara, 1998).

Generally, there are three principal indicators of lifestyles, namely activities, interest and opinions (Assael, 1992). These three indicators, also termed as AIO rating statements, have been widely used as approach to psychographics measurement whereby consumers are asked to express their agreement or disagreement with the Activities, Interests and Opinions (AIO) statements. (Engel and Blackwell, 1982). The AIO statements as described by Plummer (1974), measure activities on how people spend their time and money; measure interests on what they consider to be of importance in their immediate surroundings; and measure opinions on how they feel about themselves and the world around them. Wells (1974) suggested that the AIO statements could be either general or product specific, and either standardized or ad hoc in scale. The choice of statements depends on the objective of the study and it is possible to use either one or both types mentioned above (Tai and Tam, 1997).
Table 2.1: AIO Categories of Life Style Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Demographics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Themselves</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobbies</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Social Issues</td>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>Social Events</td>
<td>Job</td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Family size</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>Dwelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club Membership</td>
<td>Fashion</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Geography</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Food</td>
<td>Products</td>
<td>City Size</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>Media</td>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Stage of Life Cycle</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Culture</td>
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In essence, the types of AIO statements used depend on the objectives of the psychographics research. AIO statements design to capture information as regards relevant aspects of consumer's personality, buying motives, interests, attitudes, beliefs and values, aim to reveal the broad patterns in marketplace. These statements are use in generic psychographics study by marketers to uncover new product opportunities. Good AIO items can be rendered from various sources. AIO statements sourced from Wilson (1966), Pessemier and Tigert (1966) and a set of unpublished studies by Social Research, Inc. for MacFadden-Bartell Corporation is annexed as Appendix II. It is worth to note that most studies would include demographic profiles with AIO statements in order to obtained clearer insights in consumer behaviour. Table 2.1 lists some of the variables that would be covered by Plummer's lifestyle inventories.

Many researchers have applied the concept of AOI to diverse applications and supplemented demographic information with descriptions of consumers' activities, interests, and opinions. Topics studied in this way include how a product's position could be defined through lifestyle variables (Alpert and Gatty, 1969); age and social class (Tigert, 1970); opinion leadership and information seeking (Reynolds and Darden, 1971); fashion interest and leadership (Summers, 1970); reactions to new product concepts (Nelson, 1971); furniture
store choice and preferences for furniture styles (Good and Suchland, 1970); lifestyle segmentation to commercial bank credit card usage (Plummer, 1971); profiled out shoppers based on psychographics variables (Reynolds and Darden, 1972); segments for apparel products (Richards and Stuman, 1977); develop a successful lottery in Britain (Smith and Thomas, 1995), predict sales at a new department store location (Leblang, 1993); understand service expectations with respect to health care (Thompson and Kaminski, 1993); study of the subcultures in Canada (Hui, Joy, Kim and Laroche, 1993); analyze complaint behaviour by elderly patients dissatisfied with their health care (Dolinsky et al., 1998); as well as develop dining menus at U.S.A. college campuses (Lipke, 2000).

Although lifestyle data are very useful in market segmentation and in developing international marketing strategy, Wells (1975) suggested that marketers have to be cautious when choosing lifestyle variables in their studies, as these variables are not as stable as demographic variables. Psychographics research has been criticized for a number of problems associated with its measurement and the validity of items arbitrarily selected for surveys. According to Wells (1975) standardized scales for psychographic research often achieve reliabilities ranging scales from 0.70 to 0.90, whereas homemade measurements may generate reliability values that range from under 0.30 to 0.90. The extend to which a measure is reliable affects future analysis of relationships with other variables of interest. In addition, a number of other researchers (Cote and Buckley, 1987, 1988; Kinnear and Taylor, 1976; Lastovicka, 1982; Rentz 1988; Wind, 1978) have questioned the reliability as well.

However, very little empirical research to date has been conducted on Malaysian lifestyle characters especially mobile phone users. It would be interesting to know whether differences exist in response to lifestyle profiles of mobile phone users in Malaysia.
2.5.1 PSYCHOGRAPHICS MEASUREMENT OF MALAYSIAN CONSUMER

In Malaysia, psychographics research is relatively new (Ho, 1988) though it has already been widely used in the West. The first official nationwide lifestyle study in Malaysia context was only conducted in 1988 by Survey Research Malaysia (SRM). The study involved 2,037 respondents and with the use of questionnaire consisted of 86 AIO statements. Malaysian consumers were divided into seven lifestyle groups, namely “The Yesterday People” (20%), “The Yuppies” (9%), “The New Breed” (19%), “The Chameleons” (14%), “The Loners” (9%), “The Kampong Trendsetters” (19%) and “The Sleep Walkers” (9%) (Ho, 1988).

Subsequently, in 1993, a Malaysian Lifestyle Study was conducted by SRM. The study involved 1,968 respondents and they have clustered the population of Malaysian into seven psychographic segments. The segments are “Pious Strivers” (27.3%), “Non-Conformists” (10.3%), “Chinese Contemporaries” (6.1%), “the Passive Liberals” (17.6%), “Young At Heart” (11.3%), “The ‘Tidak Apa’ Spendthrifts” (9.1%) and “the Caring Traditionalist” (18.3%) (Seow, 1997).

Seow (1997) researched the relationship between demographic characteristics and seven lifestyle characteristics of seven psychographic segments which have been previously identified in the 1993 Malaysian Lifestyle Study conducted by Survey Research Malaysia. This research results showed that some demographic variables namely, race, gender, age, personal income, household income, location, occupation, marital status and education, have relationship with the psychographic segments.

Rejab and Yacob’s (1986) study in Malaysian women’s lifestyle has shown that the Malaysian women population can similarly be segmented into various lifestyle groups by means of their activities, interests and opinion. In this study, Malaysian women were segmented into eight lifestyle groups by means of the 61 AIO items which have been modified to accommodate the local cultural variations. The eight statistically independent factors were “Traditional Mothers”, “Fashion-Conscious

Kaur (1990) investigated the demographic and psychographic characteristics that distinguish male credit card holders from non-holders in Kuala Lumpur and Petaling Jaya areas. The research result identified eight psychographic dimensions among male credit card users and non-users, namely, “Credit Disbeliever”, “Swinger or Achiever”, “Appearance Conscious”, “Self-Confident”, “Conservative”, “Social Active”, “Risk Oriented or Innovative”, and “Bargain Shopper”. The credit card users are found tend to be low in their disbelief in credit, more self-confident, socially active, risk oriented and less price conscious in purchase behaviour.

In Chong’s (1996) study to examine the product attributes, demographic and psychographic profiles of Malaysian female regular and no-regular consumers of lipstick and face powder, it was revealed that there is a significant relationship between psychographic factors with product usage. The regular consumers of both products are safety and appearance conscious while the regular consumers of lipstick are more quality minded and the regular consumers of face powder are more loyal to brand.

Ezlika’s (2000) research on demographic and lifestyle characteristics of active and passive investors in Malaysia identified four different lifestyle segments namely, “Self-Confident or Independent”, “Careful Spender”, “Risk Oriented or Innovative”, and “Debt Avoider”. The active investors were found more risk takers or innovative than the non-investor groups

2.6 MOBILE PHONE USER ATTITUDE, DEMOGRAPHICS AND LIFESTYLE

Numerous studies have also shown that individual differences or demographic variables play an important role in how information technology is used. Previous
research has suggested that all ICTs related products and services including TV, video games, computer, the plain old telephone and so on have distinctive gendered uses and meanings. Rakow and Navaro (1993) have already noted how the mobile phone can play a particular role for some women. The technology enables "remote mothering" by allowing mothers to keep track of and organize children even when those mothers are out of the home (Rakow and Navaro, 1993). As in general, it is the responsibility of woman to maintain the ongoing expressive production of the household, family and circle of friends, a review of social networking literature shows that it is women who often have larger and more complex network (Moore, 1990). Classie and Rowe (1993) reported that women use the telephone twice as much as men. However, in contrast to this explanation, the early adopters of technology are more likely to be male (Sajoughi, 2001).

In Denmark, at the end of 1996 the main market for the mobile phone is still the business area, but mobile phone has also become a must for a large number of people in their private lives. Danish women do have mobile phones, but they prefer to use the telephone at home for calls in general. The children in Denmark are a growing group of mobile phone users while the elderly people do not yet appear significantly in the mobile phone statistics even a few of them do have mobile phones but this is mainly to make themselves and the closest family feel secure (Haddon, 1997).

In Italy, the emergence of mobile telephony begun under the sign of fashion. Mobile phone has been carried, as it often was, in a suit pocket or close to the necktie, more likely to represent a violent aesthetic break (Haddon, 1997). South Korea is another early adopters nations who possess the technology savvy to rival that of anyone else on earth. One thing that is noticeable in Seoul is that Koreans do not seem to regard their cell phones as cell phones but rather as miniature multimedia entertainment or information centers. Koreans use their phones for multiplayer games over the network, snapping and sending pictures or video clips, and soon they will be moving to using them as maps. Thus, Korean
carriers do not just sell minutes and free weekends but they sell whole lifestyle (Aley, 2003).

A report by Telecom Industry Review in 2003 on a recent research conducted by Insight Research Corporation, United States, had revealed greater insights of complex ethnics consumer marketplace in United States. This research discerns some new telecommunication marketing opportunities to distinctive ethnic groups, which eventually offers further intelligence into market trends and market sizes. It discovers that some races such as Hispanics, Asians, and African-Americans are spending more on telecommunications than the general population. These ethnic groups represent 25 percent of the United States population, but they are responsible for a remarkable 29 percent of long distance revenue and 37 percent of local telephone service revenue. It was expected ethnic consumers will continue to spend tremendously on telecommunications services which serves a huge portion of revenue that could make or break the success of even the largest telecommunications company (Insight Research Corporation, 2003).

In addition, one segment of market that is worth mentioning will be the teenage segment. As mentioned by Leslie (1997), the children are a growing group of mobile phone users. Also, other analysis has shown that teenaged girls are heavy mobile telephone users. Indeed, in situation they use them more intensely than same aged boys (Ling and Vaage, 2000). The mobile phone and telephonic conversation are important moments in the definition of teenage. The pleasure and enjoyment of contacting friends and classmates or relatives living far-away passes via a cable are an opportunity that opening up the communication horizon desires as well as communicative needs, (Haddon, 1997). Young people seems to desire new technologies and enjoyed mastering them (Saljoughi, 2002).