IT'S THE THOUGHT THAT COUNTS:
A SIGNED DIGRAPH ANALYSIS OF GIFT-GIVING
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ABSTRACT

Gift-giving ranks high in importance among the neglected areas of consumer behavior deserving research attention. This paper presents and tests a model of gift selection based on cognitive consistency theories. The model, which is supported by the data presented, offers a means for predicting the conditions under which giver or recipient tastes dominate gift selection, and for predicting the amount of satisfaction which the gift brings the giver.
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GIFT-GIVING

The phenomenon of selecting an object or service "X" to present as a gift to person "Y" on occasion "Z" is a unique and important act of consumer behavior. Not only must the gift giver attempt to infer the recipient's tastes, needs, desires, and reactions, the gift selection may also be affected by the information which it would appear to convey about the giver and the giver-recipient relationship. It is not surprising therefore that Hansen (1972) and Gronhaug (1972) have found differences in decision outcomes and information sources when a product is purchased as a gift rather than for personal use. Furthermore, the ancient practice of gift-giving is still pervasive and significant in modern cultures. For instance, Lowes, Turner, and Wills (1971) cite a series of British Gallup Polls from 1963 through 1967, in which it was found that over 90 percent of the adult population did some Christmas gift-giving each year. Based on a more limited British sample, Bussey et al. (1967) found that the proportions of their Bradford sample giving wedding and birthday gifts during 1966, were both over 90 percent as well. And using another limited sample of middle and upper income families in Montreal, Caron and Ward (1975) found that third and fifth grade children received an average of between five and six gifts each at Christmas. Both because of its prevalence and because of its strong interpersonal meanings, gift-giving offers a potentially rich area for consumer behavioral explanation.

The Process of Gift-Giving Exchange

Gift-giving has been treated from a variety of related theoretical
perspectives, focusing primarily on the functions and effects of giving. The preeminent theoretical analysis of the gift-giving process is an essay by French anthropologist-sociologist Marcel Mauss (1923). Based on his examination of gift-giving among numerous primitive, remote, or ancient societies, Mauss concluded that gift-giving is a self-perpetuating system of reciprocity. More specifically, Mauss outlined three types of obligations which perpetuate gift-giving:

1. The obligation to give,
2. The obligation to receive,
3. The obligation to repay.

The obligation to give may be based on moral or religious imperatives, the need to recognize and maintain a status hierarchy, the need to establish or maintain peaceful relations, or simply the expectation of reciprocal giving. These motives, which do not admit purely selfless giving, become institutionalized in a society so that under appropriate conditions an individual is socially obligated to give. Receiving is seen as similarly obligatory, and avoiding or refusing gifts is construed as an unfriendly or even hostile act. Mauss noted however that there is a certain tension created in receiving a gift since acceptance is an implicit recognition of dependence on the giver. This tension may then be reduced by fulfilling the third obligation, the obligation to repay. Failure to repay or failure to repay adequately, results in a loss of status and self-esteem. Adequate or overly adequate repayment on the other hand, creates an obligation to repay on the part of the original giver, and the cycle is reinitiated.

Mauss' student, Claude Levi-Strauss (1965) has extended the characterization of gift-giving as reciprocal exchange and has emphasized the complex game playing involved. In his view emotions are given greater recognition,
and security of tangible social support is a major payoff for successful gift-giving participants. Levi-Strauss' student, Dillon (1968) has even applied these concepts to international relations, and suggested that the United States may be resented by many nations which receive U.S. aid because they are unable to reciprocate without losing autonomy. Jones (1964) has developed a comparable theory of ingratiatio in which gift-giving is one means of securing at least feigned affection. And Spenel (1971) has demonstrated that the use of advertising premiums may create in recipients a need to reciprocate by purchasing the advertiser's products.

Although not typically applied to gift-giving, the related perspectives of distributive justice theory (Homans, 1961) and equity theory (Adams, 1963) suggest further that "adequate" repayment may be determined relative to the reciprocating person's ability and resources. Thus a small gift from a child might adequately compensate a much more costly gift from an adult. Cultural differences may also affect perceptions of gift adequacy. For instance, Sherif and Sherif (1963) found that Navajo Indians judged that a gift of wearing apparel for a loved one had to cost in excess of $17 before it would bring pride to the giver, while for Black and White respondents, a $6 gift was seen as adequate to cause pride. In assessing the type of gift which constitutes an adequate exchange, Gouldner (1960) separated the cost to the giver and the value to the recipient as two independent factors involved in determining the worth of a gift. Tesser, Gatewood, and Driver (1968) found evidence of these predictions in measures of felt gratitude in hypothetical gift-giving scenarios, and also demonstrated increases in gratitude when the recipient perceived that the giver sincerely wished to bestow a benefit with the expectation of little or nothing in return. Whether givers are
frequently or ever motivated by such unselfish desires has been a matter of some debate. Leeds (1963) suggested that there are many instances in which the selfless "norm of giving" supercedes the "norm of reciprocity," and Titmus (1970) explains instances of anonymous unpaid blood donating this way. However a stream of research on helping behavior has generally failed to provide any compelling evidence of an altruism motive (see Krebs, 1970 and Bryan, 1972). While resolution of this debate may have important societal implications, at present Hauss' notion of obligatory exchange remains the most plausible explanation of the overall process of gift-giving.

The Act of Gift Selection

Schwartz (1967) noted that beyond the functions served by the general process of gift exchange, the characteristics of the gift itself also act as a powerful statement of the giver's perception of the recipient. He also suggested that acceptance of a particular gift constitutes an acknowledgment and acceptance of the identity that gift is seen to imply. Among children this may lead to lasting changes in self perceptions, but presumably gifts have less influence on the self concept of an adult. Nevertheless the importance of this symbolic function of gift selection appears clear enough in a gift shop's recent magazine advertisement which asked, "Is your sister-in-law a copper beating bowl or a twenty dollar bill?"

The advertisement just noted went on to ask "Do you want your gifts to tell someone how creative you are, how thoughtful you are, or just how big your Christmas bonus was? Do you buy with a specific price or a specific personality in mind?" While the answers to such basic questions about gift selection may be personally evident, the underlying behavioral questions have not been addressed by empirical research. A useful behavioral
rephrasing of the key issues here might be:

1. To what extent and under what conditions is *gift* selection based on giver traits and preferences?
2. To what extent and under what conditions is *gift* selection based on giver perceptions of recipient traits and preferences?
3. To what extent and under what conditions is *gift* selection based on both of the above considerations?

That is, when does the taste of the giver replace or compliment inferences about the taste of the recipient in determining choice of *gifts*? The answer, this study hypothesized, lies in a balance theoretic interpretation of *gift* selection.

**BALANCE IN GIFT-GIVING**

Just as the norm of reciprocity predicts a tendency toward value balance in the longitudinal process of *gift-giving*, so too may we expect a preference for balance in an individual's momentary cognitions about *gift selection*. For instance, if the giver likes the recipient and likes the *gift* chosen, for balance to occur the recipient should also be expected to like the *gift*. So far this is the simple P-O-X triad of Heider (1958). However more than this is involved. Consider a case in which the giver is a 12-year-old boy and the recipient is his 35-year-old mother. The boy would not predict that because he loves his mother and also likes footballs that his mother should also appreciate receiving a *football* for her birthday. (Although interestingly people may sometimes seek this sort of balance in order to obtain consensual validation of personal tastes.) What is needed instead is a consideration of the extent to which the giver and receiver are
similar. With the introduction of this relationship, the prediction becomes that a liked recipient should (for balance) be expected to like a gift which the giver dislikes, if the giver and receiver are very dissimilar. But there is still one further relationship which modifies this prediction: the giver's degree of satisfaction with his or her self concept. The full paradigm with this last relationship is shown in Figure 1.

--- INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE ---

The bottom triad (p-o-c) of this figure is the basic Heider balance model with which we began. The top (P-P'-0) triad is a modified version of Byrne's (1971) attraction paradigm. Essentially Byrne hypothesized that greater similarity between persons causes greater attraction between them. Byrne amassed much evidence supporting this hypothesis, although it has not gone unchallenged (See Taylor, 1970). The modification of the attraction paradigm here is the addition of self concept. This modification is supported by some evidence of the attraction-modifying effect of differences
between self concept and ideal self concept (Byrne, 1963; Deutsch and Solomon, 1959) and by the propositions of Secord (1968) and Smith (1968) that other types of balance are affected by self evaluation as well. The remaining four-element relationship in Figure 1 (P-P'-O-G) suggests that the giver would select a personally appealing gift for a similar recipient who is also perceived to like such a gift only when the giver's self concept is positive. To make such a selection when the giver's self concept is negative would cause imbalance due to doubt about the worth of a gift which appeals to a giver who perceives little self worth (Neisser, 1973). But this balance prediction is based only on the P-P'-O-G loop in the paradigm. To assess total balance, the P-P'-O and P-O-G triads must also be considered. An understanding of balance in this context requires further discussion of the signed digraph.

**Measuring Balance in a Signed Digraph**

A directed graph or "digraph" consists of a set of points (representing concepts), a set of lines connecting them (representing concept relationships), and a set of pointers (showing direction of relationships). In the digraph of Figure 1, the sign of the relationship is also shown (relationships involving the words in parentheses are negative, so this is a signed digraph. Development of techniques for analyzing signed digraphs is still progressing, but has made the most progress in studies of small group structural balance (Cartwright and Harary, 1956; Harary, Norman, and Cartwright, 1965; Feather, 1964) and mutual casual systems (Haruvama, 1960, 1963; Roberts, 1971). Using a set of theorems derived by Harary, Norman and Cartwright (1965), the basis for assessing digraph balance is semicycle balance. A semicycle is a
subset of points \( x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \), together with \( n-1 \) lines connecting adjacent pairs of these points, such that a path may be followed from \( x_1 \) through all other points in the subset and back to \( x_1 \), without passing through any point more than once. Thus \( P-P'-O-P, P-O-G-P, \) and \( P-P'-O-G-P \) are the semicycles in Figure 1. A semi-cycle is balanced if the product of its signs is positive. The two triads here are each balanced by the occurrence of zero or two negative signs and the \( P-P'-O-G-P \) semicycle can be balanced by zero, two, or four negative signs. For balance of the complete signed digraph, all three of these semicycles must be balanced. Of the 32 configurations possible, only those eight shown in Figure 2 are balanced by this rule.

For predictive purposes it is also desirable to be able to measure the degree of balance of a signed digraph. Although several methods have been proposed (Harary Norman and Cartwright, 1965; Marrissette, 1958; Morrissette, Jahnke, and Baker, 1966; Abelson and Rosenberg, 1958), the present application is a fairly general one based on recent work by Norman and Roberts (1972a, b). The measure of the form \( \sum f(m) \frac{c^+_m}{f(m) c^-_m} \), where \( c^+_m \) is the number of balanced semicycles of length \( m \), \( c^-_m \) is the total number of semicycles of length \( m \), and \( f(m) \) is a monotone decreasing function of \( m \). This amounts to weighting shorter semicycles more heavily than larger semicycles, because they represent more direct chains of reasoning. Norman and Roberts (1972a) provide some discussion of how to choose the function \( f(m) \), but in the present model any decreasing monotone function provides the same balance ordering of configurations, and \( 1/m \) was chosen. Using this weighting function, Table 1 shows the possible balance ratios.
Conditions and Consequences of Imbalance

The prediction of all balance and related consistency theories is not that digraphs are always balanced, but rather that imbalance creates tension and pressures toward balance. Longitudinally this should result in a change toward balance (Taylor’s (1970) "Balance tendency") when imbalance occurs. At a fixed time, balance pressures should cause individual to choose balance over imbalance (Taylor's (1970) "Balance Preference"). Since the current study is a cross-sectional examination of gift giving, it represents a test of the balance preference hypothesis. The study also measures balance after gift reception, so that some imbalance may occur solely because the giver was incorrect in estimating recipient preferences. Such misestimation is predicted to be more probable in instances in which the gift giver is not highly familiar with the recipient and where the giver and recipient have not established a history of reciprocal gift exchange. When imbalance does occur it is predicted that the giver will report more dissatisfaction with the gift selection than in instances involving balanced configurations. Such dissatisfaction should be a reflection of tension and an incentive for subsequent charges in cognitions or gift-giving behaviors involving the same recipient. The greater the degree of imbalance in a particular exchange, the stronger the relationships with the predicted antecedent and consequent conditions should be.

THE STUDY

Methods

The data to be presented are initial results from an intensive study of gift-giving by 73 residents of metropolitan Philadelphia during 1973. Participants were recruited from several church, school, and civic groups, and ranged in age from 14 to 65. Each subject received a self-administered
questionnaire booklet, a return envelope, and instructions for completing the questionnaire. The 73 usable responses were obtained from 76 questionnaires returned from the 118 distributed. The portion of the questionnaire to be analyzed here asked each subject to describe three instances of recent (the past year's) gift-giving and to describe certain personal characteristics. Since it was necessary that respondents also describe recipient characteristics, several reported instances had to be eliminated where the recipient was a newborn baby or infant. Also eliminated from analysis were several instances in which a couple of family rather than an individual was the gift recipient. This left 193 gift-giving instances for analysis.

Descriptions of the operationalized measures of the relationships specified in Figure 1 are given below. Even though some of these measures were initially continuous, they were converted to dichotomies (positive/negative) for analysis.

P-P' A modified version of the Index of Adjustment and Values by Bills, Vance, and McLean (1931) was used to measure actual and ideal self concept. This instrument had subjects rate themselves on a series of 40 adjectives (Table 2) using three separate five point scales representing self concept, satisfaction with self concept, and ideal self concept. The sum of the absolute differences between actual and ideal scores on each attribute was taken as a measure of self evaluation, and a level approximating a median split was chosen to yield a positive/negative rendering of the P-P' relationship.

P'-O The same set of adjectives shown in Table 2 were used in measures of giver perceptions of the recipient on five point scales comparable to those used in measuring self-concept. The sum of absolute differences between actual self-concept scores and perceived recipient scores on each attribute was taken as a
measure of giver-receiver similarity. The same level used in assessing the sign of $P-P'$ was used to categorize similar (+) and dissimilar (-) $P'-O$ relationships. This resulted in approximately three-fourths of these relationships being categorized as dissimilar.

$P-O$ The giver's liking of the recipient was measured on a five point scale ranging from "I like this person as much as I do anyone" to "I dislike this person as much as I do anyone." Even considering the neutral category to be a "dislike" evaluation, only 10 recipients were evaluated negatively. Some social desireability must be present in these responses, but it is also reasonable to assume that gifts are not normally given to people who are disliked.

$P-G$ The giver's evaluation of the gift was taken from a five point scale ranging from "not at all appealing" to "appeals to me very much." The mid-point "mildly appealing", was considered to be positive, leaving only about one-fourth of the $P-G$ evaluations in the negative category.

$O-G$ The giver's perception of the recipient's affect toward the gift was obtained from a forced-choice question following the description of all three gift-giving instances. At this point the subject was asked with which of the three gifts the recipient was most pleased. The alternative responses, "none seemed especially pleased" and "all seemed about equally pleased" were also allowed. For a particular gift, if the latter alternative or that gift was cited, a positive sign was recorded; otherwise a negative sign was recorded. Overall this resulted in approximately 40 percent negative signs for the $O-G$ relationship. Basing categorizations in this manner on relative recipient evaluations, was intended to overcome the positive evaluation bias which would otherwise be present due to the social desireability of gift acceptance over gift rejection.
more likely when the giver and recipient had not established a prior history of reciprocal giving and when the recipient was not a close member of the giver's family. As Table 5 illustrates, these antecedent conditions were related to the degree of balance obtained as hypothesized. Gift giving instances involving close relatives and a prior history of gift exchange were most likely to result in balanced cognitive configurations.

DISCUSSION

The proposed model of balance in gift giving has been found to be viable and useful in understanding the process of gift selection and evaluation. While current data points are momentary instances in the often on-going process of gift exchange between a giver and a recipient, a general preference for balance was observed at these points. Moreover in instances in which balance was not present, strong evidence was found of giver dissatisfaction, or unresolved tension in the cognitive system examined. This tension might then be reduced in several ways. If feasible, cognitive restructuring of the digraph signs should be the preferred means of tension reduction. It is likely that some such restructuring had already taken place at the time when the current data was collected. Nevertheless, the many remaining instances of imbalance show that this means of tension reduction may be limited. Limits would exist for instance in the willingness of a giver to change a self-evaluation or an evaluation or perception of the characteristics of a close family member recipient. When restructuring fails, two alternative means of reducing tension remain when the giver is able to minimize the importance of the gift (and the nature of the occasion does not contradict the minimization)
and when the giver is able to deny that free choice of gifts was available (perhaps due to time pressure or following another's suggestion). Eventually unresolved tension might be canceled by comparable imbalance (as seen by the current giver) in the original recipient's choice of a reciprocal gift. This would in effect be saying "Now I don't feel so badly because you have made a similar mistake."). Finally, since gift giving is often a recurring situation, the giver may learn from imbalance to adjust his expectations and choices at the next opportunity in order to achieve balance on that occasion. This learning process is reflected in the current findings that there is less likely to be imbalance when the recipient is a close family member and when there is a prior history of reciprocal giving.

While the present application of signed digraph analysis has used cross-sectional survey data, the technique is also receptive to the longitudinal and experimental data which will be needed for more complete testing of the model. Furthermore, as Roberts (1971) points out, many refinements of the current methods of modeling and analysis are possible. For instance, rather than simply measure the direction of a relationship, it is possible to incorporate strength of the relationship into calculations of balance; rather than assume that the relationship between two variables is linear, more complex functions might be fitted. Even without such refinements signed digraph analysis appears to be a helpful means of considering sets of innerlinked variable relationships and testing both static and dynamic predictions from such sets. As such it should find growing use in examinations of the many processes of interest on consumer behavior.
CONCLUSION

There can be little doubt that gift-giving is a pervasive experience in human life and consumer behavior. Compared to more routine consumer purchases, gift selection is a very deliberate and highly involving type of consumer choice, and should prove a fruitful area for the development and testing of consumer behavioral concepts. Despite the additional variables which gift-giving introduces to conceptions of consumer behavior (e.g. characteristics of the recipient, giver-receiver similarity, nature of the occasion), the present findings suggest that preference for cognitive balance is a concept which can go far toward explaining gift selection and evaluation. In addition to demonstrating some utility for a balance theoretic interpretation of gift-giving, this paper has noted several related theoretical perspectives to which little attention has yet been given. Both the importance of the problem areas and the existence of theoretical bases, demand that the acts and processes of gift selection, reception, and exchange, receive increased attention in future research.
FOOTNOTES

1 While gift-giving may be more broadly conceived to include philanthropic, political, and religious donations of money and services, blood and other medical donations, and altruistic behavior in general, the focus of this paper is on those aspects of gift-giving involving the selection and transfer of material objects and purchased services offered in fulfillment of a traditional social obligation, such as a birthday, Christmas, or wedding anniversary present.

2 It will be noted that these characteristics of gift-giving bear some relationship to instances in which one family member acts as a "purchasing agent" for other family members. But compared to gift-giving, such purchasing is more routine, less laden with symbolic meanings, and more typically involves repeated purchases of minor nondurables. The distinction between routine family purchasing and gift-giving might also be seen in terms of differences in perceived risk (see Hart, 1973).

3 Actually it is the giver's perceptions of giver-recipient similarity and recipient gift evaluation that matter in approaching balance from the point of view of the giver (who controls the important behavioral link of the paradigm through selection of the gift).

4 Responses were collected during May and June.
FIGURE 1

GIFT-GIVING DIGRAPH

FIGURE 2

EIGHT BALANCED GIFT-GIVING CONFIGURATIONS

a. 

b. 

c. 

d. 

e. 

f. 

g. 

h.
### TABLE 1

**POSSIBLE BALANCE RATIOS FOR A DIGRAPH WITH 2 SEMICYCLES OF LENGTH THREE AND 1 SEMICYCLE OF LENGTH FOUR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Configuration Type</th>
<th>Number of Balanced Semicycles</th>
<th>Balance Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Length $m = Three$</td>
<td>Length $m = Four$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3**</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6**</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Using Balance = $\Sigma(1/m)c_m + \Sigma (1/m) c_m$

**Impossible to obtain in present digraph structure

### TABLE 2

**ADJECTIVES USED IN MEASURING GIVER SELF-CONCEPT AND RECIPIENT PERCEPTION**

1. Adventurous  
2. Appreciative  
3. Artistic  
4. Attractive  
5. Broad-minded  
6. Busy  
7. Calm  
8. Clever  
9. Competitive  
10. Confident  
11. Considerate  
12. Cruel  
13. Dependable  
14. Emotional  
15. Energetic  
16. Fashionable  
17. Fault-finding  
18. Friendly  
19. Fun-loving  
20. Generous  
21. Helpful  
22. Imaginative  
23. Informal  
24. Intelligent  
25. Interesting  
26. Kind  
27. Mature  
28. Merry  
29. Outgoing  
30. Orderly  
31. Poised  
32. Reckless  
33. Sarcastic  
34. Selfish  
35. Sincere  
36. Stubborn  
37. Successful  
38. Tactful  
39. Thrifty  
40. Unconventional
TABLE 3

OBSERVED VERSUS EXPECTED FREQUENCIES
OF CONFIGURATION BALANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Balance Ratio*</th>
<th>Expected Frequency**</th>
<th>Observed Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00 (completely balanced)</td>
<td>55 (28.5%)</td>
<td>77 (39.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.40</td>
<td>96 (49.7%)</td>
<td>79 (41.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.30 (least balanced)</td>
<td>42 (21.8%)</td>
<td>37 (19.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>193 (100.0%)</td>
<td>193 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Badness of fit: $\chi^2 = 12.1$ ($p < .001$)

*From Table 2

**Assuming independence of relationships: calculated as product of the obtained proportions of each sign that is involved in a configuration; resulting proportions are then multiplied by total number of observations (193) and the expected frequencies are added for all configurations which yield the same balance ratio.

Example

The approximate obtained proportion of positive signs for each relationship in the model is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>$p(\text{+})$</th>
<th>$p(\text{-})$</th>
<th>$p(\text{+}) + p(\text{-})$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P-P</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-0</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-G</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P'-O</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-G</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore the joint expected proportion of all cases of the balanced digraph in Figure 2a. (in which all signs are positive) is (.50) (.95) (.75) (.25) (.60) = .05 of 193, or 10 cases of the configuration. (Sixteen such configurations were actually obtained.)

** corrected for continuity
### TABLE 4

**SATISFACTION WITH GIFT SELECTION AS A FUNCTION OF DEGREE OF CONFIGURATION BALANCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Balance Ratio</th>
<th>Satisfaction with Gift Selection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (75.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 (completely balanced)</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.40</td>
<td>39 (49.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.30 (least balanced)</td>
<td>13 (35.1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 18.1 \ (p \leq .001) \]

### TABLE 5

**CONFIGURATION BALANCE AS A FUNCTION OF GIFT EXCHANGE HISTORY AND RELATIONSHIP WITH RECIPIENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Balance Ratio</th>
<th>Prior Two-way Gift Exchange?</th>
<th>Relationship with Recipient</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No (14.8%)</td>
<td>Yes (35.2%)</td>
<td>Close* (60.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 (completely balanced)</td>
<td>8 (14.8%)</td>
<td>69 (35.2%)</td>
<td>60 (77.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.40</td>
<td>15 (19.0%)</td>
<td>64 (81.0%)</td>
<td>49 (62.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.30 (least balanced)</td>
<td>11 (29.7%)</td>
<td>26 (70.3%)</td>
<td>16 (43.2%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 6.6 \ (p \leq .05) \]

\[ \chi^2 = 15.1 \ (p \leq .001) \]

*Giver's child, parent, spouse or intended spouse, sibling, grandparent, or grandchild. Does not include more distant relatives, in-law, friends, co-workers, neighbors, or others.*


Grønhaug, K. "Buying Situation and Buyer's Information Behavior," European Marketing Research Review, 7 (1972), 33-68.


