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THE INFLUENCE OF DEMOGRAPHIC-PERCEPTION AND
CULTURAL-VALUES ON
STATUS / CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION
IN SRI LANKA

*A Comparison of Cross Cultural-Perception of Sri Lankan
Status-Seeking Consumers*

DOCTORAL RESEARCH THESIS
SUBMITTED TO
THE WAYAMBA UNIVERSITY OF SRI LANKA

BY
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Wayamba University of Sri Lanka
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15 July 2013

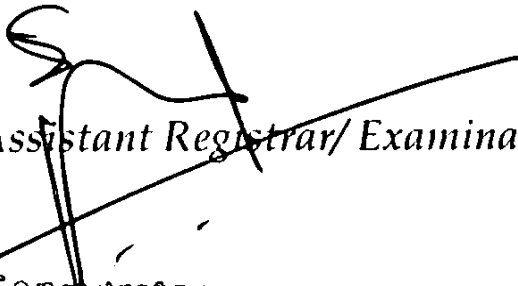


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This thesis has been accepted by the Wayamba University of Sri Lanka for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

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DECLARATION

I hereby certify that this Research Thesis does not incorporate any material previously submitted for a Masters / PhD programme in any University or Institution to the best of my knowledge and it does not contain any material previously published or written by any other person except where due references have been made in the text.

Date 15th July 2013

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Abstract

In contemporary marketing philosophy, conspicuous consumption is a most imprecise concept, and one that could be defined to have an infinite number of meaning in both scholarly and every day discussions. It only acquires a more useful meaning when it makes a reference for theories, contexts, and practices concerning the luxuries market. Clearly, it is an evaluative concept that establishes the ground rules for debate what motivate conspicuous consumption and how marketers can inculcate consumers by adding different symbolic meanings to their products. In this focus, this research addressed three main research questions. First, can the structure and nature of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products be identified? Second, are there differences between consumers from different nationalities in their motives for consuming conspicuous products? Third, how consumers with different demographic characteristics differ in conspicuous consumptions?

For this research, data was obtained from four nationalities using stratified random sample technique. Since an urban setting leads to a greater need to use visible consumption to gain status, this research purposely excluded the views of rural respondents. A total of 2,382 (Sinhalese N=1020; Indian Tamils N=335; Sri Lankan Tamils N=427; Muslims N=600) usable responses were obtained.

In respect of the first research question, a model of motives for conspicuous consumption was developed and then it was empirically tested. This model proposed that four forms of motives would exist; status, uniqueness, conformist, and hedonic. In this study, a four factor model of consumer motives was uncovered, consisting of all four forms of conspicuous motives stated above. Hedonic motive emerged as the most important motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. This is followed

by uniqueness and status motives. Conformist motive was the least important form of motive for conspicuous consumption. This finding suggests that the conventional emphasis in the conspicuous products literature, on status as a motive of conspicuous consumption, may be misplaced.

In respect of the second research question, statistically significant differences were found in cultural value orientations based on respondents' nationality. Correlation analysis and a series of multiple regressions were conducted in order to investigate the relationship between cultural orientation and motives for consuming conspicuous products. PDI, IDV, MAS, and UAI were found to be related to status motive. PDI, IDV, MAS, and LTO were related to uniqueness motive, and PDI, MAS, UAI, and LTO were found to be related to hedonic motive. Other than PDI, all other cultural value dimensions were related to conformist motive.

In order to investigate the third and final research question, it was needed to explore the respondents' demographic characteristic. Correlation analysis and a series of multiple regressions were conducted to investigate the relationship between respondents' demographics and motives for consuming conspicuous products. According to the findings, uniqueness motive was found to be related to respondents' gender, age, income, education, and nationality and status motive was related with respondents' gender, income, education, and nationality. Further, results reveal that the respondents' age, income, and education were significantly contributed to the prediction of hedonic motive, whereas their income, nationality, and household size were significantly contributed to the prediction of conformist motive.

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Table of Content

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	xi
List of Abbreviations	xii

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1.	Motivation for Research	1
1.2.	Conspicuous Consumption: The Concept	4
1.3.	Empirical Research Problem	9
1.4.	The Objectives of the Study	10
1.5.	Significance of the Study	11
1.6.	Organization of the Thesis	16

CHAPTER 2: Review of Literature

2.1.	Introduction	18
2.2.	Conspicuous Consumption - Concepts and Definitions	19
2.2.1.	Theoretical Aspects of Conspicuous Consumption	19
2.2.2.	Behavioural Aspects of Conspicuous Consumption	22
2.3.	Evolution of Conspicuous Consumption	25
2.4.	Motives for Conspicuous Consumption	31
2.4.1.	Veblen, Bandwagon, and Snob Effects	33
2.4.2.	Conformist, Uniqueness, Status, & Hedonic Motives	35
2.5.	Product Qualified for Conspicuous Consumption	39
2.6.	Cultural Values	43
2.6.1.	Cultural Value Theory	46
2.6.2.	Hofstede's Cultural Value Model	50
2.6.3.	Schwartz's Cultural Value Model	54
2.6.4.	Cultural Values and Conspicuous Consumption	59
2.7.	Consumer Demographics	61
2.7.1.	Consumer Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption	62
2.8.	Empirical Evidence for Influence of Cultural Values and Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption	64
2.8.1.	Influence of Cultural Values on Conspicuous Consumption	65
2.8.2.	Influence of Consumer Demographic on Conspicuous Consumption	70
2.9.	Summary	79

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

3.1.	Introduction	84
3.2.	Conceptual Framework	84
3.3.	Theoretical Model Building and Hypotheses	87

3.4.	Data Collection	98
3.4.1.	Secondary Data	98
3.4.2.	Primary Data	98
3.4.3.	Focus Group Discussions	99
3.4.4.	Development of the Instrument	101
3.4.4.1.	Translation of the Instrument from English to Sinhala and Tamil	106
3.4.4.2.	Administration of Questionnaire	106
3.4.4.3.	Formulas for index calculation	107
3.4.4.4.	Construct Validity and Reliability	109
3.4.4.5.	Pre-testing of the Questionnaire	110
3.5.	Research Sample	111
3.6.	Data analysis	114
3.6.1.	Choice of Statistical Tests	115
3.6.1.1.	Factor Analysis	115
3.6.1.2.	One Sample <i>T</i> -test	115
3.6.1.3.	ANOVA	116
3.6.1.4.	MANOVA	116
3.6.1.5.	Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression	116

CHAPTER 4: Results and Discussion

4.1.	Introduction	118
4.2.	Demographic characteristics of the sample	118
4.2.1.	Age, Marital Status and Gender	119
4.2.2.	Religion, Family Size and Education of Respondents	120
4.2.3.	Employment and Monthly Income of Respondents	121
4.3.	Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Consumption	122
4.3.1.	Respondents' Concentration on Conspicuous Consumption	123
4.3.2.	Motives of Conspicuous Consumption	125
4.3.2.1.	Factor Analysis	126
4.3.2.2.	Multicollinearity Test for Motives of Conspicuous Consumption	130
4.3.2.3.	Analysis of Mean Scores	131
4.3.3.	Analysis of Differences / Similarities between Nationalities in Motivation for Consuming Conspicuous Products	135
4.3.3.1.	MANOVA	135
4.3.3.2.	Univariate ANOVAs	136
4.3.3.3.	Test of Between-Subjects Effects	136
4.3.3.4.	Multiple Comparisons	136
4.3.4.	Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Products	140
4.4.	Cultural Orientation of Respondents	144
4.4.1.	Factor Analysis	144
4.4.2.	Multicollinearity Test for Cultural Value Factors	149
4.4.3.	Relative Cultural Orientation Different Ethnic Groups	150

4.4.3.1.	Rank Order Analysis	150
4.4.4.	Analysis of Differences / Similarities between Nationalities in Cultural Value Orientations	153
4.4.4.1.	One-way MANOVA	156
4.4.4.2.	Univariate ANOVAs and Multiple Comparisons	157
4.4.4.3.	Hofstede Scores for Different Nationalities	160
4.5.	Relationship between Cultural Orientation and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products	162
4.5.1.	Pearson Product Moment Correlation	162
4.5.2.	Multiple Regression	164
4.5.2.1.	CVDs and Status Motive	165
4.5.2.2.	CVDs and Uniqueness Motive	166
4.5.2.3.	CVDs and Hedonic Motive	168
4.5.2.4.	CVDs and Conformist Motive	170
4.6.	Relationship between Respondents' Demographic Characteristics and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products	172
4.6.1.	Pearson Product Moment Correlation	173
4.6.2.	Multiple Regression	174
4.6.2.1	RDCs and Uniqueness Motive	175
4.6.2.2.	RDCs and Status Motive	176
4.6.2.3.	RDCs and Hedonic Motive	176
4.6.2.4.	RDCs and Conformist Motive	177

CHAPTER 5: Conclusion

5.1.	Introduction	181
5.2.	Structure and Nature of Motives for the Conspicuous Consumption	183
5.2.1.	Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Products	183
5.2.2.	Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Consumption	184
5.2.3.	Structure of Motives for Consumption of the Conspicuous Products	186
5.2.4.	Results of Differences and Similarities in Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products	187
5.3.	Structure and Nature of Cultural Orientation	190
5.3.1.	Results of Differences and Similarities in Cultural Value Orientations amongst Nationalities	191
5.4.	CVDs and Motives for consuming Conspicuous Products	196
5.4.1.	CVDs and Status Motive	196
5.4.2.	CVDs and Uniqueness Motive	198
5.4.3.	CVDs and Hedonic Motive	200
5.4.4.	CVDs and Conformist Motive	201
5.5.	Influence of Respondents' Demographic Characteristics on Motives for Conspicuous Consumption	202
5.5.1.	Relationship between RDCs and CCMs for Consuming Conspicuous Products	202
5.6.	Practical and Theoretical Implication	206

5.7.	Future Direction	212
5.8.	Limitations of Research	213

Appendices

APPENDIX A:	List of References	215
APPENDIX B:	Cited Journal List	242
APPENDIX C:	Literature Matrix	244
APPENDIX D:	Focus Group Interview Guide	253
APPENDIX E:	Q-Sort Exercise and Initial Item Pool	254
APPENDIX F:	Questionnaire – English & Sinhala Versions	256
APPENDIX G:	Questionnaire – Tamil Versions	262
APPENDIX H:	Rotated Factor Matrix for CCM & CVD's	266

List of Tables

Table 2.1.	Evolution, Nature & Character of Conspicuous Consumption	26
Table 2.2.	Nature of the Motives for Conspicuous Consumption	32
Table 2.3.	Most Recognized Conspicuous Goods	42
Table 2.4.	Categorization of CVD's Identified in the Literature	49
Table 2.5.	Hofstede Scores for Four Countries	50
Table 2.6.	Schwartz's Seven Cultural Value Dimensions	57
Table 2.7.	Summary of Major Cultural Orientation Studies	58
Table 2.8.	Cultural Values and Conspicuous consumption	69
Table 2.9.	Consumer-Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption	78
Table 3.1.	Research Designs	86
Table 3.2.	Journals Referenced	89
Table 3.3.	Primary and Secondary Information Sources	98
Table 3.4.	Index Formula for Hofstede's Cultural Values	108
Table 3.5.	Adjusted Index Formula for Hofstede's Cultural Values	109
Table 3.6.	Population Composition by Ethnicity	113
Table 3.7.	Sample Design	114
Table 4.1.	Age, Marital Status and Gender of Respondents	119
Table 4.2.	Religion, Family Size, & Education Level of Respondents	121
Table 4.3.	Job/Profession & Monthly Income of Respondents	122
Table 4.4.	Conspicuous Consumption in different Nationalities	125
Table 4.5.	Multiple Comparisons of the Respondents' CC	125
Table 4.6.	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) and Bartlett's Test	127
Table 4.7.	Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance of Factors for Conspicuous Motives	127
Table 4.8.	Interpretation of the Factor Matrix	129
Table 4.9.	Final Rotated Factor Matrix for Motives of CC Data	130
Table 4.10.	Regression Analysis - Multicollinearity Test for CC	131
Table 4.11.	Means, T-Test and ANOVA for CC Motives	132
Table 4.12.	Multivariate Tests for Respondents' Motives for CC	135
Table 4.13.	Multiple Comparisons for Conspicuous Motives	137
Table 4.14.	Respondents' Nationality and Conspicuous Products	141
Table 4.15.	Respondents' Nationality, Gender and Conspicuous Products	142

Table 4.16.	Respondents Monthly Income and Conspicuous Products	143
Table 4.17.	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure and Bartlett's Test for CVs	145
Table 4.18.	Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance of Factors for CVDs	145
Table 4.19.	Interpretation of the Factor Matrix for CVDs	147
Table 4.20.	Final Rotated Factor Matrix for Cultural Values Data	148
Table 4.21.	Regression Analysis – Multicollinearity Test for CVs	149
Table 4.22.	Rank Order Numbers for Cultural Values	150
Table 4.23.	Percentage of Respondents based on Importance attached to each Cultural Value	152
Table 4.24.	Means and Significance Testing on Cultural Orientation Factors	156
Table 4.25.	Multiple Comparisons Table for Respondents' Cultural Values	158
Table 4.26.	Adjusted Scores for Hofstede's CVDs among Different Nationalities	161
Table 4.27.	Correlation Analysis of CVDs and Conspicuous Motives Factors	163
Table 4.28.	The Regression of Status Motive with CVDs	165
Table 4.29.	The Regression of Uniqueness Motive with CVDs	167
Table 4.30.	The Regression of Hedonic Motive with CVDs	169
Table 4.31.	The Regression of Conformist Motive with CVDs	170
Table 4.32.	Correlations between RDCs & Conspicuous Motives	173
Table 4.33.	The Multiple Regression of Conspicuous Motive with RDC's	175
Table 5.1.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Motivates for Consuming Conspicuous Products	189
Table 5.2.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Differences between SN, MS, SLT, and INT in their Motivates for Consuming Luxury Products	195
Table 5.3.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Status Motive	197
Table 5.4.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Uniqueness Motive	199
Table 5.5.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Hedonic Motive	200
Table 5.6.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Conformist Motive	202
Table 5.7.	Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between RDCs and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products	204

List of Figures

Figure 2.1.	Conformist, Uniqueness, Status, & Hedonic Motives	36
Figure 2.2.	Mary Gouglas' Grid-Group-Typology Model	47
Figure 2.3.	Theoretical distribution of Value Scores in a Collectivist and an Individualist Culture	47
Figure 3.1.	Conceptual Framework	88
Figure 3.2.	Proposed Model of Consumer Motives for the Consumption of Conspicuous Products	91
Figure 3.3.	Proposed Model of Consumer Motives for the Conspicuous Consumption in Sri Lanka	92
Figure 3.4.	Proposed Model of Cultural Value influence on Conspicuous Consumption	93
Figure 3.5.	Research Model: Influence of Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption	96
Figure 3.6.	Research Model: Influence of Cultural Orientation and Consumer-Demographics on Motivates for Conspicuous Consumption	97
Figure 4.1.	Veblen, Snob, Bandwagon Effects on Conspicuous Consumption	124
Figure 4.2.	Normality Test for Conspicuous Consumption	124
Figure 4.3.	The Scree Plot for the Factor Analysis for Motives for CC	128
Figure 4.4.	Motives for Conspicuous Consumption	133
Figure 4.5.	Mean Scores for Respondents' Motives for CC	140
Figure 4.6.	The Scree Plot for the Factor Analysis for Cultural Values	146
Figure 4.7.	Visual Representation of the Cultural Orientation of Respondents	154
Figure 4.8.	Mean Scores for Cultural Values of Respondents	160

List of Abbreviations

CC	Conspicuous Consumption
CM	Conformist Motive
CVDs	Cultural Value Dimensions
HM	Hedonic Motive
IDV	Individualism
INT	Indian Tamils
LTO	Long-term Orientation
MAS	Masculinity
MCC	Motive for Conspicuous Consumption
MS	Muslims
PDI	Power Distance
RDCs	Respondent's Demographic Characteristics
SH	Sinhalese
SLT	Sri Lankan Tamils
SM	Status Motive
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance
UM	Uniqueness Motive

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Motivation for Research

Some of the questions in front of us are the reasons for the consumption of conspicuous products and whether people consume these products for their survival or to indicate their status? According to Kerwin *et.al*, (2007) the visible consumption of conspicuous products accounts roughly for 12 percent of total household expenditure. At the same time, the visible consumption expenditure of a typical luxury consumer has increased by 18 percent between 2005 and 2006 (Unity Marketing, 2006) and it is higher than the average increase. It indicates that demand for luxury products will grow by five to seven percent per annum over the time (Braithwaite, 2005, cited by Allison, 2008). Because of this spectacular growth of luxury markets during the past few decades, recent marketing literature has focussed substantially on conspicuous consumption tendencies. For example, McCracken (1987) said that *conspicuous consumption is especially important to study because they play such an important role in the growth of a consumer society (p. 50).*

Veblen (1899) coined the term “Conspicuous Consumption” to explain the lavish spending on goods and services mainly for the purpose of displaying income or wealth by the leisure class of a society and thus, in 19th century, this term focused only on the basics of the upper-class consumers. However, as a result of the effects of considerably improved socially-created wealth (i.e. socio-economic status) and living standards as well as with the emergence of the middle class in the 20th century, the term conspicuous consumption became popular and at present, it refers to consumption patterns that are status driven. Sezgin *et.al*, (2009) stated that

conspicuous consumption expenditures could be observed in all social strata attracting the attention of researchers to focus on theoretical implications of conspicuousness forces on the buying behavior of the consumer.

As a result, two important motives of conspicuous consumption were developed as: (1) the desire of privileged group to distinguish themselves from followers, and (2) the countervailing desire of followers to incorporate with privileged group (Amaldoss *et al*, 2005; Chan & Goldthorpe, 2007). Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) introduced another concept that is “esteem indication”, which determines the elevation in societal hierarchy as a predictor of conspicuous consumption. They proposed that the individuals who worry about their social success²⁴ acquire conspicuous goods. It is interesting to consider Abraham Maslow's triangle of needs in this regards.

In brief, Maslow says that human motivations are hierarchical and when a person has satisfied his lower needs that his attention turns towards his higher levels of needs. Maslow claimed that in a highly consumerist society a large proportion of people are getting stuck at esteem level in which they are driven by their need for social status and their desire for respect. In turn, their lifestyle extends into conspicuous consumption whereby, they seek to obtain more valuable products as it reflects their wealth. In light of these the purpose of this research is to empirically investigate the motives of conspicuous consumption of Sri Lankan consumers and to explore the influence of consumers' cultural values and their demographics on conspicuous consumption.

All consumers are not identical, and thus, it is possible to observe differences in consumer behaviour among members of different societies since all aspects of

consumer behaviour are culturally-bound. Most renowned marketing guru, Philip Kotler (2000) stated that;

“consumer buying decisions are often affected by factors that are outside of their control but have direct or indirect impact on their consumption... one example of this is cultural factors... the average consumption decisions attributed to different values by societal members reflect the fundamental thrust of their shared enculturation”
(p. 46).

People in different cultures may have different value orientations which cause variations in preference for products and brands. The impact of Sri Lankans' cultural values on conspicuous consumption motives is also explored by this research. In particular, it assesses the relationship between cultural values of the members of different ethnic groups in Sri Lanka (i.e. Sinhalese, Tamils, and Muslims) and the intensity of their conspicuous consumption.

Convergence Theory proposes that industrialization and modernization reduce such differences despite the differences in cultural and historical legacies and diversities in political and economic systems (Inkeles, 1998). This does not mean that all societies will be identical and unique socio-demographic variables of difference countries and societies make their members different from those of others (Mooij, 2004). In her book on “*Consumer Behaviour and Culture*”, Mooij discussed the influence of several socio-demographic variables such as education, age distribution, social class, ethnicity, urbanization, and population density on culture and, in turn on consumer behaviour. Because consumer demographics are important in status conditioning researchers explored the relationship between consumer demographics and conspicuous consumption (Giddens, 1991; Beck, 1992; Mooij, 2004; O’Cass &

McEwen, 2004; Hall *et.al*, 2000). This research also studied the impact of changing consumer demographics on conspicuous consumption motives among Sri Lankans.

1.2. Conspicuous Consumption: The Concept

Consumer behaviour has become a dynamic field and understanding the way consumer behaves is a difficult task because many factors both rational and irrational influence this behaviour. Therefore, both academics and marketers have shown substantial interest to study the consumption behaviour of individuals. Universal economic theories on consumer behaviour are widely used in exploring reasons and stimuli that influenced the consumer behaviour in the market. Such theories work well in describing consumer market behaviour and explaining consumer choice between rivals. However, these conventional economic theories of consumer behaviour assume that consumers visit the market with well-defined insatiable desires for private goods and services and those desires are not affected by social interactions, culture and economic institutions, or the consumption choices or well-being of others (Ackerman, 1997). They further believe that only prices, incomes, and personal tastes are the factors affecting consumption and therefore consumer tastes are exogenous.

These theories do not basically accommodate the most of non-economic factors such as strive for status, which are strongly associated with consumer preferences. They also pay little or no attention to dynamic process of choice; purchasing and consumption because almost all applied work done using these theories assume that there is no conspicuous consumption. However, the validity of this assumption has not been supported through empirical studies, which confirms the importance of conspicuous motivations in consumer behaviour (Chao & Schor, 1998). Therefore, a new interdisciplinary area of research on consumption has emerged in last 10-15

years, drawing contributions and participants from disciplines like sociology, anthropology, history, philosophy, literature, and marketing and occasionally from economics (Miller, 2002; Ackerman, 1997). This interdisciplinary scholarly works accept the presence of conspicuous consumption.

Veblen (1899) developed the theory of Conspicuous Consumption that is people tend to consume certain items for the sake of displaying their wealth, power, or prestige. He used this term to describe the behavioural characteristic of a new upper class that emerged in the 19th century and their enormous wealth to manifest their real or perceived social power. This reflects a historical reality in which the consumption of conspicuous products was the preserve of the upper echelons of the society.

Conspicuous consumption is a term used to explain the lavish spending on goods and services that are acquired mainly for the purpose of displaying buyer's social status. Veblen (1899) provides a comprehensive and broader definition on conspicuous consumption as:

lavish spending on goods and services acquired mainly for the purpose of displaying income or wealth...and people purchase these goods with motives of 'invidious comparison' (a higher class consumes conspicuously to distinguish himself from members of a lower class) and 'pecuniary emulation' (occurs a lower class consumes conspicuously so that he will be thought of as a member of a higher class).

Following Veblen, different definitions on conspicuous consumption were presented by various scholars and institutions. For example, according to the American Heritage Dictionary conspicuous consumption is an *“acquisition and display of expensive items to attract attention to one's wealth or to suggest that one is wealthy.”* The

Geography Dictionary defines the term as “*a consumption marked by a disregard for waste and a desire to be seen as wealthy.*” Science Dictionary looks at the term from a different angle and defines conspicuous consumption as “*buying unnecessary and expensive products and services as a way to show off wealth.*” According to Christine Page (1992), conspicuous consumption is “*an ostentatious display of wealth for the purpose of acquiring or maintaining status or prestige.*” These different definitions illustrate that various authors define the concept of conspicuous consumption in different ways.

Despite the growth in the literature on conspicuous consumption people know surprisingly little about the phenomenon though it is being practiced by many consumers (Allison, 2008). Since there is a ubiquity in conspicuous consumption across history and human cultures (Sundie *et.al*, 2010), it may be useful to examine the motivational factors of conspicuous consumption from an evolutionary perspective. Veblen (1899) used the term conspicuous consumption, for the first time his seminal work titled as “*The Theory of the Leisure Class*,” to explain the visible consumption of upper class Americans. The supremacy of the conspicuous sector by the upper classes has at least two key influences:

1. Historically only the elite had the financial means to afford luxury products. In 1890's American society was dominated by a visible handful of business and landowning families who were socially and economically superior to their contemporaries (Allison, 2008). Extravagant consumption of conspicuous goods and services was viewed as being a characteristic of these elite.
2. Attitudes towards the consumption of conspicuous products in the past were ambivalent at best (Allison, 2008).

The applicability of both these factors in explaining conspicuous consumption in Sri Lankan context is, nevertheless, debatable. Whilst vast inequality still exists in Sri Lanka a far larger proportion of the society is in a position to indulge themselves through the consumption of conspicuous products. In 2009/10, mean income of a Sri Lankan household was Rs. 36,451, an increase of 28 percent from 2006/7 (CBSL, 2012). Within this period, the highest increase in household income is reported from rural sector (32 percent), which is followed by estate sector (20 percent) and urban sector (12 percent). Because of these changes, the proportion of people in the society that are able to afford conspicuous products has tremendously increased. For example, 12,003 new registrations of private cars reported in year 2002, and this number has increased to 57,886 in 2011. Whereas in 2007, 30.1% households had any type of Mobile connections and it has increased up to 60.1% in 2010.

Poverty head count ratio has also decreased by 66% to 8.9% between 1990/91 - 2009/10 (CBSL, 2012). Therefore, marketers have now identified that the bulk of conspicuous consumers are no longer the wealthy but they are the middle class people. Good example is expanding the branch network of 'ODEL' to the other fast-growing districts from the heart of the Colombo.

On the other hand, attitudes towards conspicuous consumption have also evolved. The consumption of conspicuous products is now perceived positively by many consumers. It is also no longer seen as the exclusive preserve of the elite (Allison, 2008). Today consumers may gain great pleasure from consuming conspicuous products. As a result of these enormous transformations occurred in socio-economic conditions of the people market for conspicuous products in Sri Lanka has moved downwards to middle class and even lower class of the society.

Another development in the Sri Lankan consumer market is the changing consumers' cultural values. With the market liberalization and the development in mass media, consumers are now enriched with different attributions of consumption together with new cultural values. Moreover, the statistics of the world consumer profile have been changing enormously during last few decades. Among others, age distribution of population, male-female ratio, average family size, family disposable income, and education levels are seems to be drastically changing. This has also affected the demographics of consumers in Sri Lanka. For example, in 2002, 12.9% of female was unemployed and it has been reduced to 6.8% in 2011.

On the other hand, the percentage worked in abroad has also increased tremendously. According to the statistics of Foreign Employment Bureau, in 2003, the foreign employment as a percentage of total number employed was 14.3% and it has been increased up to 25.1% in 2010 (CBSL, 2012). This indicates that not only economic liberalization but also increase in employed females and migration of females also have contributed to these changes.

Further, the increased conspicuous consumption has seen increased interest in academic circles since the 1990s¹. Despite this interest, there is a no empirical research investigated how consumers' cultural values and their demographics influence on conspicuous consumption decisions in developing nations. Yet, literature well documented that the changing consumer demographics have an impact on consumer cultural values, and in turn on consumer decision making. Therefore, it is vital to study how these changing consumer demographics and cultural values affect

¹ See: Creedy & Slottje, 1991; Christine, 1992; Rauscher, 1993; Ireland, 1994; Campbell, 1995; Chao & Schor, 1998; Eastman *et.al*, 1999; Fernando *et.al*, 2000; Ed Chung & Eileen, 2001; Jai-Ok Kim *et.al*, 2002; Gerard & Claire, 2003; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Amaldoss *et.al*, 2005; Jeremy, 2006; Griskevicius *et.al*, 2007; Allison, 2008; Damian, 2009; Amanda, 2010; Debora & Michael, 2011; Brenda & Jeffrey, 2012

on conspicuous consumption intensity. This literature gap motivated the researcher to study empirically how cultural values and demographic-perception of Sri Lankans influence the intensity of conspicuous consumption.

1.3. Empirical Research Problem

The literature on conspicuous consumption stresses its importance for the comfort of an individual. It is, therefore, sensible to take a closer look at this literature and bring out the rewards from conspicuous consumption. Accordingly, this research aims to address three broad questions;

1. Why people engage in conspicuous consumption? What motives persuade them to consume conspicuously? Can the structure and nature of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products be identified?
2. Are there differences between consumers from different nationalities in their motives for consuming conspicuous products? Is it simply a matter of the cultural values of the consumer or do other factors play a role as well?
3. How consumers with different demographic characteristics differ in conspicuous consumptions? Do they differ in their tendency for conspicuous consumption because of individual difference demographic characteristics in, for instance, gender, age, income, education level, or perhaps the nationality?

It sheds light on the extent of the phenomenon of conspicuous consumption practiced in Sri Lanka, to identify some of its most important determinants, and further identifies the influence of cultural values and demographic perception on conspicuous consumption.

Punch (2005) mentions that research questions have the functions of setting research boundaries, giving researchers directions and keeping researchers to remain focused. In the context of conspicuous consumption it is interesting to explore questions such as, do different “visible consumption cultures” exist? Do women see other things than men do in consumption? Do people in certain geographical regions “mind their own business” more, or seem to care less about what others think? Therefore, this research was designed to investigate five main research questions;

1. Why do people make conspicuous consumption? And what kinds of people are more ‘conspicuous’?
2. Can the structure and nature of motivation for the conspicuous consumption be identified?
3. Whether cultural and demographic differences influence differently on conspicuous consumption?
4. Can cultural values be used to predict motivation for the consumption of conspicuous products?
5. Can demographic perception be used to predict motivation for the consumption of conspicuous products?

1.4. The Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are;

1. To investigate as to why people engage in conspicuous consumption and to understand causal factors motivating ordinary people to consume conspicuous goods.
2. To explore whether, and extent to which, different cultural value orientations have influenced in different degrees on conspicuous consumption.
3. To examine the impact of different cultural attributes of consumer (i.e. Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Time

Orientation) on their desire to exhibit social status through conspicuous consumption.

4. To discover differing degrees of conspicuous-consumption by gender, marital status, family size, age, income, education, and nationality.
5. To compare and contrast the evolution of conspicuous consumption in terms national and international economic liberalization trends and to contribute the consumer behaviour literature to strengthen marketing understanding about the divergence influences on consumer-conspicuous consumption

1.5. Significance of the Study

Nowadays, the relative consumption appears to matter to people. Available information reveal that the visible consumption has become more prominent today than in the past. In particular, the demand for conspicuous products, stimulated by visible consumption, has diverted many resources away from day to day basic consumption altering the traditional behaviours of traditional consumption. Researchers argue that because conspicuous consumption appears to matter to people, they must be involved in a 'rat race': people work harder and consume consciously than they would have were optimum public policies in place (Arrow & Dasgupta, 2009; Omer and Zvika, 2012). Joseph *et.al*, (2011) also found that products introduced during the recession display the brand far more prominently than the products withdrawn during the same period. These results suggest a need to signal status using luxury brands persists even during the economic downturns.

Besides, there is growing recognition that the ways the different generations perceive their culture and its values are changing rapidly, particularly in a context of

globalization, and in turn it influences the consumption patterns of people. On the other hand, the fast growing in comfort market persuade the social visibility of products, which in turn, may influence the consumer perceptions and create new culture among them. Consumer demographic characteristics (such as age, sex, income, family size, education, and employment status) also seem to be dynamically changing during last few decades. The mounting globalization makes it essential for marketers to recognize the demographic trends and the influence of cultural values on conspicuous consumption in order to identify untapped opportunities.

As consumers, an important channel through which an individual can send signals to society is our consumption behaviour (Heffetz, 2004). By studying the “signaling through consuming” model of consumers might help to explain the present trends in consumer expenditure patterns, particularly the trend of consuming conspicuous products. According to Shukla (2010), if managers who are marketing conspicuous brands can embed an engaging and appropriate status image the consumers demand for the specific occasion, their brand recognition may increase, as well as subsequent value of the brand within the markets. Therefore, the classification of the determinants of conspicuous consumption among the Sri Lankan consumers, inevitably, has an explorative character, since hardly any research has been done on this area.

In addition, Shipman (2004) proposes that “shopping’s symbolic value is greatest in societies where wealth and power inequalities are remaining” (p.280). Besides, Tai (2007) claims that the wealth and power inequalities are commonly seen in most of the developing nations, and in turn developing countries have a higher level of conspicuous consumption. This phenomenon is explained by Mason (2000) as:

“discretionary incomes have risen at all levels, so consumer expenditures have increasingly reflected society's growing preoccupations with style, with identity, and with a social standing and prestige based, in a large part, on the conspicuous consumption of status-conferring goods and services” (p.123).

He also confirms that growth in the economy increases wealth and prosperity, and it also simulates competition among individuals seeking to improve their social status and prestige. This is very common in countries like USA. For example supermarket chains like K-mart are viewed as places for low income people while other chains are considered as places for high income people. Even in Sri Lanka, places like "HAMEEDIAS" are meant for rich people while other grocery stores are the places for the poor.

As revealed by the CBSL (2012), Sri Lanka is experiencing a booming economy, which in turn, enhances inequality of income distribution immensely among its households. This might influence the conspicuous consumption motives and patterns of consumers. Therefore, it is vital to investigate the contemporary Sri Lankan's conspicuous consumption behaviour.

Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) say that *“consumer goods always have the attribute of carrying and communicating cultural meaning”* (p.97). However the impact of cultural values on conspicuous consumption, which is posed by the 3rd and 4th questions in this thesis have been comparatively neglected, either wholly or partly, in both economics and marketing literature. Consumers' cultural values are central to studies of consumption, in particular, conspicuous consumption tendencies. Although cultural value literature offers rich insights into conspicuous

consumption, its focus on developing countries, in particular on South Asian developing countries, is found to be inadequate.

Also, Tuba & Douglas (2010), in his study on "*Theory of status consumption in less industrialized countries*" examine how status consumption operates among the middle classes in less industrialized countries (LICs). They accept that status consumption model, based upon Western research, does not provide an adequate explanation about the status consumptions in LICs. Hence, some scholars argue that conspicuous consumptions in different cultures are to be explored with their own cultural context (Fernando *et al*, 2000; Omer & Zvika, 2010; Sheryl & Catherine, 1996). Therefore, filling the existing literature gap, this study attempts to empirically prove that 'how cultural values matters for consumer behaviour'; what people purchase for signalling their status to public, how cultural values influence their conspicuous consumption motives, and how well they collaborate with their peers cultural values etc. These inputs about Sri Lankan culture and its value dimensions can be of immense use to brand managers to strategize their marketing road map to minimize chances of erroneous decision-making.

On the other hand, demographic-characteristics of consumers also play a vital role in shaping their conspicuous consumption patterns. Researcher proposes that if marketers can learn more about new generation and their reactions to conspicuous products, then they may be able to develop their positioning strategies accordingly. To date, few studies have empirically examined the impact of consumer demographic-characteristic with respect to conspicuous consumption in different countries. Yet, how much consumer demographic-characteristics matters on conspicuous consumption remain unmeasured in Sri Lanka. Allowing marketers to explore the

impact of both cultural values and demographic perceptions on conspicuous consumption would help them open up, feeling more attuned and understanding the differences in conspicuous consumptions in Sri Lanka.

Despite the fact that conspicuous consumptions are observed in all social strata, it has become a predominantly upper and middle class phenomenon in affluent societies. Hence, the promotion of a commodity's social value is increasingly important.

Heaney *et.al*, (2005) claim that “*to make promotional appeals more effective to status seeking consumers, promotional strategies should emphasize social comparisons and social positioning*”. Therefore, manufacturers of conspicuous goods promote their products by capitalizing on the Bandwagon, Snob, and Veblen effects to appeal consumers who aspire to increase their status position. Nevertheless, there is little doubt that marketing has been successful in promoting conspicuous products in Sri Lanka. The findings of this study, therefore, might help to marketers in correctly designing their marketing line-up. And, marketers may be able to exploit these conspicuous preferences more fully with the presence of socially visible and comparatively luxurious products in a visible purchasing atmosphere.

As explained above, this research studies the profile of the conspicuous consumer from the perspective of cultural values and demographic characteristics differences within Sinhalese, Tamils, and Muslims live in Sri Lanka. Therefore, this research makes an original contribution to the consumer behaviour literature as to date, no research has been found that undertakes such a comprehensive comparison of the conspicuousness value, cultural value and demographic perception of Sri Lankan consumers. Further, this study provides practical implications for marketers to leverage consumption values that influence consumers' choice to purchase

conspicuous products and then drive their behaviour through integrated marketing campaigns that involve both demographical and cultural value strategies.

Finally, this research results will allow one to understand whether social change during the past decade has altered consumer perceptions towards conspicuous consumption and to explore the degree to which consumers seek congruence between their own cultural and demographics orientations and their perceived social status. Knowledge of these relations will help marketers to better adjust their conspicuous products and marketing efforts to fit consumer preferences.

1.6. Organization of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organised in the following manner.

Chapter Two details a literature overview of prior research into the motivation for conspicuous consumption, cultural value dimensions and consumer demographic characteristics. The literature on motivation for consuming conspicuous products is reviewed in depth. Subsequently, it discusses the influence of cultural values on conspicuous consumption, and describes various attempts to measure cultural values. The influence of consumer demographic characteristics on conspicuous consumption is also then reviewed.

Chapter Three comprises a description of the research methodology used in this study. The researcher used questionnaires to establish the viewpoints of students with no formal customer care training. It provides an outline of the method employed for investigating the research questions, and for testing the hypotheses. The development of a research questionnaire is also described. The research administered procedure and choice of statistical techniques used are described and justified. Finally it presents a series of research models in respect of the influence of cultural value orientation and

demographic characteristics on motivation for conspicuous consumption. A total of 45 testable hypotheses pertaining to the research questions outlined in this chapter are then presented.

Chapter Four presents and discusses the results obtained in this research. First, the descriptive statistics are presented and discussed. Then results in respect of motivation for conspicuous consumption, differences between cultural value orientations, respondents' demographic characteristics, and the influence of cultural value orientation and consumer demographics on motivation for consuming conspicuous products are presented and discussed.

Chapter Five, the final chapter, summarises the thesis and discussed some of the theoretical and practical implications of the research. Some of the limitations of the study are also identified. This thesis concludes with some directions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

People care about their standing in society and about what others think of them. One of the foremost reasons for this is the conspicuous consideration. The marketing literature reckons conspicuous (or social) status as a social reward that affects the consumption patterns of individuals. Simply, the conspicuous consumption is the act of conspicuously consuming and displaying a good purchased at a significantly higher price. Therefore, both academicians and practitioners of marketing view conspicuous consumption as somewhat synonymous to the purchase of expensive luxuries or status products.

This concept has been studied by a number of scholars in the past. However, a study of conspicuous consumption of a particular market in a particular country is scarce. Hence, the concept of conspicuous consumption, as viewed by the contemporary scholars in marketing and economics, needs a substantial review and extension in view of the changing global social and cultural order.

It is believed that postmodern developments are significantly influencing the universal nature of conspicuous consumption, particularly in developing countries like Sri Lanka. Fuelled by increasing purchasing power and high decibel advertising campaigns, individuals' conspicuous consumption trends are largely persuaded in these countries. The purpose of this chapter is to explain various aspects of the conspicuous consumption phenomenon. Then it explains why customers purchase some goods for conspicuous consumption at prices significantly above producers' marginal costs. Besides, it also explains the preference of goods that qualify for

“conspicuous consumption” status and discuss the conditions under which consumers engage in conspicuous consumptions.

2.2. Conspicuous Consumption - Concepts and Definitions²

2.2. 1. Theoretical Aspects of Conspicuous Consumption

Consumers are often motivated to acquire products according to what they mean to them and to members of their social reference groups. They may purchase certain expensive “luxury” goods whose functional advantage over their “non-luxury” counterparts is insufficient to warrant the price premium. Naturally, their purchasing behaviour is subject to the pressures of social norms and the expectations of socialization institutions rules such as those arising from family and other reference groups (Engel et al., 1993; Leigh & Gabel, 1992). Therefore, both academics and marketers accept that, in this rapid-changing society, people’s needs for appearances and materialism are tremendously increasing. Consequently, today the demands for conspicuous products are mounting rapidly in all over the world.

Conspicuousness is explained in the literature as a function of a few constructs. And it is generally referred as the social and public visibility surrounding the consumption of a certain product or service. Conspicuous, therefore, relates to the consumers’ behaviour of seeking to purchase goods and services for the status they confer, regardless of that consumer’s objective income or social class (Eastman *et.al.*, 1999).

When merging the notions of “conspicuousness” and “consumption” together, consumers often think of expensive brands, conspicuous luxury and spectacular

² The theoretical and empirical separation of consumers’ status consumption and conspicuous consumption is problematic. Though it is quite difficult to separate these two concepts, O’Cass and McEwen (2004) empirically validated the overlap between status and conspicuous consumption theories. They say that ‘Status Consumption’ is found to be affected by self-monitoring and interpersonal influences, but ‘Conspicuous Consumption’ is affected only by interpersonal influences. However, Veblen (1899) viewed conspicuous consumption as one specific mode of adaptation to status consumption. Therefore, the term status consumption also referred to as conspicuous consumption by scholars in their studies.

extravaganza. Accordingly, scholars recognize conspicuous consumption as “obtaining luxury goods at higher prices to demonstrate their wealth”. In detail, they defines conspicuous consumption as a form of economic behaviour in which self-presentational concerns override desires to obtain goods at bargain prices (see Page, 1992; Heaney *et.al*, 2005; Mason, 1983; Sofia, 2008; Sundie *et.al*, 2010). A very similar but more colloquial term is *"keeping up with the Joneses"*.

The literature on conspicuous consumption originates with Thorstein Veblen's work on ‘conspicuous consumption’ and Duesenberry's ‘relative income hypothesis’ (Veblen, 1994 [1899]; Duesenberry, 1949). An apparent explanation for conspicuous consumption, (or Veblen effects), was provided by Veblen in 1894. He says that,

“there is also a second, very analogous class of persons, whose apparel likewise, though to a less degree, conforms to the canons of woman’s dress. This class is made up of the children of civilized society. The children, with some reservation of course, are, for the purpose of the theory, to be regarded as ancillary material serving to round out the great function of civilized womankind as the conspicuous consumers of goods. The child in the hands of the civilized woman is an accessory organ of conspicuous consumption, much as any tool in the hands of a labourer is an accessory organ of productive efficiency” (p.205).

Following Veblen, scholars have defined the term ‘conspicuous consumption’ from different points of views. Sundie *et al*, (2010), for example, define conspicuous consumption as;

“a lavish spending on goods and services acquired mainly for the purpose of displaying income or wealth.... these people purchase expensive goods and services to impress upon others that one possesses wealth or status” (p.22).

In his prominent article on “*The Economic Theory of Conspicuous Consumption*”, Mason (1983) argues that “*people purchase expensive branded apparels, when one could have purchased cheaper apparels that work just as well.*” In the mind of these people, such display serves as a means of attaining or maintaining social status, which would increase fashionable consumption. Consequently, Mason defines conspicuous consumption as;

“a form of consumption which is inspired by the social rather than by the economic or physiological utility of products” (p.03).

According to Leibenstein, (1950), people engage in conspicuous consumption for the desire to please one's peers that consumers purchase the latest fashion. They do so for the satisfaction derived from being awarded esteem that they acquire a piece of fine arts or an expensive watch. It implies that, conspicuous consumption requires social opportunities for displaying the consumption and need social interaction opportunities that allow others to observe his conspicuous consumption. In view of that, Charoenrook & Thankor (2008) define the term, conspicuous consumption as;

“purchasing goods by which creates social opportunities / social interaction for displaying the consumption to others” (p.02)

Some scholars suggest that conspicuous consumption is principally ‘irrational’ (i.e. psychological) in its expression and motivation. However, they accept that conspicuous consumption describes individual differences in how much consumers purchase to attain social status. Consequently, Chaudhuri & Majumdar (2006) propose that conspicuous consumption is a mode of

“displaying any product which is different merely for the sake of being different from other consumers, rather than to display their wealth or social status” (p.7).

These scholarly works reveal that different researchers have defined the concept of conspicuous consumption in their own ways. Most of these definitions put forward that today the conspicuous consumption construct need not remain restricted to its original meaning, but should be expanded by incorporating more generalized and broader dimensions of “ostentation and signaling” and “creates social opportunities”³, “public consumption” and “display the wealth”⁴, “self-concept” and “displaying a higher status”⁵, and “uniqueness” and “distinguish them from others”⁶.

These research findings highlight an important implication; that is people can decide to buy and display any product which is different merely for the sake of being different from other consumers, to display their wealth or demonstrate consumers’ social status. Based on the above findings, the term ‘conspicuous consumption’ is defined in this research as:

“.... an ostentatious display of wealth through a lavish spending on goods and services under pressures of social norms and the expectations of the social reference groups for the purpose of acquiring or maintaining status or prestige, merely for the sake of being different from other consumers”

2.2. 2. Behavioural Aspects of Conspicuous Consumption

A behavioral explanation for conspicuous consumption was provided by American economist and sociologist, Thorstein Veblen in 1899. In his words,

“in order to gain and hold the esteem of men, it is not sufficient merely to possess wealth or power. The wealth or power must be put in evidence, for esteem is only rewarded on evidence (p.3).”

³ See: Charoenrook & Thankor (2008); Mason, (1983); Jaramillo & Moizeau, (2003); O’Cass & McEwen, (2004)

⁴ See: Sundie *et al.*, (2010); Bagwell and Bernheim (1996); Creedy and Slottje (1991); Mason (1983); Bearden and Etzel (1982)

⁵ See: Eastman *et al.* (1999); Heaney *et al.* (2005); Jessie & John, (2002)

⁶ See: Leigh & Gabel (1992); Engel *et al.* (1993); Tai, (2007)

Veblen suggested that one possible way to provide evidence of wealth was through 'Conspicuous' consumption. He used term "conspicuousness" to depict the behavioral characteristic of the new class, which emerged in the 19th century capitalistic society as a result of the accumulation of wealth, who use their enormous wealth to manifest their social power. He believed that conspicuous consumption was the main driving force behind the consumer boom that started in the 1890s.

Besides the cheerful consumer behaviors in capitalistic culture, Veblen observed the flaunting of luxury possessions had occurred across societies and epochs. Egyptian pharaohs, for example, displayed their wealth with golden thrones, elaborate artworks, and giant pyramids; Incan potentates dwelled in immense palaces surrounded by gold; and Indian maharajahs built extravagant and ostentatious palaces and kept collections of rare and exotic animals on their expansive estates (see Sundie *et al*, 2010). To Veblen, these lavish spending was symptomatic of the superfluous life-style of the rich. He argued that;

"wealthy individuals often consume highly conspicuous goods and services in order to publicize their wealth, thereby achieving greater social status. In their striving for status, individuals purchase some commodities, such as jewelry, that serve no other purpose than to demonstrate wealth" (p.53)

Interestingly, Veblen identifies two main ways in which an individual can display wealth: through extensive leisure activities and through lavish expenditure on consumption and services. Hence, he proposed that wealthy individuals often consume highly conspicuous goods and services in order to advertise their wealth, thereby achieving greater social status. Such consumption goods must be both 'wasteful' and visible in order to please 'the observers whose good opinion is sought'

(Veblen, 1994, p. 69). Above all, as Veblen notes, the objects of conspicuous consumption must possess no useful value in order to reflect credibly on one's reputation (Christine, 1992).

Based on the modernized work of Veblen, Duesenberry (1949) claims that the dichotomy of absolute versus relative income and/or consumption, and argues that consumption and savings behavior are affected by concerns of social standing. He says that human well-being is a function of both the amount and types of goods affordable in comparison to others. Accordingly, Duesenberry developed his own theory which is labeled as "*demonstration*" or '*bandwagon*' effect. He used orthodox mathematical economics to model the effect of relative consumption on aggregate economic activity and introduces demonstration effect to describe why as income (and income inequality) increases (and if the "rich" continue to save at the same rate) it is possible for national savings to stay the same or to fall. Duesenberry confirmed that less well-off are consuming the same goods as the rich, and therefore have low or dis-savings which then lowers the average national savings rate. Researchers called this effect as the "*relative income hypothesis*" or the "Duesenberry effect".

Alongside with Duesenberry's (1949) contribution, Leibenstein (1950) extended the general category of conspicuous consumption into three specific sub-classifications depending on the consumer's signaling intent and identified three principal external effects; a). "Veblen" effect (where quantity demanded for a good may increase with price), b). "Snob" effect (other's demand reduces own demand), and c). "Bandwagon" effect (other's demand increases own demand). All these scholars have attempted to explore the behavioral aspects conspicuous consumption in their own ways. However,

their findings confirm that consumers are largely concern on expressive aspect of their consumption than utilitarian aspect.

2.3. Evolution of Conspicuous Consumption

Conspicuous consumption is especially important to the study of the history of consumption because they play an important role in the growth of a consumer society. The literature reveals that conspicuous consumption has been around for ages when wealthy people have spent lavishly on goods and services to maintain a degree of social Status. Yet, as stated elsewhere, the term conspicuous consumption was coined, theorized and popularized by Thorstein Veblen to describe consumption pattern, which is motivated by an effort to advertise the wealth of consumers. According to the literature, Veblen was working on his most famous concept “conspicuous consumption” throughout the 1890s. In 1894, Veblen used the term conspicuous consumption for the first time, in an early article on consumption of human apparel. In fact, the concept of conspicuous consumption had been coded in Veblen’s article on “competitive display and social unrest” published in 1892. Finally he outlined the comprehensive principles upon theory of conspicuous consumption in 1899.

Within this background, it is imperative to analyze the evolution of conspicuous consumption in the perspective of changing economic-demographic-social contexts or even philosophical thoughts. In this fortitude, Chaudhuri (2006) propose a periodic-structural analysis of conspicuous consumption behaviour, depicting its evolution, nature and character, which is summarized in Table 2.1.

Pre-capitalist Period

Most of the researchers accepted that conspicuous consumption possibly existed before recorded history. Jessie & John (2002), in their paper on *Financial Counselling*

and Planning, stated that conspicuous consumption has been around since the beginning of history, even in the most primitive of tribes there are ways to show status through possessions. And they argue that people wear decorations to indicate their status.

Table 2.1: Evolution, Nature & Character of Conspicuous Consumption

A Structural Analysis of CC Behaviour Social Structure	Primary Objects of Consumption	Drivers of Behaviour	Consumers	Principal Behaviour Dimensions
Precapitalist-Feudal	Slaves, Women, Food	Military and Political Powers	Nobility	Pure Ostentation
Modern-Capitalist	Very Expensive Products e.g. Diamonds	Social Power and Status	Nobility and Upper- middle Class	Ostentation and Signaling and Uniqueness
Post-Modern	Image and Experience	Self-expression and Self-Image	Middle-class and the “Masses”	Uniqueness and Social Conformation

Adopted from: Chaudhuri, H. Roy, (2006), *Of Diamonds and Desires: Understanding Conspicuous Consumption from a Contemporary Marketing Perspective*

Vablen’s (1912) also confirms that the desire to conspicuously consume dates back to tribal times; in a primitive society, men possessed women and slaves as trophies of their status. The aristocratic Romans spent outrageous sums of money on expensive gladiator fights (Finlay, 1973). Similar lavish spending tendencies have also been noted among the ancient Polynesians (Leach, 2003). In these primitive feudal societies, the underlying dynamic of ostentation is characterized by a coexistence of money, military, and political strengths which were entirely at the behest of the nobility (Page, 1992) and the principal objects of conspicuous display remained servants, food, clothing, and housing (Mason, 1981; Chaudhuri, 2006).

However, there is no record of it being addressed by scholars until Bernard Mande, who discussed the consumers' spending for ostentatious display, in the early 18th century (see Mason, 1981).

Modern-Capitalist

Despite the fact that the term conspicuous consumption was theorized by Thorstein Veblen in 1899, literature reveals that economics had found their way into economic thought of conspicuous consumption at least a century before Veblen. Economists from Adam Smith to Karl Marx had argued that people choose to buy some goods because of what those goods reveal about their standing in society, not because of any intrinsic enjoyment they get from the purchase. By the 1780s, Adam Smith discussed the levels of ostentatious luxury expenditures by the rich for the purpose of belonging to a society determined by wealth had reached new heights. He has prominently cited that:

"consumable commodities are either necessities or luxuries... a linen shirt, for example, is, strictly speaking, not a necessary of life... but in the present times, through the greater part of Europe, a creditable day-labourer would be ashamed to appear in public without a linen shirt" (p.06).

Karl Marx, in his famous book on *Communist Manifesto* (1848) also discussed about the visible consumption of people. He had proposed that;

"a house may be large or small; as long as the neighboring houses are likewise small; it satisfies all social requirements for a residence. But let their arise next to the little house a palace, and the little house shrinks to a hut..., the little house now makes it clear that its inmate has no social position at all to maintain" (p.2).

Yet, the majority of scholars are in the view that the importance of the contributions of Veblen (1899) and his followers such as Duesenburry (1949) and Leibenstein (1950) lie in the development of modern conspicuous consumption theory. These classical economic thinkers, the ideas of 'conspicuousness', 'bandwagon', or 'snob' were a set discrete of conceptual tools for explaining a so-called "irrational" dimension of consumer behaviour (Chaudhuri, 2006) and they have not made any effort to set up a valid interrelationship among these constructs to completely explain conspicuous aspects of consumer behaviour.

Post-Modern Periods

The evolution of capitalism has dictated contemporary philosophy, cultural practices, and literature in consumption. The philosophy of modernism emphasized more rationality, and it conducive to creating more order. Possibly because of this, lavish expenditure was branded wasteful as the practice symbolized exception (Mason, 1983). However rapid changes in the Western World broke the status-quo of long-established social-political-economic structures, and new ideas in the fields of sociology, philosophy, and business started to gain ground. The post-war era capitalism, especially from a period starting from the late '70s, emphasis was gradually being placed on marketing, selling, and consuming commodities, not on producing them and this period has been related with postmodernism (Ewen 1988).

As discussed most prominently by Piron (2000), peoples' consumption started becoming more conspicuous after the Second Industrial Revolution and attained enormous proportions only after the Great Depression and the Second World War. However, post 1950 literature on Veblen continued to extend the concepts mainly on the original logic of status signaling without showing any interests in incorporating

other psychological or socio-cultural constructs (Campbell, 1995). Yet, the Western society in post modernity assumes that postmodern consumption processes, cultures, and consumers are qualitatively different from those of the past: “the simpler ‘rational’ consumer of the past was replaced by a more complex consumer” (Venkatesh 1995, p.44). Therefore, many researchers in this stage attach in excess of importance to the visibility component of conspicuous consumption and have emphasized the importance of embedding the self and social images for conspicuous goods (Chaudhuri, 2006; Ewen, 1988; Chao & Schor, 1996). They believed that the social visibility is a key dimension of conspicuous consumption, which give rise to the phenomenon where products serve as symbols, and consumers may purchase and consume based on their symbolic content.

On the other hand, the post-modernism theorists confirm that consumers care about social visibility because of the moral hazard problem associated with socially non-visible goods. Moral hazard arises because individuals have an incentive to exaggerate their consumption in order to gain social position, and if consumption is not externally verifiable, self-reported levels of consumption are not credible (Chao & Schor, 1996; p 3). It implies that consumption has now become a means of self-realization and identification as consumers no longer merely consume products; they consume the symbolic meaning of those products, and the image. When consumption moves to the symbolic realm, distinctive display can be made with material possession, which communicates the symbol of distinctiveness.

All the above observations clearly point out the restrictive interpretation of the concept of conspicuousness by researchers (mainly economists), as it is largely seen as a process or means to achieve status, the desired end state (Chaudhuri, 2006). Over

the last few decades, economists, sociologists, and marketers have provided considerable pragmatic support for conspicuousness argument. Moreover, it is empirically proved that the theory of conspicuous consumption is “dynamic” (evolutionary) where society’s search for newer and more subtle ways of creating and signaling wealth is continual.

Mason (1981) argues that consumers have become more educated and they no longer consider extreme lavishness and excessive spending as the leading symbols of status; conspicuous consumption can be done more through educated or “tasteful” expenditures than through overt & direct display of wealth. Therefore, he says that flagrant exhibitions of wealth (position) have ceased and status is conveyed in more subtle ways.

Holt (1998) also distinguishes the change in the dynamics of conspicuousness, and underlines that the previous emphasis on acquisition and exhibition of physical items shifts to experiences and symbolic image in the post-modern phase.

As a result, since the mid-1980s, a subfield of academic study and research, extending across the social sciences, has developed around consumption and its relationship to culture and society (Belk, 1982; Hirschman, 1990; Levy, 1986; McCracken, 1986; Solomon, 1994). Sophisticated explanations of the cultural and social meaning of consumer goods have been developed, particularly in the U.S. and Europe (Mason, 1992).

These contributions have moved research forward and at the same time have seen a greater integration of social psychology with economics in seeking to explain modern-day preoccupations with social consumption. Thus, a more comprehensive modeling of conspicuous-seeking consumer behaviour can now be attempted.

2.4. Motives for Conspicuous Consumption

In more recent years, the social significance of consumption has greatly increased. Therefore, most of the consumers attempt to compassionate social statuses as a significant motive of visible consumption. They are highly care about their social standing and intended to provide signals about their unobserved income and wealth. Yet, Melanie *et.al*, (2012) challenge the view that conspicuous consumption is a significant motive of status signaling. And they suggest that conspicuous consumption patterns can only be partly explained as a result of the status signaling nature of the consumption items. Accordingly, these scholars perceive conspicuous consumption as a wasteful, frivolous, and even narcissistic, spending of resources.

However, an evolutionary perspective suggests that manifest of wealth may serve as a communication strategy designed to gain reproductive rewards. This happens because of an individual's utility is directly increased by paying a higher price (Creedy & Slotte, 1991). The higher the cost of display, the more likely is the consumer to signal by purchasing high-price conspicuous goods (Charoenrook & Thakor, 2008). Therefore, consumers' preferences for the enhanced social status are usually conferred by the visible ownership of certain goods. Confirming this view, Mason (1981) says:

“as lavish spending has become commonplace, the people need to find a venues to advertise their success. One way that they can do this is to purchase expensive goods that ensure the general exclusion of the great majority of potential customers (p.12).”

Consequently, today consumption becomes a means that actors use to shape social relationships (Stillerman, 2004: p.52). People high on materialism (*i.e. people who believe success can be judged by the things people own*) are more likely to value

possessions that convey prestige, enhance appearance and social status (Wong, 1998). These visible ownerships may offer consumers benefits in the form of “*intrinsic*” functional attributes and in the form of social status. supporting this argument, Heffner *et al.* (2006) note that,

“a middle-aged music teacher, the father of two young children, and a proud owner of a new, highly-efficient Honda Civic Hybrid.. he dismissed pickup trucks not because of their price, performance, or styling, but because of what these vehicles meant to him” (p.01).

Based on these inferences, different scholars have made their great effort to provide answer to a vital question: why people engage in conspicuous consumption and what motivate it? Throughout the past few decades, these scholars have made their great effort to provide answer to this question. Those findings are summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Nature of the Motives for Conspicuous Consumption

Motives	Study
to display the wealth and in turn impress others with the ability to pay particular high prices	Veblen (1899); Mason (1983); Creedy and Slottje (1991); Bagwell and Bernheim (1996); Sundie <i>at el.</i> (2010); Omer and Zvika, (2012); Klaus <i>et al.</i> , (2009)
to distinguish themselves from others	Veblen (1899); Leigh & Gabel (1992); Engel <i>et al.</i> (1993); Chaudhuri & Majumdar (2006); Tai (2007); Hema, (2012); Amaldoss & Jain, (2005)
to enjoy self concept & pleasure	Mason (1983); Jaramillo & Moizeau, (2003); Heaney <i>et al.</i> , (2005); Jessie & John, (2002)
to impress upon others that one possesses higher status than others	Eastman <i>et al.</i> (1999); Jessie & John (2002); Heaney <i>et al.</i> (2005); Sundie <i>at el.</i> (2010); Mason, (1983); Jaramillo & Moizeau, (2003); Katja & Stuart, (2012)
to creates social opportunities & social interaction for displaying the consumption to others	Jaramillo & Moizeau, (2003); O’Cass & McEwen (2004); Charoenrook & Thankor (2008); Richard & Clare, (2004)

Most of these scholarly works have identified one or two motives for conspicuous consumption rather than providing comprehensive causes for consuming conspicuously. However, the literature discloses that Leibenstein (1950), in his renowned writing on “*the Theory of Consumers' Demand*”, has explained the exact nature of the motives for consuming conspicuous products. He has organized the conspicuous consumption motives, scattered all-around, under three major effects: Veblen effect, Snob effect, and Bandwagon effect.

2.4.1. Veblen, Bandwagon, and Snob Effects

Individuals who are publicly self-conscious place high value on the public's opinion of them and their primary objective is to appear successful in the eyes of their peers (Amanda, 2010). These people are divided into two groups: people who consider high importance of the perception of price fall in to the ‘Veblenian’ category. Meanwhile, people who do not place a high value on price but still primarily value the effect that their own status consumption has on others fall into a category labeled ‘Bandwagon’. People who are more concerned with their own self-perception than the perception of others and place high importance on price are considered ‘Snobs’. These three motives can be further explained as follows;

Veblen Effects

Veblen effects offer consumers the opportunity to use product price as a means of openly displaying wealth in order to gain in social status. Therefore, satisfaction of these consumptions derives not from the utilitarian attributes but from audience reaction to the wealth displayed by the purchaser. The primary objective of the people who are motivated with Veblen effect is to impress others, and they believe that paying a higher price for a good automatically signals status (Amanda, 2010).

Snob Effects

Snob effects motivate individuals to buy an item because of its high quality and scarcity value. Leibenstein (1950) suggests that people preoccupied with social status reject products that are perceived to be possessed by the common people. Thus, the 'snob' consumer seeks to purchase products which have limited availability. This type of exclusive consumption guarantees a measure of social prestige.

It is interesting to observe that both Veblen and snob effects are associated with high prices; however, they differ in that whilst the former is a function of price itself, the latter is decided primarily by the consumption of others. It is interesting to see that in congruence with Veblenians, snobs use price as a way to demonstrate their own accomplishments, however, unlike Veblenians, snobs do not necessarily feel the need to broadcast their wealth by consuming conspicuous goods, but use price as a way to ensure that they consume exclusive goods and avoid mainstream brands (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999).

Bandwagon Effects

Bandwagon effects encourage people to purchase goods and services in order to be identified with a particular social group by adopting identical or similar patterns of consumption. They represent the desire of people to be seen to conform and in this respect contrast most sharply with snob effects (Mason, 1992).

The combination of these three motives offer a skeletal picture of how conspicuous consumption has moved from the extremes of being an exclusive '*invidious distinction*' behaviour, to an activity enjoyed by mass consumers (bandwagon), much to the dismay of those fighting to keep it exclusive (snob) (Christine, 1992).

Between these two extremes, various other scholars have offered insights on buyer motives to consume, further shedding light on conspicuous consumption behaviour. They have identified different motives for consuming conspicuous products through the combined ideas of behavioural scientists and economists, like Veblen and Leibenstein, over the years. Vigneron and Johnson (1999), for example, propose four different types of consumers defined by the two parameters: the importance of the perception of price & self-consciousness. They have named these four motives as; Hedonist, Snob, Bandwagon, and Veblenian.

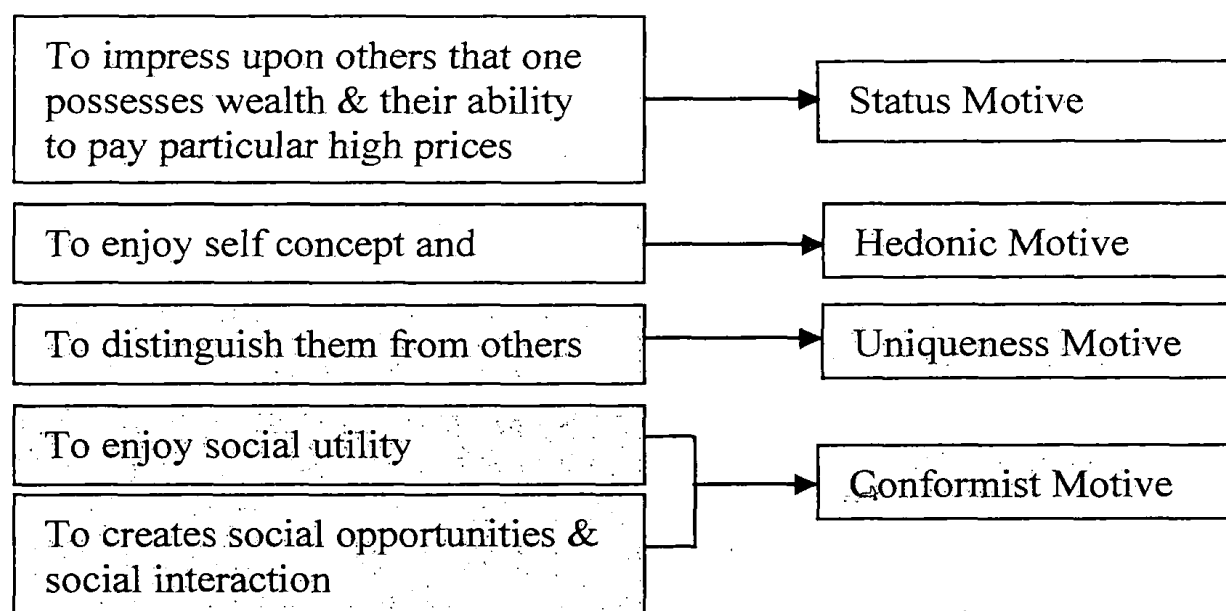
Alternatively, some scholars premise that the decision to purchase a conspicuous product depends on both social utility and functional utility. However, today it is accepted that the conspicuous products have little to do with functional utility, and most of the functional benefits of products are now becoming unimportant for conspicuous consumers. Therefore, the idea of conspicuous consumption is seems to be mostly intuitive. A 'Suzuki Alto', for example, takes people to the place they need as well as a 'Benz' or 'Jaguar', but the particular vehicle people use tells a lot about his purchasing power and personality. A major motive for buying an extravagant car, like Benz or Jaguar is to signal to others that the consumer has "made it". In view of that, literature proposes four different motives for conspicuous consumption; Conformist, Uniqueness, Status, and Hedonic.

2.4.2. Conformist, Uniqueness, Status, & Hedonic Motives

Beside the Veblen, Snob, and Bandwagon effects, some scholars have broadly identified five distinctive motives for conspicuous consumption (see Table 2.3), namely; to impress upon others that one possesses wealth & their ability to pay particular high prices, to enjoy self concept and pleasure, to create social opportunities

and social interaction, to distinguish them from others, and to enjoy social utility. In this study, they were further categorized in to four: conformity motive, uniqueness motive, hedonic motive, and status motive (see Figure 2.1). These motives are described below.

Figure 2.1: **Conformist, Uniqueness, Status, & Hedonic Motives**



Conformist Motives

The conspicuous goods people consume may signify the social class that they belong. For this reason, consumers usually attempt to eradicate the confusion between what they consume and what it indicates to the others. For example, Richard & Clare (2004) explore consumer's' attitudes towards symbolic meanings in UK, and revealed that people feel pressure to wear the fashions that their friends wear, partly to make friends and fit in and partly because of the teasing experienced if they are wearing unbranded clothes they will be noted as people from poor home. The similar findings can be seen in Jaramillo & Moizeau's (2003) study, in which they say:

“in high-standing classes, parents spend a significant amount of money on social events in order to ensure that their child meets someone from the same social class” (p.2).

Furthermore, conspicuous consumption may support a consumer to enter an aspired social group or social class, which they are not belonged. Jaramillo & Moizeau (2003) propose that people engage in conspicuous consumption, because *“it serves to enter in communities/social groups in order to benefit from social interactions”* (p.2), which Veblen recognized as *‘pecuniary emulation’* motives of conspicuous consumers. Pecuniary emulation occurs when a member of a lower class consumes conspicuously so that he will be thought of as a member of a higher class.

Uniqueness Motives

Affluent people buy expensive products to show their richness to the public by which they “distinguish themselves from the poor”. Christine (1992) says that the very rich refuse to purchase mass promoted and merchandised products, and instead only buy products for which they are the exclusive market (i.e. snob effect). This phenomenon was theoretically explained by Veblen in 1899. He used the word *‘invidious comparison’* which refers to situation in which a member of a higher class consumes conspicuously to distinguish himself from members of a lower class. This is well explained by Mason (1992), he says:

“the desire for social distinction can lead buyers to ignore a product's economic utility and to purchase solely for the social recognition (p.88)... and to the purely conspicuous consumer, the satisfaction derived from any particular purchase comes not from its value in use but from audience reaction to the wealth displayed by the purchaser in being able to secure the product for consumption exclusively” (p.26).

Status Motives

Jai-Ok Kim *et al.*, (2002) recognized two values of consumers; self-directed values and social affiliation values. The social affiliation values are largely fulfilled by

consumers through publicizing their fashionable consumption to the society. These socially oriented motives are important aspects in explaining the whole picture of conspicuous consumption. Researchers have documented diverse personal and social factors, which play significant roles in conspicuous consumption. O'Cass & McEwen, (2004), for example, recognized interpersonal influence and social status demonstration as the two main variables in the context of the conspicuous consumption scale. In their words,

“today, consumers’ desire for conspicuous goods is still largely determined by their social network..., consumers’ interpersonal influence and social status demonstration are the two main variables in the context of the conspicuous consumption” (p.28).

Hedonic Motives

Researchers believe that conspicuous consumption is used by consumers to reflect their household’s economic position relative to a reference group to exchange friendship, and to strengthen their social interactions (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Katja & Stuart, 2012). For example, Katja & Stuart (2012) explore the role of conspicuous consumption, particularly role of fashion in forming and maintaining self-esteem among British adolescents and they stated:

“as a result of peer pressure and the importance of conformity among adolescents, consuming conspicuously is essential for social acceptance, gaining and maintaining friendships and thus self-esteem” (p 1).

Based on these scholarly works, three main sets of motives for conspicuous consumptions can be identified;

- a) Veblen motive, Snob motive, and Bandwagon motive (Veblen, 1899; Duesenburry, 1949; Leibenstein, 1950)
- b) Veblen motive, Snob motive, Bandwagon motive, and Hedonic motive (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; Amanda, 2010)
- c) Conformist motive, Status motive, Uniqueness motive, and Hedonic motive (Richard & Clare, 2004; Christine, 1992; Jai-Ok Kim *et al.*, 2002; Katja & Stuart, 2012)

This research used the third category of conspicuous motives and therefore, the respondents' motives for consuming conspicuous products were measured from four aspect: conformist, status, uniqueness, and hedonic.

2.5. Product Qualified for Conspicuous Consumption

The purchase of goods and services for the purpose of displaying consumers' income or wealth rather than for their inherent utility is now widely recognized as a significant determinant of consumer choice. Individuals may prefer to buy expensive comfort goods, which are symbolic of social status, to demonstrate their societal standing in within their social norms. Therefore researchers believe that the desire for conspicuous motivates consumer behaviour and the extent to which a consumer desires for status can predict consumption of certain products. Chaudhuri and Majumdar (2006), for example, say;

*“consumption has now become a means of self-realization and identification, as consumers no longer merely consumes products.., they consume the symbolic meaning of those products, the image”
(p.4).*

While there is a general theoretical conception as to what conspicuous consumption is, and consumers have some general ideas about what commodities may be

associated with conspicuous consumption, some recent scholarly works have systematically investigated which commodities are considered as conveying status. Most of them concluded that *“fashion goods are associated with conspicuous consumption”*. They recognize that what qualified for conspicuous good depends on the level of benefits gain from such consumption in comparing to the “reference group” with which a consumer identifies.

Conspicuous goods are valued not only for functional qualities but also because they confer status on their users (what Veblen termed as *“serviceable”* aspect and *“ceremonial”* aspect). These goods exert two types of status effects: “snob effect” and “bandwagon effect”.

As stated elsewhere, Snob effect arises when the conspicuous good confers more status benefits if the number of users is perceived to be limited as a result of high price, constrained output or other factors. Whereas, bandwagon effect is deemed to be arisen when the conspicuous good confers more status benefits if the number of users is perceived to be growing (Leibenstein, 1950). Considering these arguments, Charoenrook and Thakor (2008) define conspicuous goods⁷ as

“goods with higher variability of innate consumption utility in the cross-section of consumers at higher prices” (p.6).

Such products are often supported by high levels of producer advertising that promotes them as status symbols for wealthy people. This leads to the acceptance of goods with higher cross-sectional variability in consumer utility as conspicuous goods at higher prices than those with lower variability, when both goods have the same cross-sectional mean utility and distribution function.

⁷ Ben Coope, *et al.*, (2001) attempt to differentiate ‘conspicuous goods’ from “normal goods.” They emphasize that ‘normal goods’ confer direct utility, while ‘conspicuous goods’ confer utility only at the expense of others.

The Economist (1993) emphasizes that the retailers can damage a glamorous good's image by selling it too cheaply. Therefore, conspicuous consumption involves consumption of expensive luxury products and they are not used by most consumers as regular products. In this spirit, Schor, (1998) defines conspicuous goods as:

“goods which are simply noticeable to the public and the higher consumption of these goods are generally associated with higher income. These goods in most cases are readily visible or if invisible, the owner must be able to convey the ownership and any status associated with it (p.2)”

Fan (2000) uses an economic definition of luxury goods as a proxy for conspicuous consumption. He defines conspicuous goods as *“those commodities and services with income elasticity greater than unity”*. Therefore, conspicuous goods have high expected income elasticity.

In defining conspicuous good, Thorstein Veblen's focus was on mainly the affluent product. Veblen (1899) claimed that people consume highly visible and extravagant goods in order to prove their wealth and gain prestige. The term 'Veblen-effect' refers to the case in which demand increases with price and people prefer to buy a higher priced conspicuous-consumption good in order to send a better signal. In addition to a classic Veblen good, more sophisticated cultural conspicuous-consumption goods are now available at present consumer-markets. Therefore, marketers deem that conspicuous consumption is not only about high-priced ornaments and lavishness cars. Possessing the expensive painting, using branded mobile phone, or even wearing a fashionable dress are also acts of signaling and status-seeking.

All the explanations given above, underline that the demand for conspicuous consumption goods is hard to explain. Yet, over the last few decades the market for

conspicuous goods has experienced tremendous growth. Moreover, the products what could be categorized as ‘conspicuous’ have been changed eventually. Jessie & John (2002), for example, identify clothing and take a small vacation as conspicuous products of little extra money earners, lap top computers, take a moderate vacation and purchase furniture as conspicuous products of moderate extra money earners, and new, larger homes and luxury cars, cell phones, car-related commodities, furniture, hardwood flooring and a swimming pool as conspicuous products of a lot of extra money earners in USA.

Table 2.3: Most Recognized Conspicuous Goods

Researchers		Conspicuous Goods											
		DC	JW	LA	CW	FT	LP	BH ^{1,2}	CP	WC	SE	AA	SH
Charles <i>et al.</i> , (2007)		X	X	X									
Schor, (1998)		X		X	X	X	X						
Jessie & John, (2002)		X		X				X	X				
Frank, (1999)		X		X									
Charles <i>et al.</i> , (2007)		X		X									
Charoenrook & Thankor, (2008)		X		X	X		X			X			X
Belk, (1986)		X											X
Andler, (1984)				X	X				X			X	
Frank, 1999			X			X		X		X	X		
Heffetz Ori, 2004								X					
DC	designer clothing		FT	Furniture & equipments						WC	wine & champagne		
JW	Jewellery		LP	lipsticks & perfumes						SE	sports equipment		
LA	luxury automobiles		BH	bigger home						SH	shoes		
CW	wristwatches		CP	cell phone						CD	CD players		

Recognizing the importance of rapidly emerging conspicuous product market, both academics and marketers continuously attempt to explore the characteristics of goods that are chosen for conspicuous consumption, particularly in fashion good market. According to the various findings, researchers have recognized that designer clothing and luxury automobiles as popular conspicuous goods, which follow by the wristwatch and bigger houses (see Table 2.3).

2.6. Cultural Values

People from different countries and different regions within the same country may differ in culture. And cultures differ along major value dimensions which provide ways to understand how people make their consumption choice, how people behave across different cultures, how they develop social relationships and what perceptions they develop of others (Solomon, 1994). According to Tai (2004),

“differences in cultures may result in perceptual differences and thus necessitate the use of different.....strategies in different cultures” (p. 438).

These arguments stress that individuals' consumption choices cannot be understood without considering the cultural context in which they are made.

Culture is a set of characteristics that sets one group of people apart from another. Since there is no unique definition on what is culture, cultural theorists have defined the concept of culture in their own ways. For example, Hofstede (2001), the most popular scholar in cultural studies, defines culture as:

“collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another (p.9)..and culture is not a characteristic of individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience” (p.5).

Schwartz (1999) considers culture as a rich complex of meanings, beliefs, practices, symbols, norms and values that prevail among people in a given society. Mooij (2004) looks at the culture from a different point of view. Consequently, he defines culture as:

“the glue that binds groups together; without cultural patterns people would have difficulty living together” (p. 26).

Although there are various definitions to the concept of culture, there appears to be agreement on the central role that values play in distinguishing and characterizing different cultures (Henry, 1976; Walter 1976; Charles *et al.*, 2007; Fiske *et.al.*, 1998). These researchers are fascinating to investigate how cultural values have evolved and in turn, how these values influence on consumption decisions.

In psychology, values refer to the manner in which human beings develop, assert and believe in certain values, and act or fail to act on them. In sociology, values are concerned with personal values which are popularly held by a community, and how those values might change under particular conditions. Yet, researcher in cultural studies recognize values as people’s guiding principles in life, which are affect their attitudes, intentions, and behavior (Rokeach, 1973; Williams, 1970; Schwartz, 1992; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Hofstede, 1984). These values expressed and shared the notion of what is good, right and desired in certain culture (Williams, 1970; Schwartz, 1999; Papazova *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, cultural values include ethical and moral values, religious and political values, social values, and aesthetic values of people.

Cultural values have been long recognized as influencing the interactional styles and behaviours of various groups (Kim *et al.*, 1994; Hornikx & O’Keefe, 2009). As indicates by the literature, the first systematic measure of cultural values was done by Allport and Vernon’s in 1931 by their research on ‘*study of values*’, in which they define a cultural value as: *“a belief upon which a man acts by preference”* (p. 454). An important and much cited contribution was made by Rokeach in 1973 by his study

on “*the nature of human values*”. In his study, Rokeach (1973) defines a cultural value as:

“an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence” (p. 5).

After Rokeach (1973), Schwartz & Bilsky (1987), and Hofstede (1980) made a significant contribution to cultural value studies. On the basis of a broad overview of the value literature, Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) provide a more elaborate definition of cultural value. According to these researchers, cultural values are “(a) *concepts or beliefs*, (b) *about desirable end states or behaviours*, (c) *that transcend specific situations*, (d) *guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events*, and (e) *are ordered by relative importance*” (p. 551).

Hofstede (1980) conceptualize cultural values as “*a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others*” (p. 18). Further he says that “not only do individuals vary in their value priorities, but cultures also have been shown to differ in their value hierarchies, that is, their rankings of which values are relatively important and unimportant”.

Some scholars argue that some elements of culture persist more than hundred years. Conversely, some are in the view that cultural values are not stagnant; these do evolve and change (Mason, 1981; Carter, 1991). They believe that cultural values are passed on from generation to generation and are shared by aggregates of people living in a particular society. In this way much of what people do is shared behaviour, passed along from one member of society to another. However, the pace of change may

differ depending on the level examined. Hence, cultural value debates are seems to be ever present.

2.6.1. Cultural Value Theory

Cultural value theory is launched by Royal anthropologist Mary Douglas in 1966 (see Sigve *et al.*, 2004), by which he provides an important insight in conceptualizing how people perceive and act upon the environment forces surrounding them. More specifically, cultural value theory explains how individuals' behaviour is largely determined by social aspects and cultural adherence of individuals.

Douglas extended his argument in 1978 by introducing the 'Grid-Group-Typology (GGT)', which is the basis of cultural value theory, to explain how people behave in different cultures. He emphasizes that the variation in social participation can be adequately accounted for by the dynamics between the two dimensions: '*group*' and '*grid*'. In short, group refers to whether an individual is a member of bonded social units and how absorbing the group's activities are on the individual. Alternatively the term grid suggests the cross-hatch of rules to which individuals are subject in course of their interaction.

GGT propose four outcomes, which represent different types of social environments (Figure 2.2). Each of them describes one of four ways of life of people. These are termed '*individualistic*', '*egalitarian*', '*hierarchical*', and '*fatalistic*'. The individualistic ways of life is characterized by low group and grid. Egalitarians are members of high group and low grid cultures, high grid and high group defines the hierarchical way of life, while high grid and low group is the fatalistic ways of life.

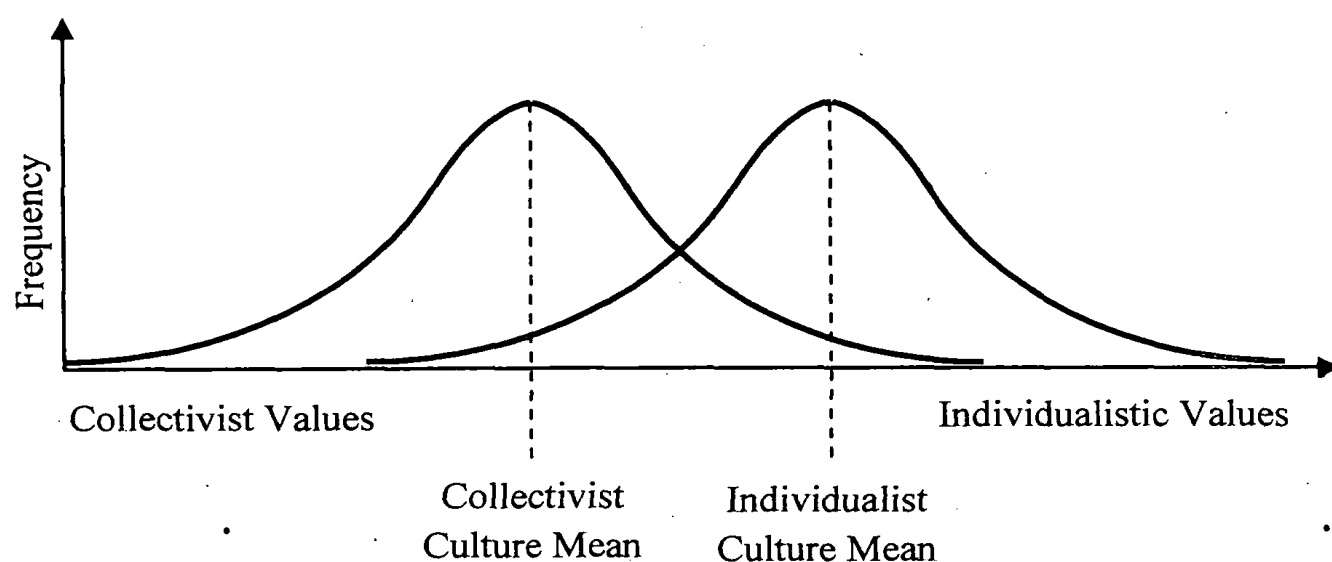
Figure 2.2: **Mary Gouglas' Grid-Group-Typology Model**

		Grid	
		Low	High
Group	High	Fatalistic	Hierarchic
	Low	Individualistic	Egalitarian

Adopted from: Sigve Oltedal, *et al.*, (2004), *Explaining risk perception: an evaluation of cultural theory*

The cultural value theory compared three issues that confront all societies. The first basic issue confronting all societies is to define the nature of the relation between the individual and the group. Hofstede (1980) suggests two critical cultural dimensions to solve this issue, which labeled as '*Individualism–Collectivism*'. It is also expressed as independence–interdependence. Individualism and Collectivism are two forms of cultural values that are usually seen as being diametrically opposed. Different societies are often presumed to orientate toward either one of these value types. However, this is usually based on the mean scores for a society on each of these values. At the individual level there may be substantial variation, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: **Theoretical distribution of Value Scores in a Collectivist and an Individualist Culture**



Adopted from: Allison Gareth M., (2008), *A Cross-Cultural Study of Motivation for Consuming Luxuries*

Individualism–Collectivism contrast includes two major themes: (1) *whose interests should take precedence, the individual's or the group's?* (2) *to what extent are persons autonomous vs. embedded in their groups?* Within collectivism the individuals are viewed as people who find meaning in life largely through social relationships, through identifying with the group and participating in its shared way of life. Schwartz (1999) labels this as the '*Conservatism*' value type. Within individualism the individuals are viewed as autonomous people who find meaning in his own uniqueness, who seeks to express his own internal attributes, such as preferences, traits, feelings, motives. Schwartz (1999) labels this as the '*Autonomy*' value type.

The second basic issue confronting by all societies is to assure responsible behaviour, which safeguards the social composition of a given society. Individuals must be induced to recognize one another as moral equals who share basic interests as human beings, consider the interests of others, coordinate with them, and thereby manage the unavoidable social interdependencies. Hofstede (1980) suggests one critical cultural dimension to solve this issue, which labeled as the '*Power Distance*' value type. Schwartz (1999) proposes two important cultural dimensions, which is label as the '*Hierarchy*' value type and '*Egalitarianism*' value type.

The third fundamental matter that confronts by all societies is the relation of humankind to the natural and social world. In particularly, to how much a society sticks with customary male and female roles. Hofstede (1980) proposed a vital cultural dimension to solve this issue, which labeled as '*Masculinity*', while Schwartz (1999) labels this as the '*Egalitarian commitment*' and '*Harmony*' value types.

Based on the cultural value theory, some scholars have identified variety of measures in order to explain the ways in which culture differs between national groups (see Table 2.4). These measures include lists of values, value hierarchies, and value dimensions. Also, some scholars have developed cultural value models to explain how people behave in a given society.

Table 2.4: Categorization of CVD's Identified in the Literature

Category Subcategory	Original Cultural Value Dimension	Source
Interpersonal Interaction Orientations		
<i>Individualism/ Collectivism</i>	Relational Orientation	Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961 p. 17-20)
	Self-Orientation/ Collectivity Orientation	Parsons & Shils (1962 p 248)
	Individualism/collectivism	Hofstede (1980; 1991 p 51)
<i>Universalism/ Particularism</i>	Universalism/ Particularism	Parsons & Shils (1962 p 248)
<i>Logic/Emotion</i>	Need for Affiliation	McClelland (1961)
	Affectivity/ Affective Neutrality	Parsons & Shils (1962 p 248)
	Masculinity/ Femininity	Hofstede (1980; 1991 p.81-82)
<i>Specificity/Diffuse</i>	Diffuseness/ Specificity	Parsons & Shils (1962 p 248)
<i>High/Low Context</i>	High and Low Context	Hall (1976)
<i>Equality/ Hierarchy</i>	Ascription/ Achievement	Parsons & Shils (1962 p 248).
	Need for Achievement	McClelland (1961)
	Need for Power	McClelland (1961)
	Power Distance	Hofstede (1980; 1991 p 28)
	Work Centrality	England & Misumi (1987 p 402)
Ambiguity Orientation	Uncertainty Avoidance	Hofstede (1980; 1991 p 113)
Human Nature Orientation	Human Nature Orientation	Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961 p 11-12)
Interaction With Nature Orientation	Man-Nature Orientation	Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961 p 13)
Time Orientations		
<i>Time Orientation</i>	Time Orientation	Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961 p. 13-15)
<i>Monochronic/ Polychronic time</i>	Monochronic and Polychronic time	Hall (1976)
Activity Orientations	Activity Orientation	Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961 p. 15-17.)

Adopted from: Gupta Susan F., (2010) Cultural Value Dimensions in a Strategic Decision Making Context

According to the literature, among others, Hofstede's (1980) and Schwartz's (1999) cultural value models are recognized as the most renowned models use in cultural studies.

2.6.2. Hofstede's Cultural Value Model

Greet Hofstede (1980), the most recognized researcher in cultural studies, has identified five value dimensions on which cultures can be classified and compared that facilitates to understand the basic value differences: individualism-collectivism (*the relationship between the self and groups*), high-low uncertainty avoidance (*the tolerance for uncertainty*), large-small power distance (*the acceptance of power inequality*), masculinity-femininity (*the distribution of gender roles*), and long-term versus short-term orientation (*or Confucianism dimension*).

Table 2.5: Hofstede Scores for Four Countries

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism Collectivism	Masculinity Femininity	Long-Term Orientation
NZ	22	49	79	58	30
Thailand	64	64	20	34	56
China	80	60	20	50	118
US	40	46	91	62	29

Hofstede's (1980) research was based on a sample of 117,000 employees from 40 countries in IBM. Later he has extended his sample to incorporate fifty national cultures and three regions. Hofstede developed a set of indices based on the mean score of each country. These indices indicate the extent to which the society orientates toward each of these values. The country scores for New Zealand, Thailand, China and the US are illustrated in Table 2.5. This portrays differences and similarities between these different societies, in their orientation toward the different cultural

values (Allison, 2010). The dimensions of work-related cultural values as interpreted by Hofstede (1980) are described as follows;

a) **Power Distance** - Small vs. large power distance (**PDI**) - Power Distance means the extent to which less powerful members of society accept and expect the power is distributed unequally. Therefore, this refers to the degree of inequality that exists – and is accepted – among people with and without power. A high PDI score indicates that society accepts an unequal distribution of power and people understand "their place" in the system. Low PDI means that power is shared and well dispersed. It also means that society members view themselves as equals.

	Characteristics	Tips
High PDI	1. Centralized companies. 2. Strong hierarchies. 3. Large gaps in compensation, authority, and respect.	1. Acknowledge a leader's power. 2. Be aware that you may need to go to the top for answers
Low PDI	1. Flatter organizations. 2. Supervisors and employees are considered almost as equals.	1. Use teamwork 2. Involve as many people as possible in decision making.

b) **Individualism** - Individualism vs. collectivism (**IDV**) - This refers to the strength of the ties people have to others within the community. A high IDV score indicates a loose connection with people. In individualist cultures, people are expected to develop and display their individual personalities and to choose their own affiliations. In collectivist cultures, people are defined and act mostly as a member of a long-term group, such as the family, a religious group, an age cohort, a town, or a profession, among others.

	Characteristics	Tips
High IDV	1. High valuation on people's time and their need for freedom. 2. An enjoyment of challenges, and an expectation of rewards for hard work. 3. Respect for privacy.	1. Acknowledge accomplishments. 2. Don't ask for too much personal information. 3. Encourage debate and expression of own ideas.

Low IDV	1. Emphasis on building skills and becoming masters of something. 2. Work for intrinsic rewards. 3. Harmony more important than honesty.	1. Show respect for age and wisdom. 2. Suppress feelings and emotions to work in harmony. 3. Respect traditions and introduce change slowly.
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c) **Masculinity** - Masculinity vs. femininity (**MAS**) - This refers to how much a society sticks with, and values, traditional male and female roles. High MAS scores are found in countries where men are expected to be tough, to be the provider, to be assertive and to be strong. If women work outside the home, they have separate professions from men. Low MAS scores do not reverse the gender roles. In a low MAS society, the roles are simply blurred. This dimension is often renamed by users of Hofstede's work, e.g. to *Quantity of Life vs. Quality of Life*.

	Characteristics	Tips
High MAS	1. Men are masculine and women are feminine. 2. There is a well defined distinction between men's work and women's work.	1. Be aware that people may expect male and female roles to be distinct. 2. Advise men to avoid discussing emotions or making emotionally-based decisions or arguments.
Low MAS	1. A woman can do anything a man can do. 2. Powerful and successful women are admired and respected.	1. Avoid an "old boys' club" mentality. 2. Ensure job design and practices are not discriminatory to either gender. 3. Treat men and women equally.

d) **Uncertainty Avoidance Index** - Weak vs. strong uncertainty avoidance (**UAI**) -

This relates to the degree of anxiety society members feel when in uncertain or unknown situations. In cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance, people prefer explicit rules (e.g. about religion and food) and formally structured activities, and employees tend to remain longer with their present employer. Hence, high UAI-scoring nations try to avoid ambiguous situations whenever possible. They are governed by rules and order and they seek a collective "truth". In cultures with weak uncertainty avoidance, people prefer implicit or flexible rules or guidelines

and informal activities. Low UAI scores indicate the society enjoys novel events and values differences.

	Characteristics	Tips
High UAI	1. Very formal business conduct with lots of rules and policies. 2. Need and expect structure. 3. Sense of nervousness spurs high levels of emotion and expression. 4. Differences are avoided.	1. Be clear and concise about your expectations and parameters. 2. Plan and prepare, communicate often and early, provide detailed plans and focus on the tactical aspects of a job or project. 3. Express your emotions through hands gestures and raised voices.
Low UAI	1. Informal business attitude. 2. More concern with long term strategy than what is happening on a daily basis. 3. Accepting of change and risk.	1. Do not impose rules or structure unnecessarily. 2. Minimize your emotional response by being calm and contemplating situations before speaking. 3. Express curiosity when you discover differences.

e) **Long Term Orientation** - Long vs. short term orientation (**LTO**) - This refers to how much society values long-standing - as opposed to short term - traditions and values. This is the fifth dimension that Hofstede added in the 1990s after finding that Asian countries with a strong link to Confucian philosophy acted differently from western cultures. In long term oriented societies, people value actions and attitudes that affect the future: persistence/perseverance, thrift, and shame. In short-term oriented societies, people value actions and attitudes that are affected by the past or the present: normative statements, immediate stability, protecting one's own face, respect for tradition, and reciprocation of greetings, favors, and gifts.

	Characteristics	Tips
High LTO	1. Family is the basis of society. 2. Parents and men have more authority than young people and women. 3. Strong work ethic. 4. High value placed on education and training.	1. Show respect for traditions. 2. Do not display extravagance or act frivolously. 3. Reward perseverance, loyalty, and commitment. 4. Avoid doing anything that would cause another to "lose face".

Low	1. Promotion of equality.	1. Expect to live by the same standards and rules you create.
LTO	2. High creativity, individualism.	2. Be respectful of others.
	3. Treat others as you would like to be treated.	3. Do not hesitate to introduce necessary changes.
	4. Self-actualization is sought.	

However, support is not universal for Hofstede's conceptualization, with a number of scholars critical of the reliance on Hofstede's dimensions of culture in cross-cultural research. These criticisms are largely focused on the representativeness of the sample (Hunt, 1981), the validity of the claims made by the application of the dimensions (Triandis, 1980), and the ethnocentrism of the items used to measure the dimensions⁸. The most troubling criticism arises from Hofstede himself who states that *"obviously, these items from the IBM questionnaire do not totally cover the distinction between...in society. They only represent the issues in the IBM research that relate to this distinction"*, (Hofstede 1991 p. 52).

Despite the problems associated with, researchers do recognize the usefulness of a set of culture measures proposed by Hofstede for the comparison of cultures. Therefore, most of the subsequent studies in marketing rely on Hofstede's cultural value dimensions and differences in behavior, beliefs, and preferences are then recognized.

2.6.3. Schwartz's Cultural Value Model

An alternative scheme for classifying cultural values has emerged in subsequent research conducted by the Israeli psychologist Shalom Schwartz and his colleagues (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990). Schwartz's analysis is based on the premise that values may have different meaning for respondents from different cultures. Accordingly, he has proposed seven types of cultural values in his famous *"Theory of Cultural Value"*.

⁸ The Chinese Culture Connection 1987 as cited by Gupta, 2010

This approach distinguishes cultures accordingly seven dimensions structured along three bipolar dimensions of culture: Autonomy (Intellectual and Affective) versus Conservatism (*to what extent individuals are autonomous or dependant from the group they belongs*), Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism (*to what extent personal responsibility is guaranteed in order to preserve the social order*), Mastery versus Harmony (*to what extent people value their relations with nature and social world*). Schwartz's seven types of cultural values can be compared by considering three issues that confront all societies as follows;

Issue I: The first basic issue confronting all societies is to define the nature of the relation between the individual and the group. This dimension is frequently labeled conservatism–autonomy (Schwartz, 1992)

1. **Conservatism:** A cultural emphasis on maintenance of the status quo, propriety, and restraint of actions or inclinations that might disrupt the solidary group or the traditional order (social order, respect for tradition, family security, wisdom). The value type of conservatism includes values that are important in societies based on close-knit harmonious relations, in which the interest of the person are not viewed as distinct from those of the group
2. **Intellectual Autonomy:** A cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions (curiosity, broadmindedness, creativity)
3. **Affective Autonomy:** A cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing affectively positive experience (pleasure, exciting life, varied life)

Issue II: The second basic issue that confronts all societies is to guarantee responsible behaviour that will preserve the social fabric. People must be induced to consider the welfare of others, coordinate with them, and thereby manage the unavoidable social interdependencies.

1. **Hierarchy:** A cultural emphasis on the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, roles and resources (social power, authority, humility, wealth). These values emphasize the legitimacy of hierarchical roles.
2. **Egalitarianism:** A cultural emphasis on transcendence of selfish interests in favour of voluntary commitment to promoting the welfare of others (equality, social justice, freedom, responsibility, honesty). This includes value types of promoting the welfare of other people or transcendence of selfish interests.

Issue III: The third basic issue that confronts all societies is the relation of humankind to the natural and social world. One response is actively to master and change the world, to assert control, bend it to our will, and exploit it in order to further personal or group interests.

1. **Mastery:** A cultural emphasis on getting ahead through active self-assertion (ambition, success, daring, competence). These values emphasize active mastery of the social environment through self assertion. Mastery values promote active efforts to modify one's surrounding and get ahead of other people.
2. **Harmony:** A cultural emphasis on fitting harmoniously into the environment (unity with nature, protecting the environment, world of beauty). This value type emphasizes harmony with nature.

Moreover, Schwartz' value theory concern the fundamental values that people in all cultures recognize. He has used a set of 56 values which were rated by the respondent for importance as "*a guiding principle in their own life*" and identifies ten motivationally distinct value orientations that people in all cultures recognize - security, conformity, tradition, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, legitimacy of hierarchical roles, mastery of social environment through self-assertion, social commitment, and harmony with nature. These values are presented in table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Schwartz's Seven Cultural Value Dimensions

Cultural Dimension		Derived Values	Values Included
01	Conservatism	i. Security, ii. Conformity, iii. Tradition	Devout, obedient, social order, and family security
02	Intellectual Autonomy	iv. Self-direction, v. Stimulation,	Autonomy of individual thoughts, curiosity, creativity, and broadminded
03	Affective Autonomy	vi. Hedonism	Varied life, stimulating activity, exciting life
04	Hierarchy	vii. Legitimacy of hierarchical roles	Social power, authority, influential, humble, and self enhancement
05	Mastery	viii. Mastery of social environment through self-assertion	Daring, capable, success, ambition, independence, self-direction at the individual level, and the pursuit of personal interest
06	Egalitarian Commitment	ix. Social commitment	Social justice, responsible, helpful, loyal, honest, equality, and freedom
07	Harmony	x. Harmony with nature	Social harmony, world at peace, social justice, helpful, and world of beauty

In addition to Hofstede's (1980) and Schwartz's (1997) contributions, there are some more studies in which scholars have attempted to identify the individual's different cultural value dimensions. For example, encompassing the literature from cultural anthropology, sociology, and social-psychology, Gupta (2010) has acknowledged twenty empirically derived cultural value dimensions. Moreover, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) define and describe a series of cultural value orientations which are influencing orientations to problems and potential solutions across culture groups.

They identified range of values in five orientations which are similar to Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. Some of the major cultural orientation studies are summarized in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7: Summary of Major Cultural Orientation Studies

	Hofstede (1980) Work Values	Schwartz (1992) individual values	Schwartz (1994) cultural values	Smith, Duggan & Trompenaars (1996)
Individualism	Individualism: A concern for yourself as an individual	Openness to Change: 1: Hedonism: Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself 2: Stimulation: Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life 3: Self-Direction: Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring	Intellectual Autonomy: There is a cultural preference towards individuals developing their own ideas Affective Autonomy: It is a desirable state that the individual actively pursues positive affective experiences	Utilitarian Involvement: The individual will be involved in a group on the basis of utilitarian considerations
Collectivism	Collectivism: A concern for the priorities and rules of the group to which you belong	Conservation: 1: Tradition: Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self 2: Conformity: Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms 3: Security: Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships, and of self	Conservatism: The individual primarily identifies with the group and accordingly places an emphasis on relationships. There is a bias in favour of the status quo, and behaviours that disturb convention and / or the group are discouraged	Loyal Involvement: The individual will be involved in a group on the basis of loyal considerations

Vertical	High Power-Distance: Inequality is seen as an irreducible fact of life	Power: Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources	Hierarchy: A hierarchical unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources is legitimised. Individuals are socialised to accept their obligations and roles within society, behaviours that disturb these societal conventions are discouraged Mastery: The environment, both social and natural, should be controlled by groups and individuals through positive action so that the interests of the group or individual are advanced	Conservatism: Ascribed status is prioritised over achieved status
	Low Power-Distance: Equality between individuals	Benevolence: Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal conflict	Egalitarian Commitment: Individuals regarded as having shared interests, furthered by concern for the wellbeing of others and cooperation.	Egalitarian Commitment: Achieved status is prioritized over ascribed status

Adopted from: Allison Gareth M., (2008), A Cross-Cultural Study of Motivation for Consuming Luxuries

Despite the fact that there are different cultural value model available, Hofstede's cultural value dimensions are increasingly used as independent variables for comparative cross-cultural studies and have led to many useful explanations of cross-cultural differences in consumer behaviour (Mooij, 2004). Therefore, this research also used Hofstede's five cultural value dimension model as the basis for investigating cultural orientation of the respondents.

2.6.4. Cultural Values and Conspicuous Consumption

Conspicuous Consumption is closely tied to cultural adherence. Depending on whether one is socially participating and which groups one belongs to, one will focus on different types of consumption. Given the fact that different consumer groups

exhibit different tastes with respect to conspicuous goods, it is vital to raise the question “what explains the differences in conspicuous spending among consumers across cultures?” One possible answer is that their cultural values make them difference in consuming conspicuous goods. McCracken (1986) says:

“goods possess cultural meaning is sometimes evident to the consumer and sometimes hidden.... and consumers may conspicuously see and manipulate such cultural meanings as the status of a consumer item”
(p.78).

Literature suggests two main conspicuous consumption concerns; the first concern is that conspicuous-driven consumption is a thoroughly rational course of action - consumers use other consumers’ consumption choices as fairly cultured indications of social position. Since in different cultural context, each consumer’s purchase decision rests in part on the observed purchasing behaviour of other consumers, such behaviour indicates the social status accorded to visible ownership of a particular item. Therefore, the literature on conspicuous-driven consumption usually defines conspicuous benefits of a good in terms of the “*reference group*” with which a consumer identifies.

The second concern is, individuals engage in conspicuous consumption by referencing how others organize their consumption patterns in a given social-cultural context. For example, consumption of conspicuous goods among ‘*higher-class*’ cultures may drive by a desire to distinguish themselves from ‘*lower-class*’ persons’. While, the consumption of conspicuous goods among lower-class cultures may drive by a desire to be thought of as a member of a higher social class (see Veblen, 1912).

The researchers who work on second concern propose that the people in different cultures have different value orientations, which cause variation in preference of

conspicuous consumption. Consequently, Heffetz, (2004) says that in the socio-cultural context many of the choices consumers make and the actions they take are consumption- related. Therefore, scholars continuously struggle to understand the inter-connections among culture, psychology and sociology in order to explore the underline motives of conspicuous consumption.

As literature validate, the study of the links between culture and psychology started in the 19th century, perhaps with Comte's six volume of "*cours de philosophie positive*" (1830-1842). Sociologists also have excessively emphasized the power of social structure on the consumption of all commodities. In his *Social Structures of the Economy*, Bourdieu (2005) said, "*while economics is about how people make choices, sociology is about how they don't have any choice to make*" (p.1). Literature discloses that, in the past century, a great deal of research was devoted to the study the culturally-bounded consumption from different perspectives; more specifically the impact of cultural values on conspicuous consumption behaviour. The broad overviews of the literature in conspicuous consumption confirm that cultural values of consumers may manipulate the conspicuous consumption passion of consumers in any given society.

2.7. Consumer Demographics

Consumer's demographic characteristics play as large a part in the extent of conspicuous consumption as in overall consumption. Particularly, how individuals perceive their conspicuousness may largely depends on their demographic characteristics. For example, an affluent young person in present generation may purchase a "*Mitsubishi Montero*" jeep, construct a luxury house, and wear a gold

bracelet to demonstrate their wealth to the public, whereas in 1950's rich persons have purchased acres of lands, elephants, and precious ornaments for the same purpose.

Consumer demographics are simply defined as the average or distinctive characteristics of the people, its structure and change. According to Rossne (2008), consumer demographics are:

“the statistical characteristics of human populations, such as age, gender, geographic location, marital status, ethnicity, and income, used by businesses to identify markets for their goods and services” (p.4).

Customer Demographics are defined by Wikipedia as including “gender, race, age, income, disabilities, mobility (in terms of travel time to work or number of vehicles available), educational attainment, home ownership, employment status, and even location.” Mark Freeman (1997) & Jessie & John, (2002) also provide a more elaborate definition of consumer demographics. They use nine variables to define ‘*what is consumer demographics*’ such as individual’s income, sex, age, education, occupation, household size, location, race, and nationality. Researchers frequently use these nine variables as consumer demographics in their studies⁹. Therefore, these nine consumer demographics were used in this research also to measure the respondents’ demographic perception towards to conspicuous consumption.

2.7.1. Consumer Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption

The most important aspect of consumer demographics and, in turn, demographics perception, is it ever changes - both academics and marketers recognize that the nature of consumer demographics trends over time. Consequently, within each

⁹ See: Freeman (1997); Beck (1992); Jessie & John (2002); Mooij (2004)

generation, more and more people would rather be different than fit in, and as the generations get younger a higher proportion say they prefer to be different (Willmott & William, 2003). This may affect how consumers in different generations perceive their consumption needs.

In contrast to common perceptions that individuals' consumption choices are primarily motivated by their search for status or personal gratification, Stillerman (2004) propose that gender, family and class significantly shape consumers consumption decisions, both conspicuous and inconspicuous. He says that;

“while individuals make efforts to improve their social status, gender, class and family relationships significantly influence individuals' consumption choices” (p.52).

Dubois & Laurent, (1994) and Tidwell & Dubois, (1996 cited by Fereshteh & Kambiz, 2012), also put forward that the perception of conspicuousness is influenced by demographics, lifestyle, habit, social environment and of course, the purveyors of luxuries and the marketers. Therefore, scholars focus on individuals' demographic-perception to understand how they make their conspicuous consumption in present markets. Some of these studies have shown that consumers' perception of conspicuousness varies by their consumer demographics.

Realizing the consequences, scholars are now interesting in understanding the both theoretical and empirical foundations of demographic perception of different consumers and its impact on conspicuous consumption. More specifically, these researchers are struggling to explore how consumers' demographic-perceptions are influencing on conspicuous consumption. Mostly, they strive to realize how conspicuous consumption is embedded in race, gender, class and family identities,

education, race and nationalities and finally they have identified different degrees of correlations between consumer demographics and their conspicuous consumption¹⁰.

2.8. Empirical Evidence for Influence of Cultural Values and Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption

What hypothetical explanation accounts for conspicuous consumption? One argument is that the difference in expenditure on conspicuous consumption derives simply from cultural value differences; i.e. Hindus spend more on gold jewellery and brighter apparel than Sinhalese or Muslims. An alternative explanation presumes that utility functions are the same across the consumer, but demographic perception place different marginal valuations on conspicuous consumption items (Triandis, 1995). Convergence theory proposes that nations along with industrialization and modernization are becoming increasingly alike despite different cultural and historical legacies and diverse political and economic systems (Inkeles, 1998). This does not mean that all societies will be identical; because the unique socio-demographic variables pertaining to difference countries and societies make their members difference from others. Chung and Fischer (2001) say that;

“it is now well accepted that individuals within a culture may exhibit different degrees of identification with the culture..., since the intra-cultural differences exist, people with the same culture may have different consumer behaviour” (p.476).

Serenity (2009) also prominently cited that, *“we all have a culture, and an identity that defines who we are and the choices we make as human beings. Ones culture can also be intersected with the cultures of race, gender, disability, occupational groups, and social-class” (p.12).*

¹⁰ See: Chao & Schor (1998); Jessie & John (2002); Dubois & Laurent (1994)

Mooij (2004), in her book on “*Consumer Behaviour and Culture*”, also discusses the influence of several socio-demographic variables, such as individual’s education, age distribution, social class, ethnicity, urbanization, and population density, on cultural values and, in turn on consumer behaviour. Interestingly, the factors that have been linked to conspicuous purchasing are also likely to be influenced by buyers’ cultural values and their demographic perceptions.

Therefore, some scholars were persuaded to explore the impact of consumer cultural values and their demographics on conspicuous consumption (Sigal & Ram, 2010; Samsinar *et al.*, 2004; Earley & Gibson, 1998). The subsequent sections of this study, present some of the important empirical findings for the influence of individual’s cultural values and their demographics on conspicuous consumption.

2.8.1. Influence of Cultural Values on Conspicuous Consumption

A review of the existing cross-cultural literature suggest that different cultures endow individuals with different rules or principles that provide guidance for making consumption decisions (Donnel *et al.*, 2000). As Luna & Gupta (2001) propose cultural value system of a consumer is internalized over time as individuals are socialized as members of a group. Therefore, researchers identified cultural values as one of the crucial elements in understanding consumer’s consumption value, with the assumption that an individual’s consumption pattern is usually reflective of their cultural value system (see Table 2.8). Most of them have attempted to tighten the rather loosely stated relationship by suggesting how culture affected conspicuous consumption through hypothesized intervening variables (Donnel & Jennifer, 2006; Haksin *et al.*, 2009).

Scholars suggest that cultural values differences arise on basic of psychological process of consumers. And they have long recognized the influence of cultural values on the interactional styles and behaviours of various cultural groups (Carter, 1991; Kim, Atkinson, & Yang, 1999). Particularly, the values implicit in a culture are said to affect consumption motives which in turn partially set the choice criteria used by individual consumers (Walter, 1976).

In 2000, a special issue of the *Journal of Consumer Psychology* (2000, 9(2)) dealt with cultural issues demonstrating the growing interest in cultural differences in consumer behaviour and highlighted the importance of understanding the cultural context of consumer behaviour in an increasing globalized marketplace. On the other hand, the 'new' sociology of consumption that emerged in the 1980s acknowledged that consumption is a significant cultural and social practice and not just a mere signifier of the pathological elements of contemporary societies (Silvia, 2008). Possibly, this revolutionized-consumption has gone beyond its mark and has led to an overriding concern with the symbolic and conspicuous dimension of goods. This phenomenon was explained by O'Cass & McEwen (2006) as follows:

"instead of consciously choosing to engage in conspicuous consumption according to rational calculation, individuals are driven by cultural forces beyond their control" (p.15).

Therefore, understanding the influence of cultural values might help managers dealing with conspicuous consumption to better manage their marketing strategy in a cross-national context.

In his famous study on "*conspicuous consumption in the Chinese automobile market*" Tai (2007) confirms that the high level of conspicuous consumption can be explained

by people's cultural values. Further he says that how an individual compare his consumption with the reference group and how it influences on an individual's conspicuous consumption may depend on their cultural values. Besides Tai's scholarly contribution, there are some researchers who have strived to investigate the impact of cross-cultural values of different nationalities on their conspicuous consumption. They found that the diverse cultural values of consumers are significantly impact on their conspicuous consumption¹¹.

These finding suggest that consumers in different cultures believe that their social status may affect their self-image, which, in turn, stimulates them to exhibit conspicuous behaviour. This implies that how individuals engage in conspicuous consumption to preserve their social status is varied by their cultural values.

Another set of scholars attempted to examine the theoretical foundation of "*cultural visibility*" of different consumer expenditures and its impact on conspicuous consumption (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006; McCracken, 1986; Barnett, 2005; Durvasula *et.al*, 2001; Heffetz, 2004). Most of these researchers found that conspicuous consumption is motivated by a desire to distinguish them through vanity¹². And they further noted that accomplishment vanity can be observed in cultures when consumers use consumption as a means of conveying success, status, or conspicuousness. Therefore, these researchers argue that since individuals live in society many of their consumption decisions are observed by others... hence, when they making consumption decisions, individuals consider not only the direct effects of their choice on their welfare, but also the indirect (or social) effects resulting from society observing their choice. This is well explained by Veblen (1899), he says:

¹¹ See: Andrew & Sally (2003); Jason & Seung-Hee (2010); Nizar *et al.*, (2011)

¹² Durvasula *et al.* (2001) have defined vanity as a psychological construct that describes a person's excessive concern with physical appearance or achievement.

“the consumption of conspicuous goods among ‘higher-class’ persons was driven by a desire to distinguish themselves from ‘lower-class’ persons..., and the consumption of conspicuous goods among lower-class persons was driven by a desire to be thought of as a member of a higher social class” (p.12).

This implies that individuals engage in conspicuous consumption by referencing how others organize their consumption patterns, by which they can have their own unique consumption patterns.

Some researchers found that consumers tend to conform to the majority opinion of their membership groups and the values of their cultures when forming conspicuous consumption attitudes (Oliver *et.al*, 1999; Joseph *et.al*, 2005; Barnett, 2005). It is a result of an individual’s desire for public compliance in an effort to enhance self-image or self-concept (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006). Therefore, these scholars proposed a strong relationship between cultural identification and conspicuous consumption. They deem that the level of conspicuous-driven consumption of an extended family living in a village may depend on the consumption pattern of their neighbors, family friends, and the people living in urban areas.

This is prominently cited by Barnett (2005) and says that;

“where goods offer potential purchasers benefits in terms of the enhanced social status accorded to ‘fashionable’ consumers, each consumer’s purchase decision is dependent on other consumers’ purchasing behaviour insofar as such behaviour defines what is and is not fashionable” (p.01).

This suggests that some individuals engage in conspicuous consumption to facilitate conformity with the societal values in different cultural contexts.

Table 2.8: Cultural Values and Conspicuous consumption

Author/s	Focus	Conclusion/s
Andrew & Sally (2003)	cultural values & the luxury goods buying behaviour	significant differences exist between British Indians and British Caucasians luxury goods preferences
Joseph <i>et.al.</i> , (2005)	effect of acculturation dimensions on conspicuous consumption	strong relationship exists between Chinese identification culture and conspicuous consumption
Charles <i>et.al.</i> , (2007)	Differences in conspicuous consumption	Blacks and Hispanics devote larger shares of their expenditure to conspicuous goods than Whites
Haksin <i>et.al.</i> , (2009)	culture and consumers' tolerance	Asian (vs. Western) consumers are more dissatisfied with social failures but less dissatisfied with non-social failures
Nancy & Ahuvia (1998)	Conspicuous consumption in Confucian and Western societies	materialism and conspicuous consumption are conceptually linked in Western cultures
Oliver <i>et.al.</i> , (1999)	influence of cultural values on visible social behaviour	visible behaviour of Hong Kong consumers is mediated by Chinese cultural values
Paula (2010)	material culture, social status & conspicuous consumption	conspicuous consumers differently motivate to acquire material goods in different cultures
Guohua (2011)	automobile purchase patterns	Chinese Americans' collectivism is positively related with conspicuous consumption
Nizar <i>et.al.</i> , (2011)	conspicuous consumption of branded fashion accessories	conspicuous consumption in both Canada and Tunisia cultures is directly and positively influenced by social status display
Carlos & Ahluwalia (2012)	automatic cultural congruency mechanism	culturally symbolic brands is positively related with conspicuous consumption

Most of these studies were based on western cultures, for example: British (Andrew & Sally, 2003), United State of America (Jason & Seung-Hee, 2010; Guohua, 2011), Tunisia (Nizar *et al.*, 2011), Canada (Joseph *et.al.*, 2005; Nizar *et al.*, 2011). Yet, few researchers focused on eastern cultures, particularly among developed countries, such as, Korea (Jason & Seung-Hee, 2010), China (Joseph *et.al.*, 2005; Tai 2007), Hong

Kong (Oliver *et.al*, 1999). Therefore, no research found, which focused on the impact of cultural values of a developing Asian country on conspicuous consumption. On the other hand, to date, much of research work has addressed the influence of individualism or collectivism, often framed in terms of independent vs. Interdependent¹³. They propose that in individualistic cultures, social status plays a significant role in influencing consumers' self-esteem. Therefore, consumers in individualist cultures organized their conspicuous consumption propensity more than people from collectivist cultures. Hofstede (1980) says:

“within western culture which is individualistic, individual's goals are considered over group goals, and the culture tends to resent conformity” (p.21).

In contrast some scholars argue that conspicuous consumption is higher among collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures. For example, Guohua (2011) explores the luxury automobile purchase patterns of Chinese Americans by examining factors driving an intriguing phenomenon. Then he proposes that Chinese Americans' collectivism is positively related to their susceptibility to conspicuous consumption, yet their individualism is not. Therefore it signifies that both individualistic and collectivists use conspicuous consumption as a mean of reflecting their household's economic position relative to a reference group. However, most of these studies have purposely ignored other cultural value dimensions, such as uncertainty avoidance, power distance, long-term orientation etc.

2.8.2. Influence of Consumer Demographic on Conspicuous Consumption

Wikipedia defines customer demographics as including;

¹³ See: Shipman (2004); Barnett (2005); Guohua (2011); Paula (2010); Allison (2010); Charles *et al.* (2007); Katja & Stuart (2012)

“gender, race, age, income, disabilities, mobility (in terms of travel time to work or number of vehicles available), educational attainment, home ownership, employment status, and even location.”

These consumer-demographics may lead consumers to vary in many of their purchase behaviours across cultures. Researchers, therefore, interest in exploring the influence of consumer demographics on their conspicuous consumption¹⁴. They have shown that when certain products are concerned, some consumer-demographic groups are more susceptible to public influence than others. Most of these scholars accept that demographic variables have significant relationships with consumer taste and their product evaluation criteria.

Over the past 20 years the literature has consistently highlighted the importance of consumer demographic (and demographic-perceptions) in conspicuous consumption. Therefore, there are ample researches in the area of consumer demographic impact on consumption behaviour. Most of these researchers have found that the perception of luxury or conspicuousness is influenced by consumer-demographics (Dubois & Laurent, 1994; Tidwell & Dubois, 1996). For example, in 2002, Jessie & John have measured consumers' perception towards conspicuous consumption using nine socio-demographic variables. They confirmed that consumers' perception of what constitutes conspicuous goods varies by age, gender, race, marital status, working status, family size, living arrangement, income and students' major.

Lynn and Jane (2010) also have studied the consumer demographic characteristics in relation to brand purchases for status. They found that the most of the consumer demographics, other than the length of residency, education, and origin of ethnicities

¹⁴ See: Dubois & Laurent (1994); Tidwell & Dubois (1996); Mariëlle (2010); Ram & Sigal (2007); George (2003); Christina & Sharon (2002); Bearden & Etzel (1982).

of immigrants, are highly correlated with conspicuous consumption. Some of the scholarly contributions, under different consumer demographics, are discussed below.

Consumer's Gender

An emerging body of theory and research suggests conspicuous consumption may have evolved as a sexually selected mating tactic. Sexual selection was originally proposed by Darwin in 1871 (Sundie *et al*, 2010). Darwin suggests that conspicuous features are selected for because they enhance an individual's attractiveness to the opposite sex. Following Darwin (1871), few researchers have identified consumer gender distinctions in conspicuous consumption and commend that conspicuous (or expressive) focus is more appropriate for both male and females¹⁵.

Some of these researchers confirm that females are more conspicuous than males (Barber & Lobel 1953; Nizar and Bouthaina, 2011). Barber & Lobel (1953) and Lloyd (1954), for example, suggest that Americans women's dress fashions are not simply irrational, and most of them are oriented towards status mobility. In conversely, Bagwell and Bernheim (1996) and Lynda *et.al*, (2007) argue that men make more conspicuous consumption; they say that "*in order to gain and to hold the esteem of men, wealth must be put on evidence*" (p.350). O'Cass & McEwen (2004) also found differences in conspicuous consumption tendencies between males and females, and say that;

"men placed more importance than women on the conspicuousness of product use... males have a greater need for external validation of their status through the display of products conveying prestige and accomplishment" (p.4).

¹⁵ Miller (2002, 2009); Saad (2007); Paul (2002); Lynda *et.al*, (2007); O'Cass & McEwen (2004); Lisbet & Mari (2009); Bianca (2009); Tai (2007); Barber & Lobel (1953); Bagwell & Bernheim (1996)

Another school of researchers argue that there is no significant relationship between gender with conspicuous consumption (Tai, 2007; Eastman and Jun, 2012; Jessie & John, 2002). As Tai (2007) says;

“females are more conscious to fashion products and many of them like luxury handbags, however there is no definite answer to which gender consumes more conspicuously... because male and female make different conspicuous consumption, and ‘gender effects’ also differ from culture to culture” (p.19).

Jessie and John (2002) also found that more women are likely to consider clothing and a moderate vacation as status symbols, while more men than women are likely to consider luxury cars a status symbol. Meenakshi & Arpita's (2011) research findings indicate that that young men and women differ with respect to their interest with conspicuous consumption. Lisbet and Mari (2009) propose that some markets can be described as female-dominated, while others can be described as male-dominated consumer areas. Consequently Bianca (2009) develops a two-dimensional scale to measure masculine and feminine brand personality, for both utilitarian and symbolic brands. He recognizes that gender dimensions of personality appear especially relevant to brands that have symbolic value for consumers and product gender perceptions enhance purchase intentions. These arguments suggest that today consumption is largely gendered. However, still it is debatable which gender makes more conspicuous consumption in present market.

Consumer's Age

Review of literature reveals that the importance of the conspicuous consumption has been explored in depth among both adult and young consumers by different

scholars¹⁶. Paul (2002), for example, investigates the influence of social class on the relative salience of functional and expressive (conspicuous) considerations. He identified consumer age distinctions in conspicuous consumption, and confirms that functional focus is more appropriate for older males, while an expressive (or conspicuous) emphasis will more often be appropriate for young consumers.

In exploring the conspicuous consumption among different age categories, researchers have identified that conspicuous consumption is relevant for young people, because they attempt to signal their status through clothing choices in both modern and conservative societies¹⁷. Eastman and Jun (2012), for example, examined how the level of conspicuous consumption differentiate by generational groups. They found that the average level of status consumption was highest for Generation Y, followed by Generation X and then Baby Boomers¹⁸. These findings propose that *'younger consumers engage more conspicuous consumption than the older consumers'*.

Yet, Tai (2007) says that elder people have more desires and at the same time, more ability to make conspicuous consumption than younger people. Therefore, Tai says that elder people may involve more conspicuous consumption than younger. These paradoxical research findings propose that there are no universal agreement on who makes more conspicuous consumption; whether elder consumers or younger consumers.

¹⁶ Paul (2002); Tai (2007); Maria & Greig, (2004); Nizar & Bouthaina, (2011); Emma & Margaret (2004)

¹⁷ Nizar & Bouthaina (2011); Pamela cited by Amanda (2010); Maria & Greig, (2004); Eastman & Jun (2012)

¹⁸ Generation X - largely in their 30's and early 40's (<http://legalcareers.com>), Generation Y - birth dates ranging somewhere from the later '70s or the early '80s to the early 2000s, & Baby Boomers - born during the demographic Post-World War II; between the years 1946 and 1964, (<http://en.wikipedia.org>)

Consumer's Income and Education

Duesenberry (1949) recognizes the association between income and status-seeking consumption, and says that status-seekers may spend money to "*show*" their success. More generally, the positive association between income/education and status-consumption is supported by the models of Congleton (1989) and Rauscher (1993), in which there exists both an "amplification" effect (*higher status consumption by others increases the marginal return to additional status consumption for an individual and therefore encourages status consumption*) and a "discouragement" effect (*in which people drop out of the game on account of the extra status seeking activities of others*). They prove that people with lower income and education display larger discouragement effects, and are thus, on average, less likely to engage in status consumption.

In a study of the conspicuous consumption of cosmetics in USA, Chao and Schor (1998) found strong evidence for the variation of conspicuous consumption by income group, and confirm more affluent people do more conspicuous buying. Damian (2009) has investigated choice of conspicuous goods among the university students in University of Texas. He concludes that the amount invested in the conspicuous good determines all students' relative standing in the classroom (elite, upper class, middle class, or lower class citizens). Moreover, Jessie and John's, (2002) research findings disclose that;

"for the 'a little extra money' category, 'clothing' was selected as a commodity showing a higher status, followed by 'cell phone', while for the 'a lot of extra money' category, 'new bigger home' was selected as a commodity showing a higher status, followed by 'luxury car'" (p.1).

Accordingly, many scholars propose that the consumers' conspicuous consumption fashion may vary on their income level¹⁹. In contrast, Eastman and Jun (2012) says that there is no significant relationship between income, and education with conspicuous consumption. Therefore, the relationship between consumers' income, education and the conspicuous consumption susceptibility is still not entirely explained by the existing literature.

Consumer's Occupation

Analysis of literature discloses that comparatively few researchers were interested in revealing how consumers occupation impact on conspicuous consumption. For example, Paul Henry (2002) explores the systematic variation in purchase orientations across social classes. He compares conspicuous concerns between older and young consumers in different social classes. Results demonstrate that conspicuous focus is more appropriate for young professionals.

Consumer's Dwelling

Few researchers have paid attention on how consumers' dwelling might impact on their conspicuous consumption. Fontes and Fan (2006), for example, examined the impact of the changing culture on desires of rural and urban consumers of China, particularly on conspicuous consumption. They found that consumer dwelling has a significant impact on passion of conspicuous consumption. Jeffrey *et.al*, (2011) also carried out a cross-cultural examination on materialism and conspicuous consumption in China. They have concluded that conspicuous consumption is on the rise among urban Chinese consumers than the rural Chinese.

¹⁹ Duesenberry (1949); Congleton (1989); Rauscher (1993); Chao & Schor (1998); Damian (2009); Jessie & John (2002)

Consequently, these researchers proposed that urban consumers are more vulnerable conspicuous consumption than the rural consumers. This research conclusion can be generalized even in Western cultural context. For example, Chao and Schor (1996) found that women who live in urban and suburban areas of USA are more status-conscious than women reside in rural; they insist that *“the fraction of women living in urban and suburban areas of USA who buy expensive lipsticks is higher than among women in rural locales (p.14).”*

Consumer’s Races, Ethnicity, and Nationality

Researchers have acknowledged the divergent patterns of expenditure on conspicuous consumption goods across races (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Fernando and Fabien, 2003). They argue that the racial differences in expenditure on visible conspicuous goods derive simply from racial differences in preferences. For instance, Charles *et al.*, (2007) disclosed that minorities spend more on conspicuous items than white people in USA. They say that;

“minorities to have very different housing expenditures than Whites..., they spend more for a unit of housing, implying that if housing were lumped together with other visible spending, the overall difference in visible expenditure we estimate would be slightly larger” (p. 12).

Chao and Schor (1996) also recognize race as a significant predictor of conspicuous buying. They say: *“among White women the fraction buying each brand of lipstick rises as the brand price increases” (p 18).* These research findings confirm that race is one of the major predictor of conspicuous consumption.

All the literature discussed above are summarizing in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: **Consumer-Demographics and Conspicuous Consumption**

Consumer Demographics	Researchers	Findings
Sex / Gender	Lynda <i>et al.</i> , (2007); O'Cass & McEwen, (2004); Tai, (2007); Barber & Lobel (1953); Bagwell & Bernheim (1996) Eastman & Jun, (2012)	Questionable
Age	Paul, (2002); Tai, (2007); Maria & Greig, (2004); Emma & Margaret, (2004)	Questionable, but majority recognize as an influencer
Income	Duesenberry, (1949); Congleton, (1989); Rauscher, (1993); Chao and Schor, (1998); Damian, (2009); Jessie & John, (2002); Eastman & Jun, (2012)	Questionable, but majority recognize as an influencer
Education	Congleton, (1989); Rauscher, (1993); Eastman & Jun, (2012)	Questionable, but majority recognize as an influencer
Occupation	Paul, (2002); Eastman & Jun, (2012)	Significant predictor of conspicuous buying
Household size		No research available
Location	Fontes and Fan (2006), Jeffrey <i>et.al</i> , (2011) Chao and Schor (1996)	Significant predictor of conspicuous buying
Nationality	Charles <i>et al.</i> , (2007); Chao and Schor, (1996); Michael & Holly (2007); Chung & Fischer, (2001); Fontes & Fan, (2006)	Questionable / Predictor of conspicuous buying

Some researchers have endeavored to explore the relationship between consumer ethnicity and their conspicuous consumption propensity. Interestingly, some of them suggest that conspicuous consumption is significantly correlated to the person's ethnicity and others argue that there are no such strong relationship between consumer ethnicity and conspicuous consumption. For example, Fontes and Fan (2006) measure the conspicuous consumption in changing Chinese culture using annual budget shares for apparel, housing, and home furnishings among different dwellings. Then they noticed that household's ethnic identity differently affects its budget allocation to conspicuous conveying goods. However, Chung and Fischer (2001) failed to find

support for the proposition that conspicuous consumption is related to a person's ethnicity among Hong Kong consumers.

2.9. Summary

Conspicuous Consumption is one of the most valued and, perhaps, also the most imprecise concept in marketing, and one that could be defined to have an infinite number of meaning in both scholarly and every day discussions. It only acquires a more useful meaning when it makes a reference for theories, contexts, problems and policies concerning a particular market. Clearly, it is an evaluative concept that establishes the ground rules for debate what consumption is and what it ought to be.

Written just one hundred years ago, Throstein Veblen's "*Theory of Leisure Class*" ([1899] 1994) still represent a powerful critic of the neoclassical theory of consumption. In this book Veblen coined the term *conspicuous consumption*, a very modern concept that resembles modern sociology more than it does turn-of-the-twentieth-century economics. *Conspicuous consumption* is exemplified in the decision by consumers to purchase goods or services not because of need but in order to impress their social peers.

Conspicuous consumption refers to the ostentatious display of wealth for the purpose of acquiring or maintaining status or prestige. Over time, it can be argued that the primary motive to behave ostentatiously has remained the same-status and prestige. Yet, the literature argues that it is not confined to the elites today; almost all are engaged with 'lavished' consumption in their capacities. If compared to a pyramid, witnessed at the top would be traditional societies, represented by an elite few whose status and prestige motive is manifested by invidious distinction over all others in the society.

In the middle, would be achieving societies, depicted by an increased number of nouveau rich players exhibiting their wealth either to gain invidious distinction over the aristocratic elite, or to acquire social acceptance from their peers. At the bottom would be affluent and post-affluent societies, where industrialization and advanced communication systems have brought conspicuous consumption within the reach of the masses. While still desirous for status and prestige, their motive is instead primarily manifested by a pursuit for social and group acceptance. Gone, then, is Veblen's depiction of ostentatious display solely for reasons of invidious distinction. Instead, affluent societies tastefully consume to denote belongingness to a particular group.

In *The Theory of the Leisure Class*, Veblen argues that under predatory barbarism, social honor is based on demonstrating tangible evidence of prowess and aggression. Under this system, private property becomes the basis of esteem and everyone in society seeks to emulate those who have a great deal of it. Hence, originally, the leisure class sought to demonstrate its wealth by ostentatiously not working - it consumed time non-productively out of a sense that productive work was unworthy. But, as industrial society evolved, conspicuous consumption became the most practical way to demonstrate one's wealth to a transient population. The leisure class is expected to consume the best in food, drink, shelter, ornaments, apparel, amusements, and so on. Because the leisure class stands at the pinnacle of the stratification system, it is incumbent on all classes that rank below them to emulate the way they live. These evolutions generate four basic motives for conspicuous consumption, namely uniqueness, status, hedonic, and conformist.

Since Veblen's time, what is consumed as conspicuous has changed drastically. Yet conspicuous consumption remained mainly a theoretical curiosity for more than a century, with little empirical content or support. Some scholars have attempted to empirically investigate this concept from different angles; such as luxury products^{20A}, psychological factors^B, brand associated factors^C, high-perceived quality, luxury, & prestige^D, social visibility^E, consumer demographics^F, wealth association^G, consumer & firm behaviour^H, intellectual properties^I, self-concept^J, race^K, material culture^L, and poverty^M. Most these studies have looked into the conspicuous consumption behaviour in developed nations such as woman's cosmetics in the US^{21N}, automobiles in the US^P, clothing in Australia^Q, luxury products in the UK^R or NIC countries such as luxury products in Taiwan^S. These literatures propose that scholars have paid less attention on conspicuous consumption in developing countries such as Sri Lanka.

On the other hand, the Theory of Cultural Values argues that people differ in the extent to which they prefer one specific value over another. It offers several insights into many of the variables that have been linked to conspicuous buying behaviour, including self-identity, normative influences, the suppression of emotion, and postponement of instant gratification (Triandis, 1995). Accordingly, individuals' consumption decisions are accepted as a product of shared cultural values,

²⁰ ^A[Heffner *et al.*, 2006; Chang, 2005]; ^B[Shipman Alan, 2004; Amaldoss and Jain, 2005; Marcoux *et al.*, 1997; Shukla, 2008; SezginAcikalin, 2009; Shukla, 2010]; ^C[O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Shukla, 2008; Shukla, 2010]; ^D[O'Cass & McEwen, 2006; Duesenberry, 1949]; ^E[Chao and Schor, 1996]; ^F[Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Giddens, 1991; Beck, 1992; Duesenberry, 1949; Congleton, 1989; Rauscher, 1993; Congleton, 1989; Chao & Schor, 1996]; ^G[Trigg, 2001; Solomon & Rabolt, 2004]; ^H[Amaldoss and Jain, 2005]; ^I[Barnett, 2005]; ^J[Holman, 1981; Belk, 1988; Solomon, 1994]; ^K[Charles *et al.*, 2007]; ^L[Paula, 2010 ; Gupta, 2010); ^M[Kempen, 2005]

²¹ ^N[Chao and Schor, 1998]; ^P[Amaldoss and Jain, 2005, Heffner, 2006]; ^Q[O'Cass and Frost, 2002]; ^R[Shukla, 2008]; ^S[Chung, 2005]

psychological dynamics and of unique personal experience. These arguments propose that the individual's buying behaviour should be exposed within his cultural values.

As per the literature, the much of cross-cultural marketing research has employed Hofstede's (1980) Cultural Value Dimensions (CVD's) to explain cultural differences in behaviors, beliefs and preferences of individuals. Despite the fact that there are ample researches in the area of CVD's impact on consumer behaviour, researchers have shown less interest in exposing the impact of combined CVD's on conspicuous consumption, particularly in developing countries. On the other hand, within cultural groups there are individual variations in consumption due to the demographic-perception of different individuals. Yet no research has addressed the issue of how an individual's conspicuous consumption is motivated by consumer gender.

This research gap encouraged the researcher to empirically explore the influence of individual's cultural values and their demographic characteristics on his/her motive for conspicuous consumption. A deeper review of pertaining literature was used to explore the different forms of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. After identifying the constructs, the literature was reviewed for appropriate forms of measurement. Since it was found that conspicuous consumption is a relatively less explored construct, researcher developed a scale for measuring constructs of conspicuous consumption.

The cultural values of individuals were measured on the basis of the model proposed by Oliver *et.al.* (2000), by which they have redefined Hofstede's CVDs. Based on Oliver *et.al.*, (2000) recommendations, all the CVDs were measured on five-point Likert scale.

Individual's demographic perception was measured by comparing respondent's demographic characteristics versus his/her consumption motives. For this purpose Mark Freeman's (1997) eight (n=8) individual's demographic characteristics were used.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter of this thesis reviewed literature related to the perceptions on the consumption of conspicuous products and the influence of cultural values and demographic perception on such consumption. The aim of this chapter is to discuss and justify the methodology used to address problem of the research. In this chapter researcher presents the contents of the research design and approach used through the study. This chapter starts by describing the research process it moves to justify the research design and the data collection methods. It concludes with an explanation of sampling related issues and some limitations of this research.

3.2. Conceptual Framework

The research philosophy depends on the way a researcher conceptualizes the study. There are few reasons why the study of philosophy is crucial in the research methodology (Crossan, 2004): Firstly, it helps the researcher to specify the research methods to be used. Secondly, it has an impact on the type of evidence gathered, and how it interprets. Finally, it enables the researcher to evaluate different methods and identify the limitations of particular approaches.

Research methodology literature suggests two major approaches to conducting research; deductive theory testing and inductive theory building (Hyde 2000; Perry 1998; Romano 1989; Saunders *et al.* 1997). When considering the rigour of the method chosen, the selection of either a deductive or inductive approach is determined by several factors (Saunders *et al.* 1997; Yin 1994). The first is the nature of the research question and objectives of the study, in that certain research problems

and objectives suggest particular research methodologies (Perren 1996). Purely deductive approaches obtain low response rates, and omit variables existing in the context that might alter findings; hence it might prevent the development of new and useful theory (Moran 1998; Perry, 1998). In contrast, purely inductive approaches offer little basis for scientific generalization and ignore the extensive literature, which may help in any research design (Creswell 1994; Perry, 1998; Carson *et al.*, 2001).

To overcome this problem, Carson *et al.* (2001) suggested a mixture of inductive and deductive approaches. They argued that a deductive framework could be developed from prior research and from pilot studies and/or convergent interviews, before it is evaluated inductively to permit the generation of new insights. In light of these arguments this research was conceptualized in both induction and deduction approaches. Accordingly, the research hypotheses were advanced based on the literature and tested them to check whether they can capable of explaining the facts.

Interestingly, Shrivastava (1987) argue that the emphasis in evaluating a research project should depart from whether it utilises an inductive or deductive logic, and move towards examining its design. In simple, research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting a research project. It details the procedures necessary for obtaining the required information (Malhotra, 2004). Based on the way of specifying the procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information, three research designs can be identified: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory.

Exploratory research is used in instances where the subject of the study cannot be measured in a quantitative manner or where the process of measurement cannot realistically represent particular qualities (Malhotra, 2004). Exploratory cases are appropriate when researchers aim at identifying key variables and developing hypotheses to be tested by subsequent studies (Perren 1996). In contrary, descriptive

research is conducted to achieve different goals such as describe the characteristics of relevant groups, estimate the percentage of units in a specific population, determine the perceptions of product characteristics, determine the degree to which marketing variables are associated and finally to make specific predictions (Malhotra, 2004). Therefore, the object of descriptive research is to expose an accurate profile of persons, events or situations. Explanatory (Causal) research is used to understand which variables are the causes (*i.e. independent variables*) and which variables are the effects (*i.e. dependent variables*) of a phenomenon as well as to determine the nature of the relationship between the causal variables and the effect to be predicted (Malhotra, 2004). Hence, casual research is seeing how actions now will affect a business in the future. These facts are summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Research Designs

	Exploratory	Descriptive	Explanatory (Causal)
Objective	Discover ideas and insights.	Describe market characteristics or functions.	Determine cause and effect relationships.
Characteristics	Flexible. Versatile. Often the front end of total research design. Qualitative data	Marked by prior formulation of specific hypotheses. Pre-planned and structured design. Quantitative data.	Control of other mediating variables. Quantitative data.
Methods	Expert surveys. Secondary data. Qualitative research.	Secondary data Surveys Panels.	Experiments.

Source: Naresh K. Malhotra, Marketing Research, Fourth Edition, 2004, p. 76.

According to Malhotra (2004), the exploratory research design is more suitable when the topic to be investigated is fairly un-researched. As literature reveals, the determining factor of conspicuous consumption among the Sri Lankan consumers, inevitably, has an explorative character, since hardly any research has been done on

this area. Though it is comparatively novel in nature, this research explores the causal relationship of consumers' cultural value dimensions and demographic characteristics with their conspicuous consumption motives, and thus, it contains explanatory characters. In the light of these explanations, this research has adopted both the exploratory and explanatory research designs.

According to Shrivastava (1987), research design should ensure that a) the research is grounded on a suitable framework; b) the chosen method is methodologically rigorous; and c) previous relevant empirical studies are used to develop the research. This research claims to have tackled the all these suggestions.

Considering the above guidelines, this research has developed its conceptual framework for assessing the impact of consumer's demographic-perception and their diverse cultural values on consumption of conspicuous products among four main ethnic groups live in Sri Lanka. The detailed conceptual framework of the research is presented in Figure 3.1.

3.3. Theoretical Model Building and Hypotheses

The early stages of this research consisted of a review of the scholarly contributions pertaining to the field of a) motives for conspicuous consumption, b) cultural values, and c) consumer demographics. This comprehensive review was done by investigating the 134 scholarly publications appear in fifteen (15) world renowned journals in marketing management.

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework

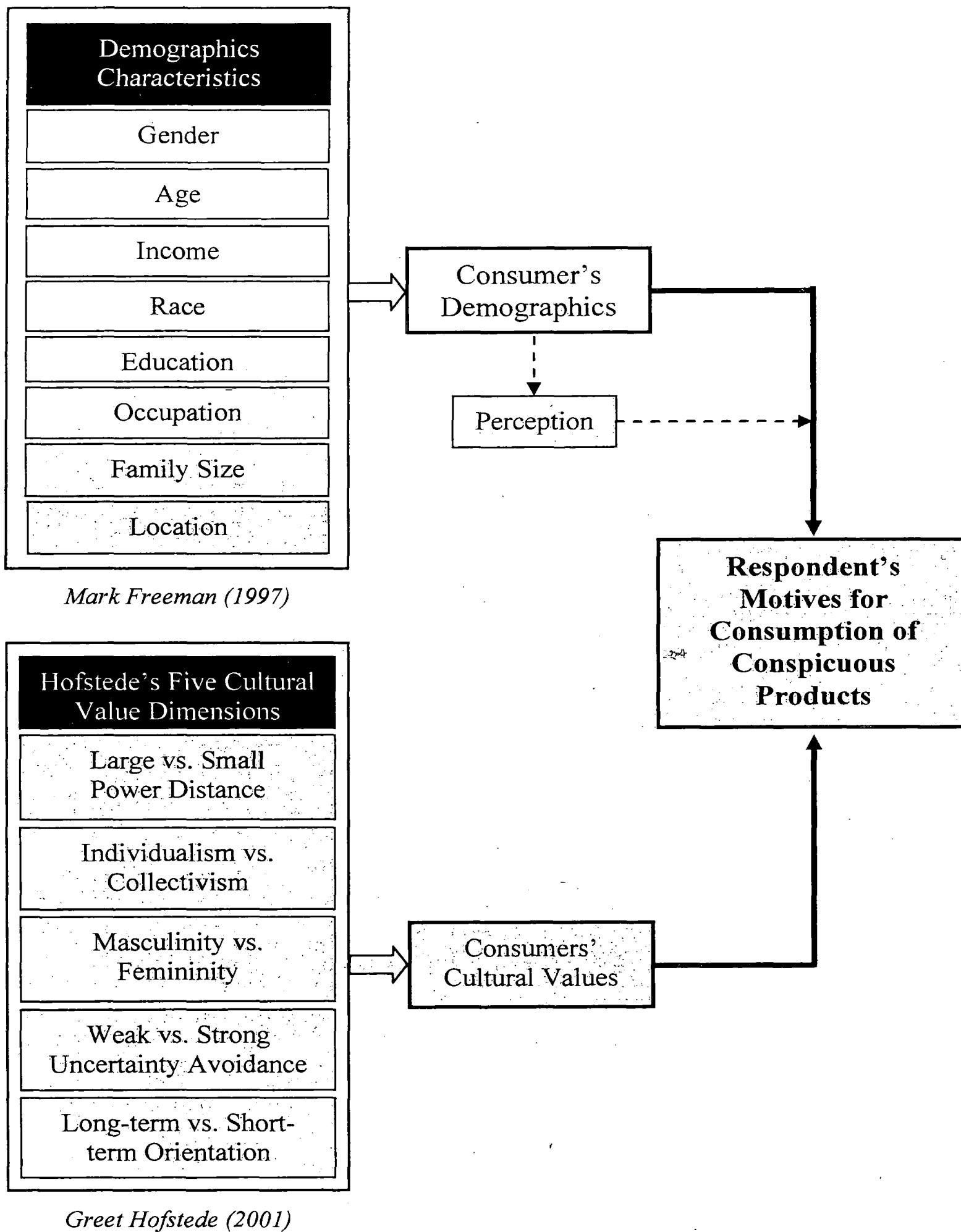


Table 3.2: Journals Referenced

Full title (acronym)	hg-index ²² 2003–07	Referenced Period	Volume No's	No of Issues
Most reputed marketing journals (Salim & Mourad, 2010)				
01 Journal of Marketing (JM)*	01	2000-2012	64-76	57
02 Journal of Consumer Research (JCR)*	02	2000-2011	27-38	58
03 Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*	03	2005-2012	42-49	38
04 Marketing Science (MS)*	04	2000-2012	19-31	61
05 Industrial Marketing Management (IMM)*	05	2000-2012	29-41	95
06 European Journal of Marketing (EJM)*	08	2000-2012	34-46	84
07 Psychology and Marketing (PM)*	11	2000-2012	17-29	147
08 Journal of Consumer Psychology (JCP)*	08	2000-2012	10-22	46
09 Journal of Consumer Behaviour (JCB)	38	2001-2012	01-11	43
10 Journal of Consumer Marketing (JCM)	21	2000-2012	17-29	86
11 Journal of Consumer Policy	40	2000-2012	23-35	48
12 Journal of International Consumer Marketing	64	2000-2012	12-24	49
Other relevant journals				
13 The Journal of Research for Consumers'		2006-2012	11-21	11
14 International Journal of Consumer Studies		2000-2012	24-36	67
15 Journal of Consumer Culture		2001-2012	01-12	34

Journals with an asterisk () are the ones indexed in the Social Science Citation Index*

A total of 184 volumes and 924 issues of these fifteen journals were reviewed (Table 3.2). Out of the fifteen journals, twelve (12) journals were selected from citation index prepared by Salim & Mourad in 2010. They provide a comprehensive ranking of 69 most reputed marketing journals using an objective measure of journal impact, the Google Scholar-based hg-index (Annexure 02). The balance three (03) journals were

²² *h*-index as an indicator built to consider both the actual scientific productivity and the scientific impact of a scientist, while the *g*-index considers both over-cited outliers and overall citation consistency. The hg-index of a journal is computed as the geometric mean of its *h* and *g* indices

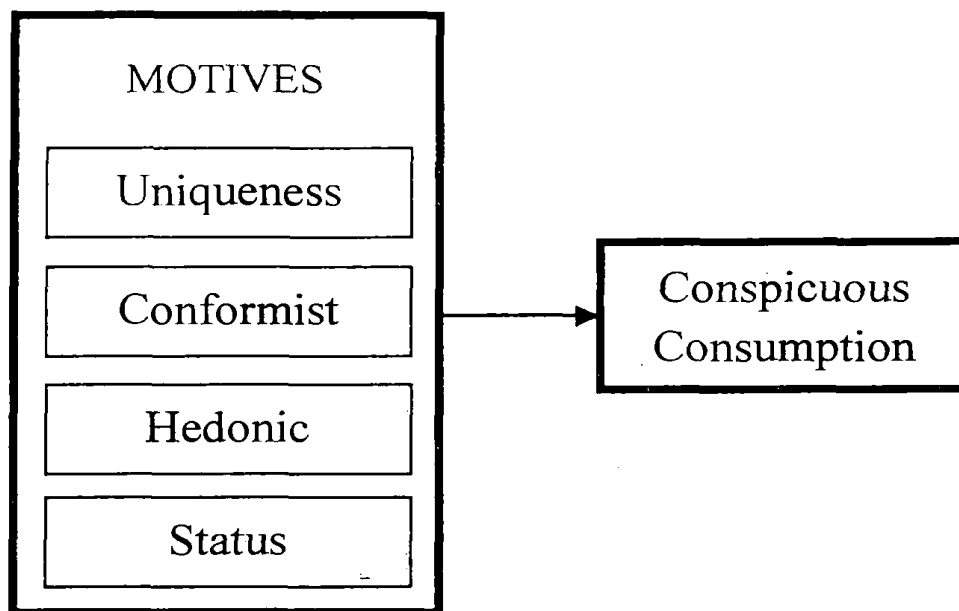
selected randomly from consumer behaviour related cited journals available on online.

Through the deep-review of literature, researcher identified several motives of conspicuous consumption, influential consumer demographic characteristics, and cultural values of customers as reported in later part of second chapter. A model of potential relationships between variables unearthed in the literature review was developed and reported below.

Eminent scholars in marketing and economics have empirically proved that the social distinction or status is an important motivation of human behaviour. These findings propose that social needs of consumers play an important role in the purchase of conspicuous goods. Also, the literature reveals that researchers have identified substantial variations in the purchasing motives across conspicuous versus inconspicuous products as well as among individuals with different levels of social compliance tendencies (Zhou & Wong, 2008; Tom 2010).

Though there are different motives that persuade conspicuous consumption, it is generally recognized that individuals acquire products merely for the sake of being different from other consumers (i.e. uniqueness motive), or to display their wealth or social status (i.e. status motive), or to display consumer's social conformity (i.e. conformist motive) or even for hedonic purpose (i.e. hedonic motive). Based on these literatures the following model (Figure 3.2) and hypothesis were developed;

Figure 3.2: **Proposed Model of Consumer Motives for the Consumption of Conspicuous Products**



Hence;

H₁: Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of status motivation

H₂: Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of uniqueness motivation

H₃: Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of conformist motivation

H₄: Consumers of conspicuous products will possess high level of hedonic motivation

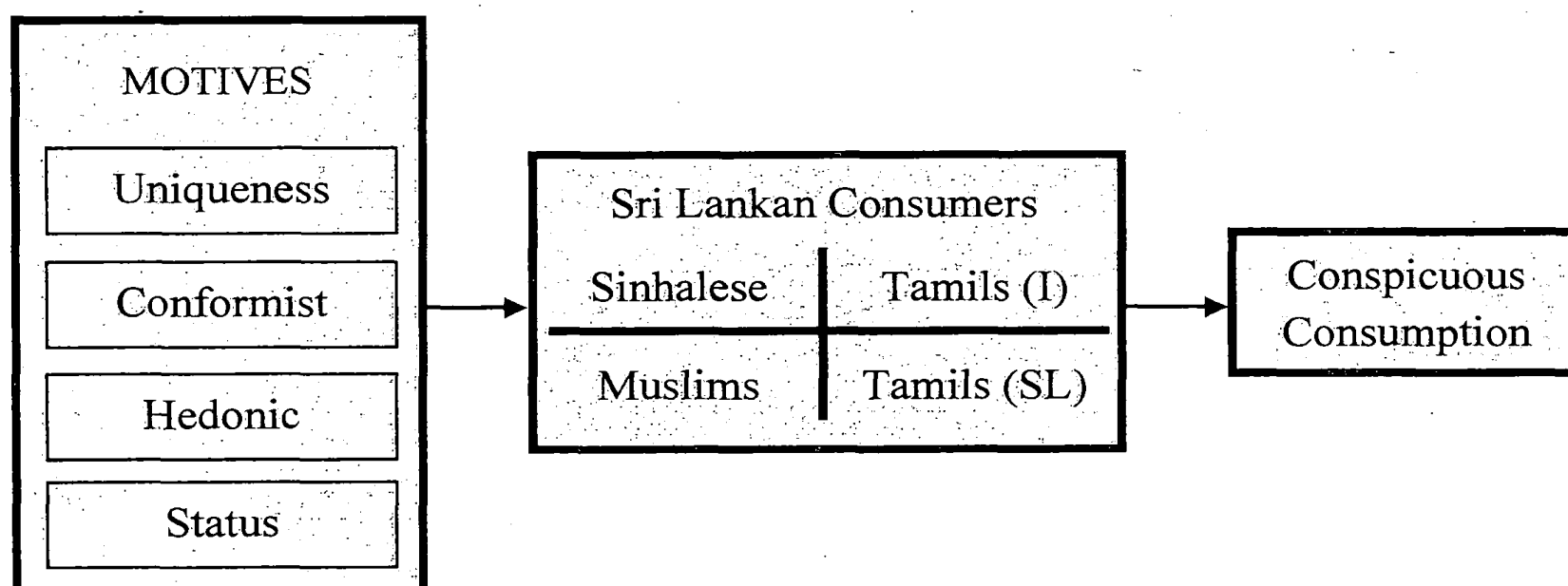
As stated elsewhere in the second chapter, the focus of this study is on the conspicuous consumption motives among Sri Lankans. In general, Sri Lankans are divided into four main ethnic groups - Sinhalese, Sri Lankan Tamils, Indian Tamils, and Muslims. These ethnic divisions are not based on race or physical appearance, rather it based on language and religion of people. The Sinhalese are the largest ethnic group of Sri Lanka, constituting 82.0 percent of the Sri Lankan population (CBSL, 2011).

The Sinhalese claim to be descendants of Prince *Vijaya* and his group of immigrants from northern India. Approximately 9.4 percent of the population is Tamil. The Tamil speakers in Sri Lanka are divided into two groups; Sri Lankan Tamils (4.3%) and Indian Tamils (5.1%). The Sri Lankan Tamils trace their immigration to the distant

past and are effectively a native minority. The Indian Tamils are either immigrants or the descendants of immigrants who came under British support to Sri Lanka to work on plantations in the central highlands.

Comprising 7.9 percent of total population of Sri Lanka, Muslims and their Islamic culture have been the integral part of Sri Lankan society for thousand years. History records that Arab traders from the Middle East visited the southern part of Sri Lanka for their business and later settled in the island. Therefore, in determining conspicuous consumption tendencies, this research focuses on cross cultural differences between all these four ethnic groups. Accordingly, the following model (Figure 3.3) and hypotheses were developed.

Figure 3.3: Proposed Model of Consumer Motives for the Conspicuous Consumption in Sri Lanka



Hence;

- H₅:** *Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different types of motives for conspicuous consumption*
- H₆:** *Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to status motives for conspicuous consumption*
- H₇:** *Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to uniqueness motives for conspicuous consumption*

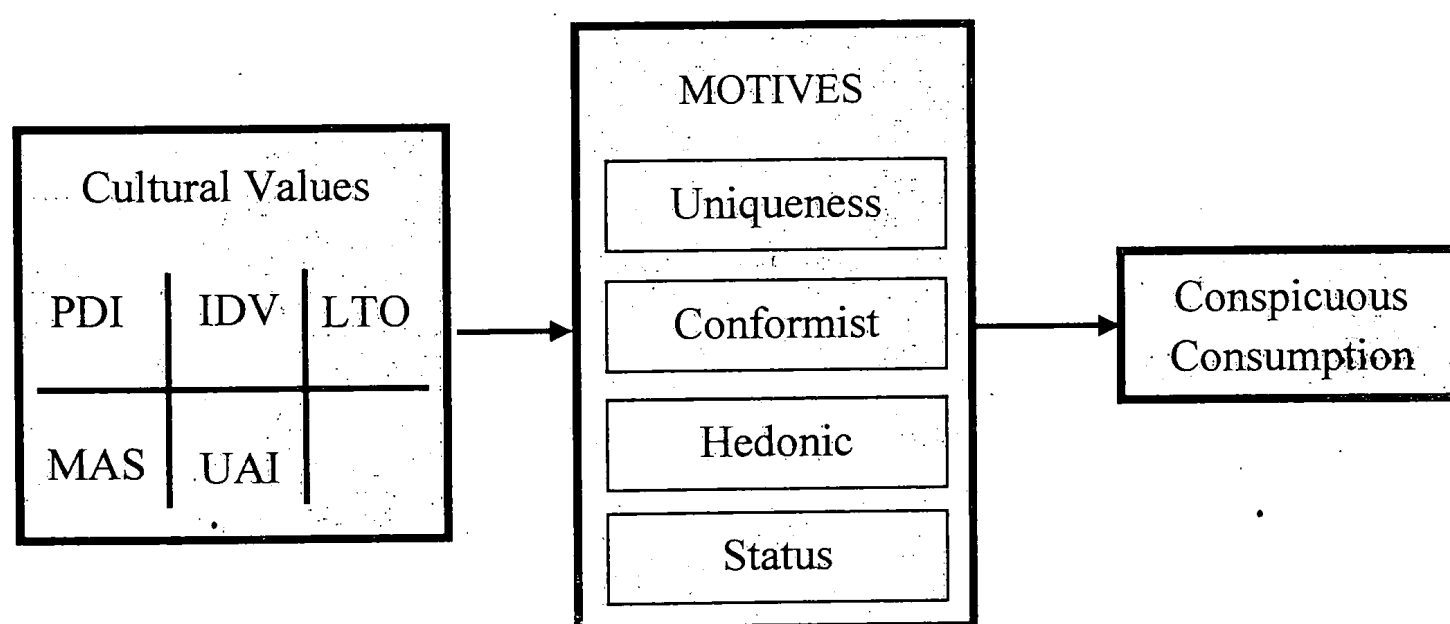
H₈: Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to conformist motives for conspicuous consumption

H₉: Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to hedonic motives for conspicuous consumption

Researchers argue that “all consumers are not the identical, and the differences in consumer behaviour between different societies can be observed; because all aspects of consumer behaviour are culturally-bound”. In conspicuous goods markets, such differences in consumer behaviour arise in consequence of efforts by certain consumers to acquire conspicuous benefits either by imitating other cultural values, or distinguishing themselves from other cultures.

In measuring consumers’ cultural values, most of the scholars have operationalized cultural values as individualism and collectivism and have not given sufficient attention to other organizing axes - especially how a society handles power, dependence, and equality (Shavitt *et.al*, 2006; Oyserman Daphna, 2006). To defeat this criticism, Hofstede’s five dimensional cultural values model was employed in this research. These arguments persuade researchers to describe conspicuous consumption in terms of cultural value specific motives as follows (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: Proposed Model of Cultural Value influence on Conspicuous Consumption



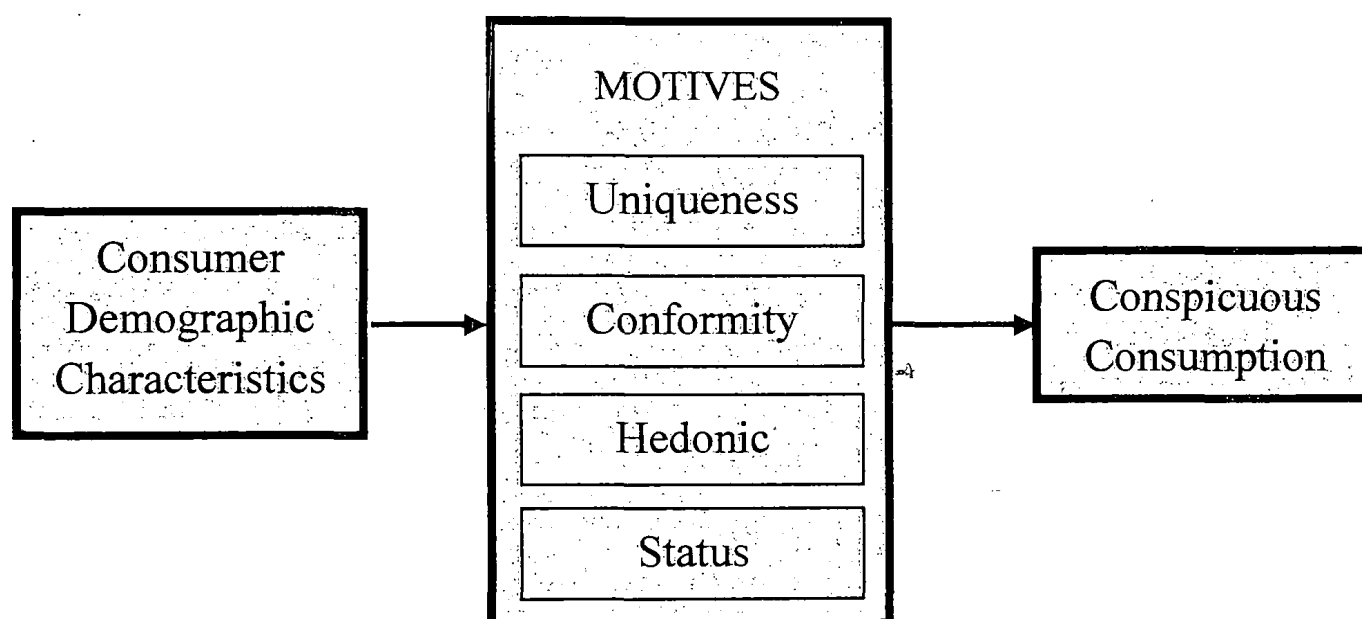
Hofstede (1980) identifies five major cultural orientations: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Weak vs. Strong Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), and Long-Term Orientation (LTO). Hence, following hypotheses are developed.

- H₁₀ Differences will exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different cultural values.*
- H₁₁ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards power distance (PDI).*
- H₁₂ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards individualism vs. collectivism (IDV).*
- H₁₃ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards masculinity vs. femininity (MAS).*
- H₁₄ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards uncertainty avoidance (UAI).*
- H₁₅ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards long-term vs. short-term orientation (LTO).*
- H₁₆: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and SM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₁₇: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and UM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₁₈: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and CM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₁₉: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and HM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₀: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and SM for conspicuous consumption*

- H₂₁: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and UM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₂: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and CM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₃: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and HM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₄: There will be a negative relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and SM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₅: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and UM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₆: There will be a negative relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and CM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₇: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and HM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₈: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and SM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₂₉: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and UM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₀: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and CM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₁: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and HM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₂: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and SM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₃: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and UM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₄: There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and CM for conspicuous consumption*
- H₃₅: There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and HM for conspicuous consumption*

When deeply investigate the scholarly contributions of different authors, it can be noted that they have made tremendous efforts to explore the relationships between conspicuous consumption and the consumers' diverse demographic characteristics, such as sex groups, generational groups, age groups, income, education, occupation groups, race groups, and nationality groups. In relation to their findings some demographic characteristics are identified as significant predictor of conspicuous buying and some are not. Based on these outcomes the following model (Figure 3.5) and hypothesis are proposed.

Figure 3.5: Research Model: Influence of Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption

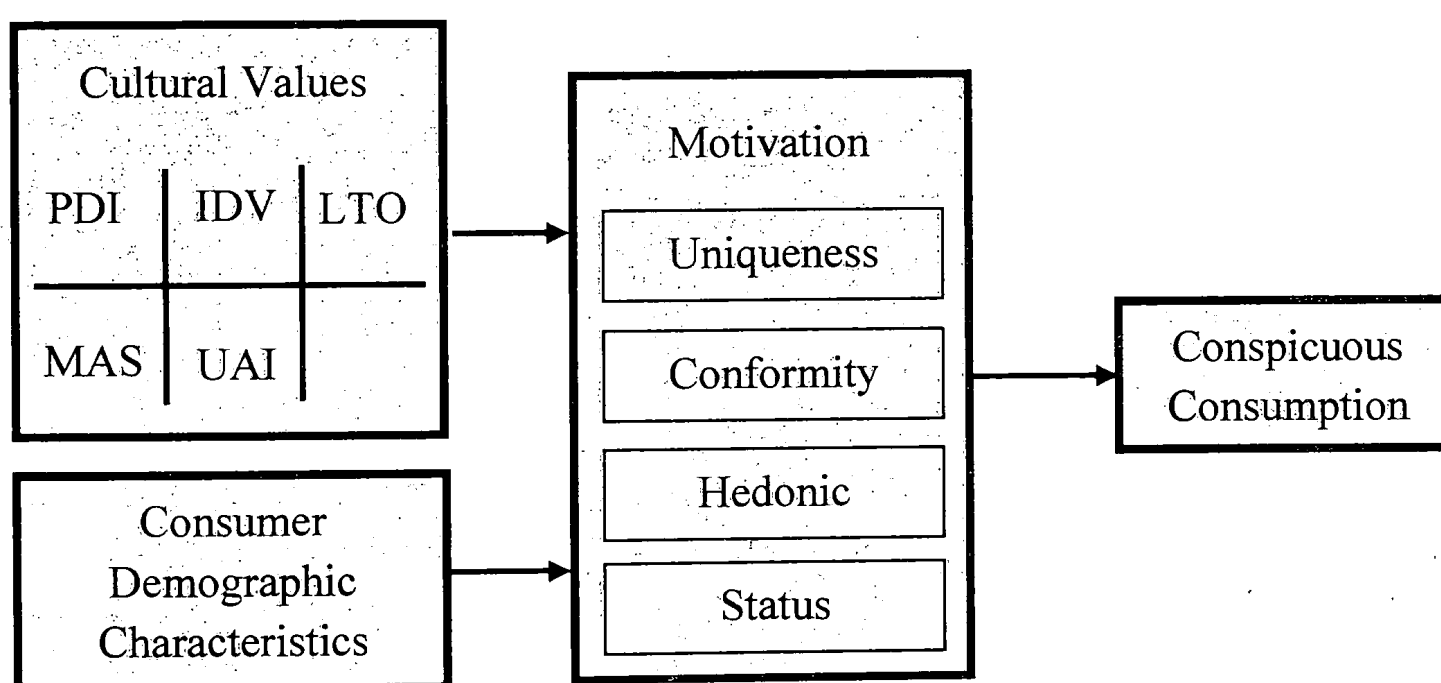


- H₃₆:** *There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption.*
- H₃₇:** *There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and status motive for conspicuous consumption.*
- H₃₈:** *There will be a positive relationship between respondent's age, education, income and hedonic motive for conspicuous consumption.*
- H₃₉:** *There will be a positive relationship between respondent's income, education, nationality and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption*
- H₄₀:** *There will be a positive relationship between respondent's age and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*

- H₄₁: There will be a positive relationship between respondent's income and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*
- H₄₂: There will be a positive relationship between respondent's education and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*
- H₄₃: There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*
- H₄₄: There will be a statistically strong relationship between respondent's nationality and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*
- H₄₅: There will be a statistically strong relationship between respondent's household size and all motives for consuming conspicuous products*

Based on the scholarly works reviewed above in this chapter, it can be comfortably deduced that the consumer buying decisions are often affected by the consumers' cultural values and their demographics, which are outside of their control but have direct or indirect impact on their consumption. Accordingly, the following research model, illustrated in Figure 3.6, is developed for this research.

Figure 3.6: Research Model: Influence of Cultural Orientation and Consumer-Demographics on Motivates for Conspicuous Consumption



3.4. Data Collection

The multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon (Perry 1998) and thus addressed construct validity issues (Yin 1994). Both secondary and primary data sources were utilized for eliciting information on the issues investigated (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Primary and Secondary Information Sources

Issue to be investigated	Secondary data sources	Primary data sources
<i>Conspicuous Consumption</i>	Economic & Social Statistic of Sri Lanka 2012, Vol. XXXII	- Focus group discussions - Semi-structured interviews with respondents - Semi-structured interviews with marketing managers, and brand managers of selected companies
<i>Cultural values</i>	Existing literature	Semi-structured interviews with consumers
<i>Demographic perception</i>	Existing literature	Semi-structured interviews with consumers

3.4.1. Secondary Data

An extensively review of previous research in the field of conspicuous consumption was done to develop a conceptual framework for the research. This process was carried out by accessing published research materials and other published documents. In particularly, 134 scholarly publications published in fifteen (15) world renowned journals in marketing management were reviewed in depth.

3.4.2. Primary Data

The patterns displayed in quantitative research can be enriched with that addition of qualitative information (Proctor, 2003). Under the sights of relevant literature, researcher adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Quantitative research

was used to measure the intensity of conspicuous consumption while qualitative methods were mainly used to understand the pattern of conspicuous consumption of the respondents. Consequently, a questionnaire-based survey was executed to gather primary data from the selected sample. Before developing the research questionnaire, three focus group discussions were carried out to conceptualize the conspicuous consumption behaviour among different nationalities in Sri Lanka.

3.4.3. Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussion is a direct technique to collect primary and qualitative data which involves a meeting with an invited group of participants to share their thoughts, feelings, attitudes and ideas on certain subject (Krueger and Casey, 2000). Therefore, focus groups can be used to address substantive issues such as understanding consumer's perceptions, obtaining impressions and thoughts of new products, generating ideas about older products, developing creative concepts, securing price impressions and obtaining preliminary consumer reaction to specific marketing programs (Proctor, 2003; p.03). At the initial stage of this study researcher used a series of focus group discussions, with 21 consumers from different ethnic groups, to explore the characteristics and the motives of conspicuous consumption of different cultural groups.

Selecting a smaller number of people to a focus group allow researchers to concentrate on the quality of information (Tai, 2007). Therefore, the number of respondents in a group was restricted to five to ten participants. First group consisted of Sinhalese (n=10) living in Kurunegala district, second group consisted of Muslims (n=6) living in Batticaloa district, and the third groups consisted of Tamils (n=6) living in Vavuniya district. In addition to these respondents, few industrial experts

(n=4) were also interviewed to understand the present trends in conspicuous product market. The purpose of the focus groups was to qualitatively inform quantitative enquiry. Particularly, the focus groups sought to explore what motives the consumption of conspicuous products, to investigate the types of products that they considered to be conspicuous, and the basis for that categorization.

The focus groups were interviewed using a semi-structured interview guide (see Appendix D). Questions were open-ended and designed to obtain the views of participants with only minimal influence from the researcher who acted as the moderator for focus groups. The interactions were transcribed by the researcher and voice-recording was done when and where necessary. Views of Tamil and Muslim respondents were moderated by a Tamil-speaking research assistant. Few Tamil interactions were voice-recorded. Tamil translations of the themes were provided when it was necessary and comments pertaining to each theme were recorded. Respondents' views under each theme were analysed intensively at the end of each interview.

Malhotra (2004) suggests that, besides the focus group discussions, a depth interviews can be used as a direct technique in collecting primary data. Therefore, together with the focus group discussions and the expert panel backing, few depth interviews were also carried out to explore consumer's actual conspicuous consumption behaviour. Accordingly, two independent route-finder surveys, which conferred better insight for fine-tuning the research questionnaire, were performed. These depth surveys facilitated to measure and verify the criterion related to validity of this study.

An experienced moderator was to conduct both focus group discussions and the route-finder surveys. The key role of the moderator was to establish rapport with the

participants, keep discussion moving forward and probe the respondents to elicit insights. A detailed moderator's guide was constructed in order to reduce some of the reliability problems inherent in focus groups. Before developing a guide for the moderator, codes were also constructed in order to eliminate questions that may be "interesting" but are not really necessary to answer research question. Focus group sessions are recorded and the necessary notes were also taken during the focus group sessions.

3.4.4. Development of the Instrument

The semi-structured questionnaire used to collect data for this study consisted of three sections; Section A, B, and C. The development of each section was done independently. The overall size of the survey instrument and time that potential respondents would spend completing the instrument was a concern at all stages of the development process.

Section A of the survey instrument measured a number of demographic and behavioural variables of the respondents. Based on the recommendation of Mark Freeman (1997), following eight demographics of consumers been taken into account; (1) average monthly income of the respondent, (2) respondent's gender, (3) age group that he/she belongs, (4) respondent's highest education levels, (5) his or her present occupation, (6) household size of the respondent, (7) place of living, and (8) race (and nationality) of the respondent.

Section B of the questionnaire was designed to measure consumer motivates for the consumption of conspicuous products. The scale development paradigm recommended by Churchill (1979 cited by Allison, 2008) was used as the basis for developing a measure of consumer motives for consumption of conspicuous products.

The steps employed in developing measures of the constructs were; (1) review of literature on motives for consuming conspicuous products, (2) collection of qualitative data from three focus group (n=3) discussions, (3) preparation of a list of items in respect to consumer motives for consuming conspicuous products, (4) consultation of five experts (n=5) to reduce the list of items to a manageable number, (5) data collection using the pre-test questionnaire and data analysis, and (6) assessment of reliability and validity.

The critical decision in the development of measures of constructs is the number of items to be incorporated in the measurement of constructs (Allison, 2008). Multiple-item scales were used in this study to measure complex constructs. This allows for greater reliability in measurement as measurement-errors tend to be self-correcting (Sekaran, 2003; Peter, 1979). Once it is decided to use multiple-item scales, the next concern was how these scales are to be developed. According to Hinkin (1998), the following five phases can be used in the scale development and validation: (1) Item generation, (2) Content validity and questionnaire administration, (3) Exploratory factor analysis, (4) Confirmatory factor analysis, and (5) Reliability and construct validity. Simplifying this process Bruner (2003) recommends that the following three criteria are to be employed when selecting items or scales for measuring constructs: (1) face validity, (2) psychometric quality, and (3) typicality and acceptability.

Researcher paid serious attention to these criteria in selecting appropriate scales. And the items for measuring the constructs were identified from the literature and those were assessed by the researcher and met the criteria identified by Bruner (2003). Some items were adapted and some were rejected as those either failed to meet the

criteria for inclusion, or were considered inappropriate for the use due to over-complexity.

Initially, all potential items were written referring conspicuous consumption literatures to reflect the conceptual definitions of the four dimensions of conspicuousness, i.e. unique, status, hedonic, and conformist. After reviewing published scales it was apparent that it would be necessary to develop a number of new items (Allison, 2008). These new items were required as the researcher considered existing measures to be inappropriate for employ in this research, based on the criteria outlined by Bruner (2003). It is ensured that all items were expressed in consistent terms, written in concise statements, and dropped redundant items, 45 positively worded items were remained in the item pool.

All these items were complied with Bruner (2003) criteria mentioned above. These items were developed based on either the construct definition, or statements made by focus group participants. Out of forty five items, included in an initial item pool, thirteen items (n=13) were constructed to measure hedonic motive for conspicuous consumption; ten items (n=10) were designed for measuring uniqueness motive, eleven items (n=11) related to status motive, and another eleven items (n=11) were designed to measure social motive. All these items were designed as general attitudinal statements toward conspicuous consumption.

Once the initial item pool was developed, a process of refinement was undertaken to reduce the number of items to a reasonable level. In this spirit, Q-Sort methodology was used to identify the most useful 20 items. Q-Sort methodology is considered to be useful in uncovering the underlying value in a set of items (Weimer, 1999). It is usually proceeds on the basis that a large number of items are sorted into piles based

on their similarity with respect to specified criteria. According to Allison (2008), “*Q-Sort methodology usually proceeds on the basis that a large number of items (often cards or photographs) are sorted into piles based on their similarity with respect to specified criteria, and the number of items in each pile is pre-specified to fit a normal distribution*” (p.63).

In order to recognize the most useful 20 items, the initial list of 45 items was submitted to five member panel consisting of Professors in Marketing (n=2) and Economics (n=1), and Senior Scholars in Economics (n=1), and a renowned Sociologist (n=1). Initial item pool of 45 items was given to these experts and the instructions were explained in-person. The panel was provided with initial item pool of 45 items along with a brief synopsis of each type of inspiration that had been identified from the literature and the focus groups. They were asked to categorize each item to the category that they felt the item represented. Then they were asked to assess the usefulness of the measure on a scale of 1 (*not at all useful*) to 5 (*extremely useful*). The panel was also asked for their comments and recommendations. Comments received from the expert panel lead to improvements in the wording of some items. The Q-Sort questionnaire and instructions for experts are contained in Appendix E.

The Q-Sort data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet, and then, the average usefulness score for measuring the construct was calculated for each item. For each construct (i.e. uniqueness, hedonic, conformist, and status) five (n=5) items were selected for apply in the final research questionnaire.

Five statements relating to motivation for conspicuous consumption were generated for each construct. Respondents were asked to rank each of these statements

according to the how strongly they agree or disagree with each statement by using the following scale: 1 for *strongly disagree* and 5 for *strongly agree*. Accordingly, there were a total of 20 questions remained. These questions comprise Section B of the questionnaire. In addition to the four constructs given above, consumer Veblen effects, Snob effects, and Bandwagon effects also measured by employing 11 items (*i.e. 4 items each for Veblen and Snob effects and 3 items for Bandwagon effects*) selected from these scale of measures.

The purpose of the items contained in Section C of the questionnaire was to assess Cultural Values orientation of the respondents. While both Hofstede's (1980) and Schwartz's (1994) cultural value dimensions present excellent variables, most of the studies in marketing rely on Hofstede's cultural value element. In this study, cultural values and its approaches are broadly divided into two, *i.e. cultural-level value vs. individual-level values*, and *emic* approach (*phonemic or within-cultural*) vs. *etic* approach (*phonetic or cross-cultural*). And it mainly focused on 'phonetic culture-group' behaviours, rather than 'phonemic person-specific'. However, both levels of cultural functions; *i.e. explicit and implicit* are considered.

Appropriate measures of these dimensions were taken from the literature. The 20 item scale developed by Oliver, Chan, and Lau (1999) for redefining Hofstede Cultural Dimensions was utilized for this study. This scale consists of five sub-scales: Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty avoidance, and Long-Term orientation. This scale measures attitudes towards the meaning of cultural values. All variables in this section were measured by 5-point scales ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). The final version of the survey instrument is included in this thesis as Appendix F.

The questions were designed to be adequately open to allow individual input by the interviewees (Esterby-Smith *et al.* 1991), but adequately structured to aid comparison (Carson *et al.* 2001) and ensure validity across cases (Snow & Thomas 1994). Moreover, they were designed to obtain the views of participants with only minimal influence from the research team. Most of the questions were closed, asking for factual data from the consumers. In most situations, these questions complemented qualitative evidence given by the respondents.

3.4.4.1. Translation of the Instrument from English to Sinhala and Tamil

The research questionnaire, which was initially constructed in English, was translated in to Sinhala and to Tamil by two translators. This was done by a panel, which was comprised with three members representing three ethnicities concerned. Finally, the process was assessed by a retired government translator, who is good in all three languages (see appendix F & H).

3.4.4.2. Administration of Questionnaire

When administering the questionnaire, researchers ensured that the respondents possessed a clear understanding in “*what conspicuous product is?*” Therefore, necessary measures were taken to explain the concept of “conspicuousness.” As enlighten by the literature, studies in conspicuous consumption have dealt with automobiles, mobiles phones and designer label apparel categories (Wong, 1997; Eastman *et al.*, 1999, O’Cass and Frost, 2002; Haffner, 2006; Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). However, focus group discussions assert that peoples’ expenditure on luxury houses is also reasonably observable and it has high expected income elasticity. Therefore, four conspicuous products, namely luxury automobiles, mobile phones,

label apparels, and modern houses were taken as example in explaining the conspicuous consumption in Sri Lankan context.

Data was collected by field surveys carried out in four districts selected. Personal interviews were conducted at consumer's residence by a research team which comprised with three university lecturers and five university students recruited from four districts. All interviewers have undergone a training program in interviewing skills before they commenced field work and research team was guided by a PRA specialist to gather the free views of the respondents and to minimize the influence of the other members of the households. Some interactions were voice-recorded. These were transcribed (Carson *et al.* 2001; Yin 1994), themes were delineated, and comments were collated under each theme. Theme-by-theme analysis was done.

3.4.4.3. Formulas for index calculation

The questions scored on five-point scales (1-2-3-4-5) allow index scores to be calculated on five motives (Unique, Status, Hedonic, and Conformist), and five dimensions of cultural values (Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Long-term Orientation). Index scores are derived from the mean scores of the respondents' answers. SPSS (*Version 17*) used for calculating mean scores on five-point scales. Invalid answers which are blanks (no answer) or multiples (more than one answer) are excluded from the calculation. Since research data are imprecise measures, all mean scores on five-point scales were calculated in two decimals.

Indexes for Cultural Value Dimensions (CVD) were developed based on Hofstede's VSM 94 methodology. The Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM 94) was developed by Geert Hofstede (1994) for comparing culturally determined values of people from two

or more countries or regions. He used 20 content questions (from 5 cultural dimensions of 4 questions each) and these questions allow index scores to be calculated on five dimensions of national value systems as components of national cultures: Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Long-term Orientation.

All content questions are scored on five-point scales (1-2-3-4-5) and then index scores are derived from the mean scores on the questions. Then Hofstede (1994) devised five formulas for calculate indexes for different cultural values (Table 3.4). He suggests that these indexes should have a value between 0 and 100; however he accepts that values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

Table 3.4: Index Formula for Hofstede's Cultural Values

Dimension		Index formula	Index Value
1	PDI	$PDI = -35m(03) + 35m(06) + 25m(14) - 20m(17) - 20$	0 - small PD and 100 - large PD
2	IDV	$IDV = -50m(01) + 30m(02) + 20m(04) - 25m(08) + 130$	0 - strongly CL and 100 - strongly ID
3	MAS	$MAS = +60m(05) - 20m(07) + 20m(15) - 70m(20) + 100$	0 - strongly FM and 100 - strongly MS
4	UAI	$UAI = +25m(13) + 20m(16) - 50m(18) - 15m(19) + 120$	0 - weak UA and 100 - strong UA
5	LTO	$LTO = +45m(09) - 30m(10) - 35m(11) + 15m(12) + 67$	0 - short-TO and 100 - long-TO
<i>In which m (03) is the mean score for question 03, etc</i>			

Despite the fact that Hofstede's VSM 94 is commonly use to measure the cultural value dimensions, it is principally developed on IBM attitude survey questionnaires, which were used to compare the international work-related values. This implies that VSM 94 cannot be used without making necessary modifications to measure the cultural values of different ethnic-based consumer groups. Therefore, based on the directions provided by Hofstede (1980) and Oliver *et.al*, (1999) new five index formulas were developed for this research.

These index formulas were evaluated by a panel of experts for content and face validity. To assess the content and face validity, the formulas were sent to two renowned professors in marketing and economic and requested them to refine the index formulas to reflect the market reality. Based on the refinements, following index formulas were developed (Table 3.5) to measure the respondents' cultural values.

Table 3.5: Adjusted Index Formula for Hofstede's Cultural Values

Dimension		Index formula	Index Value
1	PDI	$PDI = 5m(01) + 5m(02) - 5m(03) - 5m(04) + 40$	0 = small PD and 80 = large PD
2	IDV	$IDV = 5m(01) + 5m(02) - 5m(03) - 5m(04) + 40$	0 = strongly CL and 80 = strongly ID
3	MAS	$MAS = 5m(01) - 5m(02) - 5m(03) + 5m(04) + 40$	0 = strongly FM and 80 = strongly MS
4	UAI	$UAI = 5m(01) + 5m(02) + 5m(03) + 5m(04) - 20$	0 = weak UA and 80 = strong UA
5	LTO	$LTO = 5m(01) + 5m(02) + 5m(03) + 5m(04) - 20$	0 = short-TO and 80 = long-TO
<i>These indexes should have a value between 0 and 80</i>			

The index formula used to calculate predictors was: $CVDI = \sum [W \times (\text{mean score for each question}) + A_F]$, where, W = weighted value of each questionnaire, A_F = Adjusted factor for each CVD, and CVDI = cultural value dimension index.

3.4.4.4. Construct Validity and Reliability

Reliability is the evaluation that looks for consistent results over time and over the population using the same evaluation in the research. Validity on the other hand, is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about (Saunders, 2003). In each term there are some threats which affect the credibility of research findings.

In terms of reliability, to condense the participant error, it was considered the selection of users of conspicuous products to evade the option of getting wrong

opinions based on participants' different cultures. Also a good moderator and clear questions was used in order to reduce the participant error. In terms of validity, to reduce the instrumentation threat, the interviews were conducted using the right instruments and equipment in order to analyze properly the results.

Reliability and construct validity of questionnaire also measured. Scale validation, regarding the response bias, the correlation between the scale used in this study and the social desirability scale was insignificantly low, which eliminated this concern. The Cronbach's Alpha indicated the good reliability and validity of the scale. The Cronbach's Alphas of the dimensions were all above 0.6, which indicated high reliability.

3.4.4.5. Pre-testing of the Questionnaire

A pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted based on the guidelines outlined by Malhotra (1999). A snowball sampling method was used to engage ten respondents for the initial pre-test. Five of the respondents were Sinhalese, three were Tamils and two were Muslims. As recommended by Allison (2008), the pre-test was conducted by way of a personal interview to give the interviewer the opportunity to observe the reactions and attitudes of respondents to the questions. All of the initial pre-test interviews were conducted in Sinhala by the researcher and the required explanations provided in respondents' native language when it was necessary. For this purpose, help of a trained Tamil speaking research assistant was obtained. The respondents were asked to think aloud whilst answering the questionnaire. A debrief was held with each respondent after they had completed the entire instrument. No significant problems were encountered during this phase of pre-testing.

3.5. Research Sample

Using the findings of the previous studies as a point of departure, the present study aims not only to evaluate the motives of conspicuous consumption of Sri Lankan consumers, but also to investigate the moderating role of cultural values and demographic perception in the relationship between conspicuous consumption. Therefore, this research is based on stratified random sample, which comprised Sinhalese, Tamil, and Muslim consumers.

The sample for the study was drawn from consumers in four major districts in Sri Lanka; Hambantota, Nuwara Eliya, Puttlam, and Vavuniya. Since this study is focused on motives for consuming conspicuous products, only the urban population were taken into consideration.

Hambantota is fast growing district of Sri Lanka located in the Southern Province, where the majority of population is Sinhalese (97.1%). Nuwara Eliya is located in the Central Province, which is most famous for tea plantation in Sri Lanka, with grater population of Indian Tamils (50.6%). Puttlam district is located in North-Western Province and 18.8% of the population is Muslims. Vavuniya district is located in Northern Province of Sri Lanka and the majority of population is Sri Lankan Tamils. These four districts, therefore, represent four provinces with different geographic, social, cultural and economic backgrounds.

An important issue in cross-cultural research is whether or not samples are equivalent on the dimensions other than those that are being studied. For example, if in the context of the present study samples were taken from different demographic groups in different cultures it would be reasonable to assume that differences in the propensity

of consumers to purchase conspicuous products might be found that could be attributable to demographic variables such as income or education.

Based on the composition of population, the structure and the size of the sample were designed. According to the 2001 census²³ of the Department of census and statistics, the population composition by ethnicity was estimated as follows; Sinhalese 82.0%, Sri Lankan Tamils 4.3%, Indian Tamil 5.1%, Moors 7.9%, Burghers 0.2%, Malays 0.3% and others 0.2%. Therefore, the sample was designed to accommodate the main four ethnic groups living in Sri Lanka, namely Sinhalese (N=1,020), Muslims (N=600), Indian Tamils (N=427), and Sri Lankan Tamils (N=335). The total sample size was 2,382 consumers. Sample designing process contained few steps:

- a) Based on the 2001 census, ranked all the districts in descending order according to the composition of different ethnic groups. Therefore, there were four sets of lists representing Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils population
- b) Then, 5 districts were selected from each list. Altogether following 20 districts were in the population representing eight provinces. No district from North-Central was eligible for consideration (Table 3.6).
- c) One district from each list was selected randomly. Accordingly Hambantota, Puttalam, Nuwara Eliya, and Vavuniya districts were eye-marked to gather data for this study

Researcher expects an urban setting leads to a greater need to use visible consumption to gain status, following Veblen. And accordingly, researcher predicts that urban and

²³ Only for 18 districts, which census has been conducted

suburban consumers do more status buying than rural and estate. The argument stems from the economically and socially dominant position of urban consumers in Sri Lankan society. Since rural and estate consumers occupy, on average, a lower position on the social ladder, they were excluded from the sample.

Table 3.6: Population Composition by Ethnicity

	Sinhalese		Muslims		Indian Tamils		SL Tamils
	District	Population	District	Population	District	Population	District
01	Hambantota	97.1%	Ampara	41.3%	N' Eliya	50.6%	Jaffna
02	Monaragala	94.5%	Puttalam	18.8%	Badulla	18.4%	Mannar
03	Galle	94.4%	Kandy	13.1%	Rathnapura	8.1%	Vavuniya
04	Matara	94.2%	Matale	8.7%	Kandy	8.1%	Mullaitivu
05	Kurunegala	91.9%	Kalutara	8.7%	Kegalle	5.6%	Kilinochchi

Note: 2001 census does not covers following districts; Jaffna, Mannar, Vavuniya, Mullaitivu, Kilinochchi, Batticaloa, and Trincomalee. When consider the demography, other than Batticaloa, and Trincomalee, in all other districts the majority are Sri Lankan Tamils. Therefore, Jaffna, Mannar, Vavuniya, Mullaitivu, and Kilinochchi been identified as Sri Lankan Tamils dominated districts.

d) According to the 2001 census, 4.1% of Hambantota people, 9.2% of Puttlam people, and 6.1% of Nuwara Eliya people are categorized as urban people. No reliable statistics are available for Vavuniya district. Based on the discussion had with officials of Vavuniya, it is assumed that approximately 5% of the population live in urban. Considering different demographics of these districts, the sample was designed as follows. Sampling design procedure is presented in Table 3.7.

Once the sample was selected, a decision was made to gather information from respondents by administering the research questionnaire in face-to-face interviews. Two thousand five hundred thirty seven (n=2,537) questionnaires were administrated and 2,382 valid responses were received. All unacceptable questionnaires, which are not fully completed, are excluded from the sample. The response rates were comparatively high; Hambantota 91% (n=1020), Puttalam 97% (n=600), Nuwara

Eliya 97% (n=427), and Vavuniya 96% (n=335). Consequently the overall response rate was 94%.

Table 3.7: Sample Design

	District	Population	Ethnicity	%	Total	Urban	No. Urban Population	Sample size
01	Hambantota	526,400	Sinhalese	97.1	511,134	4.4%	22,490	1,124 (5%)
02	Puttlam	709,700	Moors	18.8	133,424	9.3%	12,408	620 (5%)
03	Nuwara Eliya	703,600	Indian Tamils	50.6	356,022	6.2%	22,073	441 (2%)
04	Vavuniya*	149,800	SL Tamils	90.0	134,820	5.2%	7,011	351 (5%)
Total Sample Size								2,537 (17%)

* Estimated by the Dept of Census & Statistics

3.6. Data analysis

The analysis of the interviews was guided by the broad propositions of the conceptual framework presented in chapter two (Yin 1994). With these propositions in mind, a coding system was composed that represented variables that were included in the conceptual framework. The coding system was comprised in a way that variables corresponding to the same propositions were given the similar code prior to any additional categorisation.

Yin (1994) suggests two techniques for analyze data; pattern matching logic and explanation building. Accordingly, a sample of completed questionnaires was examined separately and contrasts what was found with what was expected to be found (*i.e. pattern matching logic*). This helps to confirm the theoretical framework and propositions of the study. According to Yin (1994), the explanation of a phenomenon requires researchers to stipulate a set of causal links about it. Further he says, the independent variables may be numerous and the links may be complex and

difficult to measure in any precise manner. As a result, the re-examination of evidence is advocated. In this study, at the pilot research stage, the role of cultural value dimensions and consumer demographics in conspicuous consumption was re-examined (*i.e. explanation building*) and necessary adjustments were made.

3.6.1. Choice of Statistical Tests

Following statistical techniques are primarily used with respect to the analysis of the motives for consuming conspicuous products items, and cultural orientation items measured by Section B and Section C of the survey. In addition to the tests described in the following sections, a range of descriptive statistics are employed for exploring the demographic characteristic data contained in Section A, of the survey questionnaire.

3.6.1.1. Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was used to explore whether the data obtained from Section B and Section C of the survey conform to the conceptualised structure of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products, and for cultural orientation respectively. Once the dimensionality of motives for conspicuous consumption and cultural orientation had been established the resultant factors were used as variables in subsequent analyses, including correlation analysis and multiple regression.

3.6.1.2. One Sample *T*-test

A one sample *t*-test can assist a researcher to assess whether the sample population conforms to a given standard or hypothesis (Malhotra, 1999). Respondent's *t* will thus be used to test hypotheses relating to the importance that consumers attach to the different forms of motivation for the consumption of luxury products.

The one-sample *t*-test illustrates the extent to which the sample population differs from the hypothesised norm (Allison, 2008). If a significant and positive difference exists between the sample mean and the midpoint of the measure, this would support the hypotheses that suggest that consumers will possess a high level of the different forms of motivations for consuming conspicuous products.

3.6.1.3. ANOVA

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test a number of hypotheses that relate to differences or similarities between four different cultural groups (i.e. Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils) in respect of specific motive(s) for the consumption of conspicuous products, and their specific cultural orientation(s).

3.6.1.4. MANOVA

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used for assessing the difference between the means of four groups in respect of their overall motives for the consumption of conspicuous products.

3.6.1.5. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression

The Pearson product moment correlation was employed as an initial test of hypotheses pertaining to relationships between consumer demographic characteristics, cultural orientation dimensions, and motivation for consuming conspicuous products dimensions. A series of multiple regressions were employed in order to assess the influence of cultural values and consumer demographic characteristics on motivation for the consumption of conspicuous products. The independent predictor variables are the factors derived from the factor analysis of the items contained in Section C of the survey relating to respondents cultural orientation and respondents' demographic

characteristics, which contained in Section A. The dependent variables are the derived from the factor analysis of the items contained in Section B of the survey questionnaire relating to motivation for consuming conspicuously.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis and results of the research. As stated in the first chapter, the main focus of this research is to explore the impact of consumer demographic perceptions and their cultural value orientations on conspicuous consumption. Therefore, the questionnaire used for this research contained three sections. Section A was designed to gather respondents' demographic characteristics, Section B was focused on respondents' perception towards conspicuous consumption, and the Section C contained 20 questions to measure to cultural values of the people in the sample. Consequently, this chapter also divided into three sub-sections. The section 4.2 highlights the demographic distribution of the sample. The section 4.3 draws attention to the consumer purchasing habits in respect of subjectively perceived conspicuous products. And it also contains the respondents' motives for conspicuous consumption. Section 4.4 spotlights the respondents' cultural orientation, based on Hofstede five cultural dimensions.

4.2. Demographic characteristics of the sample

Section A of the research tool contained 10 questions pertaining to the demographic profile of respondents. Descriptive results from the answers to this section are contained in here. Since this is a cross-sectional study, the sample included four ethnic groups; Sinhalese (SN: n=1020), Indian Tamils (INT: n=427), Sri Lankan Tamils (SLT: n=335), and Muslims (MS: n=600). This gives the sample higher importance as the attitudes and perceptions on conspicuous from different cultures can be drawn from such a wide distribution of respondents.

4.2.1. Age, Marital Status and Gender

Respondents were asked to report their age and gender. Aggregated results obtained from respondents are contained in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Age, Marital Status and Gender of Respondents

		SN (N=1020) %	INT (N=427) %	SLT (N=335) %	MS (N= 600) %	Total (N=2,382) %
Gender	Male	43.6	52.9	56.7	72.0	54.3
	Female	56.4	47.1	43.3	28.0	45.7
Marital Stats	Married	48.3	64.4	63.0	79.7	61.2
	Unmarried	51.7	35.6	37.0	20.3	38.8
Age (yrs)	- 25	29.5	19.6	16.1	17.0	22.8
	25-34	44.8	42.8	31.6	30.8	39.1
	35-44	16.8	16.9	23.8	30.8	21.3
	45-54	6.9	10.5	13.5	16.2	10.8
	55-64	1.7	7.7	13.5	2.7	4.7
	65 +	0.3	2.3	1.0	2.5	1.3
	Mean	30.43	34.69	37.92	36.83	33.85
	SD	9.18	12.70	12.65	11.66	11.46

The breakdown illustrated that the male respondents were dominated in the sample (54%). However, among the Sinhalese respondents, the majority were female (56%). A considerable unequal distribution of gender can be seen among Muslim respondents, where 72 percent were male and just 28 percent were female. The main reason for this inequality was the majority of Muslim females reluctant to interact with the research team. This may reflect the reality of the Muslim culture.

In the age category, 39 percent of the total sample represents 25 and 34 age group, just over 22 percent fall in the range of 15-25 years old, 21 percent represents 35 and 44 age group, and the remaining 17 percent stated that they are over 45. The mean age of the total respondents is just over 33 years and it deviates among 30 years (Sinhalese) to 38 years (SL Tamils). However, no significant differences exist in age between these four samples ($F = 2.10, p = < 0.05$).

4.2.2. Religion, Family Size and Education of Respondents

As per the details of the Table 4.2, the vast majority of Sinhalese, who responded, identified themselves as “*Sinhala-Buddhist*” (91%). Only 09 percent identified themselves as “*Sinhala-Catholic*”. All Muslim respondents identified them as “*Islamic*”. Majority of Tamil respondents, both Indian (88 %) and Sri Lankan (84 %), were Hindus and the balances were Catholic.

Respondents were also asked to report the number of members in their family. Aggregated results that are contained in Table 4.2 indicate that 65 percent of the total sample was comprised with 4 to 5 family members. Only 01 percent of the sample consisted of more than 08 family members. In terms of respondents’ education, nearly one-third of the sample studied up to or were in a process of completing G.C.E. (Advance Level) examination and another 30 percent have achieved their G.C.E. (Ordinary Level) education. This is an expected outcome, because people live in urban are generally known to be a high-educated.

Table 4.2: Religion, Family Size, & Education Level of Respondents

		SN (N=1020) %	INT (N=427) %	SLT (N=335) %	MS (N= 600) %	Total (N=2,382) %
Religion	Buddhist	90.8	-	-	-	38.9
	Catholic	09.2	11.7	15.8	-	27.7
	Hindu	-	88.3	84.2	-	25.2
	Islamic	-	-	-	100	8.3
Family Size	< 3	23.9	20.6	27.8	14.1	22.4
	4-5	65.8	68.1	58.3	60.4	64.8
	6-7	9.7	11.0	13.3	23.2	11.8
	8<	0.6	0.3	0.6	2.3	1.0
Education	< Grade 8	2.7	9.1	9.6	19.8	9.2
Qualifications	GCE (O/L)	10.7	29.0	37.0	59.5	30.0
	GCE (A/L)	52.3	37.7	32.5	14.0	37.2
	Diploma	11.7	9.4	13.1	6.7	10.2
	Professional	7.7	6.6	3.9	-	5.0
	Graduates	12.2	8.2	3.9	-	7.2
	Post Graduates	2.7	-	-	-	1.2
	Mean (EQ)	3.584	2.998	2.764	2.075	2.984
	SD	1.3553	1.3242	1.1560	.7748	1.3445

4.2.3. Employment and Monthly Income of Respondents

Since the conspicuous consumption has conventionally been considered the preserve of the privileged society, only urban respondents were used as the sample of this study. These respondents were asked to specify their monthly income. The results for this question are reported in Table 4.3.

Results reveal that the average incomes for all respondents are skewed towards the higher income brackets. This is not surprising, as people live in urban are generally known to be a high-income group. As revealed by the Economic and Social Statistics

of Sri Lanka, the monthly mean income of urban people in 2009/10 was Rs. 47,783.00. Interestingly, this sample also recorded an average monthly income (i.e. Rs. 48,629.00), which is closer to the benchmark of the country. This increases the face validity of the sample of the study. In terms of respondents' employment, 61 percent of the sample stated that they work in private sector, while 22% were self-employed. Only 17 percent were employed government sector.

Table 4.3: Job/Profession & Monthly Income of Respondents

		SN (N=1020) %	INT (N=427) %	SLT (N=335) %	MS (N= 600) %	Total (N=2,382) %
Monthly Income (Rs.'000)	- 20	2.7	1.6	4.2	-	1.5
	20-40	46.0	38.4	20.6	32.1	38.1
	40-60	32.9	50.8	64.5	60.4	47.5
	60-80	8.6	4.4	5.1	2.3	5.8
	80-100	4.1	2.5	3.0	5.2	3.9
	100-125	1.5	0.9	0.3	-	0.8
	125-150	1.1	0.2	0.6	-	0.6
	150-200	2.0	0.7	1.7	-	1.2
	200-250	1.0	0.3	-	-	0.5
	250 +	0.1	0.2	-	-	0.1
Mean		49,924	45,867	49,754	47,771	48,629
SD		32,886	23,014	25,275	13,880	26,421
Job / Profession	State Sector	24.0	16.9	15.2	5.0	16.7
	Private Sector	55.8	59.7	59.1	72.7	61.2
	Self Employed	20.2	23.4	25.7	22.3	22.1

4.3. Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Consumption

Section **B** of the questionnaire contained three subsections to measure a) the concentrations of the respondents' conspicuous consumption, b) their motives for

conspicuous consumption, and c) the respondents' perception towards conspicuous products. All these were measured on a 5 point Likert scale. The mean value and the standard deviation of the items used under each factor are used to identify the most highly graded statements.

4.3.1. Respondents' Concentration on Conspicuous Consumption

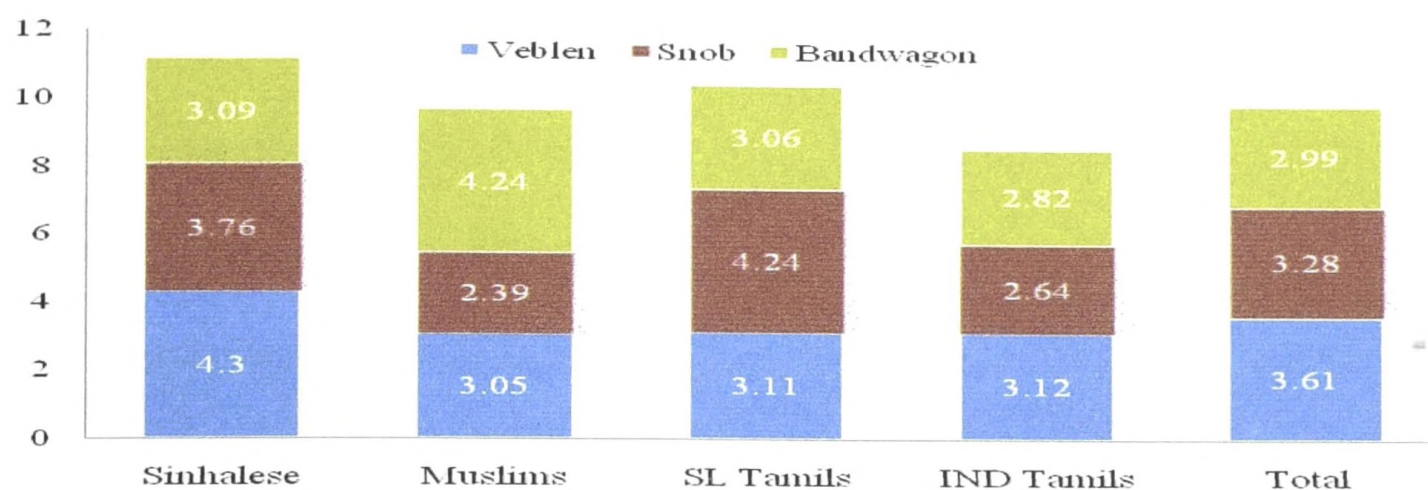
The respondents' attractiveness towards conspicuous consumption was measured in three aspects: Veblen effects, Snob effects, and Bandwagon effects. Eleven items (4 for Veblen, 4 for Snob, and 3 for Bandwagon) were used to quantify these aspects, and in turn the intensities of conspicuous consumption of the respondents. Overall, respondents reveal that they would be more attracted to increase the demanded for a conspicuous good if there prices are increasing (Veblen effect: $\bar{x} = 3.61$, $SD = .915$), and they would increase their own demand when other's demand increase (Bandwagon effect: $\bar{x} = 2.99$, $SD = .843$). Alternatively, they would reduce their own demand when other's demand increase (Snob effect: $\bar{x} = 3.28$, $SD = .901$).

In terms of respondents' nationalities, Sinhalese ($\bar{x} = 4.30$, $SD = .566$) and Indian Tamils ($\bar{x} = 3.12$, $SD = .761$) are highly attracted by the Veblen effect, while Sri Lankan Tamils are more influenced by the Snob effect ($\bar{x} = 4.24$, $SD = .525$) and Muslims respondents are convinced to consume conspicuous products by Bandwagon effect ($\bar{x} = 4.24$, $SD = .637$). The conspicuous concentrations among different ethnic groups are depicted by Figure 4.1.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the means of the samples. Through this, variability among the group means was compared to the

variability within groups. A normality test for these figures also conducted before using ANOVA.

Figure 4.1: Veblen, Snob, Bandwagon Effects on Conspicuous Consumption



As depicts by Figure 4.2, the respondents' views were dispersed within a normal distribution pattern. This indicates the fittingness ANOVA for this data set. Based on the outcomes of ANOVA, the mean scores of respondents' conspicuous consumption concentrations and the standard deviations for all nationalities are reported in Table 4.4.

Figure 4.2: Normality Test for Conspicuous Consumption

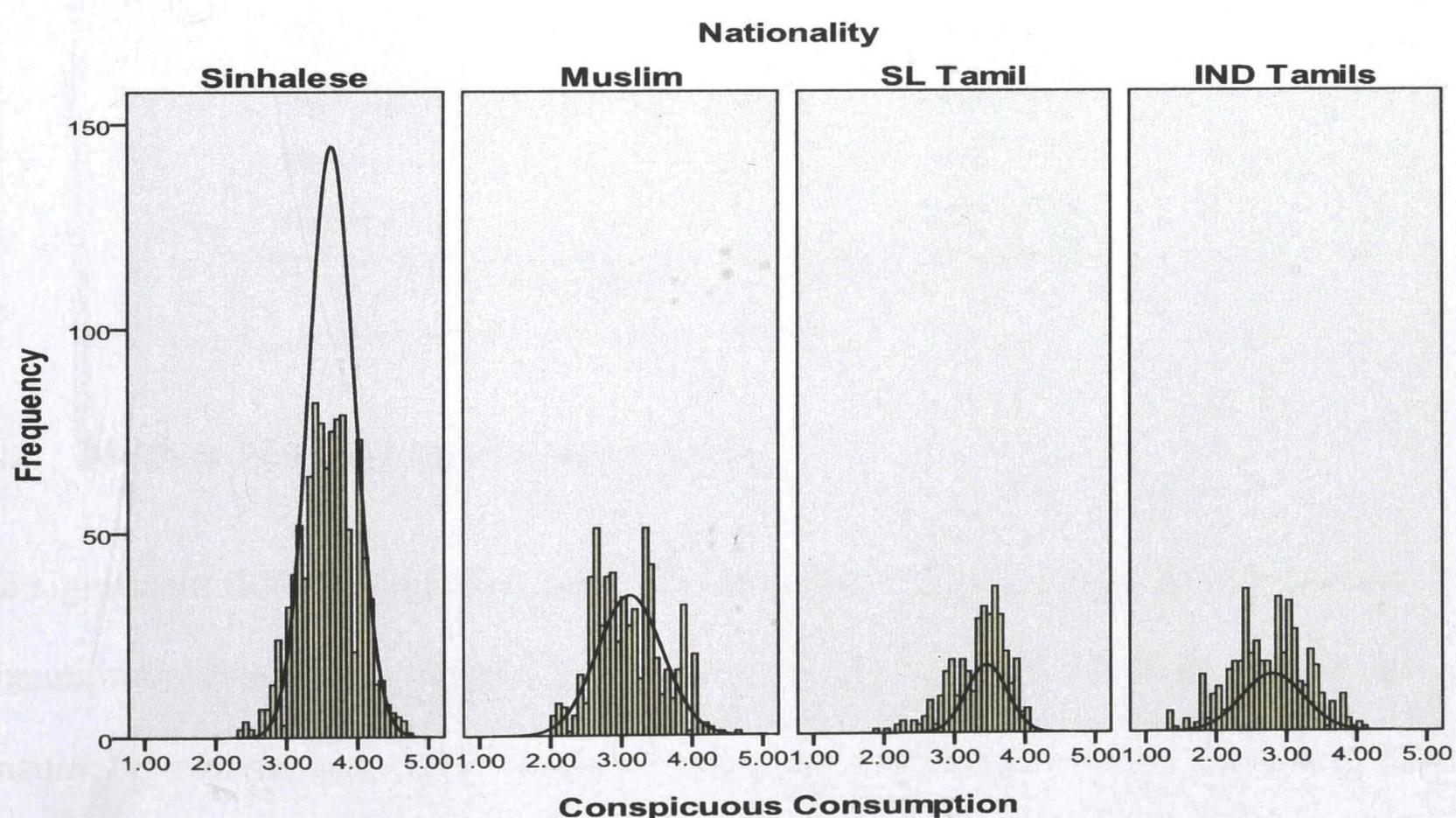


Table 4.4: **Conspicuous Consumption in different Nationalities**

	SN	INT	SLT	MS	Total	F	Sig
Mean	3.6031	2.7463	3.3579	3.1102	3.3765		
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	401.053	.000
SD	.40494	.53579	.40019	.49317	.55588		

This table indicates that the means with different letters are statistically and significantly different ($p = <.001$, $MSE = 0.205$). Therefore, the average perceptions towards the conspicuous consumption amongst these four ethnic groups are found to be considerably varied. This is further confirmed by the Post Hoc Test (i.e. LSD) of the ANOVA.

Table 4.5 presents the results of multiple comparisons amongst the samples in terms of their conspicuous consumption. As revealed in the Table 4.5, mean differences are significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.5: **Multiple Comparisons of the Respondents' Conspicuous Consumption**

Nationality	Mean Difference		
	Muslims	Tamils (SL)	Tamils (IN)
Sinhalese	.49294* (.023)	.24525* (.029)	.85685* (.026)
Muslim		-.24770* (.031)	.36391* (.029)
Tamils (SL)			.61160* (.033)

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Values with brackets are SE of coefficients

4.3.2. Motives of Conspicuous Consumption

The significant differences found amongst the different ethnic groups in conspicuous consumption stresses the importance of explore the motives of these groups for consume conspicuously. The Section B (II) of the questionnaire contained 20

questions on 5 point Licker scale to measure the motives for conspicuous consumption. The items contained in this section were developed specifically for this study by using Q-Sort methodology and then it operationalized the four motives for conspicuous orientation. A factor analysis was conducted to purify the scales used in the questionnaire. Univariate ANOVAs also were performed on the derived factors to ascertain whether differences existed between ethnic groups in their conspicuous orientation.

4.3.2.1. Factor Analysis

As stated in elsewhere in this chapter, twenty items were designed to measure the four types of motives for the conspicuous consumption: uniqueness (UM), status (SM), hedonic (HM), and conformist (CM). These scales were broken into subscales that contain an equal number of items (n=5) respectively and a factor analysis was performed. According to Allison (2010), the Maximum Likelihood (MLH) method is suitable when the objective is to identify constructs within a data set. Hence, MLH was employed to conduct the factor analysis among conspicuous motives of the respondents.

Hair *et.al*, (2006) suggest that Varimax rotation is a useful instrument in interpretation of the factor matrix. Therefore, 20 items developed for UM, SM, HM, and CM were loaded onto four factors using Varimax rotation. During the first iteration of the factor analysis, several tests were performed to ascertain the quality of the sample. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity for testing the adequacy of the sample were performed accordingly.

Table 4.6 provides a summary of KMO measures and Bartlett's Test.

Table 4.6: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) and Bartlett's Test**

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.841
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	14,106.38
	df	190
	Sig.	.000
Goodness-of-fit Test	Chi-Square	1,192.23
	df	100
	Sig.	.000

As per the results, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.841, well in excess of the minimum of 0.5 recommended by Hair *et.al*, (2006). Bartlett's test of sphericity resulted in a Chi-Square of 14,106.38 indicating this is statistically significant at the 0.001 level. The Goodness-of-Fit test resulted in a Chi-Square of 1,192.23, also statistically significant at the 0.001 level demonstrating that it was appropriate to perform a factor analysis.

The Eigenvalues and percentage of variance for the largest ten factors obtained during the first iteration of the factor analysis are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: **Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance of Factors for Conspicuous Motives**

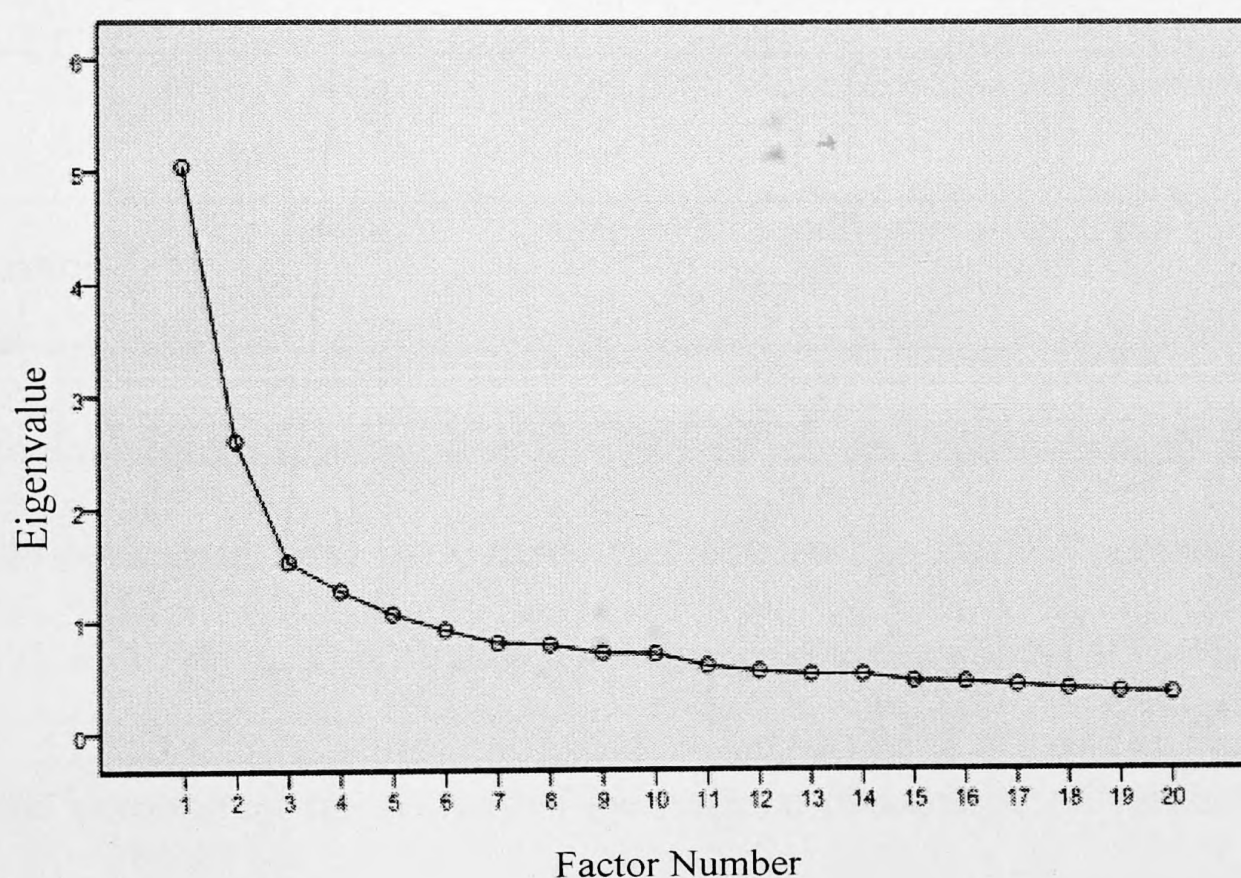
	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Eigenvalue	5.05	2.60	1.53	1.27	1.06	0.92	0.80	0.79	0.71	0.70
% of Variance	25.24	13.02	7.65	6.36	5.31	4.60	4.02	3.93	3.56	3.51
Cumulative %	25.24	38.26	45.91	52.27	57.58	62.18				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood

According to the breakdown, five (05) factors can be retained due to Eigenvalues over the threshold of one. The total variance accounted for by these five factors is 57.58 percent. Therefore, the percentage of variance method suggests a six factor solution as six factors are required to account for greater than sixty percent of the total variance in the data.

In addition to the Eigenvalues and the percentage of variance method, Allison (2010) proposes another two methods to be considered in determining the numbers of retain factors: Scree Plot test and Interpretability of factors (*Varimax Rotation*). Figure 4.3 shows the scree plot for the factor analysis in respondents' conspicuous motivation. It suggested that a four factor solution was appropriate as there is a distinct trailing off of the curve after factor four.

Figure 4.3: **The Scree Plot for the Factor Analysis for Motives for CC**



The maximum likelihood method with varimax rotation also conducted to measure the interpretability of factors (see Appendix I). A cut-off of 0.40 was applied for the factor loadings as this is generally seen as signalling a high enough correlation

coefficient of the item with the factor (Leech *et.al*, 2008). When 0.40 was used as the initial cut-off point of factor loading, there were six (06) items loaded significantly on factor one, five(05) items on factor two, four (04) items on factor three, three (03) items on factor four, and one (01) item on factor five. When remove the uninterpretable factors and the offending items from analysis, only four factors remained that possess at least three items with significant factor loadings. The different results provided by Eigenvalue Criteria, Percentage of Variance, Scree Plot, and Varimax Rotation are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Interpretation of the Factor Matrix

	Measure	Suggestion	Based
1	Eigenvalue Criteria	Five Factor solution	05 F's with an Eigenvalue greater >1
2	Percentage of Variance	Six Factor solution	06 F's are required to account for > 60% of the total variance
3	Scree Plot	Four Factor solution	Distinct trailing off of the curve after factor four
4	Varimax Rotation	Four Factor solution	Items with significant loadings and simple structure > 3

Consequently, a four-factor solution was used for subsequent refinement of the factor solution. This is consistent with the pattern that emerged in the development of the scale (Singelis *et.al*, 1995) and confirmed by subsequent researchers (Allison, 2010).

The final rotated component matrix with Eigenvalues, percentage of variance in the data accounted for by each factor and Cronbach Alphas for the resultant subscales are presented in Table 4.9.

As per the Table 4.9, the Cronbach's alphas range from 0.773 to 0.609. All these values are beyond the threshold score of 0.6 for determining whether a scale possesses satisfactory internal consistency reliability (Malhotra, 1999).

Table 4.9: Final Rotated Factor Matrix for Motives of CC Data

Item	Factor			
	UM	SM	HM	CM
I am more likely to buy a CG if it is unique	.729			
I enjoy shopping at stores that carry merchandise that is unusual	.630			
I value the ability of a CG to make me feel special	.515			
I am attracted to rare things	.401			
People are more likely to accept me if they see me with a CG		.708		
It is important that people know that a CG that I own was expensive		.696		
A CG is worth more if people think it is a status product		.615		
It is important that I advertise my success by owning CGs		.585		
I hope people think I am wealthy when they see me with a CPGs		.525		
My reason for consuming CG is that it puts me in a good mood			.734	
I prefer the CGs that my friends already own			.648	
CGs should give me pleasure			.687	
I am more likely to purchase CG that I would enjoy			.593	
Sometimes it is necessary to purchase a CG to gain membership of a group				.608
I feel more socially acceptable if I possess a CG as compared with ICG				.444
CGs help me conform to the expectations of my peers				.559
Sometimes I am ashamed of products I own because others own better				.498
Initial Eigenvalue	10.245	3.926	2.107	1.579
% variance	51.222	19.627	10.539	7.895
Cronbach's Alpha	0.633	0.773	0.609	0.682

4.3.2.2. Multicollinearity Test for Motives of Conspicuous Consumption

Allison (2010) proposes that an additional test is needed to be conducted to establish that all factors belong to separate constructs. Therefore, two regression analyses were conducted using conspicuous consumption (CC) as the dependent variable and UM, SM, HM, and CM as independent variables. These four independent variables were

reconstructed based on the findings contained in final rotated factor matrix. Table 4.10 contained the summary of two regression tests.

The first regression utilised the stepwise method, and the second utilised the enter method. A significant increase in the r^2 from one method to another is indicative of the presence of multicollinearity. If present this would indicate that the factors are not separate constructs (Allison, 2010). In this study, the increase in r^2 from one method (stepwise) to the other (enter) is 0.028. The slight change implies that the different constructs do not represent the same phenomena.

Table 4.10: Regression Analysis – Multicollinearity Test for Motives for CC

Dependent Variable	Predictor Variable	β	Std. β	t	Sig	R^2 (Model)
Conspicuous Consumption ^a	(Constant)	2.454		57.471	.000	.146
	Uniqueness Motive	.260	.383	20.207	.000	
Conspicuous Consumption ^b	(Constant)	2.244		36.365	.000	.174
	Uniqueness Motive	.242	.356	16.791	.000	
	Status Motive	.132	.206	8.700	.000	
	Hedonic Motive	.042	.052	2.607	.009	
	Conformist Motive	.094	.133	-5.344	.000	

^aMethod: Stepwise

^bMethod: Enter

4.3.2.3. Analysis of Mean Scores

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of uniqueness motive, status motive, hedonic motive, and conformist motive after the Factor Analysis. Table 4.11 provides some very useful descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation for each ethnic group (Sinhalese, Muslims, Sri Lankan Tamils, and Indian Tamils), as well as when all groups are combined.

A positive t -statistic represents a relatively high orientation towards the construct. And a large t -statistics imply that the coefficients of UM, SM, HM, & CM were able to be estimated with a fair amount of accuracy. Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference between nationalities in conspicuous consumption as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F= 401.053, p = .000$).

Table 4.11: Means, T-Test and ANOVA for Conspicuous Consumption Motives

Nationality		Conspicuous Motives			
		Uniqueness	Status	Hedonic	Conformist
		Motive	Motive	Motive	Motive
Sinhalese	Mean	3.28	2.89	3.48	2.78
	Std. Deviation	.789	.943	.692	.794
	t	132.59	97.81	160.80	103.74
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
Muslims	Mean	2.98	2.82	3.27	2.65
	Std. Deviation	.896	.729	.634	.434
	t	78.68	88.02	126.38	138.50
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tamils (SL)	Mean	3.48	3.31	3.38	3.51
	Std. Deviation	.621	.651	.590	.607
	t	102.64	93.06	104.90	105.65
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tamils (IN)	Mean	3.33	3.10	3.53	3.08
	Std. Deviation	.760	.848	.787	.786
	t	90.59	75.49	92.63	81.10
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
Total	Mean	3.21	3.02	3.42	2.87
	Std. Deviation	.817	.867	.689	.783
	t	191.90	164.11	242.36	172.45
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
ANOVA	F	53.93	56.94	16.47	222.02
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000

Also, the significance level for all predictors were below 0.05 ($p = 0.000$) and therefore, there was a statistically significant difference in the mean value of uniqueness motive ($F = 53.93$, $p = 0.000$), status motive ($F = 56.94$, $p = 0.000$), hedonic motive ($F = 16.47$, $p = 0.000$) and conformity motive ($F = 222.02$, $p = 0.000$) for consuming conspicuous products between the different nationalities.

Differences in conspicuous motives among the respondents are presented in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Motives for Conspicuous Consumption

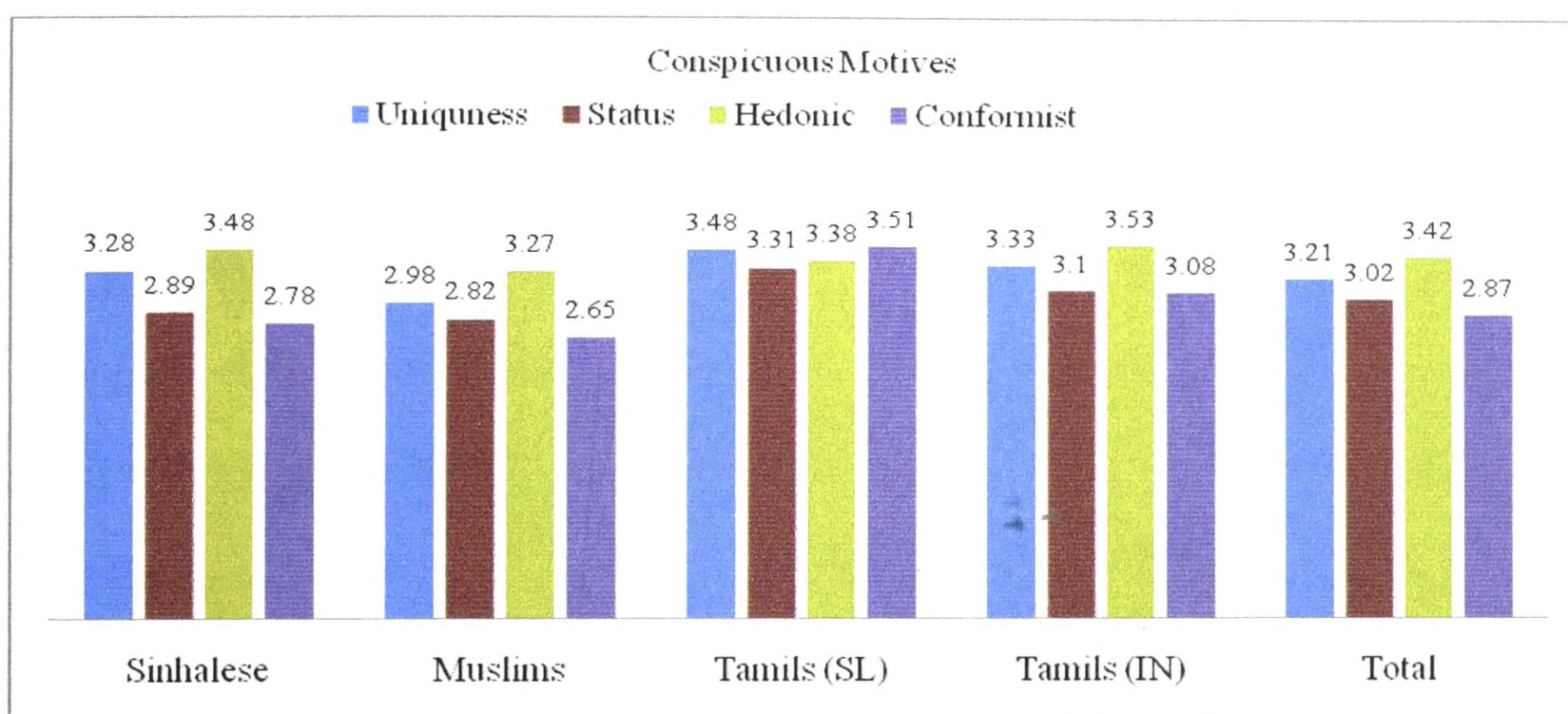


Table 4.11 reveals that the motive for consuming conspicuous product was comparatively lower for conformist motive ($2.77 \pm .78$ min, $p = 0.000$) and status motive ($2.92 \pm .88$ min, $p = 0.000$) compared to the uniqueness motive ($3.21 \pm .82$ min, $p = 0.000$) and hedonic motive ($3.42 \pm .69$ min, $p = 0.000$). Yet, all were emerged as statistically significant. All in all, hedonic motive is the most significant motivator of the consumption of conspicuous products for all types of consumers ($t = 242.36$, $p = 0.000$). This is true for Sinhalese ($t = 160.08$, $p = 0.000$), Muslims ($t = 126.38$, $p = 0.000$), both Sri Lankan Tamils ($t = 104.90$, $p = 0.000$), and Indian Tamils ($t = 92.63$,

$p=0.000$). **H₄**, which proposed that consumers of conspicuous products will possess high level of hedonic motivation, is therefore supported. This appears to confirm previous research findings that motivation for consuming luxury products increases in line with the perceived scarcity of the conspicuous product (Allison, 2010; Groth & McDaniel, 1993; Eastman *et al.*, 1999; Heaney *et al.*, 2005; Jessie & John, 2002).

The outcomes reported in Table 4.11 indicate that uniqueness motive was the second most significant motive for the conspicuous consumption ($t=191.90$, $p=0.000$). Accordingly, for Sinhalese ($t=132.59$, $p=0.000$), Muslims ($t=78.68$, $p=0.000$), Tamils (SL) ($t=102.64$, $p=0.000$), Tamil (IN) ($t=90.59$, $p=0.000$) uniqueness motive emerged as an important motivation for the consumption of conspicuous products. Hypothesis **H₂** is therefore supported, as uniqueness motive a significant motivator for consumers. These consumers are motivated to consume conspicuous products to distinguish them from others and this finding confirms previous research (Leigh & Gabel 1992; Engel *et.al.* 1993; Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006; Tai, 2007; Amaldoss & Jain, 2008).

The overall t -test for respondents' status motive was 164.11 ($p=0.000$) and consequently, status has emerged as an important motive of the consumption of conspicuous products. It indicates that the Sinhalese ($t=97.81$, $p=0.000$), Muslims ($t=88.02$, $p=0.000$), Sri Lankan Tamils ($t=93.06$, $p=0.000$), and the Indian Tamils ($t=75.49$, $p=0.000$) are motivated to consume conspicuous products in order to impress others with the ability to pay particular high prices.

These findings supported the hypothesis **H₁**, which proposed that consumers possess high levels of status motive for consuming conspicuous products. This finding is consistent with prior research findings (Chao & Schror, 1998; Bagwell and Bernheim,

1996; Creedy and Slottje, 1991), however it is inconsistent with Allison's (2010) findings.

Support of the results contained in Table 4.11, it can be concluded that all nationalities are appeared to be motivated by conformist motive in their decision to consume conspicuous products ($t = 172.45$, $p=.000$). This was the case for all the respondents in the sample and for them conformist motive has emerged as an important motivation for the consumption of conspicuous products. It suggests that respondents' conspicuous consumption is generally influenced by their motive for creating social opportunities and social interaction. H_3 is, therefore, supported as consumers possess high levels of conformity motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. This appears to confirm previous research findings (Allison, 2010; Jaramillo & Moizeau, 2003; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Richard & Clare, 2004).

4.3.3. Analysis of Differences / Similarities between Nationalities in Motivation for Consuming Conspicuous Products

4.3.3.1. MANOVA

The one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) was used to determine whether there were any differences between motives for conspicuous consumption on nationalities. Assumptions of independence of observations and homogeneity of variance/covariance were checked and met. The actual results of the one-way MANOVA are summarized in the Multivariate Tests (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Multivariate Tests for Respondents' Motives for CC

Effect		Value	F	df	Error DF	Sig.	Partial η^2
Intercept	Wilks' Lambda	.030	19144.453 ^a	4.000	2375.000	.000	.970
Nationality	Wilks' Lambda	.726	67.322	12.000	6283.951	.000	.101

There was a statistically significant difference in motives for consuming conspicuous products based on a respondent's ethnic groups (Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.726$, $F(12, 6283) = 67.32$, $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.10$). H_5 proposed that differences will exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different types of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. The MANOVA result supports this hypothesis.

4.3.3.2. Univariate ANOVAs

Since the MANOVA achieved a statistically significant result, researcher continued the analysis with further tests. Consequently, a series of follow-up ANOVAs were performed to assess whether differences existed between respondents in respect of each form of motives.

4.3.3.3. Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Test for Between-Subjects Effects was conducted to determine how the conspicuous motives differ for the nationalities. According to the results obtained, nationality has a statistically significant effect on uniqueness motive ($F = 53.93$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .064$), status motive ($F = 56.94$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .067$), hedonic motive ($F = 16.47$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .020$), and conformist motive ($F = 222.02$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .219$).

4.3.3.4. Multiple Comparisons

From the results so far, it indicates that there are significant differences in terms of conspicuous motives between the groups as a whole. The multiple comparisons table, which contains the results of post-hoc tests, shows which group differed from each other. Since the Tukey post-hoc test is generally the preferred test for conducting

post-hoc tests on a one-way ANOVA (Leech, *et.al*, 2008), it was utilized here. Table 13 summarised the breakdown of multiple comparison based on Tukey HSD.

Table 4.13: **Multiple Comparisons for Conspicuous Motives** [Tukey HSD]

Motive	Nationality		Mean Δ	SE	Sig.	Motive	Nationality		Mean Δ	SE	Sig.
UM	SN	MS	.3976*	.0407	.000	HM	SN	MS	.2130*	.0351	.000
		SLT	-.2066*	.0498	.000			SLT	.1047	.0430	.071
		INT	-.0536	.0456	.643			INT	-.0443	.0394	.674
	MS	SLT	-.6042*	.0540	.000		MS	SLT	-.1083	.0466	.093
		INT	-.4511*	.0501	.000			INT	-.2573*	.0432	.000
	SLT	INT	.1531*	.0578	.040		SLT	INT	-.1490*	.0498	.015
SM	SN	MS	.2678*	.0431	.000	CM		MS	.1270*	.0357	.002
		SLT	-.4239*	.0528	.000			SLT	-.9246*	.0436	.000
		INT	-.2107*	.0483	.000			INT	-.5032*	.0399	.000
	MS	SLT	-.6917*	.0572	.000		MS	SLT	-1.052*	.0473	.000
		INT	-.4784*	.0531	.000			INT	-.6302*	.0439	.000
	SLT	INT	.2133*	.0612	.003		SLT	INT	.4213*	.0506	.000
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level											

A Tukey post-hoc test revealed there is a significant difference in uniqueness motive for consuming conspicuous products between Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = 0.000$), as well as between Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.000$). However, there were no differences between Sinhalese and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.643$). On the other hand, a significant difference found in uniqueness motive between Muslims and both Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.000$), and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.000$), and between Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.040$). Combined results summarized in Table 4.11 (mean, t test, ANOVA) and Table 13 (multiple comparison for conspicuous motives) reveal that the impact of respondents' uniqueness motive differ in their nationality. For instance, it was statistically significantly lower between Muslims ($2.88 \pm .90$ min,

$p = .000$) and higher among Sri Lankan Tamils ($3.48 \pm .62$ min, $p = .000$) compared to Sinhalese.

H₇ proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of uniqueness motivation for conspicuous consumption. As described in the previous chapter, ANOVA test indicated that a significant difference existed between Sinhala, Muslim, Indian Tamil, and Sri Lankan Tamil respondents in respect of uniqueness motive ($F = 53.93$; $p < .005$). However, no difference was found between Sinhala and Indian Tamil respondents ($p = 0.643$). Therefore, it can be concluded that **H₇** is supported to greater extent. This result is confirmed by the effect size for ANOVA obtained ($\text{Eta}^2 = .064$).

The Table 4.13 shows that the mean scores for status motive were statistically significantly different between Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = .000$), and Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = .000$), and Sinhalese and Indian Tamils ($p = .000$). Also a significant differences found between Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = .000$), Muslims and Indian Tamils ($p = .000$) as well as between Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils ($p = .003$). Interestingly, similar pattern prevailed in conformist motive for consuming conspicuous product.

H₆ proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of status motivation for conspicuous consumption. The ANOVA testing this hypothesis was significant at the 0.05 level ($F = 56.94$; $p < .005$; partial $\eta^2 = .067$). **H₆** is, therefore, supported.

H₈ proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of conformist motivation for conspicuous consumption. The ANOVA test indicates that a significant difference exists between

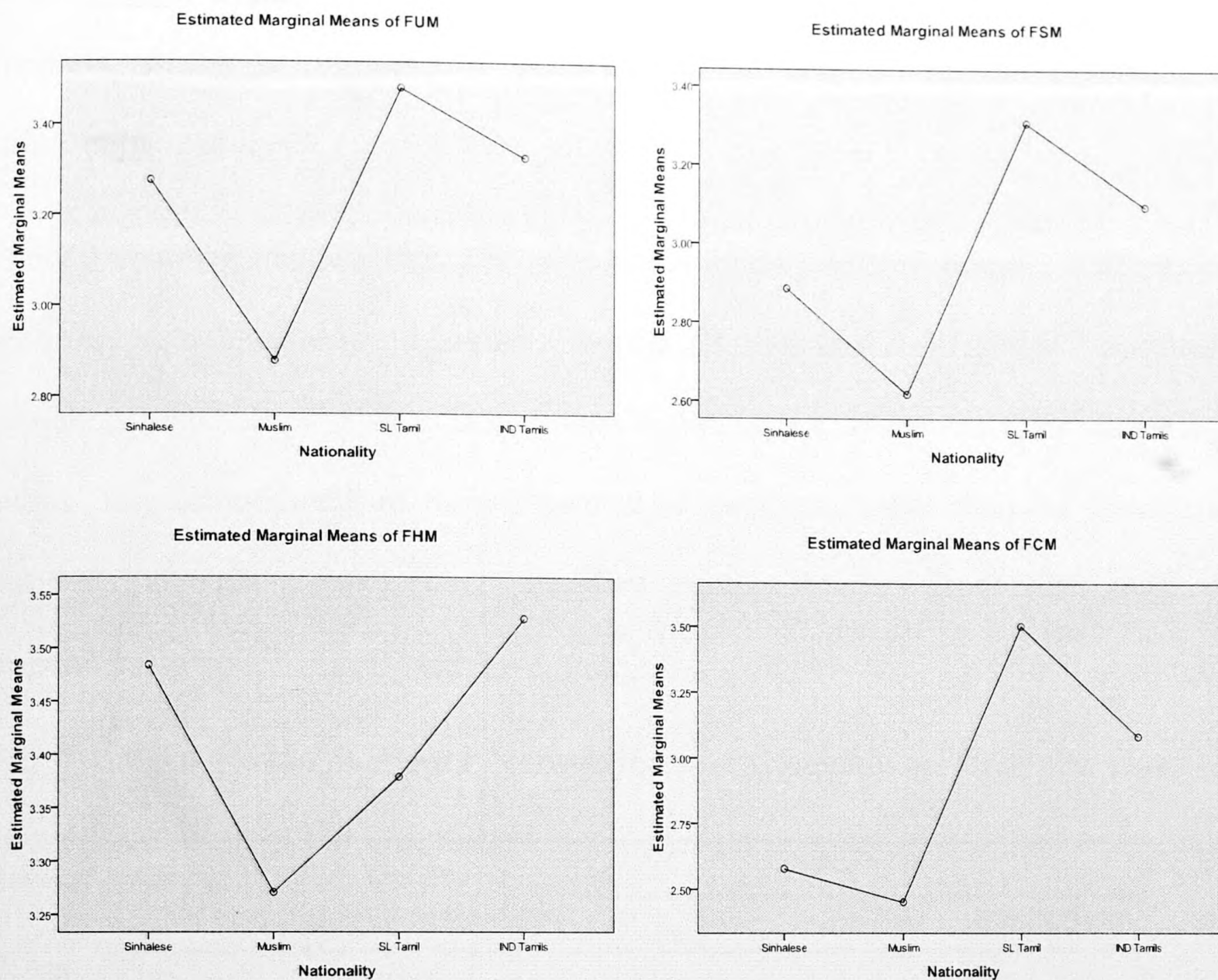
different nationalities in respect of conformist motive ($F = 222.02$; $p < .005$; partial $\eta^2 = .219$). **H₈** is also, therefore, supported and confirmed that there is a difference between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in their level of conformist motivation for consuming conspicuous products.

The breakdown in Table 4.13 shows that for mean scores for hedonic motive were statistically significantly different between Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = .000$), Muslims and Indian Tamils ($p = .000$), and Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils ($p = .015$). No significant difference found between Sinhalese and both Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = .071$), and Indian Tamils ($p = .674$). Also there was no significant difference between Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = .093$).

H₉ proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of hedonic motivation for conspicuous consumption. The ANOVA testing for this hypothesis was significant at the 0.05 level ($F = 16.47$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .020$). Yet, the effect size for the ANOVA ($\text{Eta}^2 = .020$) is considerably low. Also, no statistically significant differences found between Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.071$), Sinhalese and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.674$), Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.093$). **H₉** is therefore partially supported.

These differences can be easily visualised by the plots generated by this procedure, as shown in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5: Mean Scores for Respondents' Motives for Conspicuous Consumption



4.3.4. Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Products

Respondents were asked to identify five products, by which they can exhibit their status to the public. These results are summarized in Table 4.14 and Table 4.15 based on both nationality and gender.

The result indicates that the types of conspicuous products that were identified by the respondents vary by their nationality. However, the most common category of conspicuous product reported across the entire sample was luxury automobiles. Approximately one-fourth of Sinhalese respondents recognized luxury automobiles as the most potent conspicuous product. The next most common category of conspicuous product was bigger houses. Around a 22 percent of the respondents reported this

category as a status conveying product in Sri Lankan society. Amongst the respondents the third most common category of conspicuous product was designer apparels, which is followed by gold jewellerys, expensive mobile phones and comfortable furniture.

These outcomes suggest that luxurious automobiles, bigger houses, and designer apparels, gold jewellerys, expensive mobile phones, and comfortable furniture are extremely important for all ethnic groups in Sri Lanka to exhibit their status to the public. Interestingly, out of these conspicuous products, other than the comfortable furniture, all others were more prevalent among female respondents than male respondents.

Table 4.14: Respondents' Nationality and Conspicuous Products (%)

Conspicuous Products	Nationality				Total
	SN	INT	SLT	MS	
Luxury Automobiles (AM)	24.2	19.9	21.6	22.4	23.1
Bigger Houses (BH)	24.1	16.2	18.7	22.5	21.9
Designer Apparels (DA)	17.7	18.3	16.8	18.4	18.0
Gold Jewellerys (GJ)	10.3	17.9	11.8	6.1	11.0
Expensive Mobile Phones (MP)	8.5	12.4	6.3	13.9	10.3
Comfort Furniture (FN)	9.7	5.6	8.0	5.9	7.5
Expensive Watches (EW)	1.8	3.2	0.9	6.6	3.4
Comfortable Shoes (CS)	1.5	0.7	0.8	2.4	1.3
Lipstick & Cosmetics (LC)	0.9	2.6	3.0	0.2	1.1
Branded Electrical Items (EI)	0.1	0.5	6.6	0.0	0.9
Sport Equipments (SE)	0.2	1.8	0.6	0.2	0.6
Wine and Expensive Liquor (WL)	0.5	0.9	2.8	0.2	0.5
Other Products (OP)	0.5	0.0	2.1	1.2	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Respondents' gendered-perceptions towards different conspicuous products are summarized in Table 4.15. Roughly 44 percent of male respondents and 56 percent of

female respondents recognized the luxury automobiles as the most persuasive conspicuous product. Yet, dissimilarities appear to exist among these four ethnic groups in recognizing luxury automobiles as conspicuous product.

Table 4.15: Respondents' Nationality, Gender and Conspicuous Products

Conspicuous Products	Respondent's Nationality									
	SN		INT		SLT		MS		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
AM	12.7	11.4	10.6	7.7	7.0	14.6	6.4	16.0	10.1	13.0
BH	14.4	9.8	8.5	7.7	7.4	11.3	6.7	15.8	10.5	11.4
DA	9.6	8.1	9.8	10.1	7.0	9.8	5.9	12.5	8.3	9.7
GJ	3.4	6.9	8.7	9.2	1.3	6.7	2.3	3.8	3.8	7.2
MP	3.7	4.8	6.7	5.7	2.0	4.3	4.2	9.7	4.0	6.3
FN	6.4	3.3	2.5	3.1	7.9	3.9	2.0	3.9	4.1	3.4
AM	52.7	47.3	57.9	42.1	32.4	67.6	28.6	71.4	43.7	56.3
BH	59.5	40.5	52.5	47.5	39.6	60.4	29.8	70.2	47.9	52.1
DA	54.2	45.8	49.2	50.8	41.7	58.3	32.1	67.9	46.1	53.9
GJ	33.0	67.0	48.6	51.4	16.3	83.8	37.7	62.3	34.5	65.5
MP	43.5	56.5	54.0	46.0	31.7	68.3	30.2	69.8	38.8	61.2
FN	66.0	34.0	44.6	55.4	66.9	33.1	33.9	66.1	54.7	45.3

Overall there appears to be greater variability amongst the different ethnic groups in their perception towards conspicuous products. The majority of respondents, both males and females identified five products as common conspicuous product, by which they can exhibit their status to the public: luxury automobiles, bigger houses, designer apparels, gold jewellerys, and mobile phones. However, Sinhalese male respondents and Tamil (I) females have recognized that the comfortable furniture contains more conspicuous value than gold jewellerys.

According to the literature, the consumption of conspicuous products has traditionally been considered the preserve of the upper echelons of society. A low-income group was often not regarded as a group that would be consumers of conspicuous products.

However, the summarized results presented in Table 4.16, based on both product categories and respondents' income suggest that almost all consumers, regardless their income groups, are regular consumers of products that they consider to be conspicuous.

Table 4.16: Respondents Monthly Income and Conspicuous Products

Conspicuous Product	Monthly Income (Rs. '000)							
	- 25	26-50	51-75	76-100	101-150	151-200	201-250	250+
AM	17.1	16.1	17.4	16.2	15.2	16.0	20.0	26.7
BH	13.5	14.3	12.2	11.9	10.1	10.7	16.7	18.9
DA	12.9	12.5	12.6	16.9	17.8	18.3	13.3	8.7
FN	14.8	10.5	10.1	13.8	7.0	10.5	-	6.6
EI	0.4	1.6	1.8	1.2	0.7	1.4	-	-
MP	14.8	14.6	16.1	16.4	14.0	10.8	12.5	12.4
WL	-	2.0	2.5	6.5	7.2	8.8	4.2	-
SE	0.2	0.7	0.8	0.3	-	0.2	-	6.7
LC	2.3	2.0	1.3	1.0	2.0	0.5	-	-
SH	2.1	5.5	1.8	1.7	0.7	0.9	-	-
WH	4.2	6.1	6.1	4.0	13.0	10.4	23.1	11.1
GJ	17.2	13.9	16.3	10.1	12.3	11.5	10.2	8.9
OP	0.5	0.2	1.0	-	-	-	-	-
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Result reveals that luxury automobiles, bigger houses, designer apparels, expensive mobile phones, gold jewelries, and wrist watches were common conspicuous products among the respondents, regardless their income level. However, it indicates that there appears to be greater variability in respondents' perception towards conspicuous products amongst different income earning groups. The high income earners are more likely to buy luxury automobiles, bigger houses, and pricey wrist watches to demonstrate their status to the public. Whereas, the middle income earners' perception towards conspicuous products relates to three categories: luxury

automobiles, designer apparels, and expensive mobile phones. Luxury automobiles, gold jewelries, and expensive mobile phones were the common conspicuous products amongst low income earners.

4.4. Cultural Orientation of Respondents

Section C of the questionnaire consisted of a 20 item scale developed by Oliver *et al.* (2000) to measure the consumers' cultural orientation, based on Hofstede's (1980) Cultural Value Dimensions [Power Distance (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAV), and Long-Term Orientation (LTO)].

4.4.1. Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was conducted by utilizing the data gathered on cultural value orientation amongst different ethnic groups. Initially, 20 items were loaded onto the five types of cultural value dimensions that identified by Hofstede (1980). The Maximum Likelihood method with Varimax Rotation was used for this analysis, which mirrors the methods described in Section 4.3.2.1.

At the outset, several tests were performed to examine the adequacy of the sample. The KMO statistic was 0.689, in excess of the recommended minimum of 0.50 (Hair *et.al*, 2006). Bartlett's test of sphericity had a Chi-Square of 12,133.18, which was statistically significant at the 0.001 level. The Goodness-of-Fit test resulted in a Chi-Square of .429.48 also statistically significant at the 0.001 level. These tests indicated that a factor analysis was appropriate for this data.

Table 4.17 presents the findings of KMO and Bartlett's test for cultural values of the respondents of this research.

Table 4.17: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) and Bartlett's Test for Cultural Values**

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.689
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	12,133.18	
	df	190	
	Sig.	.000	
Goodness-of-fit Test	Chi-Square	1,419.17	
	df	85	
	Sig.	.000	

Table 4.18 presents the Eigenvalues and percentage of variance for each of these factors. The initial factor analysis produced six factors with Eigenvalues over one. These six factors accounted only for 59.176 percent of the initial variance. According to the Table 4.18, seven factors are required to account for greater than sixty percent of the total variance in the data.

Consequently, the Eigenvalues method suggests a six factor solution, while the percentage of variance method suggests a seven factor solution is appropriate for representation of this data.

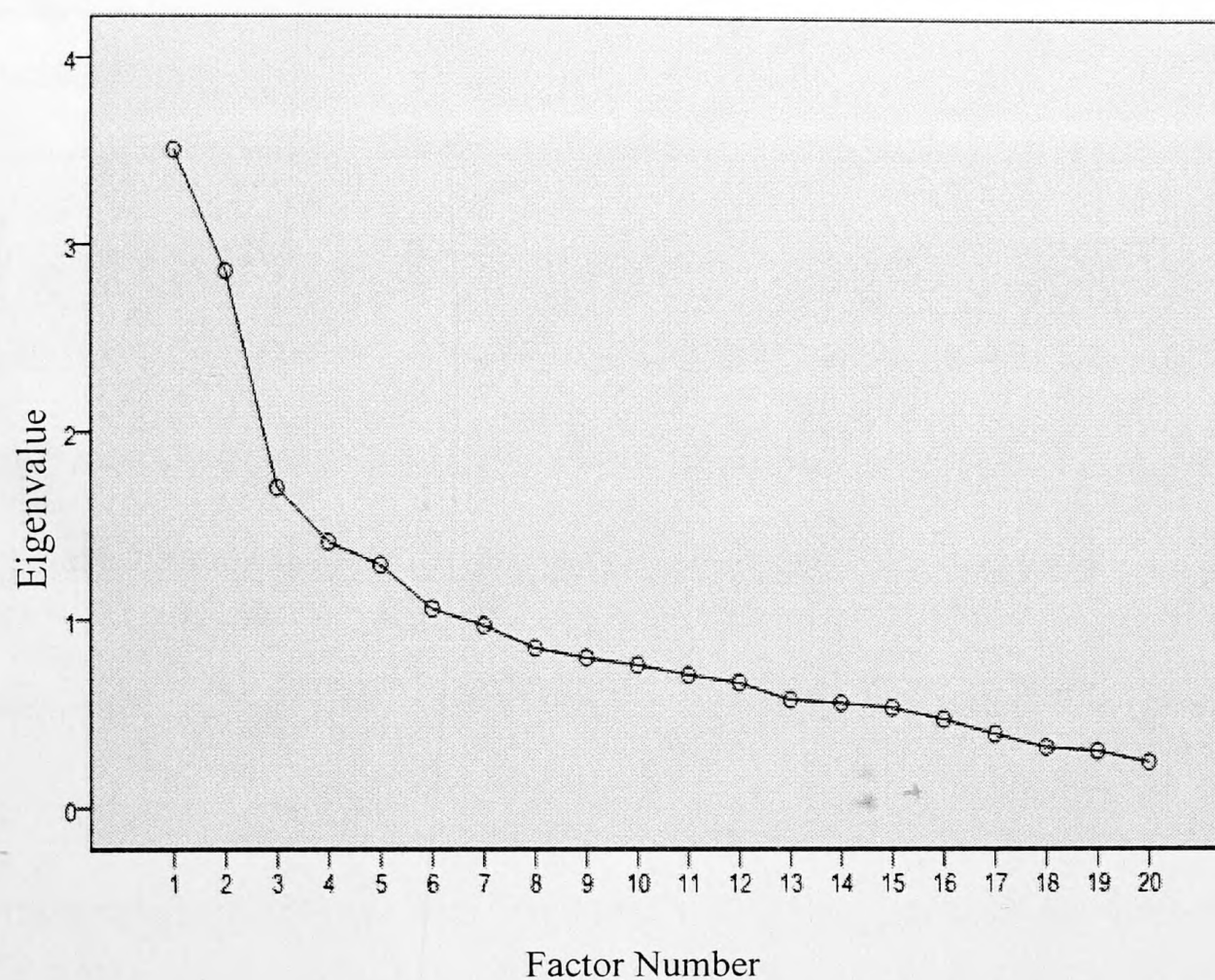
Table 4.18: **Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance of Factors for CVDs**

	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Eigenvalue	3.507	2.858	1.703	1.415	1.292	1.059	.971	.851	.799	.760
% of Variance	17.537	14.290	8.516	7.076	6.461	5.295	4.854	4.253	3.995	3.802
Cumulative %	17.537	31.828	40.343	47.419	53.880	59.176	64.030			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood

Scree Plot test and Varimax Rotation also performed to determine the correct factors to be included in the solution. Figure 4.6 shows the scree plot for the factor analysis for the cultural values of respondents. Inspection of the scree plot suggests that a six factor solution is appropriate, as from factor six onwards there is a distinct trailing-off of the slope (Malhotra, 1999).

Figure 4.6: **The Scree Plot for the Factor Analysis for Cultural Values**



The initial rotated factor matrix for this analysis is contained in Appendix I. Six (06) items loaded on factor one in excess of 0.40, five (05) items on factor two, one (01) item on factor three, two (02) items on factor four, three (03) items on factor five, and two (02) items on factor six. The initial rotated factor matrix indicates that only three factors had at least three items which loaded in excess of 0.40. Accordingly, it proposes that a three factor solution was more appropriate.

Table 4.19 summarized different suggestions of these four analyses.

Table 4.19: Interpretation of the Factor Matrix for CVDs

	Measure	Suggestion	Based
1	Eigenvalue Criteria	Six Factor solution	06 F's with an Eigenvalue greater >1
2	Percentage of Variance	Seven Factor solution	07 F's are required to account for > 60% of the total variance
3	Scree Plot	Six Factor solution	Distinct trailing off of the curve after factor six
4	Varimax Rotation	Three Factor solution	Items with significant loadings and simple structure > 3

Considering the outcomes of the factor analysis, a Four Factor solution was used for subsequent refinement of the factor solution. The factor analysis was then repeated with a four factor solution specified. This produced a rotated factor matrix and the resulting rotated factor matrix is presented in Table 4.20.

As per the Table 4.20, The MAS factor that emerged from the analysis has two problems. First, the factor only contains two items, less than the three items generally not recommended. Second, the resultant subscale appears to have less internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.450).

Allison (2010) suggests that when a subscale contains less than three items, that factor can be retained in the solution if there is conceptual similarity between those two items. When consider the MAS dimension, a substantial amount of conceptual similarity can be observed between the two items; "*Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough*" and "*Both men and woman are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships*". For this reason the MAS cultural dimension has been retained in the solution.

Table 4.20: **Final Rotated Factor Matrix for Cultural Values Data**

Item	Factor				
	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAV	LTO
Inequalities among people should be minimized	.851				
Inequalities among people are both expected and desired	.739				
Less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful	.539				
There should be, and there is to some extent, interdependencies between less and more powerful people	.429				
People are identified independently of the groups they belong to		.913			
People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong		.486			
Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough			.469		
Both men and woman are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships			.448		
Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes				.527	
Fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks is normal				.441	
Emotions should not be shown				.464	
Traditions should be respected					.672
Social obligations should be respected					.615
People should be perseverant towards long-term results					.477
Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose is normal					.464
Initial Eigenvalue	9.483	1.910	1.428	1.566	1.265
% variance	47.419	9.548	7.141	7.832	6.325
Cronbach's Alpha	0.778	0.655	0.450	0.601	0.623

IDV also contains two items. Yet, there a substantial amount of conceptual similarity between the two items; “*People are identified independently of the groups they belong to*” and “*People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong*”. Moreover, IDV has 0.655 Cronbach’s alpha, which beyond the threshold score of 0.6 for determining whether a scale possesses satisfactory internal

consistency reliability (Malhotra, 1999). This indicates that the items used are reliable measure of IDV and can be retained in the solution.

4.4.2. Multicollinearity Test for Cultural Value Factors

Two regression analyses were conducted using conspicuous consumption (CC) as the dependent variable and four independent variables (i.e. PDI, IDV, MAS, UAV, and LTO), which were reconstructed based on the findings contained in final rotated factor matrix.

The derived factors presented in Table 4.21 appear to be clearly distinct from one another. The change in r^2 from the stepwise method to the enter method is only 0.05. This confirms that multicollinearity is not present between the derived luxury consumption motivation factors.

Table 4.21: Regression Analysis – Multicollinearity Test for Cultural Value

Dependent Variable	Predictor Variable	β	Std. β	t	Sig	R ² (Model)
Conspicuous Consumption ^a	(Constant)	2.794		36.640	.000	.134
	Long-Term Orientation (LTO)	.122	.134	6.595	.000	
Conspicuous Consumption ^b	(Constant)	2.964		28.649	.000	.184
	Power Distance (PDI)	-.031	-.053	-2.471	.014	
	Individualism (IDV)	.021	.040	1.863	.063	
	Masculinity (MAS)	-.063	-.107	-5.103	.000	
	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAV)	.032	.039	1.641	.101	
	Long-Term Orientation (LTO)	.093	.103	4.387	.000	

^aMethod: Stepwise

^bMethod: Enter

4.4.3. Relative Cultural Orientation Different Ethnic Groups

Final rotated factor matrix, summarized in Table 4.20, presents the refined data for cultural values of respondents. In view of that, there were four items for PDI, two items for IDV, two items for MAS, three items for UAV, and four items for LTO. This section seeks to establish the relative position of Sinhalese (SN), Muslims (MS), Indian Tamils (INT), and Sri Lankan Tamils (SLT) in the sample in terms of the cultural constructs listed in Table 4.20.

4.4.3.1. Rank Order Analysis

Utilizing Factor Analysis, a summated scale was created for each of the constructs identified in Table 4.20. A weighted average based on a five-point scale was obtained (*where '1' refers to strongly disagree and '5' refers to strongly agree*). Since the respondents were asked to rank each of the constructs according to the how strongly they agree or disagree respondents' cultural values were positioned in between 1 to 5. Then, a rank order number from one to four was assigned to each construct for each individual. The way of assigning the rank order number for five-point scale is explained in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Rank Order Numbers for Cultural Values

Five-point scale		Rank order No
01	1.00 – 2.00	04
02	2.01 – 3.00	03
03	3.01 – 4.00	02
04	4.01 – 5.00	01

Allison (2010) suggests assigning same rank where an individual had obtained the same weighted score on two different constructs. Hence, when the two highest

ranking constructs had the same value the rank “*one*” was assigned to both, and the rank “*three*” was assigned to the next highest scoring item. Results of this analysis are contained in Table 4.23.

Results indicate that over 80 percent of Sinhalese scored highest on LTO, and 69 percent of them culturally oriented towards the UAV. Approximately one-third of these respondents ranked second highest on MAS. The results also show that Sinhalese included in the survey are not culturally orientated towards the PDI and IDV.

When consider the Muslim respondents, 88 percent of them scored highest on both LTO and UAV. Besides, 13 percent and 44 percent assigned on MAS as the first and second highest respectively. PDI also has given a significant ranking by assigning 15 percent on this dimension and a further 25 percent ranking second highest. However, the results explain that Muslims are not culturally orientated towards the IDV.

According to the results, 40 percent of Tamils (SL) scored highest on LTO, and that a further 50 percent ranked second highest on this cultural orientation. UAV also appears to be representative of a large number of Tamil (SL) respondents, with almost 28 percent ranking highest on this dimension and a further 57 percent ranking second highest.

Result further shows that Tamils (SL) are not culturally orientated towards the PDI and IDV. Interestingly, over half of the Tamils (SL) ranked PDI as the construct that was the least relevant for them. On the other hand significant numbers of same group of respondents ranked comparatively highly (20%) on PDI dimension.

Table 4.23: Percentage of Respondents based on Importance attached to each Cultural Value

Cultural Value		Nationality				Total (%)
		Sinhalese (%)	Muslims (%)	Tamils (S) (%)	Tamils (I) (%)	
Power Distance	(rank)					
	1	6	14	20	13	11
	2	17	25	03	11	16
	3	38	43	26	37	37
	4	39	18	51	39	36
Individualism	(rank)					
	1	15	09	21	29	17
	2	13	05	44	12	15
	3	44	46	32	38	42
	4	28	40	03	21	26
Masculinity	(rank)					
	1	03	13	05	14	08
	2	31	44	25	50	37
	3	36	20	42	26	31
	4	30	23	28	10	24
Uncertainty Avoidance	(rank)					
	1	69	88	28	43	63
	2	27	12	57	43	30
	3	04	00	12	11	05
	4	00	00	03	03	02
Long-Term Orientation	(rank)					
	1	83	88	40	72	76
	2	16	12	51	19	20
	3	01	00	08	08	03
	4	00	00	01	01	01

Indian Tamils also have assigned significant score (72%) on LTO. They assigned UAV with 43 percent ranking highest and another 43 percent ranking as the second highest. Significant numbers of Tamil (IN) respondents ranked highly on IDV

dimensions also. When consider the MAS dimension, 14 percent of them scored highest on MAS and another 50 percent scored second highest on this dimension.

Based on this analysis, it appears that the primary cultural orientation of the respondents, regardless of their ethnicity, is Long-Term Orientation, and it follows by the Uncertainty Avoidance. However, significant differences can be observed between cultural value dimensions amongst the respondents. For instance, when 88 percent of Muslim despondence scored highest on LTO, just 40 percent of Tamils (SL) scored highest on this cultural dimension. Similar pattern can be seen in UAV.

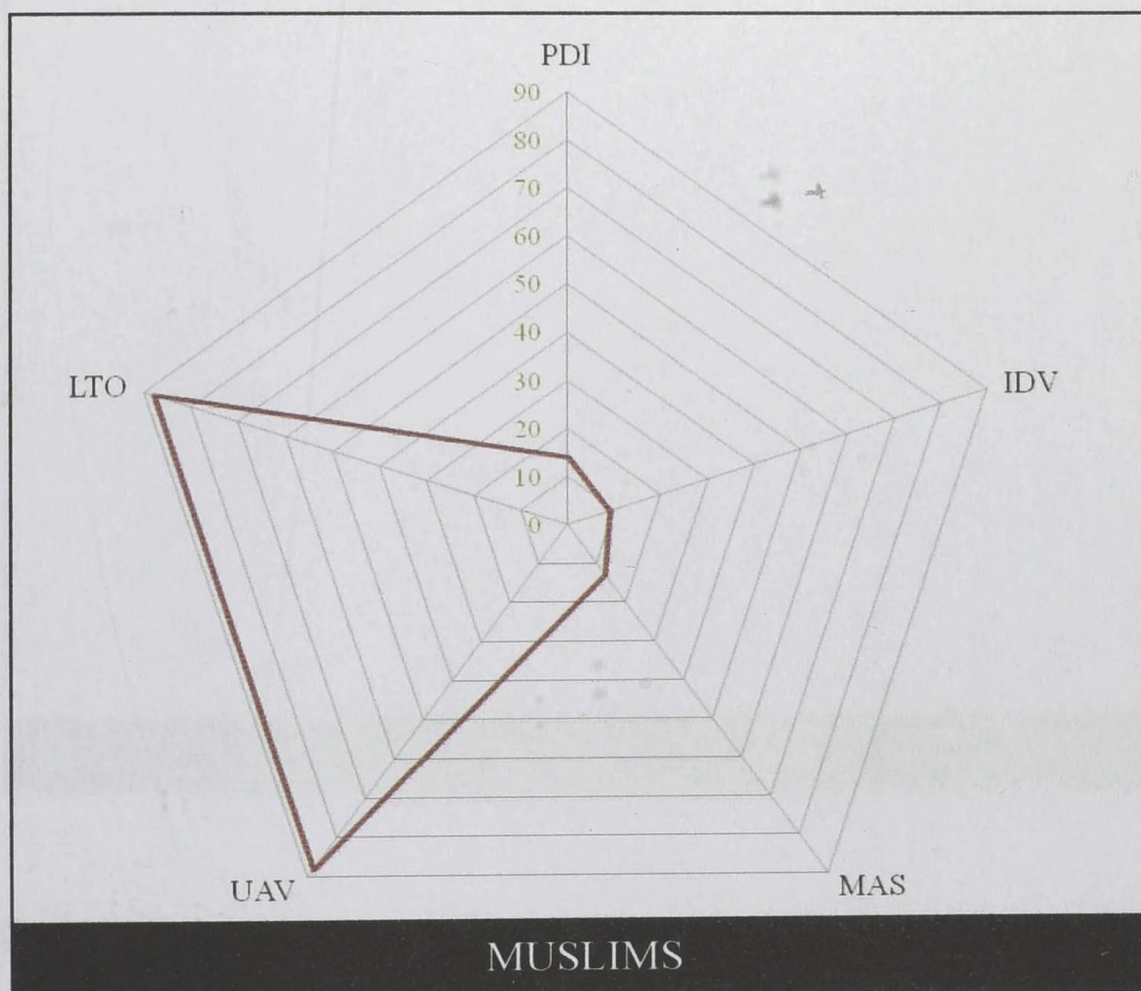
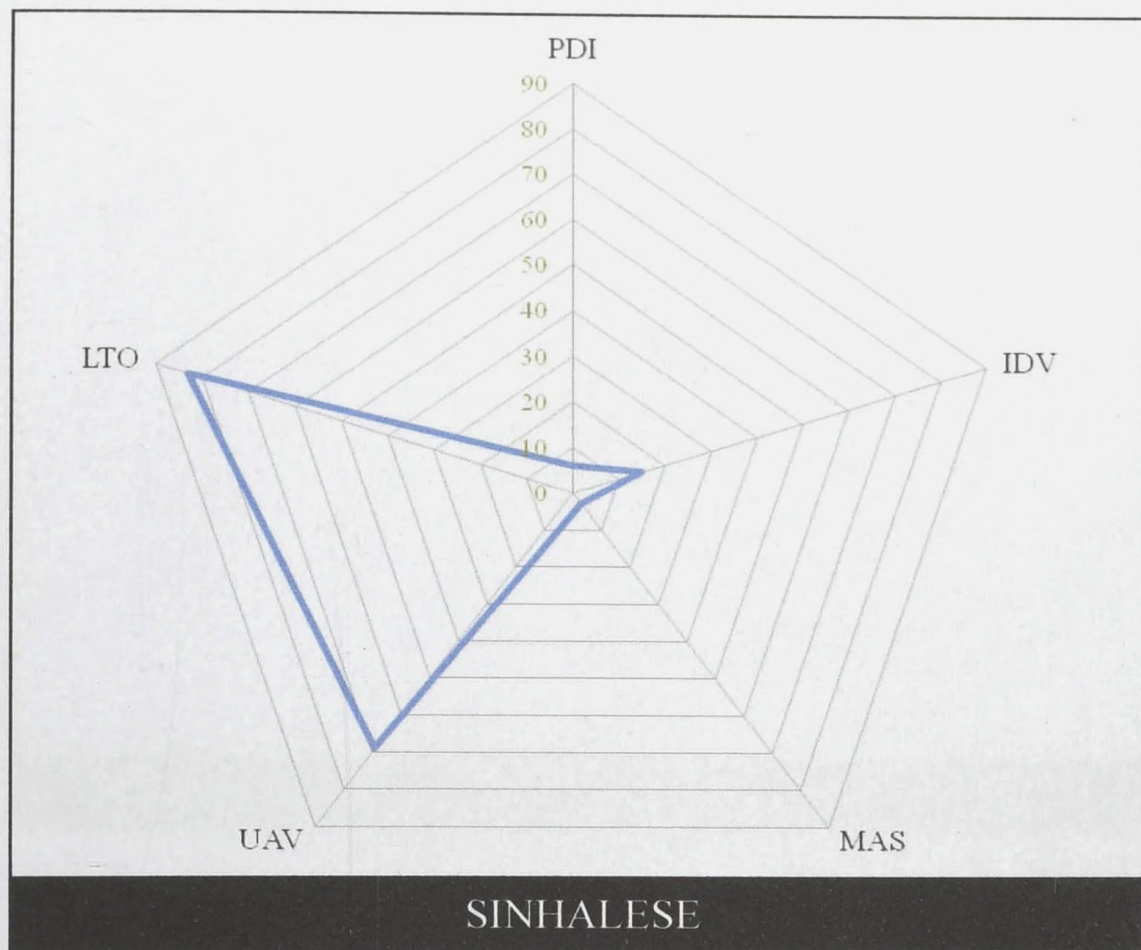
These differences among the cultural values of the respondents are depicted in Figure 4.7.

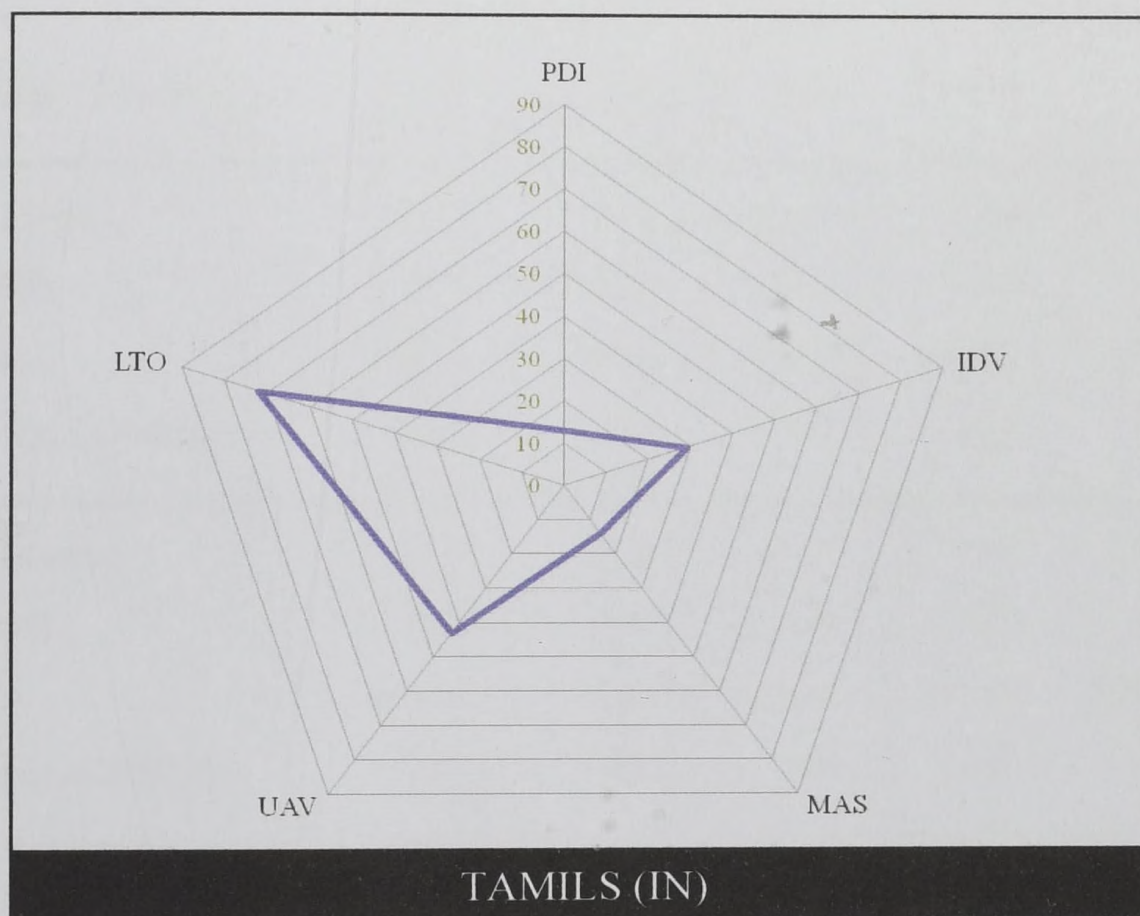
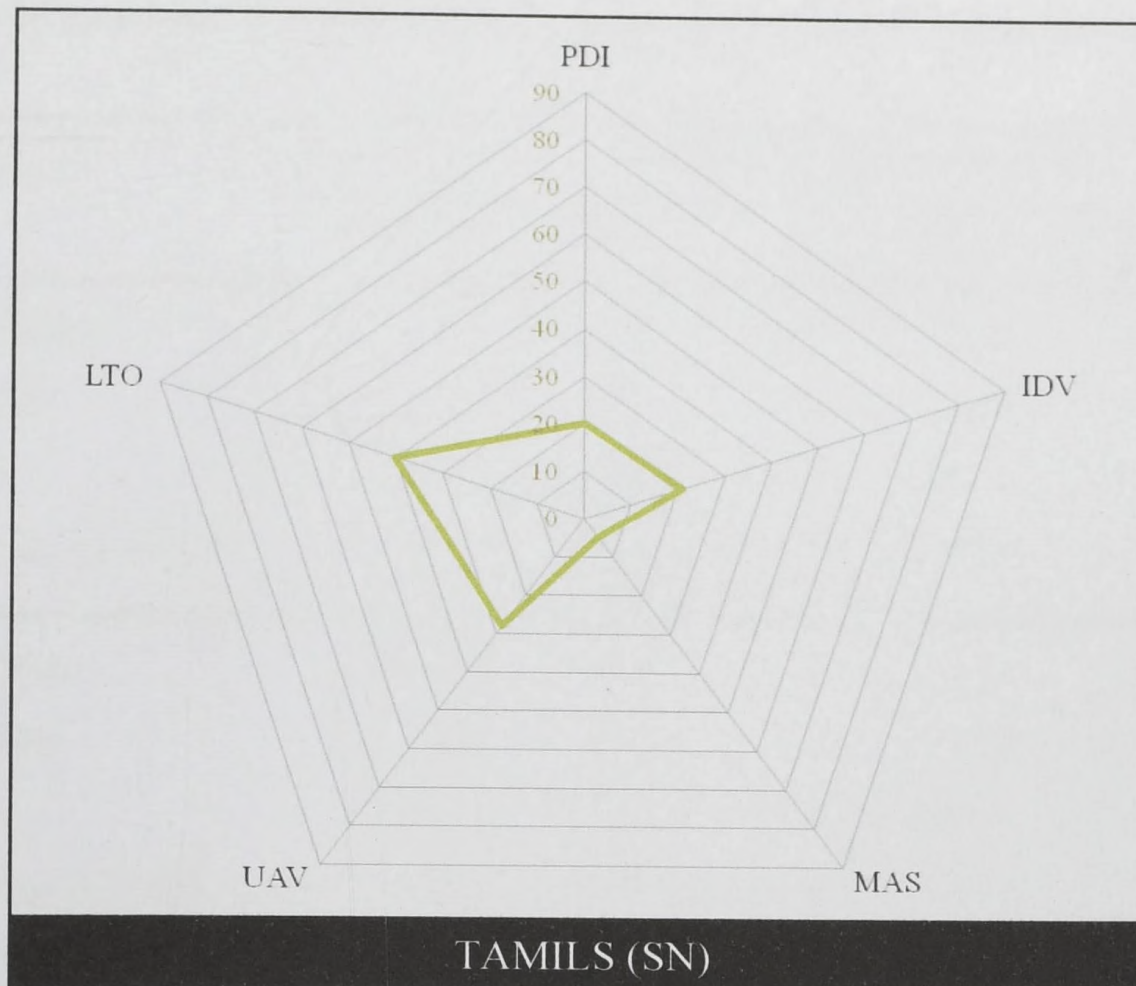
4.4.4. Analysis of Differences / Similarities between Nationalities in Cultural Value Orientations

Te mean scores on the four motivational factors were also calculated and are reported in Table 4.24, along with *t*-tests based on the whole sample and for each nationality separately. A positive *t*-statistic represents a relatively high orientation towards the construct.

The results summarized in the Table 4.24 indicate that there was a statistically significant difference between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in terms of their cultural value orientations ($F = 36.40, p = .000$). Besides, respondents' cultural value means also found to be statistically significant ($p = .000$). Therefore, it can conclude that there is a significant difference in cultural values between the groups of Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils as a whole.

Figure 4.7: Visual Representation of the Cultural Orientation of Respondents





H_{10} proposed that differences will exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different cultural values. The MANOVA result supports this hypothesis.

Table 4.24: Means and Significance Testing on Cultural Orientation Factors

Nationality		Cultural Value Dimensions					
		PDI	IDV	MAS	UAV	LTO	Total
Sinhalese	Mean	2.21	2.34	2.29	3.98	4.20	3.00
	SD	.831	1.000	.856	.628	.517	.411
	<i>t</i>	84.83	74.84	85.32	202.52	259.54	233.18
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Muslims	Mean	2.67	2.06	2.77	4.23	4.16	3.18
	SD	.943	.874	1.089	.436	.431	.375
	<i>t</i>	69.22	57.61	62.37	237.36	236.13	207.50
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tamils (S)	Mean	2.27	3.02	2.31	3.45	3.68	2.94
	SD	1.105	.841	.812	.722	.643	.438
	<i>t</i>	37.53	65.52	51.96	87.40	104.86	123.11
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Tamils (I)	Mean	2.27	2.77	2.93	3.60	4.06	3.13
	SD	.954	1.151	.818	.769	.840	.377
	<i>t</i>	49.15	49.69	74.03	96.82	99.86	171.20
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Total	Mean	2.34	2.44	2.53	3.90	4.09	
	SD	.943	1.031	.949	.685	.613	
	<i>t</i>	121.25	115.57	129.99	277.87	325.92	
	sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
ANOVA	F	33.06	88.55	73.17	147.66	68.77	36.40
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

4.4.4.1. One-way MANOVA

Since there was a statistically significant difference between nationalities as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F = 36.40$, $p = .000$), a multiple comparisons were

made by utilizing the results of post-hoc tests to explore these differences in terms of their cultural values. A MANOVA was conducted to assess the differences between four national samples in terms of their cultural value orientation on a linear combination of the different cultural orientations.

The Multivariate Tests shows that there was a statistically significant difference in cultural value orientations based on respondents nationality ($F = 70.06$, $p < .0005$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.663$, partial $\eta^2 = .128$). Therefore, it can conclude that this respondents' cultural value orientations were significantly dependent on respondents nationality ($p = .000$). Since Multivariate Tests generate a statistically significant result, researcher performed further follow-up tests with series of ANOVAs.

4.4.4.2. Univariate ANOVAs and Multiple Comparisons

To determine how the dependent variables differ for the independent variable, Tests of Between-Subjects Effects was used. Follow-up univariate ANOVAs confirmed a significant difference between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, Sri Lankan Tamils in terms of their orientation towards PDI ($F = 33.06$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .040$), IDV ($F = 88.55$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .100$), MAS ($F = 73.17$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .085$), UAV ($F = 147.67$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .157$), and LTO ($F = 68.77$; $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .080$).

These significant ANOVAs were further analysed with Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests and performed the Multiple Comparisons. The results of Multiple Comparisons are summarized in Table 4.25.

The Tukey post-hoc test shows which groups differed from each other. H_{11} proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri

Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards power distance. The results shows that mean scores for respondents' cultural orientation towards power distance (PDI) were statistically significantly different between Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = 0.000$), Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.000$), and Muslims and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.000$).

Table 4.25: **Multiple Comparisons Table for Respondents' Cultural Values**

[Tukey HSD]

Motive	Nationality		Mean Δ	SE	Sig.	Motive	Nationality		Mean Δ	SE	Sig.
PDI	SN	MS	-.4569*	.0476	.000	UAV	SN	MS	-.2428*	.0324	.000
		SLT	-.0621	.0582	.710			SLT	.5323*	.0396	.000
		INT	-.0624	.0533	.645			INT	.3776*	.0363	.000
	MS	SLT	.395*	.0631	.000		MS	SLT	.7751*	.0429	.000
		INT	.395*	.0585	.000			INT	.6205*	.0398	.000
	SLT	INT	-.0003	.0675	1.000		SLT	INT	-.1547*	.0459	.004
IDV	SN	MS	.2875*	.0504	.000	LTO		MS	.0422	.0303	.504
		SLT	-.6723*	.0616	.000			SLT	.5184*	.0370	.000
		INT	-.4229*	.0564	.000			INT	.1402*	.0339	.000
	MS	SLT	-.9598*	.0668	.000		MS	SLT	.4762*	.04011	.000
		INT	-.7103*	.0620	.000			INT	.0980*	.03724	.042
	SLT	INT	.2494*	.0714	.003		SLT	INT	-.3782*	.0429	.000
MAS	SN	MS	-.4871*	.0467	.000			MS			
		SLT	-.0197	.0572	.986			SLT			
		INT	-.6435*	.0524	.000			INT			
	MS	SLT	.4674*	.0620	.000			SLT			
		INT	-.1564*	.0575	.033			INT			
	SLT	INT	-.6238*	.0663	.000						

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

However, there were no differences between the Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.710$) and Sinhalese and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.645$). Surprisingly, no any different found between the Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils ($p = 1.000$) in importance placed on PDI. Therefore, it can conclude that H_{11} is partially supported ($F = 33.06$; p

= .000; partial $\eta^2 = .040$). This result is confirmed by the effect size for ANOVA obtained ($\text{Eta}^2 = .040$).

In contrary to PDI, Tukey post-hoc test revealed that mean scores for respondents' individualism vs. collectivism (IDV) orientation of culture were statistically and significantly ($p < 0.05$) different between all the ethnic groups in the sample. H_{12} proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards individualism. The ANOVA testing this hypothesis was significant at the 0.05 level ($F = 88.55$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .100$). H_{12} is, therefore, supported.

H_{13} proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards masculinity Vs femininity (MAS). The ANOVA testing suggests that a significant difference existed between different nationalities in terms of MAS ($F = 73.17$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .085$). It shows that mean scores for respondents' MAS were statistically and significantly different between Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = 0.000$), Sinhalese and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.000$), Muslims and both Sri Lankan ($p = 0.000$) & Indian Tamils ($p = 0.033$), and Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils ($p = 0.000$). But, not between the Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils ($p = 0.986$). H_{13} is, therefore, supported to a greater extent.

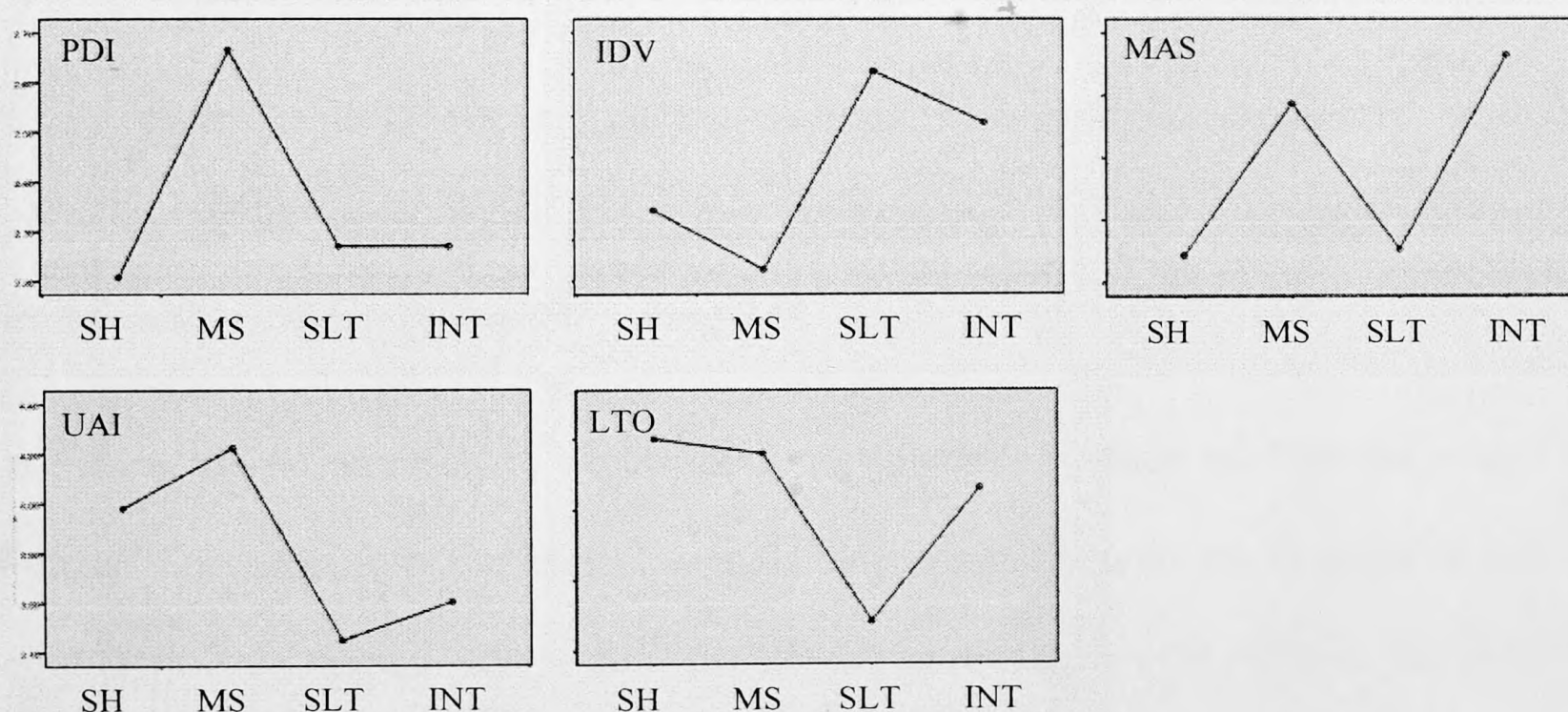
H_{14} proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards uncertainty avoidance (UAI). The ANOVA testing for this hypothesis was significant at the 0.05 level ($F = 147.67$; $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .157$). Hence, it can conclude that

respondents' cultural orientation towards the uncertainty avoiding were statistically and significantly different between all the ethnic groups. H_{14} is, therefore, supported.

When consider the respondents' long-term vs. short-term cultural orientation (LTO), no significant difference was found between the Sinhalese and Muslims ($p = 0.504$). Other than that, there were statistically significant ($p < 0.005$) differences in mean scores for LTO between other ethnic groups in the sample. H_{15} proposed that a difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards long-term vs. short-term orientation (LTO). Considering the effect size for ANOVA obtained ($\text{Eta}^2 = .080$), it can conclude that H_{15} is supported to a greater extent ($F = 68.77; p < .0005$).

These differences can be easily visualised by the plots generated by this procedure, as shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8: Mean Scores for Cultural Values of Respondents



4.4.4.3. Hofstede Scores for Different Nationalities

The Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM 94), which was developed by Geert Hofstede (1994) is commonly use to measure the cultural value dimensions of people. Based on

the directions provided by Hofstede (1980) and Oliver *et.al*, (1999), fresh five index formulas were developed for this research. The scores generated by these formulas are presented in table 4.26.

Table 4.26: **Adjusted Scores for Hofstede's CVDs among Different Nationalities**

	Power Distance	Individualism Collectivism	Masculinity Femininity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long-Term Orientation
Sinhalese	24.20	36.28	45.90	58.47	64.06
Muslims	33.30	40.53	46.54	61.93	63.17
SL Tamils	25.31	52.65	41.96	49.99	62.93
IN Tamils	25.41	43.41	41.94	51.57	61.21
Total	26.86	40.91	44.78	56.89	63.14
<i>These indexes should have a value between 0 and 80</i>					

Results reveals that all respondents accepted that they prefer for small power distance ($0 = \text{small PD}$ and $80 = \text{large PD}$). In term of individualism and Masculinity they were in between the two extremes of these cultural value dimensions ($0 = \text{strongly collectivist}$ and $80 = \text{strongly individualistic}$; $0 = \text{strongly femininity}$ and $80 = \text{strongly masculinity}$). However, all nationalities were held comparatively sturdy uncertainty avoidance ($0 = \text{weak UA}$ and $80 = \text{strong UA}$) and long-term cultural orientation ($0 = \text{short-TO}$ and $80 = \text{long-TO}$).

Since there are no research in which focus conspicuous motives of different ethnic groups of Sri Lanka, it is impossible to make any comparison on the findings of this section. However, similar studies done in different part of the world confirm that there can be differences as well as similarities in importance placed on conspicuous motives by different ethnic groups (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Fernando and Fabien, 2003; Fontes and Fan 2006).

4.5. Relationship between Cultural Orientation and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products

This section explores the relationships between cultural orientation and different forms of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. As proposed by Allison (2010), the relationships between cultural orientation and motivation for consuming conspicuous products was tested in the first instance by correlation analysis, and then via a series of multiple regressions. Combined results from the correlation analysis and the multiple regressions were used to test hypotheses H_{16} to H_{35} relating to anticipated effects of cultural orientation on motives for conspicuous consumption.

4.5.1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation

As discussed in section 4.3.2 and 4.4.1, five cultural value dimensions [*large vs. small power distance* (PDI), *individualism vs. collectivism* (IDV), *masculinity vs. femininity* (MAS), *strong vs. weak uncertainty avoidance* (UAI), and *long-term vs. short-term orientation* (LTO)], and four motives for consuming conspicuous products [*status* (SM), *uniqueness* (UM), *conformist* (CM), and *hedonic* (HM)] were derived for this study. A correlation analysis investigated whether there were statistically significant relationships between derived cultural value factors and the derived conspicuous motives.

The derived factor scores were used for this analysis. A Pearson product moment correlation was judged as the appropriate means for conducting the correlation (Allison, 2010). The results of the Pearson product moment correlation are presented in Table 4.26, in which r-value indicates strength and direction ($\pm$) of the correlation.

Results reveal that, sixteen of the twenty relationships in Table 4.27 were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level.

According to the findings, there were positive correlations between status motive and power distance ($r = .080, p = .000$), individualism ($r = .182, p = .000$), and masculinity ($r = .192, p = .000$) values of respondents. While it was negatively correlated with uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.136, p = .000$). When consider the uniqueness motive, it was positively correlated with individualism ($r = .107, p = .000$), masculinity ($r = .054, p = .000$), and long-term orientation ($r = .105, p = .000$), and negatively correlated with power distance ($r = -.193, p = .000$).

Table 4.27: Correlation Analysis of CVDs and Conspicuous Motives Factors

		Cultural Value Dimensions (CVDs)				
		PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
Status Motive	(<i>r</i>)	.080**	.182**	.192**	-.136**	-.030
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.143
Uniqueness Motive	(<i>r</i>)	-.193**	.107**	.054**	.018	.105**
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.372	.000
Hedonic Motive	(<i>r</i>)	-.068**	.007	-.137**	.132**	.167**
	Sig.	.001	.720	.000	.000	.000
Conformist Motive	(<i>r</i>)	.003	.256**	.137**	-.241**	-.138**
	Sig.	.878	.000	.000	.000	.000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Moreover, respondent's hedonic motive was positively correlated with their uncertainty avoidance ($r = .132, p = .000$), and long-term orientation ($r = .167, p = .000$). However, the correlations between hedonic motive and power distance ($r = -.068, p = .001$), and masculinity ($r = -.137, p = .000$) were negative. Interestingly, conformist motive was found to be positively correlated with individualism ($r = .256,$

$p = .000$), and masculinity ($r = .137, p = .000$), while it was negatively correlated with uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.241, p = .000$), and long-term orientation ($r = -.138, p = .000$).

The strongest relationship was a positive correlation between conformist motive and IDV ($r = .256, p = .000$). And the smallest relationship was a positive correlation between uniqueness motive and MAS ($r = .054, p = .008$). Based on Cohen's (1992) and Allison's (2008) guidelines, these significant relationships can be considered as of small to medium size.

Since all r values in the range of small to medium, it implies that there are other influences on motives for consuming conspicuous products, other than cultural orientation. Also, it implies that causality relationship among CVDs and conspicuous motives cannot be understood from this correlation analysis. However, in overall these results suggest that an individual's cultural orientation may influence both the type of motivation for consuming conspicuous products and the degree of this motivation.

4.5.2. Multiple Regression

Cohen (1992) proposes that when causality cannot be implied from a correlation analysis, it is necessary to perform subsequent analyses in order to investigate the influence of independent predictors on dependent variable. Hence, a series of multiple regressions, which employ the CVDs as independent variables and the conspicuous motives as dependent variables, were conducted in order to investigate the influence of an individual's cultural orientation on their motives for consuming conspicuous products.

4.5.2.1. CVDs and Status Motive

Linear multiple regression was conducted to assess the relative strength of five CVDs on status motive for consuming conspicuous products. The derived factor scores were used for conducting the analysis.

Results reveal that r^2 and the adjusted r^2 of the multiple regression was 0.123 and 0.121 respectively. The standard error of the estimate was 0.836. The ANOVA statistics of the model ($F = 37.644$, $p = .000$), indicate that the model is significant. Therefore, it implies that just about 12 percent of the variation in status motive can thus be explained by CVDs.

Individual regression coefficients for were then tested to determine the significance of each CVD. The resulting beta values and t -statistic for this analysis are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: The Regression of Status Motive with CVDs

	Unstandardized		Standardized		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
(Constant)	2.355	.158		14.896	.000
Power Distance [PDI]	.055	.019	.060	2.824	.000
Individualism [IDV]	.109	.018	.129	6.185	.000
Masculinity [MAS]	.139	.019	.152	7.418	.000
Uncertainty Avoidance [UAI]	-.173	.029	-.136	-5.856	.000
Long-term Orientation [LTO]	.120	.033	.085	3.676	.017

(F Statistic = 37.644, $p = 0.000$, $r^2 = 0.123$, Adjusted $r^2 = 0.121$)

Results summarized in Table 4.28 show that four independent variables; PDI, IDV, MAS and UAV, contribute significantly to the prediction of status motive for consuming conspicuous products. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation

in Table 4.27, that there is a significant relationship at the 0.001 level between PDI ($r = .080, p = .000$), IDV ($r = .182, p = .000$), MAS ($r = .192, p = .000$), and UAI ($r = -.136, p = .000$) forms of cultural orientation and status motive for conspicuous consumption.

Both hypotheses which proposed for a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and SM (H_{16}), and IDV and SM (H_{20}) are, therefore, supported.

On the other hand, H_{24} that proposed that there would be a negative relationship between MAS and SM for conspicuous consumption can be rejected. Since it is statistically confirmed that a negative relationship exist between UAI and SM ($r = -.136, p = .000$), H_{28} , that proposed no relationship would exist between UAI and SM, can also be rejected.

The results summarized in Table 4.27 indicate that no significant relationship existed between LTO and SM. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation, that no significant relationship exists between the LTO ($r = -.030, p = .143$) forms of cultural orientation and SM for the consumption of conspicuous products. Therefore, H_{32} proposing that no relationship would exist between LTO and SM is supported.

4.5.2.2. CVDs and Uniqueness Motive

To assess the relative strength of the CVDs on a uniqueness motive, a linear multiple regression was conducted by using the derived factor scores both independent and dependent variables. It yielded an r^2 of 0.073 and an adjusted r^2 of 0.071 which indicates the goodness of fit of the model. The standard error of the estimate was 0.788. The ANOVA statistic of the model ($F = 37.436, p = 0.000$), indicate that the

model is significant. Therefore, it implies that very nearly 7.3 percent of the variation in uniqueness motive can thus be explained by CVDs and it indicates that in respect of uniqueness motive, cultural orientation has little predictive value.

Individual regression coefficients were then tested to determine the significance of each CVD. The resulting beta values and *t*-statistic for this analysis are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: The Regression of Uniqueness Motive with CVDs

	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.514	.149		16.867	.000
Power Distance [PDI]	-.192	.018	-.222	-10.521	.000
Individualism [IDV]	.119	.017	.150	7.203	.000
Masculinity [MAS]	.073	.018	.084	4.108	.000
Uncertainty Avoidance [UAI]	.056	.028	.047	2.011	.044
Long-term Orientation [LTO]	.112	.031	.084	3.649	.000

(*F* Statistic = 37.436, *p* = 0.000, r^2 = 0.073, Adjusted r^2 = 0.071)

The results of the multiple regression indicates that four CVDs (PDI, IDV, MAS and LTO) contribute significantly to the prediction of uniqueness motive for consuming conspicuous products. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation in Table 4.27.

H₁₇ hypothesised that there would be a positive relationship between PDI and uniqueness motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. This hypothesis can be rejected, as significantly negative relationship was obtained in both the multiple regression ($r = -.192$, $p = .000$) and the Pearson correlation analysis ($r = -.193$, $p = .000$).

The regression results indicate that a positive and significant relationship existed between the independent variables IDV and MAS, and the dependent variable, uniqueness motives for consuming conspicuous products, respectively. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation presented in Table 4.27, that a positively significant relationship exists between the IDV ($r = 0.107, p = 0.000$) and MAS ($r = 0.054, p = 0.000$) forms of cultural orientation, and uniqueness motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. Accordingly, H_{21} , which proposed a positive relationship would exist between IDV and uniqueness motives for consuming conspicuous products, and H_{25} , which hypothesized there is a positive relationship between MAS and uniqueness motives for consuming conspicuous products, are statistically supported.

The results of the multiple regression indicate that there is no significant relationship between UAI and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption. This confirms the finding of correlation analysis ($r = 0.018, p = 0.372$). Therefore, H_{29} , which hypothesised no relationship exist between UAI and uniqueness motives, is supported.

H_{33} hypothesized that there would not be a significant relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and UM for conspicuous consumption. This hypothesis is not supported as a positively significant relationship was uncovered in the multiple regression, and in the correlation analysis reported ($r = 0.105, p = 0.000$).

4.5.2.3. CVDs and Hedonic Motive

Linear multiple regression between CVDs and hedonic motive for consuming conspicuous products was used to assess the relative strength of independent predictor variables on a dependent criterion variable. The derived factor scores were used for conducting this analysis.

The multiple regression contained an r^2 of 0.052 and an adjusted r^2 of 0.050. The standard error of the estimate was 0.672. Therefore, CVDs explain approximately 5.0 percent of the variation in uniqueness motive, and it indicates that in respect of uniqueness motive, cultural orientation has very little predictive value. The model yielded an F statistic of 26.219, significant at $p = .000$, indicating that the model is significant.

Individual regression coefficients were then tested to determine the significance of each CVD. The resulting beta values and t -statistic for this analysis are presented in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: The Regression of Hedonic Motive with CVDs

	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.685	.127		21.123	.000
Power Distance [PDI]	-.033	.016	-.045	-2.097	.036
Individualism [IDV]	.054	.014	.081	3.829	.000
Masculinity [MAS]	-.088	.015	-.121	-5.856	.000
Uncertainty Avoidance [UAI]	.089	.024	.089	3.773	.000
Long-term Orientation [LTO]	.136	.026	.121	5.206	.000

(F Statistic = 26.219, $p = 0.000$, $r^2 = 0.052$, Adjusted $r^2 = 0.050$)

The results of the multiple regression presented in Table 4.30 indicates that four CVDs (IDV, MAS, UAI and LTO), contribute significantly to the prediction of hedonic motive for consuming conspicuous products. This confirms several results of the Pearson correlation presented in Table 4.27.

The results of the regression note that PDI and MAS have a negative relationship with hedonic motive. Yet, the negative relationship between PDI with hedonic motive is

significant at the .036 level. This confirms the correlation analysis ($r = - .068$, $p = .001$). **H₁₉**, hypothesising that there would be a positive relationship between PDI and HM for conspicuous consumption. Considering the minimal predictive power, significant at 0.001 and regression coefficients ($r = - .045$, $p = .036$), **H₁₉**, can be rejected.

H₂₇ hypothesised that there would be no relationship between MAS and an individual possessing hedonic motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. This hypothesis can also be rejected, as negative significant relationship was obtained in both the multiple regression and the correlation analysis ($r = -.121$, $p = .000$).

H₂₃ proposed that a positive relationship would exist between an individual's orientation towards IDV and HM for conspicuous consumption. The regression results indicate that a positive relationship exists between these two variables. However, it does not confirm the result of the correlation analysis ($r = .007$, $p = .720$). Hence, **H₂₃** can be rejected.

H₃₁ hypothesised the existence of no relationship between UAI and hedonic motives. This hypothesis can be rejected on the basis of the multiple regression and the correlation analysis ($r = .132$, $p = .000$). **H₃₅** also hypothesised no relationship between LTO and hedonic motive. As a positively significant relationship was found in both the multiple regression and the correlation analysis ($r = .167$, $p = .000$). **H₃₅** can also be rejected,

4.5.2.4. CVDs and Conformist Motive

To assess the relative strength of five independent predictor variables on a dependent criterion variable, a linear multiple regression was used. PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI and

LTO were taken as the five independent predictor variables, and conformist motive was taken as the dependent variable. The derived factor scores were used for conducting this analysis.

The multiple regression proposed an r^2 of 0.107 and an adjusted r^2 of 0.105. The standard error of the estimate was 0.741. Approximately 11 percent of the variation in conformist motive can be explained by five CVDs. The model yielded an F statistic of 57.022 significant at $p = .000$ indicating that the model is significant.

Individual regression coefficients were then tested to determine the significance of each independent variable. Table 4.31 displays the resulting beta values and t -statistic for this analysis.

Table 4.31: The Regression of Conformist Motive with CVDs

	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.123	.140		22.274	.000
Power Distance [PDI]	-.022	.017	-.026	-1.262	.207
Individualism [IDV]	.151	.016	.199	9.722	.000
Masculinity [MAS]	.072	.017	.087	4.308	.000
Uncertainty Avoidance [UAI]	-.203	.026	-.177	-7.751	.000
Long-term Orientation [LTO]	-.016	.029	-.012	-.545	.586

(F Statistic = 26.219, $p = 0.000$, $r^2 = 0.052$, Adjusted $r^2 = 0.050$)

The results of the multiple regression summarized in Table 4.31 indicate that IDV and UAI are significant predictors of conformist motive for consuming conspicuous products. A positive relationship exists between IDV and conformist motive, whereas a negative relationship exists between UAI and conformist motive. Support for this finding is provided by the Pearson correlation between these IDV and conformist

motive ($r = 0.256, p = 0.000$), and UAI and conformist motive ($r = -0.241, p = 0.000$). Based on these results, **H₂₂**, which hypothesized there would be a positive relationship between IDV and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption can be retained. And **H₃₀**, which proposed there would be a positive relationship between UAI and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption, can be rejected.

The Beta score for the regression of conformist motive and PDI indicates that an insignificantly negative relationship exists, at the significant level $p = .207$. This does not confirm the Pearson correlation ($r = .003, p = .878$), which indicated a positive relationship. Hence, **H₁₈**, which proposed that there would be a positive relationship between PDI and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption, can be rejected.

The results of the regression indicate that MAS was a positively significant with conformist motive, and it is confirmed by the correlation analysis ($r = .137, p = .000$). Since **H₂₆**, proposed that there would be a negative relationship between MAS and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption, it can be rejected.

The results of the regression indicate that LTO is insignificant ($p = .586$) predictors of conformist motive. No support for this finding is provided by the Pearson correlation between these variables ($r = -.138, p = .000$). Hence, **H₃₄**, which hypothesised that there would be a positive relationship between LTO and an individual possessing conformist motive for the consumption of conspicuous products, can also be rejected.

4.6. Relationship between Respondents' Demographic Characteristics and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products

This section explores the relationships between respondents' demographic characteristics (RDCs) and motives for the consumption of conspicuous products (CCMs). The relationships between RDCs and motivation for consuming conspicuous

products was tested in the first instance by correlation analysis, and then via a series of multiple regressions. Collective results from the correlation analysis and the multiple regressions were used to test hypotheses H_{36} to H_{45} .

4.6.1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation

Correlation analysis was used to test whether there were statistically significant relationships between respondents' motives for consuming conspicuous products and the RDCs. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation are presented in Table 4.32. Fifteen of the twenty eight relationships were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level, and another three relationships were significantly correlated at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.32: Correlations between RDCs & Conspicuous Motives

Respondents' Demographic Characteristics (RDCs)		UM	SM	HM	CM
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.157**	.076**	.027	-.048*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.196	.020
Age	Pearson Correlation	.319**	.043*	.216**	.051*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.037	.000	.012
Income	Pearson Correlation	.060**	.128**	.145**	.066**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
Education	Pearson Correlation	-.121**	.073**	.057**	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.005	.287
Household Size	Pearson Correlation	-.026	-.018	-.015	-.073**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.207	.384	.461	.000
Nationality	Pearson Correlation	.064**	.126**	.035	.290**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.092	.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)					
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)					

There were significantly positive relationships between respondents' monthly income and CCMs ($p = .000$). Age was also significantly correlated with uniqueness motives

($r = .319, p = .000$), and hedonic motive ($r = .216, p = .000$) at the 0.01 level, while with status motive ($r = .043, p = .037$) and conformity motive ($r = .051, p = .012$) at the 0.05 level.

Overall, the strongest significant relationship was a positive correlation between respondents' age and uniqueness motive ($r = .319, p = .000$), and the smallest significant relationship was a positive correlation between respondents' age and status motive ($r = .043, p = .037$).

All these significant relationships can be considered as of small to medium size (Cohen, 1992) and, it implies that there are other influences on motives for consuming conspicuous products, other than respondents' demographics. In other words, the causality relationship among RDCs and CCMs cannot be formed from this correlation analysis. Hence, it was necessary to perform a series of multiple regressions to investigate the influence of RDCs on CCMs.

4.6.2. Multiple Regression

Linear multiple regressions employed to assess the relative strength of respondents' demographic characteristics (as independent variables) on four motives for conspicuous consumption (as dependent variables). Standardized coefficients of the multiple regression are summarized in Table 4.33.

Results reveal that r^2 and the adjusted r^2 of the multiple regression was 0.128 and 0.126 respectively. The ANOVA statistic of the model ($F = 58.17, p = .000$), indicate that the model is significant. Therefore, it implies that nearly 13 percent of the variation in uniqueness motive can thus be explained by respondent's demographic characteristics (RDCs).

Table 4.33: The Multiple Regression of Conspicuous Motive with RDC's

	Std. C	α	Respondent's Demographics						Coefficients
			Gender	H Size	Race	Age	Educ.	Income	
UM	β		.092	-.032	.118	.309	.069	.025	F = 58.17, p = 0.000, r ² = 0.128, Adj. r ² = 0.126
	t	32.43	4.55	-1.66	6.06	15.08	3.45	1.23	
	Sig.	.000	.000	.097	.000	.000	.001	.000	
SM	β		.058	-.023	.137	.014	.081	.109	F = 37.34, p = 0.000, r ² = 0.142, Adj. r ² = 0.140
	t	23.05	-2.71	-1.16	6.74	.002	3.82	5.03	
	Sig.	.000	.001	.245	.000	.399	.000	.000	
HM	β		.020	-.021	.077	.274	.014	.218	F = 40.84, p = 0.000, r ² = 0.094, Adj. r ² = 0.091
	t	38.76	.964	-1.07	3.89	-13.14	-.675	10.41	
	Sig.	.000	.335	.283	.000	.000	.000	.000	
CM	β		-.016	-.084	.296	-.007	.003	.075	F = 42.61, p = 0.000, r ² = 0.097, Adj. r ² = 0.095
	t	26.48	-.786	-4.28	14.95	-.321	.134	3.57	
	Sig.	.000	.432	.000	.000	.748	.893	.000	

4.6.2.1. RDCs and Uniqueness Motive

Individual regression coefficients were then tested to determine the significance of each RDC. The resulting beta values and *t*-statistic, which are presented in Table 4.33, reveals that respondent's gender, age, income, education, and nationality contribute significantly to the prediction of uniqueness motive for consuming conspicuous products. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation in Table 4.32, that there is a significant relationship between respondent's gender ($r = .157, p = .000$), age ($r = .319, p = .000$), income ($r = .060, p = .000$), education ($r = .121, p = .000$), nationality ($r = .064, p = .001$) and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption at the 0.001 level.

Therefore, **H₃₆**, which proposed that there will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption, is statistically supported.

4.6.2.2. RDCs and Status Motive

The linear multiple regression that used to assess the relative strength of the RDCs on status motive, yielded an r^2 of 0.142, and an adjusted r^2 of 0.140. Almost 14 percent of the variation in status motive can thus be explained by RDCs. The ANOVA statistic of the model was $F = 37.34$ ($p = .000$), and this indicates that the model is significant.

The resulting beta values and t -statistic for this analysis were tested to determine the significance of each RDC in predicting status motive for conspicuous consumption. The combined results indicate that no significant relationship existed between respondent's age and status motive ($r=.043$, $p = .037$; $\beta=.014$, $p=.399$, $t=.002$), and respondent's household size and status motive ($r= -.018$, $p =.384$; $\beta= -.023$, $p=.245$, $t= -.1.16$). All other RDCs were significantly correlated with respondent's status motive.

Therefore, **H₃₇**, proposing that a positive relationship would exist between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and status motive for conspicuous consumption is partially supported.

4.6.2.3. RDCs and Hedonic Motive

The multiple regression performed to assess the relative strength of RDCs on hedonic motive proposed an r^2 of 0.094 and an adjusted r^2 of 0.091. Therefore, roughly 09 percent of the variation in hedonic motive can be explained by RDCs. This indicates that in respect of hedonic motive, respondents' demographic characteristics have little

predictive value. However, the model yielded an F statistic of 40.84 significant at $p = .000$ indicating that the model is significant.

Individual regression coefficients were then tested to determine the significance of each independent variable. The results show that respondent's age ($r = .274, p = .000$), education ($r = .014, p = .000$) and income ($r = .218, p = .000$) contribute significantly to the prediction of hedonic motive for consuming conspicuous products. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation also.

H₃₈ hypothesised that there would be a positive relationship between respondent's age, education, income and hedonic motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. This hypothesis is, therefore, supported.

4.6.2.4. RDCs and Conformist Motive

To assess the relative strength of respondents' demographic characteristics on a conformist motive, a linear multiple regression was performed. It yielded an r^2 of 0.097 and an adjusted r^2 of 0.095, indicating that in respect of conformist motive, respondents' demographic characteristics also have very little predictive value. The ANOVA yielded an F statistic of 42.61, significant at $p = .000$, indicating that the model is significant.

According to the individual regression coefficients, which are presented in Table 4.33, household size ($r = -.084, p = .000$), nationality ($r = .296, p = .000$), and income ($r = .075, p = .000$) are significantly impact on respondents' conformist motive for consumption of conspicuous products at $p = 0.01$ level. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation given in Table 4.32. Accordingly, **H₃₉**, which hypothesised a

positive relationship would exist between respondent's income, education, nationality and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption is partially supported.

Table 4.33, reveals that respondent's age is significantly contributed to the prediction of UM ($r = .309, p = .000$), and HM ($r = .274, p = .000$), and not for CM ($r = -.007, p = .748$), and SM ($r = .014, p = .399$). Hence, **H₄₀**, that proposes a positive relationship between respondent's age and all motives for consuming conspicuous products, is partially supported. This finding confirms previous research findings (Paul, 2002; Tai, 2007; Maria & Greig, 2004; Emma & Margaret, 2004).

The collective results from the correlation analysis and the multiple regressions indicate that respondent's income is significantly contributed to the prediction of UM ($r = .025, p = .000$), SM ($r = .109, p = .000$), HM ($r = .218, p = .000$), and CM ($r = .075, p = .000$). This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation presented in Table 4.32. Accordingly, **H₄₁**, proposing a positive relationship would exist between respondent's income and all motives for consuming conspicuous products, is supported. This finding confirms some of the previous research findings (Congleton, 1989; Rauscher, 1993; Chao and Schor, 1998; Damian, 2009; Jessie & John, 2002; Henry, 2002) and inconsistent with the findings of Eastman and Jun's (2012).

H₄₂ proposed that there would be a positive relationship between respondent's education and all motives for consuming conspicuous products. Yet, the individual regression coefficients reveal that the respondent's education is significantly contributed to predict only UM ($r = .069, p = .001$), SM ($r = .081, p = .000$), and HM ($r = .014, p = .000$) for conspicuous consumption. This confirms Pearson correlations summarized in Table 4.32. **H₄₂** is, therefore, partially supported. This finding confirms

the previous research findings (Congleton, 1989; Rauscher, 1993; Damian, 2009). However, it is conflicting with the findings of Eastman & Jun's (2012).

According to the Table 4.33, respondent's gender is significantly contributed to the prediction of UM ($r = .092, p = .000$), and SM ($r = .058, p = .001$), but not for either HM ($r = .020, p = .335$), or CM ($r = -.016, p = .432$). H_{43} , that proposes a positive relationship between respondent's gender and all motives for consuming conspicuous products, is partially supported. This finding confirms the previous research findings (Lynda *et al.*, 2007; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Tai, 2007; Barber & Lobel 1953; Bagwell & Bernheim 1996; Eastman & Jun, 2012).

Linear multiple regression results, presented in Table 4.33, reveal that respondents' nationality is significantly contributed to the prediction of UM ($r = .118, p = .000$), SM ($r = .137, p = .000$), HM ($r = .077, p = .000$), and CM ($r = .296, p = .000$) for consumption of the conspicuous products. However, correlation coefficient, presented in Table 4.32, does not propose a significant relationship between respondents' hedonic motive and their nationality. Therefore, H_{44} , which proposes a positive relationship would exist between respondent's nationality and all motives for consuming conspicuous products, is cannot totally rejected. Similar studies done in different part of the world confirm that there can be differences as well as similarities in importance placed on conspicuous motives by different ethnic groups (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Michael & Holly 2007; Chung & Fischer, 2001; Fontes & Fan, 2006).

Table 4.33 suggest that respondents' household size is significantly contributed to the prediction of CM ($r = -.084, p = .000$). This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation in Table 4.31, that there is a significant relationship between respondent's

nationality ($r = -.073$, $p = .000$) and conformity motive for conspicuous consumption. Therefore, **H₄₅**, which proposed that there would be a statistically strong relationship between respondent's household size and all motives for consuming conspicuous products, can be partially rejected. Surprisingly, no previous research found, which focus on the impact of respondents' household size on conspicuous motives.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion and discussions of the research. As stated in the first chapter, three research questions were addressed in this research. First, why people engage in conspicuous consumption? What motives persuade them to consume conspicuously? Can the structure and nature of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products be identified? Second, are there any differences between consumers from different nationalities in their motives for consuming conspicuous products? Is it simply a matter of the cultural values of the consumer or do other factors play a role as well? Third, how consumers with different demographic characteristics differ in conspicuous consumptions? Do they differ in their tendency for conspicuous consumption because of individual difference in demographic characteristics?

Based upon a review of the literature pertaining to influence of individual's cultural values and their demographics on motives for consuming conspicuous products, a number of hypotheses were proposed. Five dimensions of cultural values proposed by Hofstede (1980) were used to categorize the cultural orientation of respondents. Literature suggests that consumer motives for the consumption of conspicuous products could be accounted for by four forms of motives: status, uniqueness, conformist, and hedonic. Therefore, these four motives were used in this research. To measure the respondents' demographic perception, six demographic characteristics were employed.

Based on the literature and an exploratory qualitative study, a survey instrument was developed. Data was obtained by an empirical survey carried out in four districts: Hambantota, Putlum, Nuwra Eliya, and Vaunia. A total of 2,382 (Sinhalese: n=1020; Muslims: n=600; Indian Tamils: n=335; and Sri Lankan Tamils: n=427) usable responses were obtained. 56 percent of respondents were male (SN: 44%; MS: 72%; INT: 53%; SLT: 57%) and they were belong to 20yrs to 75 yrs age groups. Nearly 39 percent identified themselves as Buddhist. Only 8 percent were Islamic. In terms of respondents' education, nearly one-third of the sample studied up to or were in a process of completing G.C.E. (A/L) examination. The average monthly incomes for all respondents are skewed towards the higher income brackets (i.e. Rs. 48,629.00).

Group 1 Hypotheses

The first set of hypotheses developed in this research addressed the first research question: *why people engage in conspicuous consumption? What motives persuade them to consume conspicuously? Can the structure and nature of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products be identified?* Four motives for consuming conspicuous products identified by literature were employed as a base for this portion of the research. The proposed model of consumer motives for the consumption of conspicuous products, which was presented in Figure 3.2, suggested that consumer motives for conspicuous consumption could be accounted for by four forms of motives: status, uniqueness, conformist, and hedonic.

Group 2 and 3 Hypotheses

The second and the third set of hypotheses addressed the second research question: *are there differences between consumers from different nationalities in their motives for consuming conspicuous products? Is it simply a matter of the cultural values of*

the consumer or do other factors play a role as well? These hypotheses looked at whether there were differences between Sinhalese, Muslims, Sri Lankan Tamils, and Indian Tamils in the nature of their motives for consuming conspicuous products.

Group 4 Hypotheses

The fourth set of hypotheses addressed the final research question: *how consumers with different demographic characteristics differ in conspicuous consumptions? Do they differ in their tendency for conspicuous consumption because of individual difference demographic characteristics in, for instance, gender, age, income, education level, or perhaps the nationality?* These hypotheses looked at the relationship between individuals' demographic characteristics and the degree to which they possessed each form of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products.

5.2. Structure and Nature of Motives for the Conspicuous Consumption

5.2.1. Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Products

Overall there appears to be greater variability amongst the different ethnic groups in their perception towards conspicuous products. Yet, the most common conspicuous product reported across the entire sample was luxury automobiles, and it followed by bigger houses. Respondents accepted that luxury automobiles and bigger houses are noticeable to the public and the higher consumption of these goods is generally associated with higher social status. Some of them concluded that “*designer apparels, gold jewellerys, and expensive mobile phones also can demonstrate the users' social status and their affluence to the public*”. It implies that luxurious automobiles, bigger houses, designer apparels, gold jewellerys, and expensive mobile phones are used by the Sri Lankan to exhibit their status to the community.

A greater variability amongst the different ethnic groups in their perception towards conspicuous products also emerged. This was confirmed by the Post Hoc Test of the ANOVA. Moreover, a greater variability in respondents' perception towards conspicuous products was appeared amongst the different income earning groups. The high income earners are more likely to buy luxury automobiles, bigger houses, pricey wrist watches, designer apparels, comfortable furniture, and the expensive wine and liquor to demonstrate their status to the public. Whereas, the middle income earners' perception towards conspicuous products relates to five categories: luxury automobiles, designer apparels, expensive mobile phones, gold jewellerys, and bigger houses. Luxury automobiles, gold jewellerys, expensive mobile phones, bigger houses, and designer apparels were the common conspicuous products amongst low income earners.

The consumption of conspicuous products has traditionally been considered the preserve of the upper echelons of society (Mason, 1998). A low-income group such as clerical workers are often not regarded as a group that would be consumers of luxury products. However, it is interesting to see that the results presented in this research suggest that even a low income group are regular consumers of products that they consider to be conspicuous.

5.2.2. Respondents Perception towards Conspicuous Consumption

Since people have psychological position in the relevant social community equal or superior to that of others, many (*if not all*) buyers of conspicuous products probably purchase them in order to garner the status benefits - either the "*feeling of exclusivity*" (a snob and Veblen effects) or the "*feeling of being in the 'in' crowd*" (a bandwagon effect). Based on this argument, respondents' attentiveness towards conspicuous

products was measured in three aspects: Veblen effects, Snob effects, and Bandwagon effects. Sinhalese have scored the highest on Veblen effect, and it followed by Snob and Bandwagon effects. In conversely, Muslims have scored the highest on Bandwagon effect, and then Veblen effect and Snob effect scored as the second and the third respectively. Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils are also scored in differently on these three aspects; Sri Lankan Tamils identified the Snob effect as the most influential effect, which was followed by Veblen and Bandwagon effects, whereas Indian Tamils have identified Veblen effect as the most significant effect that encourage them to consume conspicuous products and it was followed by Snob and Bandwagon effect.

This implies that Sinhalese and Indian Tamils consider consuming high-priced conspicuous products as a means of openly displaying their wealth in order to gain in social status. Therefore, these consumers' satisfaction derives not from the utilitarian attributes but from audience reaction to the wealth displayed by them. When consider the Sri Lankan Tamils, they prefer for exclusive consumption which guarantees a measure of social prestige. Since they preoccupied with social status, they reject products that are perceived to be possessed by the common people and they buy conspicuous products because of its high quality and scarcity value. However, Muslims are convinced to purchase conspicuous products in order to be identified with their social group by adopting identical or similar patterns of consumption. They prefer products that are possessed by the "status" people and they would increase their own demand when others increase their demand for these products.

Overall it appears that there are significant differences amongst the respondents towards their conspicuousness orientation in this study and this manifests they behave

in the consumer market in diverse manner, which in turn could influence their purchasing decisions.

5.2.3. Structure of Motives for Consumption of the Conspicuous Products

Significant differences found among the nationalities in conspicuous consumption underlined the importance of explore the motives of these groups for consume conspicuously. Based on the literature, it was anticipated that consumers would possess four different forms of motives for the consumption of conspicuous products, namely status, uniqueness, conformist, and hedonic. A factor analysis revealed that a four factor solution was the most appropriate solution for the items measuring motives for consuming conspicuously. These four factors were labelled uniqueness motive (UM), status motive (SM), hedonic motive (HM) and conformist motive (CM). Multicollinearity test established that all factors belong to separate constructs.

All four motives identified in the literature have emerged as separate influential factors on conspicuous consumption. Therefore, a four factor solution for consumer motives towards conspicuous consumption was derived from the factor analysis. The resultant subscale for status-motives contains five items and other three (i.e. uniqueness, hedonic, and conformity) contain four items each. All these factors have high Cronbach's alpha in the range of 0.773 – 0.609. This indicates that all the items used are reliable measure of consumer motives for the conspicuous consumption.

Results propose that the Sri Lankans possess high level of hedonic motives. Therefore, the demand for conspicuous products increases in line with the perceived scarcity of these products. This appears to confirm previous research findings (Allison, 2010; Groth & McDaniel, 1993; Eastman *et al.*, 1999; Heaney *et al.*, 2005; Jessie & John, 2002).

Uniqueness motive is emerged as the second most significant motivator of the conspicuous consumption of the respondents. It implies that respondents are motivated to consume conspicuous products to distinguish them from others. This finding confirms previous research (Leigh & Gabel 1992; Engel *et.al.* 1993; Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2006; Tai, 2007; Amaldoss & Jain, 2008).

Contrary to the greater importance placed on the pursuit of status as a reason for people choosing to consume conspicuously, status motive has emerged as the third important motivator of conspicuous consumption. However, this finding confirms previous research (Chao & Schror, 1998; Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996; Creedy and Slottje, 1991).

Respondents have accepted the conformist motive as the fourth important motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. It suggests that respondents' conspicuous consumption might also influence by their motive for creating social opportunities and social interaction. This confirms previous research findings (Allison, 2008; Jaramillo & Moizeau, 2003; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Richard & Clare, 2004).

5.2.4. Results of Differences and Similarities in Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products

The one-way MANOVA confirmed that there was a statistically significant difference between the Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in the level of importance attached to the various motives for the consumption of conspicuous products.

Since the MANOVA achieved a statistically significant result, a series of follow-up ANOVAs were performed to assess whether differences existed between respondents in respect of each form of motives. Accordingly, significant differences were found

in status motive and conformist motive for consuming conspicuous products between the Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils. One possible reason of this is that once affluence becomes a fact of life for consumers, then their focus shifts from a '*consume for living*' towards '*consume for status and social utility*'.

Yet, the level of importance of attached to the 'consume for status and social utility' are largely depends on the different cultural values they hold. These results suggest that Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils might place different degree of importance in respect of socially oriented motives in explaining the whole picture of conspicuous consumption and signifying their social class by consuming conspicuous products.

Finding revealed that there was a significant difference in the importance that the respondents attached to uniqueness motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. However, no significant difference was found between the Sinhalese and Indian Tamils in this respect. This suggests that the importance placed on uniqueness in conspicuous consumption is unvarying between Sinhalese and Indian Tamil. This is an intriguing finding, as it was expected that the Indian Tamils, who are inhabited comparatively smaller homes which are located nearer to each other would be less likely to signal their relative uniqueness through their consumption choices.

The form of motivation that had the least difference between the nationalities was hedonic motivation. No significant differences were found in between Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils, Sinhalese and Indian Tamils, and Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils. It propose that these respondents, regardless their ethnicity, place similar level of importance on the consumption of conspicuous product to reflect their household's

economic position relative to a reference group to exchange friendship, and to strengthen their social interactions.

Since there are no research in which focus conspicuous motives of different ethnic groups of Sri Lanka, it is impossible to make any comparison on the findings of this study. However, similar studies done in different part of the world confirm that there can be differences as well as similarities in importance placed on conspicuous motives by different ethnic groups (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Fernando and Fabien, 2003; Fontes and Fan 2006).

Based on the preceding analysis, a model of how motives of consumers' lead to the consumption of conspicuous products are illustrated in Figure 3.2, which is similar to the model that conceptualized in the literature.

Group 1 Hypotheses: Table 5.1 provides a summary of the first set of hypotheses and the results obtained.

Table 5.1: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Motivates for Consuming Conspicuous Products

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁ Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of status motive	Supported $t = 191.90, p = .000$
H₂ Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of uniqueness motive	Supported $t = 164.11, p = .000$
H₃ Consumers of conspicuous products possess high levels of conformist motive	Supported $t = 242.36, p = .000$
H₄ Consumers of conspicuous products will possess high level of hedonic motive	Supported $t = 172.45, p = .000$
H₅ Differences exist between Sinhalese,	Supported (MANOVA) Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.726,$

Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different types of motives for conspicuous consumption	$F = 67.32, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.10$
H₆ Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to status motives for conspicuous consumption	Supported (ANOVA) $F = 56.94; p < .001$
H₇ Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to uniqueness motives for conspicuous consumption	Partially Supported (ANOVA) $F = 53.93, p < .001, \text{Eta}^2 = .064$, Between SN and INT $p = 0.643$
H₈ Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to conformist motives for conspicuous consumption	Supported (ANOVA) $F = 222.02; p < .001$
H₉ Differences exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to hedonic motives for conspicuous consumption	Partially Supported (ANOVA) $F = 16.47; p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .020$: [SN & SLT: $p = 0.071$, SN & INT: $p = 0.674$, MS & SLT: $p = 0.093$]

5.3. Structure and Nature of Cultural Orientation

Hofstede's (1980) cultural value dimensions (CVDs), which were refined by Oliver *et.al.* (1999) were used to measure the respondents' cultural orientation. A factor analysis was performed to measure the appropriateness of these five cultural dimensions. The result of the rotated factor matrix indicates that out of the 20 items developed by Oliver *et.al.* (1999), 17 items were significantly loaded at initial 0.40 cut-off point of factor loading. Four methods were used to determine the number of

factors to be retained: eigenvalues method, percentage of variance method, scree plot test and varimax rotation method. These analyses suggested that a four factor solution was appropriate for this study.

The number of items that load onto each factor has been significantly reduced. When the number of items in a scale is reduced after administration this poses a challenge to the robustness of the scale (Allison, 2010). Therefore the reliability of the scales was measured using Cronbach's alphas for each factor. Other than Masculinity (MAS), the balance four CVDs were having Cronbach alphas beyond the threshold score. It shows that out of five, four CVD scales possesses satisfactory internal consistency reliability.

One reason why the number of items has been reduced in this study is that a higher cut-off (i.e. 0.4) for the factor loading for retaining items was applied. This contrasts with White (2005; cited by Allison, 2010), for example, who employed a cut-off of 0.3 and largely replicated the results obtained in the original scale formulation. This suggests that the retained items in this scale have a higher average correlation coefficient than has been the case in some other studies. This improves the validity of the scale.

Based on the preceding analysis, a model of how consumers' cultural values lead to the consumption of conspicuous products is illustrated in Figure 3.4, which is similar to the model that conceptualized in the literature.

5.3.1. Results of Differences and Similarities in Cultural Value Orientations amongst Nationalities

Respondents' views on their Hofstede's CVD's were refined by performing a factor analysis, and then a summated scale was created for each construct for measuring the

different cultural value orientations amongst the nationalities. Result shows that long-term orientation was scored highest ($\bar{x} = 4.09$) by the respondents and it is followed by the uncertainty avoidance ($\bar{x} = 3.90$). As per the means scores, Sinhalese have assigned the highest mean value ($\bar{x} = 4.20$) for long-term orientation, while Sri Lankan Tamils assigned the lowest ($\bar{x} = 3.38$) to the same. Muslims ($\bar{x} = 4.16$) and Indian Tamils ($\bar{x} = 4.06$) also have recognized that the long-term orientation is an important aspect of their culture.

Therefore it is clear that, despite of the nationality, the primary cultural orientation of the Sri Lankans is long-term orientation. It implies that Sri Lankans society fosters virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift, than fostering virtues related to the past and present, in particular respect for tradition, preservation of “face”, and fulfilling social obligations.

When uncertainty avoidance orientation is concerned, Muslims have assigned the highest mean value ($\bar{x} = 4.23$), while Sri Lankan Tamils assigned the lowest ($\bar{x} = 3.45$). It appears that all ethnic groups in the sample are strong uncertainty avoiders. High uncertainty avoidance implies that the Sri Lankans feel threatened by uncertain, unknown, ambiguous, or unstructured situations.

Masculinity stands for a society in which emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success; women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Femininity stands for a society in which emotional gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Despite the ethnicity of the respondents, surprisingly all identified them as

‘femininity’ cultural value oriented people ($\bar{x} = 2.53$), particularly by the Sinhalese ($\bar{x} = 2.29$). However, Muslims ($\bar{x} = 2.77$) and Indian Tamils ($\bar{x} = 2.93$) were in between ‘masculinity – femininity’ cultural value orientations.

When consider the ‘individualism-collectivism’ dimension of culture, all most all the respondents in the sample have identified as collectivists ($\bar{x} = 2.44$). Collectivism stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which continue to protect them throughout their lifetime in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.

Power Distance is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. When respondents were requested to express their views on ‘power distance’ of culture, interestingly all agreed that they value for ‘small power distance’ ($\bar{x} = 2.34$).

In overall, these findings propose that the Sri Lankans, apart from of their ethnicity, are long-term oriented, strong in uncertainty avoidance, prefer for small power distance, more altruistic (collectivists), femininity in nature. This result is not surprising as it was expected that Sri Lankans would place greater emphasis on simple and collective with long-term directions.

Yet, results indicate that significant differences exist in cultural value orientations between the groups of Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils as a whole. Hence, a multiple comparisons were made by utilizing the results of post-hoc tests to explore these differences in terms of their cultural values. A MANOVA was

conducted to assess the differences between four national samples in terms of their cultural value orientation on a linear combination of the different cultural orientations.

Significant differences were identified in between Sinhalese and Muslims, Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils, and Muslims and Indian Tamils in their cultural values towards small vs. large power distance. However, there no differences were identified between the Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils, Sinhalese and Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils.

In terms of cultural orientation towards both individualism vs. collectivism, and strong vs. weak uncertainty avoidance, there were significant differences between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils.

Further, it appears that there were significant differences between all the ethnics in the sample other than in between the Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils in terms of masculinity vs. femininity. In terms of respondents' long-term vs. short-term cultural orientation a similar value orientations were found between the Sinhalese and Muslims.

This outcome is surprising as it was expected that different nationalities in Sri Lanka, who were presumed to hold their own unique cultural values, would place greater emphasis on the culturally defined behaviour. A possible explanation of this finding might be grounded in the types of respondents in the sample. The majority of the respondents in the sample (nearly 83%) were belonged to 20 years to 44 years age group, and roughly 91 percent of them were studied at least up to or were in a process of completing G.C.E. (Ordinary Level). It is likely that the new educated generation who live in urban might share their cultural values with other nationalities.

Though there were no directly relevant researches, comparable researches carried out in different part of the world confirm that there can be differences as well as similarities in importance placed on conspicuous motives by different ethnic groups (Charles *et al.*, 2007; Chao and Schor, 1996; Fernando and Fabien, 2003; Fontes and Fan 2006).

Group 2 Hypotheses: Table 5.2 provides a summary of the second set of hypotheses and the results obtained by this study.

Table 5.2: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Differences between SN, MS, SLT, and INT in their Motivates for Consuming Luxury Products

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁₀ Differences will exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils and Sri Lankan Tamils in the importance they attach to different cultural values.	Supported (MANOVA) $F = 70.06, p = .000$, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.663$, partial $\eta^2 = .128$
H₁₁ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards power distance.	Partially Supported $F = 33.06, p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .040$: [SN & SLT: $p = 0.710$, SN & INT: $p = 0.645$, SLT & INT: $p = 1.000$]
H₁₂ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards individualism vs. collectivism	Supported $F = 88.55, p = .000$
H₁₃ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards masculinity Vs femininity	Partially Supported $F = 73.17, p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .085$: [SN & SLT: $p = 0.986$]
H₁₄ Difference would exist between	Supported $F = 147.67, p = .000$

Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards uncertainty avoidance	
H₁₅ Difference would exist between Sinhalese, Muslims, Indian Tamils, and Sri Lankan Tamils in respect of cultural value orientation towards long-term vs. short-term orientation	Partially Supported $F = 68.77, p = .000, \text{Eta}^2 = .080$: [SN & MS: $p = 0.504$]

5.4. CVDs and Motives for consuming Conspicuous Products

Group 3 Hypotheses: Tables 5.3 to 5.6 provide a summary of the third set of hypotheses and the results obtained by this study.

5.4.1. CVDs and Status Motive

Both the Pearson correlation and the multiple regression results indicate that a significant, but weak, relationship exists between power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance, and status motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. The first three cultural value dimensions are positively correlated with the status motive. The positive relationship between power distance and status motive implies that if an individual desire inequalities among people and in turn expects that less powerful people should depend on the more powerful (i.e. large power distance), it is likely that they will be mindful of their relative status in society. This may make them more likely to possess status motive for the consumption of conspicuous products if they perceive that their relative position in society will be improved through this consumption. In contrary, if an individual perceives society as relatively equal and expects that there should be an interdependencies between less

and more powerful people, is less likely be motivated to consume a conspicuous product for status grounds.

Uncertainty avoidance is negatively correlated with status motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. It implies that if an individual prefer to be a ‘strong uncertainty avoider’ probably he will desire for simple life. This may make them more likely to possess less conspicuous products.

Besides, no significant relationship was found between long-term orientation and status motive for the consumption of conspicuous products. It implies that both long-term and short-term do not contribute significantly to the prediction of status motive for consuming conspicuous products.

Overall, these results suggest that the power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance dimensions of cultural values are better predictors of status motive than the long-term orientation dimension of cultural values. This finding confirms previous research findings (Mooij, 1998; Chao and Schror, 1998; Shavitt *et al*, 2006; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998).

Table 5.3: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Status Motive

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁₆ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and SM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .080$, $p = .000$
H₂₀ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and SM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .080$, $p = .000$
H₂₄ There will be a negative relationship between an	Not $r = .192$,

	individual's orientation towards MAS and SM for conspicuous consumption	Supported	$p = .000$
H₂₈	There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and SM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported	$r = -.136,$ $p = .000$
H₃₂	There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and SM for conspicuous consumption	Supported	$r = -.130,$ $p = .143$

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that within this research the extent of an individual's status motive for the consumption of conspicuous products appears to be influenced by the extent to which they are orientated towards four dimensions of culture: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. However, there appears to be no relationship between an individual's cultural orientation towards long-term vs. short-term orientation and status motive.

5.4.2. CVDs and Uniqueness Motive

The influence of cultural values on uniqueness motive is not surprising. Yet, the correlation analysis indicate that cultural value orientation offers little explanatory power in respect of an individual's propensity to consume conspicuous products based on uniqueness motivations. The multiple regression model also indicates that in respect of uniqueness motive, cultural orientation has little predictive value. Except power distance, which has a negative relationship with uniqueness motive, four CVDs (individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation) encompass positive relationship with the independent variable. Since the relationship between uncertainty avoidance with the hedonic motive was found to be insignificant, the results confirm that four CVDs (power distance, individualism, masculinity and

long-term orientation) contribute significantly to the prediction of uniqueness motive for consuming conspicuous products. This finding confirms previous research conducted in different cultural contexts (Chang, 2005; Dholakia & Talukdar, 2004; Lee & Kacen, 1999).

Table 5.4: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Uniqueness Motive

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁₇ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and UM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.193, p = .000$
H₂₁ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and UM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .107, p = .000$
H₂₅ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and UM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .054, p = .000$
H₂₉ There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and UM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .018, p = .372$
H₃₂ There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and UM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = .105, p = .000$

It implies that within this research cultural orientation appears to have a greater effect on the extent of an individual's uniqueness motive for the consumption of conspicuous products ($p = .000$). Orientation towards uncertainty avoidance has an insignificant ($p = .372$) positive effect on uniqueness motive.

5.4.3. CVDs and Hedonic Motive

The desire to reflect an individual's household's economic position relative to a reference group to exchange friendship, and to strengthen their social interactions, may be reflected in their motivation for consuming conspicuous products. Surprisingly, the result of the multiple regression indicates that in respect of uniqueness motive, cultural orientation has very little predictive value. And it confirms that four CVDs (individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation) contribute significantly to the prediction of hedonic motive for consuming conspicuous products. No significant relationship was found between power distance and hedonic motive of the respondents. This confirms the results of the Pearson correlation too. This finding confirms previous research conducted by different scholars (Kuen & Voon, 2007; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998).

Table 5.5: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Hedonic Motive

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁₉ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and HM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.068, p = .001$
H₂₃ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and HM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = .007, p = .720$
H₂₇ There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and HM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = .137, p = .000$
H₃₁ There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and HM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = .132, p = .000$

H₃₅ There will be no relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and HM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.167, p = .000$
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These results propose that the most of the individual's cultural orientations appear to influence the extent of their hedonic motive for the consumption of conspicuous products ($p = < .001$). Only IDV has an insignificant relationship ($p = .720$) with hedonic motive. This result is validates the expectations.

5.4.4. CVDs and Conformist Motive

The Beta scores for the regression of conformist motive and CVDs explain that significant relationships exist among individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and conformist motive of respondents. Out of these three CVDs, individualism and masculinity are positively correlated with hedonic motive. Thus an increase in the orientation towards to these two CVDs will lead to an acceptance in conformist motive. Uncertainty avoidance is negatively correlated with conformist motive and no significant relationships found between power distance and long-term orientation with conformist motive. The Pearson correlation also indicated a negative relationship between these constructs. In contrary to the results of the regression analysis Pearson correlation shows that a significant relationship exists between long-term orientation and conformist motive of respondents. This finding confirms previous research conducted in various cultural contexts (Shavitt *et al*, 2006; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998).

Table 5.6: **Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between CVDs and Conformist Motive**

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₁₈ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards PDI and CM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.003, p = .878$
H₂₂ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards IDV and CM for conspicuous consumption	Supported $r = .256, p = .000$
H₂₆ There will be a negative relationship between an individual's orientation towards MAS and CM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = .137, p = .000$
H₃₀ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards UAI and CM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.241, p = .000$
H₃₄ There will be a positive relationship between an individual's orientation towards LTO and CM for conspicuous consumption	Not Supported $r = -.138, p = .000$

These results indicate that within this research, other than power distance ($p = .878$), all other cultural orientations are significantly ($p = .000$) influenced on individuals conformist motive.

5.5. Influence of Respondents' Demographic Characteristics on Motives for Conspicuous Consumption

5.5.1. Relationship between RDCs and CCMs for Consuming Conspicuous Products

The third research problem focused in this study was to investigate how consumers with different demographic characteristics differ in their conspicuous consumptions. Therefore, the relationships between respondents' demographic characteristics

(RDCs) and the motives for the conspicuous consumption (CCMs) were explored. These relationships were tested in the first instance by correlation analysis, and then via a series of multiple regressions.

The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicated that eighteen of the twenty eight relationships were significantly correlated. As expected, a strong positive relationships found in between respondents' monthly income and the motives for conspicuous consumption ($p = .000$). Results confirmed that the respondents' age also significantly correlated with the different conspicuous consumption motives. However, these relationships can be considered as of small to medium size. It implies that the causality relationship among respondents' demographic characteristics and motives for conspicuous consumption cannot be formed from this correlation analysis. Therefore a series of linear multiple regressions were performed to assess the relative strength of respondents' demographic characteristics (as independent variables) on four motives for conspicuous consumption (as dependent variables).

The coefficients of the multiple regression implies that nearly 13 percent of the variation in uniqueness motive, 14 percent of the variation in status motive, 9 percent of the variation in hedonic motive, and 10 percent of the variation in conformist motive can be explained by respondents' demographic characteristics. It indicates that in respect of motive for conspicuous consumption, respondents' demographic characteristics also have very little predictive value. However, F statistics p statistics confirmed that all the multiple regression models used were significant.

Within this research there was a significant relationship between respondent's gender, income, education, nationality and status motive for conspicuous consumption. However, no relationship was materialized between respondents' age, household size

and status motive. It indicates that respondents' status motive for conspicuous consumption does not vary based on either their age or the number of member in their family.

As expected, there was a significant relationship between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption, and no relationship was emerged between respondents' household size and uniqueness motive. Moreover, result confirms a significant relationship would exist between respondent's age, income, education, and hedonic motive for conspicuous consumption.

The resulting beta values and *t*-statistic for this analysis indicate that a significant relationship was found between respondent's gender, income, education, nationality and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption.

Group 4 Hypotheses

Table 5.7 provides a summary of the final set of hypotheses and the results obtained.

Table 5.7: Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Relationships between RDCs and Motives for Consuming Conspicuous Products

Hypothesis	Outcomes
H₃₆ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender [G], age [A], income [I], education [E], nationality [N] and uniqueness motive for conspicuous consumption.	Supported G: $r = .157$, A: $r = .319$, I: $r = .060$, E: $r = .121$ N: $r = -.064$, [$p = < .001$]
H₃₇ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender, age, income, education, nationality and status motive for	Partially Supported G: $r = .076$, I: $r = .128$, E: $r = .073$, N: $r = .126$, [$p = < .001$] & A: $r = .043$, $p =$

conspicuous consumption.		.037
H₃₈ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's age, education, income and hedonic motive for conspicuous consumption.	Supported	A: $r = .216$, E: $r = .145$, I: $r = .057$, [$p = <.001$]
H₃₉ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's income, education, nationality and conformist motive for conspicuous consumption	Partially Supported	I: $r = .066$, N: $r = .290$, [$p = <.001$], E: $r = -.022$, [$p = .287$]
H₄₀ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's age and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Partially Supported	UM: $r = .319$, HM: $r = .216$ [$p = <.001$], SM: $r = .043$ [$p = .037$], CM: $r = .051$ [$p = .012$]
H₄₁ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's income and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Supported	UM: $r = .060$, SM: $r = .128$, HM: $r = .145$, CM: $r = .066$ [$p = <.001$]
H₄₂ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's education and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Partially Supported	UM: $r = .121$, SM: $r = .073$ [$p = <.001$], HM: $r = .057$ [$p = .005$], CM: $r = -.022$ [$p = .287$]
H₄₃ There will be a positive relationship between respondent's gender and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Partially Supported	UM: $r = .092$, SM: $r = .058$ [$p = <.001$], HM: $r = .020$ [$p = .335$], CM: $r = -.016$ [$p = .432$].
H₄₄ There will be a statistically strong relationship between respondent's nationality and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Partially Supported	UM: $r = .064$, SM: $r = .126$, CM: $r = .290$ [$p = <.000$], HM: $r = .035$ [$p = .092$].
H₄₅ There will be a statistically strong relationship between respondent's household size and all motives for consuming conspicuous products	Partially Supported	HM: $r = -.026$ [$p = .207$], SM: $r = -.018$ [$p = .384$], HM: $r = -.015$ [$p = .461$], CM: $r = -.073$ [$p = .000$]

5.6. Practical and Theoretical Implication

This paper explains why some products are purchased for conspicuous consumption at prices significantly above producer's marginal costs. This explanation relies on modeling conspicuous consumption as a signaling game in which affluent people consume conspicuously as a way to signal their wealth to society in order to gain higher social status. In particular, this research empirically investigated a previously under-researched area of consumer behaviour: Whether differences exist in consumer motives for the consumption of conspicuous products and how those motives are influenced by respondents' cultural values and their demographic-characteristics.

The conventional theories of consumer behaviour do not accommodate conspicuous consumption due to the 'irrational' (psychological) nature of such consumption. However, the modern social scientists extensively recognized that all or almost all individuals place a greater value on social recognition than utilitarian benefits of their consumption. From this deep-rooted proposition, it easily follows that many consumers might purchase certain items, whether consciously or unconsciously, for the purpose of enjoying status benefits through demonstrating their affluence to the public. Therefore, social effect may be significant in markets, particularly for conspicuous goods. This research finding confirmed that the individuals' purchasing behaviour of expensive products, such as luxury vehicles, bigger houses, designer apparels, gold jewellerys, and expensive mobile phones are highly influenced by their motive for demonstrating their privileged circumstances and the social status they hold.

This thesis presents a refined model of consumer motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. Prior research had suggested that a five factor model would be

appropriate for representing consumer motives for consuming conspicuously (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). The results of this research suggest that a four factor model, comprising status motive, uniqueness motive, hedonic motive, and conformist motive, is a better representation of the different forms of motives for consuming conspicuous products. The key difference between this research, and the proposition of Vigneron and Johnson (1999), was that value motive did not consider as an important motive category.

The results obtained in this research appear to support the previously untested proposition, that consumers possess both interpersonal and symbolic motives (status and uniqueness) and personal motives (hedonic and conformist). This suggests that consumers are mindful of the social value of conspicuous products and the personal benefits that might accrue from consuming these products.

This research produced some surprising results. At the outset it was assumed that respondents' cultural values and their demographic characteristics are strongly influenced on conspicuous consumption motives. This research confirms strong causality relationship among independent variables (cultural value dimension and respondents' demographic characteristics) and dependent variable (motives for consuming conspicuous products) cannot be understood from correlation analysis. It indicates that there are other influences on motives for consuming conspicuous products, other than cultural orientation of respondents and their demographic characteristics. Since causality relationship cannot be implied from correlation analyses, a series of multiple regressions were performed to investigate the influence of independent predictors on dependent variable.

This research suggests that of the four forms of motives for consuming conspicuous products identified in this study, respondents attached the least importance to conformist motive and the highest importance to hedonic motive. Further, it indicates that uniqueness and status motives have emerged as second and third important motives for the consumption of conspicuous products. In overall, a significant difference existed between the different nationalities in motives for conspicuous consumption.

It was interesting to note that no significant difference existed between the Sinhalese and Indian Tamils in terms of uniqueness motive. Yet, Sri Lankan Tamils were more inclined towards uniqueness motive than the Muslim respondents. Moreover, there was no significant difference emerged between Muslims and Sri Lankan Tamils in terms of hedonic motive. Indian Tamils were more tended towards hedonic motive than the Sinhalese. Sri Lankan Tamils were also slightly more inclined towards hedonic motive than the Muslims, although this was not a significant difference.

This research also illustrates that a significant difference existed between different nationalities in respect of both status and conformist motives for conspicuous consumption. It discloses that both the Sri Lankan and the Indian Tamils attached significantly more importance to conformist and status motives for consuming conspicuous products than the Sinhalese and Muslims.

Once the motives for conspicuous consumption were identified, they have been compared the respondents different cultural value orientations. Five cultural value dimensions, which proposed by Hofstede (1980) were used in this study. These five dimensions of cultural orientation appear to have substantial predictive ability for the

consumption of conspicuous products. Results confirmed a significant difference between different nationalities in terms of their cultural value orientations

It was exciting to note that no significant difference existed between the Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils in importance placed on power distance. Sinhalese were slightly less inclined towards power distance than the Tamils. However, Muslims have placed considerably high importance on this cultural orientation. In terms of masculinity vs. femininity, no significant difference emerged between Sinhalese and Sri Lankan Tamils. Both Muslims and Indian Tamils were more persuaded towards masculinity than the Sinhalese and the Sri Lankans Tamils. Besides, Indian Tamils were more tended towards masculinity than the Muslim respondents.

This research also illustrates that a significant difference existed between different nationalities in respect of both cultural orientations towards individualism and uncertainty avoidance. Yet, it showed that both Indian and Sri Lankan Tamils attached significantly more importance to individualism than the Sinhalese and Muslims. Surprisingly, no significant difference was found between the Sinhalese and Muslims in terms of long-term vs. short-term cultural orientation. Both nationalities have placed high importance on long-term orientation. However, it discloses that the Indian Tamils also attached significantly more importance to long-term orientation and Sri Lankan attached significantly more importance to short-term orientation.

In respect of status motive, the presence of PDI, IDV, MAS and UAI cultural orientations was related to this form of motive. Status motive was negatively influenced by orientation towards UAI and positively influenced by PDI and MAS. LTO had no relationship with status motive. This illustrated that status motive is influenced by an individual's power distance, individualism, masculinity, and

uncertainty avoidance cultural orientations, not by their orientation on long-term vs. short-term.

Uniqueness motive was positively influenced by cultural orientation towards IDV, MAS, and LTO and negatively influenced by PDI. It is remarkable to note that, UAI had no relationship with uniqueness motive. Accordingly, four cultural value dimensions (PDI, IDV, MAS and LTO) were contributed significantly to the prediction of uniqueness motive for consuming conspicuous products. Result further specifies that IDV, MAS, UAI and LTO contribute significantly to the prediction of hedonic motive for consuming conspicuous products. Hedonic motive was negatively influenced by cultural orientation towards PDI and MAS, and positively influenced by LTO and UAI. But, no relationship existed between individual's orientation towards IDV and hedonic motive for conspicuous consumption. PDI and LTO were identified as the two form of cultural orientation that holds no relationship with conformist motive. The IDV and MAS, both positively influenced the extent of conformist motive, and UAI negatively influenced conformist motive.

On the other hand, when consider the relationship between the respondents demographic characteristics and their motives for the consumption of conspicuous products, a significantly positive relationship was found between both respondent's monthly-income and age with all form of motives.

The implications in the reported research provide guidance on how marketers should be engaging with their customers to leverage the motives for conspicuous consumption. The results summarized above, together with other findings in the study provide practical insights into both cultural value differences and differences in respondents' demographic in consumer motives for consuming conspicuous product.

The four-factor model of consumer motives for consuming conspicuous products proposed in this research can serve as a basis for future research into the phenomenon of conspicuous product consumption. By means of Q-sort methodology, an original set of scales was also developed for the measurement of these motives for consuming conspicuously.

An implication of the theory of conspicuous consumption is that families spend relatively more on conspicuous products as their incomes rise. The demand for conspicuous products that offer potential purchasers benefits in terms of the enhanced social status is dependent on other consumers' purchasing behaviour. Therefore, individuals purchase conspicuous products in order to garner the status benefits - either the "*feeling of exclusivity*" or the "*feeling of being in the 'in' crowd*".

Besides, the consumption of conspicuous products has conventionally been considered the preserve of the upper class of society. Non-elite consumers are often not regarded as groups that would be consumers of conspicuous products. However, the results presented in this research propose that even less affluent individuals are regular consumers of products that they consider to be conspicuous. This implies that marketers should address both elite and non-elite consumers' desire for pecuniary emulation by emphasizing the status benefits conferred by owning the certain goods consumed by the "higher" classes.

Interestingly, the majority propose that consumers are engaged in conspicuous consumption to distinguish them from others in the same society. Sometime consumers may be motivated by several motives than one specific. For example, Hema's (2012) study on '*how model fashion can work as a social device among stylish consumers*' reveals that people use model fashion in order to fit in with their

peers, to differentiates themselves, and to socially interact. This research also confirms that consumers hold four motives for consuming conspicuous products: uniqueness motive, status motive, hedonic motive, and conformist motive. The impact of these motives probably varies with the respondents' nationality. Understanding the factual impact of these motives might help marketers in designing their promotional plans in conspicuous product markets.

5.7. Future Direction

Several potential, useful, and interesting future research directions have emerged from this research. Some of the major possibilities are noted as follows.

This research explained the impact of both respondents' cultural value orientations and their demographic characteristics on motives for conspicuous consumption among different nationalities. Since the outcome of the research shows that some of the cultural values and demographic characteristics significantly affect how individual consume conspicuously, future research could look at the difference ways of conspicuous consumption among different ethnic groups. Also, as consumer behaviors differ from market to market, future research could examine the conspicuous consumption in different markets, for instance, vehicle market, clothes market, property market.

This research covers only four districts, hence, it would be interesting to extend the same study in different provinces. This would allow exploring the cross-provincial variation both in the cultural visibility of expenditures and in the extent to which individuals' engage in conspicuous consumption.

The result indicates that causality relationship among the independent variable (CVDs & RDCs) and the dependent variable (conspicuous motives) cannot be understood from correlation analysis. Therefore, it is interesting to discover the other influences on motives for consuming conspicuous products, other than cultural orientation of respondents and their demographic characteristics.

The results of this research also suggest future research directions relating to motives for consuming conspicuous products. The current research was considered only four motives, whereas some other scholars such as, Vigneron and Johnson (1999), Allison (2008), Hemas (2012) have identified more motives for conspicuous consumption. Extension of this study to additional conspicuous motives would enhance the generalisability of the findings.

5.8. Limitations of Research

As with any research, this study has a number of limitations, and the results must be interpreted in light of these. As such, several theoretical and practical limitations must be mentioned.

Generalisability of the results of this study is clearly a concern. Respondents to the survey were selected from four districts, Hambantota, Puttlam, Nuwara Eliya, and Vauniya. By limiting this research to a four districts, the importance of different forms of motives for consuming conspicuous products may have been misrepresented. In particular, as this research is focused on conspicuous consumption among the urban population, the major districts in different provinces such as Colombo, Kandy, Kurunegala, and Galle could have been included in the sample.

Since the selection of the sample was purely based on the ethnicity distribution, it has totally ignored average income of the respondents. The statistics of the Central bank confirmed that the average incomes of these four districts are lower than the country average. Because of limited incomes, these respondents' answers may have been in respect of products that perceived as being within their realm of affordability. They may not have been considering the sorts of products that might be considered as conspicuous product by more affluent sectors of society. However, respondents did indicate that they were consumers of conspicuous products, and as such are qualified for research into conspicuous consumption.

A further limitation exists in terms of the measurement of consumer motives and cultural orientation, and the scales used (Allison, 2008). Whilst greater effort was made to develop a reliable and valid measure of the different forms of motives for consuming conspicuous products, there are several weaknesses that are apparent. First, the scale development process has not established a generalisable measure. The scale has only been validated in this study. Subsequent use of the scale may produce different results. It may have been possible to avoid this limitation by employing an even more extended scale development process.

A final limitation of this study was that respondents' demographics perception was not properly formulated. It was a deliberate decision not to include any intervene variable, as it was felt that consumers make their own subjective judgements as to what is a conspicuous, just based on their demographic characteristics. Therefore, respondents' motives for the consumption of conspicuous products were merely compared with their demographic characteristics.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: LIST OF REFERENCES

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APPENDIX B: CITED JOURNAL LIST

Journal of Informetrics (2010)^a provides a ranking of 69 marketing journals using an objective measure of journal impact, the Google Scholar-based hg-index.

Table 1: Ranked list of 69 Selected Marketing Journals

Full title (acronym)	Citations 2003–2007		hg- index ^b 2003– 2007	Full title (acronym)	Citations 2003–2007		hg- index 2003– 2007
	Score	Rank			Score	Rank	
Journal of Marketing (JM)*	12,595	01	01	Journal of Consumer Behaviour (JCB)	1,095	36	38
Journal of Consumer Research (JCR)*	9,432	02	02	Journal of Marketing Education (JME)	1,087	37	33
Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*	7,435	03	03	Journal of Public Policy & Marketing (JPPM)*	1,024	38	32
Industrial Marketing Management (IMM)*	7,151	04	05	Qualitative Market Research (QMR)	963	39	34
Marketing Science (MS)*	6,307	05	04	International Journal of Market Research (IJMR)*	935	40	39
European Journal of Marketing (EJM)*	5,077	06	08	Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management (JPSSM)	903	41	43
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (JAMS)*	4,259	07	06	Journal of Financial Services Marketing (JFSM)	796	42	46
Psychology and Marketing (PM)*	3,565	08	11	International Review of Retail, Distribution, and Consumer Research (IRRDCR)	796	42	46
Journal of Product Innovation Management (JPIM)*	3 487	09	07	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice (JMTP)	763	44	43
Journal of Consumer Psychology (JCP)*	3,345	10	08	Journal of Consumer Policy (JCPol)	748	45	40
Journal of Service Research (JSR)*	3,014	11	10	International Journal of Bank Marketing (IJBm)	720	46	42
Journal of Retailing (JR)*	2,912	12	12	International Journal of Advertising (IJA)*	700	47	45
Journal of Advertising Research (JAR)*	2,878	13	15	Journal of Strategic Marketing (JStrM)	654	48	49
International Journal of Research in Marketing (IJRM)*	2,590	14	13	Academy of Marketing Science Review (AMSR)	515	49	46
Journal of Services Marketing (JSM)*	2,580	15	17	Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management (JDMCSM)	490	50	50
International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management (IJRDM)	2,416	16	20	Consumption, Markets, & Culture (CMC)	471	51	51
Journal of Interactive Marketing (JIM)*	2,387	17	13	Journal of Marketing Communications (JMC)	430	52	52
Managing Service Quality (MSQ)	2,225	18	18	Marketing Education Review (MER)	353	53	55
International Journal of Service Industry Management (IJSIM)*	2,108	19	16	Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics (APJML)	320	54	58
Journal of Consumer Marketing (JCM)	2,104	20	21	Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing (JNPPSM)	315	55	56
Journal of Advertising (JA)*	2,063	21	19	Journal of Business to Business Marketing (JBBM)*	295	56	53

International Marketing Review (IMR)*	1.740	22	23	Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising (JCIRA)	267	57	56
Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services (JRCS)	1.690	23	30	Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior (JCSDCB)	243	58	53
Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing (JBIM)*	1.660	24	29	Journal of Promotion Management (JPM)	219	59	59
Journal of Macro-marketing (JMacroM)	1.532	25	25	Journal of International Consumer Marketing (JICM)	218	60	64
Journal of Product & Brand Management (JPBM)	1.532	25	26	Journal of Relationship Marketing (JRM)	214	61	61
Journal of Marketing Management (JMM)	1.509	27	33	Services Marketing Quarterly (SMQ)	209	62	62
Service Industries Journal (SIJ)*	1.451	28	41	Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)	205	63	59
Marketing Intelligence and Planning (MIP)	1.415	29	34	Journal of Global Marketing (JGM)	192	64	62
Journal of Brand Management (JBM)	1.396	30	31	Journal of Marketing Channels (JMChan)	159	65	65
Journal of International Marketing (JITM)*	1.339	31	23	Marketing Management Journal (MMJ)	135	66	67
Quantitative Marketing and Economics (QME)*	1.288	32	22	Journal of Euromarketing (JE)	113	67	66
Journal of Consumer Affairs (JCA)*	1.243	33	28	Journal of Direct, Data and Digital Marketing Practice (JDDDMPP)	85	68	68
Marketing Theory (MT)	1.215	34	26	Asian Journal of Marketing (AJM)	10	69	69
Marketing Letters (ML)*	1.128	35	37				
<i>Journals with an asterisk (*) are the ones indexed in the SSCI.</i>							

^a see: Salim Moussa, & Mourad Touzani, (2010), Ranking marketing journals using the Google Scholar-based hg-index, Journal of Informetrics 4, pp107-17

^b *h*-index as an indicator built to consider both the actual scientific productivity and the scientific impact of a scientist, while the *g*-index considers both over-cited outliers and overall citation consistency. The hg-index of a journal is computed as the geometric mean of its *h* and *g* indices

APPENDIX C: LITERATURE MATRIX

Journal of Marketing [ISSN 0022-2429] Published by: American Marketing Association														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 76	Vol. 75	Vol. 74	Vol. 73	Vol. 72	Vol. 71	Vol. 70	Vol. 69	Vol. 68	Vol. 67	Vol. 66	Vol. 65	Vol. 64
No 1	January													
No 2	March													
No 3	May				X ¹									
No 4	July		X ²	X ³										
No 5	Sept.													
No 6	Nov.													

Industrial Marketing Management [ISSN: 0019-8501] Published by: ELSEVIER American Marketing Ass.														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 41	Vol. 40	Vol. 39	Vol. 38	Vol. 37	Vol. 36	Vol. 35	Vol. 34	Vol. 33	Vol. 32	Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29
No 1	January													Jan.
No 2	Feb.													Mar.
No 3	April													May
No 4	May													July
No 5	July													Sep.
No 6	August													Nov.
No 7	October													
No 8	Nov.													

Journal of Consumer Research [0093-5301] Published by: the University of Chicago Press																
Issue No		2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	Issue No		2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000	
		Vol. 38	Vol. 37	Vol. 36	Vol. 35	Vol. 34			Vol. 33	Vol. 32	Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	
1	June	X ⁴	X ⁵				1	June		x						
2	Aug.			X ⁶	X ⁷	X ⁸	2	Sept.	X ⁹	X ¹⁰					X ¹¹	

- ¹ Nina Diamond, John F Sherry Jr. Albert M Muñiz Jr. Mary Ann McGrath, Robert V Kozinets, and Stefania Borghini, (2009), American Girl and the Brand Gestalt: Closing the Loop on Socio-cultural Branding Research, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 73, No. 3, pp. 118-134.
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- ³ Young Jee Han, Joseph C Nunes, and Xavier Drèze, (2010), Signalling Status with Luxury Goods: The Role of Brand Prominence, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 74, No. 4, pp. 15-30
- ⁴ Nailya Ordabayeva, & Pierre Chandon, (2011), Getting Ahead of the Joneses: When Equality Increases Conspicuous Consumption among Bottom-Tier Consumers, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 38, No. 1, (June), pp. 27-41
- ⁵ Tuba Üstüner, & Douglas B. Holt, (2010), Toward a Theory of Status Consumption in Less Industrialized Countries, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 37, No. 1, (June), pp. 37-56
- ⁶ Haksin Chan, Lisa C. Wan, & Leo Y. M. Sin, (2009), The Contrasting Effects of Culture on Consumer Tolerance: Interpersonal Face and Impersonal Fate, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 36, No. 2, (August), pp. 292-304
- ⁷ Michael W. Allen, Richa Gupta, & Arnaud Monnier, (2008), The Interactive Effect of Cultural Symbols and Human Values on Taste Evaluation, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 35, No. 2, (August) pp. 294-308
- ⁸ Jonah Berger, & Chip Heath, (2007), Where Consumers Diverge from Others: Identity Signalling and Product Domains, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 34, No. 2, (August), pp. 121-134
- ⁹ Dannie Kjeldgaard & Søren Askegaard, (2006), The Glocalization of Youth Culture: The Global Youth Segment as Structures of Common Difference, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 33, No. 2 (September), pp. 231-247
- ¹⁰ Jennifer J. Argo, Darren W. Dahl, & Rajesh V. Manchanda, (2005), The Influence of a Mere Social Presence in a Retail Context, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 32, No. 2 (September), pp. 207-212

3	Oct.						3	Dec.					X ¹²			
4	Dec.		X ¹³													
		2012	2011	2010	2009	2008			2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 38	Vol. 37	Vol. 36	Vol. 35	Vol. 34			Vol. 33	Vol. 32	Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26
5	Feb.	X ¹⁴	X ¹⁵				4	Mar.	X ¹⁶							
6	Aprl			X ¹⁷	X ¹⁸											

Journal of Marketing Research [ISSN 0022-2437] Published by: American Marketing Association												
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	Issue No	Month	2007	2006	2005	
		Vol.49	Vol.48	Vol.47	Vol.46	Vol.45			Vol.44	Vol.43	Vol.42	
No.1	Feb.				X ¹⁹		No.1	Feb.			X ²⁰	
No.2	April						No.2	May				
No.3	June		X ²¹				No.3	August		X ²²	X ²³	
No.4	August						No.4	Nov.				
No.5	October											
No.6	Dec.											
SI*												

*Special Issue

Journal of Consumer Behaviour [Online ISSN: 1479-1838 Print ISSN: 1472-0817] Published by: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005		2004	2003	2002	2001
		Vol. 11	Vol. 10	Vol. 09	Vol. 08	Vol. 07	Vol. 06	Vol. 05	Vol. 04		Vol. 3-4	Vol. 2-3	Vol. 1-2	Vol. 01
No 1	Jan./Feb													
No 2	March/Apr									No 3	X ²⁴	X ²⁵ X ²⁶		

- ¹¹ Donnel A. Briley, Michael W. Morris, & Itamar Simonson, (2000), Reasons as Carriers of Culture: Dynamic versus Dispositional Models of Cultural Influence on Decision Making, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 27, No. 2 (September), pp. 157-178
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- ¹⁵ Nicole L. Mead, Roy F. Baumeister, Tyler F. Stillman, & Catherine, (2011), The Social Exclusion Causes People to Spend and Consume Strategically in the Service of Affiliation, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 37, No. 5, (February), pp. 902-919
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- ¹⁸ Xavier Drèze, & Joseph C. Nunes, (2009), Feeling Superior: The Impact of Loyalty Programme Structure on Consumers' Perception of Status, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 35, No. 6, (April), pp. 890-905
- ¹⁹ Bianca Grohmann, (2009), Gender Dimensions of Brand Personality, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Volume 46, Number 1 (February)
- ²⁰ Wilfred Amaldoss & Sanjay Jain, (2005), Pricing of Conspicuous Goods: A Competitive Analysis of Social Effects, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Volume 42, Number 1 (February)
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- ²³ Haipeng Chen, Sharon N, and Akshay R. Rao, (2005), Cultural Differences in Consumer Impatience, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Volume 42, Number 3 (August)
- ²⁴ Maria Piacentini & Greig Mailer, (2004), Symbolic consumption in teenagers' clothing choices, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Volume 3, Issue 3, (March), pages 251-262, March

No 3	May/Jun									No 4	X ²⁷			
No 4	July/Aug		X ²⁸					X ²⁹						
No 5	Sept/Oct			X ³⁰					X ³¹	No 1	X ³² X ³³			
No 6	Nov/Dec					X ³⁴			X ³⁵	No 2				

Journal of Psychology & Marketing [Print ISSN 0742-6046, Online ISSN 1520-6793] Published by: Wiley Periodicals, Inc.														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26	Vol. 25	Vol. 24	Vol. 23	Vol. 22	Vol. 21	Vol. 20	Vol. 19	Vol. 18	Vol. 17
No 1	Jan.				X ³⁶									
No 2	Feb.									X ³⁷				
No 3	March	X ³⁸												
No 4	April													
No 5	May													
No 6	June													
No.7	July				X ³⁹									
No. 8	August				X ⁴⁰									
No.9	Sept		X ⁴¹ X ⁴²											

- ²⁵ Michel Laroche, Nicolas Papadopoulos, Louise Heslop, & Jasmin Bergeron, (2003), Effects of sub-cultural differences on country and product evaluations, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Volume 2, Issue 3, (March), pages 232–247
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- ³⁷ Jing Xu, Soyeon Shim, Sherry Lotz, & David Almeida, (2004), Ethnic identity, socialization factors, and culture-specific consumption behavior, *Journal Psychology and Marketing*, Volume 21, Issue 2, (February), pages 93–112
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- ³⁹ Klaus-Peter Wiedmann, Nadine Hennigs, & Astrid Siebels, (2009), Value-based segmentation of luxury consumption behaviour, *Journal of Psychology and Marketing*, Volume 26, Issue 7, (July), pages 625–651
- ⁴⁰ Hye-Jung Park, & Nancy J. Rabolt, (2009), Cultural value, consumption value, and global brand image: A cross-national study, *Journal of Psychology and Marketing*, Volume 26, Issue 8, (August), pages 714–735

No.10	Oct											X ⁴³		X ⁴⁴ X ⁴⁵	X ⁴⁶
No.11	Nov														
No.12	Dec		X ⁴⁷ X ⁴⁸												

Journal of Consumer Psychology [ISSN 1057-7408] Published by: ELSEVIER														
Issue No	Month	2012 Vol. 22	2011 Vol. 21	2010 Vol. 20	2009 Vol. 19	2008 Vol. 18	2007 Vol. 17	2006 Vol. 16	2005 Vol. 15	2004 Vol. 14	2003 Vol. 13	2002 Vol. 12	2001 Vol. 11	2000 Vol. 10
No 1	January							X ⁴⁹						
No 2	April		X ⁵⁰		X ⁵¹									
No 3	July													
No 4	Oct.							X ⁵² X ⁵³ X ⁵⁴						

Marketing Science [ISSN 0732-2399] Published by: Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences															
Issue No		2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	Period	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26	Vol. 25		Vol. 24	Vol. 23	Vol. 22	Vol. 21	Vol. 20	Vol. 19
1	Jan/Feb	X ⁵⁵							Winter						
2	Mar/Apr		X ⁵⁶						Spring						
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Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26	Vol. 25	Vol. 24	Vol. 23	Vol. 22	Vol. 21	Vol. 20	Vol. 19	Vol. 18	Vol. 17
No 1			X ⁵⁸	X ⁵⁹ X ⁶⁰ X ⁶¹								X ⁶²		
No 2		X ⁶³ X ⁶⁴ X ⁶⁵		X ⁶⁶	X ⁶⁷	X ⁶⁸				X ⁶⁹	X ⁷⁰			
No 3			X ⁷¹	X ⁷²	X ⁷³		X ⁷⁴		X ⁷⁵			X ⁷⁶		
No 4			X ⁷⁷	X ⁷⁸ X ⁷⁹		X ⁸⁰								

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No 5						X ⁸¹			X ⁸²			X ⁸³		
No 6						X ⁸⁴	X ⁸⁵	X ⁸⁶		X ⁸⁷	X ⁸⁸	X ⁸⁹	X ⁹⁰	X ⁹¹
No 7			X ⁹² X ⁹³		X ⁹⁴									

The Journal of Research for Consumers' [ISSN 1444-6359] Published by: American Marketing Association												
Issue No	Month	2012	2011		2010		2009	2008		2007		2006
		Vol. 21	Vol. 20	Vol. 19	Vol. 18	Vol. 17	Vol. 16	Vol. 15	Vol. 14	Vol. 13	Vol. 12	Vol. 11
No 1									X ⁹⁵			

International Journal of Consumer Studies [ISSN 1470-6431] Published by: Blackwell Publishing Ltd														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 36	Vol. 35	Vol. 34	Vol. 33	Vol. 32	Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26	Vol. 25	Vol. 24
No 1	January		X ⁹⁶		X ⁹⁷							March	March	March
No 2	March	X ⁹⁸ X ⁹⁹ X ¹⁰⁰												

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No 3	May									June	June	June	June	June
No 4	July					X ¹⁰¹								X ¹⁰²
No 5	September						X ¹⁰³			X ¹⁰⁴				
No 6	November		X ¹⁰⁵									Dec	Dec	Dec

Journal of Consumer Culture [ISSN] Published by: SAGE Publication														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 12	Vol. 11	Vol. 10	Vol. 09	Vol. 08	Vol. 07	Vol. 06	Vol. 05	Vol. 04	Vol. 03	Vol. 02	Vol. 01	
No 1	March		X ¹⁰⁶	X ¹⁰⁷				X ¹⁰⁸ X ¹⁰⁹	X ¹¹⁰	X ¹¹¹ X ¹¹²			X ¹¹³	
No 2	July				X ¹¹⁴									
No 3	November				X ¹¹⁵ X ¹¹⁶				X ¹¹⁷	X ¹¹⁸	X ¹¹⁹	X ¹²⁰ X ¹²¹		

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Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 35	Vol. 34	Vol. 33	Vol. 32	Vol. 31	Vol. 30	Vol. 29	Vol. 28	Vol. 27	Vol. 26	Vol. 25	Vol. 24	Vol. 23
No 1	March													
No 2	June			X ¹²²										
No 3	September												Vol. 34	
No 4	December											Vol. 34		

European Journal of Marketing [ISSN 0309-0566] Published by: Emerald Group Publishing Limited														
Issue No		2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 46	Vol. 45	Vol. 44	Vol. 43	Vol. 42	Vol. 41	Vol. 40	Vol. 39	Vol. 38	Vol. 37	Vol. 36	Vol. 35	Vol. 34
No	1/2													
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No	5/6			X ¹²³										
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No	11/12													

Journal of International Consumer Marketing [ISSN 1528-7068] Published by: American Marketing Association														
Issue No	Month	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
		Vol. 24	Vol. 23	Vol. 22	Vol. 21	Vol. 20	Vol. 19	Vol. 18	Vol. 17	Vol. 16	Vol. 15	Vol. 14	Vol. 13	Vol. 12
				2010	2009	2008	2007		2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
No 1		1-2						1-2						1999
No 2		X ¹²⁵	X ¹²⁶		X ¹²⁷				X ¹²⁸			2-3		
No 3			3-4			3-4		X ¹²⁹	3-4					
No 4			X ¹³⁰ X ¹³¹			X ¹³²			X ¹³³					

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APPENDIX D: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE

Guideline for the Focus Group Discussions	
01	Can you provide examples of products that you consider to be conspicuous? What sort of conspicuous products would you and your peers consider purchasing? Why do you consider these products to be conspicuous?
02	How is a conspicuous product different from a non- conspicuous product?
03	Are there situations where buying conspicuous products is important?
04	What is your opinion of products with a high price?
	▪ Prompt: <i>do you think that a high price tag has greater conspicuous than a low price tag?</i> ▪ Prompt: <i>how much of an increase in price would affect your desire to purchase a product</i>
05	What considerations would motivate you to consume a conspicuous product?
06	What do you imagine other people are thinking if they see you using conspicuous product?
	▪ Prompt: <i>how do you feel when people see you with a conspicuous product?</i> ▪ Prompt: <i>how do you feel when you see other people with conspicuous?</i> ▪ Prompt: <i>is it important whether or not people know that you have purchased a conspicuous product?</i>
07	Do you think that products that are different and unique are conspicuous?
08	Have you ever purchased a product because of its uniqueness?
	▪ Prompt: <i>do you consider this product to be a conspicuous?</i>
09	Would the purchase of a conspicuous product help you fit in with a group?
10	What effect would consuming a conspicuous product have on the way you think about yourself?
11	What role does quality have in determining whether a product is a conspicuous?
	▪ Prompt: <i>is it possible for a conspicuous product to be low-quality?</i>
12	Does enjoyment (or otherwise) of a product affect your perception of conspicuous?

APPENDIX E: Q-SORT EXERCISE AND INITIAL ITEM POOL

Impact of Cultural Values and Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption: A Cross-Cultural Study: A PhD Research Project

The exercise that you have been asked to assist with is one that is attempting to assess the face validity of a number of items that will be used to measure a series of constructs that are central to my research. This is an initial exercise in reducing the number of items that will be used.

Conspicuous Consumption

The following table contains a brief synopsis of different categories of motivation that might cause an individual to consume a conspicuous product:

Hedonic: feelings and affective status, intrinsic enjoyment

Conformity: social value (for self or for group) and conformity

Uniqueness: scarcity, exclusivity, and distinction

Status: display of wealth and status

A
B
C
D

* Usefulness 1 (not at all useful) to 5 (extremely useful)

** CPs - Conspicuous Products

		Category				Usefulness*				
1	I am very attracted to rare items	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am interested in new products with status	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am attracted to CPs that are socially acceptable	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am more likely to purchase CP that I would enjoy	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
5	I value the ability of a CP to make me feel special	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
6	The performance of a CP is my major reason for purchase	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
7	I would be more likely to purchase a CP if it would help me to mix in the right circles	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
8	It don't care what people think of the products that I buy (negatively worded)	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
9	I tend to be a fashion leader rather than a fashion follower	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
10	I prefer the CPs that my friends and / or family already own	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
		Category				Usefulness*				
11	I tend to evaluate whether a CP is value for money before purchasing it	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
12	A CP is more valuable to me if it has the ability to make me feel better about myself	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
13	A CP is worth more to me if it is elitist	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
14	I am more likely to buy a product if it is scarce	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
15	It is important that people know that a CP I own was expensive	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
16	CPs help me conform to the expectations of my peers	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
17	I am very attracted to CPs that stimulate the senses	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
18	CPs should give me pleasure	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
19	The CPs that I purchase are functionally superior to similar product offerings	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
20	I feel more socially acceptable if I possess a conspicuous good as compared with inconspicuous good	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
		Category				Usefulness*				
21	I would buy a CP just because it has status	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
22	I would prefer to have things custom-made rather than ready made	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
23	I expect that a CP will outperform a inconspicuous product	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
24	I enjoy having things that others do not	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5

25	It is important that I advertise my success by owning and using CPs	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
26	Beauty is an important attribute of the CP	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
27	It is not a conspicuous if I don't enjoy it	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
28	A CP has a superior standard of workmanship	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
29	I feel envious if my neighbour has better quality goods than I own	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
30	It is likely that I would upgrade a product that I own if someone I know possessed a more conspicuous version	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
		Category				Usefulness*				
31	I rarely pass up the opportunity to order custom features on the products I buy	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
32	A conspicuous is worth the extra expense if people think it is a status product	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
33	Purchasing an inferior product is not economical	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
34	My reason for consuming conspicuously is that it puts me in a good mood	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
35	Sometimes I am ashamed of products I own because others own better	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
36	People are more likely to accept me if they see me with a CP	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
37	I hope people think I am wealthy when they see me with a CP	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
38	I like to try new products and services before others do	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
39	I try to improve my social standing through the products that I purchase	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
40	Sometimes it is necessary to purchase a CP to gain membership of a group	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
		Category				Usefulness*				
41	I would not purchase a conspicuous product if I wasn't going to get enjoyment from using it	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
42	If my friend buys something expensive I will also buy something expensive	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
43	I enjoy shopping at stores that carry merchandise that is different and unusual	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
44	I would buy a CP product that gives me an experience that you can't get from inconspicuous products	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5
45	A conspicuous product should provide you with a thrill	A	B	C	D	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your assistance. Please feel free to add any comments below.

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PhD Student, Wayamba University of Sri Lanka

APPENDIX F: QUESTIONNAIRE [ENGLISH & SINHALA VERSIONS]

QUESTIONNAIRE

Impact of Cultural Values and Consumer Demographics on Conspicuous Consumption: A Cross-Cultural Study: A PhD Research Project

SECTION - A: CONSUMER DEMOGRAPHICS

01	Res' Sex	Male	☐	Female	☐
02	Civil Status	Married	☐	Unmarried	☐
				Divorce	☐
03	Family Size				
04	Race	Sinhalese	☐	Muslim	☐
		Malays	☐	Other	☐
05	Religion	Buddhist	☐	Hindus	☐
				Islamic	☐
				Christians	☐
06	Living Place	Urban	☐	Semi-Urban	☐
				Rural	☐
07	Respondents' Age	15-19 yrs	☐	20-24 yrs	☐
		35-39 yrs	☐	40-44 yrs	☐
		55-59 yrs	☐	60-64 yrs	☐
		75-79 yrs	☐	80-84 yrs	☐
				25-29 yrs	☐
				45-49 yrs	☐
				65-69 yrs	☐
				85 yrs & <	☐
08	Education	<= 8	☐	G.C.E. (O/L)	☐
		Professional	☐	Degree	☐
				Post Graduate	☐
				Diploma	☐
				Other	☐
09	Occupation	Government	☐	Private	☐
				Self Employee	☐
				Unemployed	☐
	Job title				
10	Monthly Income (Rs.'000)	<10	☐	10-20	☐
		40-50	☐	50-60	☐
		80-90	☐	90-100	☐
		150-175	☐	175-200	☐
		300-350	☐	350-400	☐
				20-30	☐
				60-70	☐
				100-125	☐
				200-250	☐
				400-450	☐
				30-40	☐
				70-80	☐
				125-150	☐
				250-300	☐
				450<	☐

SECTION B: MOTIVES FOR CONSUMING CONSPICUOUS GOODS

In the following survey, the conspicuous products refer to personal conspicuous products which include luxury automobiles, branded clothing, comfort homes and mobile phones. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree (SD) **1** Disagree (DA) **2** Neither Agree nor Disagree (AD) **3** Agree (AG) **4** Strong Agree (SA) **5**

11. VEBLEN EFFECTS (where quantity demanded for a good may increase with price)		1	2	3	4	5
a	You prefer to purchase high-priced products					
b	Product price is openly displaying wealth					
c	You can gain social status by displaying wealth					
d	Satisfaction derives not from the utilitarian attributes but mainly from audience reaction to the wealth displayed by the purchaser					
12. SNOB EFFECTS (other's demand reduces own demand)		1	2	3	4	5
a	You decrease you consumption as others increase their consumption					
Q. 14.1, 14.2, 14.3						
13. BANDWAGON EFFECTS (other's demand increases own demand)		1	2	3	4	5

a	You prefer to purchase goods in order to be identified with a particular social group					
b	You can conform to them by adopting similar patterns of consumption					
c	The social influences on consumer behaviour affect demand					

14. Listed below are a variety of statements relating to the purchase of conspicuous goods (CPG). Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree (SD) **1** Disagree (DA) **2** Neither Agree nor Disagree (AD) **3** Agree (AG) **4** Strong Agree (SA) **5**

UNIQUE		1	2	3	4	5
14.1	I am attracted to rare things					
14.2	I enjoy shopping at stores that carry merchandise that is unusual					
14.3	I am more likely to buy a CPG if it is unique					
14.4	I tend to be a fashion leader rather than a fashion follower					
14.5	I value the ability of a CPG to make me feel special					
STATUS		1	2	3	4	5
14.6	It is important that I advertise my success by owning CPGs					
14.7	I hope people think I am wealthy when they see me with a CPGs					
14.8	It is important that people know that a CPG that I own was expensive					
14.9	A CPG is worth more if people think it is a status product					
14.10	People are more likely to accept me if they see me with a CPG					
HEDONIC		1	2	3	4	5
14.11	I am more likely to purchase CPG that I would enjoy					
14.12	My reason for consuming CPG is that it puts me in a good mood					
14.13	CPGs should give me pleasure					
14.14	The performance of a CPG is my major reason for purchase					
14.15	I prefer the CPGs that my friends already own					
CONFORMIST		1	2	3	4	5
14.16	Sometimes it is necessary to purchase a CPG to gain membership of a group					
14.17	CPGs help me conform to the expectations of my peers					
14.18	Sometimes I am ashamed of products I own because others own better					
14.19	I am very attracted to CPGs that stimulate the senses					
14.20	I feel more socially acceptable if I possess a CPG as compared with inconspicuous good					

15. Reasons for conspicuous consumption: *because of it helps you to*

15.1	to impress upon others that one possesses wealth or status	1	2	3	4	5
15.2	to displaying a higher status than others	1	2	3	4	5
15.3	to impress others with the ability to pay particular high prices	1	2	3	4	5
15.4	to creates social opportunities & social interaction	1	2	3	4	5
15.5	to distinguish them from others	1	2	3	4	5
15.6	to enjoy social utility	1	2	3	4	5
15.7	Any other reason/s					

16. Identify the most conspicuous 5 products from the following list and rank them 1 to 5 in ascending order

Designer clothing	Luxury automobiles	Bigger home	Furniture & equipments	CD players
Cell phones	Wine & champagne	Sports equipment	Lipsticks & perfumes	Shoes
Wristwatches	Gold jewelry	Others		

SECTION C: CULTURAL VALUES

17. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with the following statements pertaining to your own perceptions of Hofstede's Dimensions. There are no right or wrong answers – merely mark the number that best reflects your views. For example: How do you rate "Inequality among people should be minimized"? Answer: "Strongly Agree".

Strongly Disagree (SD) **1** Disagree (DA) **2** Neither Agree nor Disagree (AD) **3** Agree (AG) **4** Strong Agree (SA) **5**

STATEMENT In my culture we believe in the following values:	Select one only				
	SD	DA	AD	AG	SA
Power distance (PDI)	SD		↔		SA
1. Inequalities among people are both expected and desired	1	2	3	4	5
2. Less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful	1	2	3	4	5
3. Inequalities among people should be minimized	1	2	3	4	5
4. There should be, and there is to some extent, interdependencies between less and more powerful people	1	2	3	4	5
Individualism (IDV)	SD		↔		SA
5. Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only	1	2	3	4	5
6. People are identified independently of the groups they belong to	1	2	3	4	5
7. An extended family member should be protected by other members in exchange for loyalty	1	2	3	4	5
8. People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong	1	2	3	4	5
Masculinity (MAS)	SD		↔		SA
9. Money and material things are important	1	2	3	4	5
10. Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough	1	2	3	4	5
11. Dominant values in society are the caring for others and preservation of life	1	2	3	4	5
12. Both men and woman are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships	1	2	3	4	5
Uncertainty avoidance (UAV)	SD		↔		SA
13. High stress and subjective feelings of anxiety are frequent among people	1	2	3	4	5
14. Fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks is normal	1	2	3	4	5
15. Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes	1	2	3	4	5
16. Emotions should not be shown	1	2	3	4	5
Long-Term orientation (LTO)	SD		↔		SA
17. Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose is normal	1	2	3	4	5
18. People should be perseverant towards long-term results	1	2	3	4	5
19. Traditions should be respected	1	2	3	4	5
20. Social obligations should be respected	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Refined Hofstede Dimensions battery, adopted from Oliver *et al.* (1999/2000)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

Any Special Remarks

Province/District:		Filled by:		Questionnaire No:	
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ප්‍රශ්නාවලිය

සංස්කෘතික වටිනාකම් සහ පාරිභෝගික ප්‍රජාව්‍යාත්මක සාධක වලින් පුද්ගල "සමාජ-ප්‍රදර්ශන භාණ්ඩ සහ සේවා පරිභෝජනයට" කරන බලපෑම පිළිබඳ සමීක්ෂණය

පලමු කොටස (A)- පාරිභෝගිකයින්ගේ ප්‍රජාව්‍යාත්මක සාධක

01 ස්ත්‍රී / පුරුෂභාවය	පුරුෂ ☐	ස්ත්‍රී ☐			
02 විවාහක/අවිවාහක බව	විවාහක ☐	අවිවාහක ☐		දික්කසාද ☐	
03 කුටුම්භයේ ප්‍රමාණය					
04 ජාතිය	සිංහල ☐	මුස්ලිම් ☐	දෙමළ ☐	බර්ගර් ☐	
	මැලේ ☐	වෙනත් ☐			
05 ආගම	බුද්ධාගම ☐	හින්දු ☐	මුස්ලිම් ☐	ක්‍රිස්තියානි ☐	
06 පීච් වන ප්‍රදේශය	නාගරික ☐	අර්ධ නාගරික ☐	ග්‍රාමීය ☐		
07 වයස	15-19 yrs ☐	20-24 yrs ☐	25-29 yrs ☐	30-34 yrs ☐	
	35-39 yrs ☐	40-44 yrs ☐	45-49 yrs ☐	50-54 yrs ☐	
	55-59 yrs ☐	60-64 yrs ☐	65-69 yrs ☐	70-74 yrs ☐	
	75-79 yrs ☐	80-84 yrs ☐	85 & < ☐		
08 අධ්‍යාපනය	8 ශ්‍රේණිය දක්වා ☐	අපොස සා/පෙ ☐	අපොස උ/පෙ ☐	ඩිප්ලෝමා ☐	
	වෘත්තීය ☐	උපාධි ☐	පශ්චාත් උපාධි ☐	වෙනත් ☐	
09 රැකියාව	රාජ්‍ය ☐	පෞද්ගලික ☐	ස්වයං රැකියා ☐	රැකියාවක් නැත ☐	
	රැකියා තනතුරු නාමය 				
10 මාසික ආදායම රු. 000	<10 ☐	10-20 ☐	20-30 ☐	30-40 ☐	
	40-50 ☐	50-60 ☐	60-70 ☐	70-80 ☐	
	80-90 ☐	90-100 ☐	100-125 ☐	125-150 ☐	
	150-175 ☐	175-200 ☐	200-250 ☐	250-300 ☐	
	300-350 ☐	350-400 ☐	400-450 ☐	450< ☐	

දෙවන කොටස (B) - සමාජ-ප්‍රදර්ශන භාණ්ඩ පරිභෝජනය

මිනිසුන් තම සමාජ-තත්ත්වය බාහිර සමාජයට නිරාවරණය වන ආකාරයෙන් පාරිභෝජනයට පෙළඹෙන්නේ ඇයි? (උදාහරණ - සුබෝපභෝගි වාහන, වටිනා ඇඳුම් පැලඳුම්, විශාල නිවාස, වටිනා ජංගම දුරකථන යනාදිය) ඒ සම්බන්ධයෙන් පහත ප්‍රකාශන ඔබට දී ඇත. ඔබ එම ප්‍රකාශන සමග එකඟවේද - නොවේද යන්න සඳහන් කරන්න

කොහෙත්ම 1 නොඑකඟයි 2 එකඟ හෝ 3 නොඑකඟ නොවේ 4 එකඟයි 5 මුළුමනින්ම 5 එකඟයි

11. VEBLEN EFFECT (where quantity demanded for a good may increase with price)		1	2	3	4	5
a	ඉහල මිලක් සහිත භාණ්ඩ පරිභෝජනයට ඔබ වඩා කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
b	ඉහල මිලක් සහිත භාණ්ඩ පරිභෝජනයෙන් පාරිභෝගිකයාගේ ධනය බාහිර සමාජයට ප්‍රදර්ශනයවේ	1	2	3	4	5
c	ධනය බාහිර සමාජයට ප්‍රදර්ශනය කිරීමෙන් ඔබට සමාජයේ ඉහල තත්ත්වයක් ලැබේ	1	2	3	4	5
d	භාණ්ඩයකින් ලබන තෘප්තිය වැඩිපුරම ලැබෙන්නේ බාහිර සමාජයෙන් ඔබට ලැබෙන ප්‍රතිචාර අනුවය	1	2	3	4	5
12. SNOB EFFECTS (other's demand reduces own demand)		1	2	3	4	5
a	අනෙකුත් පුද්ගලයින් වැඩිපුර පරිභෝජනය කරන භාණ්ඩ මිලදී ගැනීමට මම අකැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
Q. 14.1, 14.2, 14.3						
13. BANDWAGON EFFECTS (other's demand increases own demand)		1	2	3	4	5
a	ඔබ යම් සමාජ කන්ඩායමකට අයත්වන හැඟවෙන භාණ්ඩ මිලදීගැනීමට වැඩිකැමැත්තක් දක්වයි	1	2	3	4	5
b	ඔබ යම් සමාජ කන්ඩායමක පරිභෝජන රටාවන් අනුගමනය කළ විට ඔබද එම කන්ඩායමට අයත්වේ	1	2	3	4	5

c	පාරිභෝගික වර්තාවට කරන සමාජ බලපෑම ඔබගේ භාණ්ඩ සහ සේවා ඉල්ලුමට බලපායි					
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14 "ප්‍රදර්ශක භාණ්ඩ" (conspicuous goods) මිලදීගැනීම සම්බන්ධයෙන් පහත ප්‍රකාශන ඔබට දී ඇත. ඔබ එම ප්‍රකාශන සමග එකඟවෙද - නොවේද යන්න සඳහන් කරන්න (ප්‍රකාශනවල "භාණ්ඩ" ලෙස සඳහන්ව ඇත්තේ "ප්‍රදර්ශක භාණ්ඩ" වලටය)

කොහෙත්ම **1** නොඑකඟයි **2** එකඟ හෝ නොඑකඟ නොවේ **3** එකඟයි **4** මුළුමනින්ම එකඟයි **5**

UNIQUE		1	2	3	4	5
14.1	සාපේක්ෂව හිඟ ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ මිලදීගැනීමට මම වඩා කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.2	නවීන පන්තියේ සහ නිතර දැකිය නොහැකි (unusual) භාණ්ඩ අලෙවිකරණ වෙළඳසැල් වලින් භාණ්ඩ මිලදීගැනීමට මම වඩා කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.3	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩක යම් අනන්‍යතාවක් (unique) ඇතිවිට එය මිලදී ගැනීමට මම වඩා කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.4	වෙනත් පුද්ගලයෙකුගේ මෝස්තරයක් අනුකරණයට වඩා මගේම නිර්මාණයකට මම කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.5	සමාජයේ මාව විශේෂිතයැයි හැඟීමක් ඇතිකරණ ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ සඳහා මම කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
STATUS		1	2	3	4	5
14.6	මම පරිහරනය කරන ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ මගින් මාගේ සාර්ථකත්වය අන් අයට විදහා දැක්වේ	1	2	3	4	5
14.7	මම පරිහරනය කරන ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ දකින සමාජය මම ධනවතෙකු ලෙස සිතයි	1	2	3	4	5
14.8	එම භාණ්ඩ වල පවතින ඉහල වටිනාකම සමාජය දැනගන්නවාට මම කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.9	එම භාණ්ඩ සමාජයේ වැදගත් පුද්ගලයින් පරිහරනයකරන භාණ්ඩ ලෙස දකිනවාට මම කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
14.10	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ පරිහරනය කරන විට සමාජය මාව වැඩිපුර පිළිගනී	1	2	3	4	5
HEDONIC		1	2	3	4	5
14.11	යම් ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩයක් විඳින්න හැකිනම් (enjoy) පමනක් එය මිලදීගැනීමට මම පෙළඹේ	1	2	3	4	5
14.12	මම ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ පරිහරණය කරන්නේ විමගින් මාව ප්‍රබෝධමත්ව තබන්නේනම් පමනි	1	2	3	4	5
14.13	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩයක් මට මානසික සතුටක් සහ ප්‍රීතියක් ලබාදිය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
14.14	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩයක් ලැබෙන මානසික උපයෝගිතාවට වඩා ක්‍රියාකාරී උපයෝගිතාව වැදගත්	1	2	3	4	5
14.15	මගේ මිත්‍රයින් පරිහරනය කරන ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ මිලදී ගැනීමට මමත් කැමතියි	1	2	3	4	5
CONFORMIST		1	2	3	4	5
14.16	ඉහල සමාජයේ සාමාජිකයෙකු විමටනම් ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ මිලදී ගැනීම වැදගත්වේ	1	2	3	4	5
14.17	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ පරිහරනයතුලින් මගේ සහාද්දයින්ගේ අපේක්ෂාවන් මට ඉටුකල හැකිය	1	2	3	4	5
14.18	අනෙකුත් අය වටිනා භාණ්ඩ පරිහරනය කරනවිට මා සතු භාණ්ඩ පිළිබඳ මට ලැජ්ජාවක් ඇතිවේ	1	2	3	4	5
14.19	මගේ හැඟීම් උත්දීපනය කරන ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ සඳහා මම ආකර්ෂණය වේ	1	2	3	4	5
14.20	ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ පරිහරනය කිරීමේදී මම සමාජය පිළිගත් පුද්ගලයෙකු යැයි හැඟීමක් මට ඇතිවේ	1	2	3	4	5

15. සමාජ-ප්‍රදර්ශක-භාණ්ඩ පරිභෝජනය කරන්නේ විමගින්

15.1	ඔබ ධනවත් සහ ඉහල සමාජ තත්ත්වයක් සහිත පුද්ගලයෙකු බව අන් අයට හැඟවීමට	1	2	3	4	5
15.2	ඔබගේ ඉහල සමාජ තත්ත්වයක් සමාජයට ප්‍රදර්ශනයට	1	2	3	4	5
15.3	ඔබට ඉහල මිලක් සහිත භාණ්ඩ මිලදීගත හැකිබව අන් අයට පෙන්වීමට	1	2	3	4	5
15.4	සාමාජීය අවස්ථාවන් සහ සාමාජීය බැඳීම් ඇතිකර ගැනීමට	1	2	3	4	5
15.5	අන් අයගෙන් ඔබ වෙන්කොට පෙන්වීමට	1	2	3	4	5
15.6	සාමාජීය උපයෝගිතාව භුක්ති විඳීමට	1	2	3	4	5
15.7	වෙනත් විශේෂිත හේතු					

16. පහත සඳහන් භාණ්ඩ අතරින් ඔබගේ සමාජ තත්ත්වය වැඩිපුර පෙන්විය හැකි භාණ්ඩ 5ක් අනුපිළිවලින් දක්වන්න

වටිනා ඇඳුම්-පැරණි	සුබෝපහේගි වාහන	විශාල නිවාස	ගෘහ භාණ්ඩ සහ උපකරන	CD යන්ත්‍ර
ජංගම දුරකථන	වයිෆි සහ ඡාම්පේන්	ක්‍රීඩා උපකරණ	සුවඳවිලවුන්/තොල් ආලේපන	සපත්තු
අත් ඔරලෝසු	රත්‍රං ආභරණ	වෙනත්		

තෙවන කොටස (C)- සංස්කෘතික වටිනාකම්

17. පුද්ගල සංස්කෘතික වටිනාකම් සම්බන්ධයෙන් පහත ප්‍රකාශන ඔබට දී ඇත. ඔබ එම ප්‍රකාශන සමග එකඟවේද - නොවේද යන්න සඳහන් කරන්න

කොහෙත්ම 1 නොඑකඟයි 2 එකඟ හෝ 3 නොඑකඟ නොවේ 4 එකඟයි 5 මුළුමනින්ම එකඟයි

ප්‍රකාශනය බෝහොමයක් සංස්කෘතීන් තුල පහත වටිනාකම් අප පිළිගනී	Select one only				
	1	2	3	4	5
17.1 Power distance (PDI)	SD ←→ SA				
a) පුද්ගලයින් අතර අසමානකම අප අපේක්ෂාකරන යහපත් තත්ත්වයකි	1	2	3	4	5
b) බලය අඩු පුද්ගලයා බලය වැඩි පුද්ගලයා මත යැපිය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
c) පුද්ගලයින් අතර අසමානකම අවම කලයුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
d) බලය අඩු සහ බලය වැඩි පුද්ගලයින් එකිනෙකා මත යැපිය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
17.2 Individualism (IDV)	SD ←→ SA				
a) සෑම පුද්ගලයෙකුගේම වගකීම වන්නේ තමන්ව සහ තමන්ට ඉතා සමීප ශ්‍රෝතීන් බලාගැනීමයි	1	2	3	4	5
b) පුද්ගලයින් හඳුනාගත යුත්තේ තමන් අයිති සමාජ කන්ඩායම් වලින් නොව ස්වාධීනවය	1	2	3	4	5
c) තම පවුලේ වැඩිහිටියන් ආදරයෙන් සහ කරනාවෙන් බලාගත යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
d) පුද්ගලයින් තමන් අයිති සමාජ පන්තියේ දරන තනතුර මත හඳුනාගත යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
17.3 Masculinity (MAS)	SD ←→ SA				
a) මිදුල් සහ අනෙකුත් භෞතික දෘව්‍ය පිළිබඳව ඉතා වැදගත්ය	1	2	3	4	5
b) පිරිමින් යනු අන්අයට බලපෑම් කලහැකි, අරමුණු සහිත දැඩි (tough) පුද්ගලයෙකු විය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
c) සමාජයේ සාමාජිකයින් පිළිබඳ තැකීම සහ ඔවුන්ගේ පිළිවෙල සුරක්ෂිත කිරීම වැදගත්ම සමාජ වටිනාකමකි	1	2	3	4	5
d) පිරිමි සහ කාන්තා දෙපාර්ශ්වයම මෘදු, කරුණාවන්ත සහ අනෝනස් සම්බන්ධතාගැන සිතන අය විය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
17.4 Uncertainty avoidance (UAV)	SD ←→ SA				
a) ඉහල ආතතිය සහ මානසික කනස්සල්ල පුද්ගලයින් අතර දැකිය හැකි පොදු ලක්ෂණයකි	1	2	3	4	5
b) ව්‍යාකූල අවස්ථාවන් සහ නුහුරු අවධානම් පිළිබඳ අපතුව ඇතිවන බිය සාමාන්‍ය තත්ත්වයකි	1	2	3	4	5
c) අවිනිශ්චිතකම යනු පිළිවෙල සාමාන්‍ය ලක්ෂණයකි, එනම් පිළිවෙලට මුහුණ දිය යුතු	1	2	3	4	5
d) හැඟීම් වලට වහල් නොවිය යුතු අතර ඒවා පිටත නොපෙන්විය යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
17.5 Long-Term orientation (LTO)	SD ←→ SA				
a) යම් කරුණක් වෙනුවෙන් යමෙකුට උපකාරයක් කිරීමේ කැමැත්ත අපට සාමාන්‍ය දෙයකි	1	2	3	4	5
b) දිගුකාලීන ප්‍රතිඵල අරමුණු කරගෙන මිනිසුන් දැඩි විරූපයෙන් කටයුතු කලයුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
c) සාම්ප්‍රදායන්ට ගරුකල යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5
d) සමාජ බැඳීම් වලට ගරුකල යුතුය	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Refined Hofstede Dimensions battery, adopted from Oliver *etal.* (2000)

දැක්වූ සහයෝගයට ස්තූතියි!

විශේෂිත සටහන්

දිස්ත්‍රික්කය		සම්පූර්ණ කරන ලද්දේ		ප්‍රශ්නාවලි අංකය	
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APPENDIX G: QUESTIONNAIRE [TAMIL VERSION]

கேள்விக்கொத்து

கலாச்சார முக்கியத்துவம், நுகர்வோரின் பால், வயது, இன, மத, தொழில் கல்வி போன்ற பின்னணிக் காரணிகளினூடாக சமூக அந்தஸ்தை உணர்த்தக் கூடிய பொருள்கள் சேவைகள் நுகர்வது சம்பந்தமான ஆய்வு

முதல் பகுதி – A : CONSUMER DEMOGRAPHICS

01	ஆண் / பெண்	ஆண் ☐	பெண் ☐	
02	திருமணமான/திருமணமாகாத	திருமணமான ☐	திருமணமாகாத ☐	விவாகரத்து ☐
03	குடும்ப அமைப்பு			
04	இனம்	சிங்களம் ☐	முஸ்லிம் ☐	தமிழ் ☐
		மலே ☐	வேறு ☐	பேர்கர் ☐
05	மதம்	பௌத்தம் ☐	இந்து ☐	இஸ்லாம் ☐
				கிறிஸ்தவம் ☐
06	வாழும் பிரதேசம்	நகரம் ☐	கிராமம் ☐	
07	வயது	15 yrs – 19 yrs ☐	20 yrs – 24 yrs ☐	25 yrs – 29 yrs ☐
		35 yrs – 39 yrs ☐	40 yrs – 44 yrs ☐	45 yrs – 49 yrs ☐
		55 yrs – 59 yrs ☐	60 yrs – 64 yrs ☐	65 yrs – 69 yrs ☐
		75 yrs – 79 yrs ☐	80 yrs – 84 yrs ☐	85 yrs & above ☐
08	கல்வி	தரம் 8 வரை ☐	கா.பொ.த ச/த ☐	கா.பொ.த உ/த ☐
		தொழில்சார் ☐	பட்டமணி ☐	Diploma ☐
09	தொழில்	அரச ☐	தனியார் ☐	சுயதொழில் ☐
	Job title			
10	மாதாந்த வருமானம் ரூபா.	<10,000 ☐	10,001-20,000 ☐	20,001-30,000 ☐
		40,001-50,000 ☐	50,001-60,000 ☐	60,001-70,000 ☐
		80,001-90,000 ☐	90,001-100,000 ☐	100,001-125,000 ☐
		150,001-175,000 ☐	175,001-200,000 ☐	200,001-250,000 ☐
		300,001-350,000 ☐	350,001-400,000 ☐	400,001-450,000 ☐
				450,001-500,000 ☐

இரண்டாம் பகுதி - B : சமூக அந்தஸ்தை உணர்த்தும் பொருள்கள்

மக்கள் தங்களுடைய சமூக நிலைமையை வெளி உலகத்திற்கு வெளிக்காட்டும் நோக்கில் பொருள்களை நுகர்வதற்கு எவ்வாறு எத்தனிக்கின்றனர்? (உதாரணமாக : ஆடம்பர செலவு வாகனங்கள், விலை உயர்ந்த ஆடை அணிகள், பிரமாண்டமான சொகுசு இல்லங்கள், விலை உயர்ந்த கையடக்கத் தொலைபேசி போன்றன). அவைகள் சம்பந்தமாக கூற்றுக்கள் கீழே தரப்பட்டு இருக்கின்றன. நீங்கள் அவைகளை ஏற்கின்றீர்களா ? அல்லது மறுக்கின்றீர்களா ? என்பதை குறிப்பிடுக.

முழுமையாக நிராகரிக்கிறேன் **1** நிராகரிக்கிறேன் **2** ஏற்கலோ மறுக்கலோ இல்லை **3** ஏற்றுக்கொள்கிறேன் **4** முழுமையாக ஏற்றுக் கொள்கிறேன் **5**

11.		1	2	3	4	5
a	அதிக விலையுடைய பொருட்களை நுகர்வதற்கு நீங்கள் அதிக விரும்பம் உடையவர்					
b	அதிக விலையுடைய பொருள்களை நுகர்வதால் வாடிக்கையாளரின் செல்வ நிலை வெளிச் சமூகத்திற்கு புளப்படுகிறது.					
c	செல்வ நிலை வெளிச்சமூகத்திற்கு புளப்படுவதன் மூலம் உங்களுக்கு சமூகத்தில் உயர் நிலை கிட்டுகிறது.					
d	பொருள் நுகர்வின்போது கிடைக்கும் திருதியின் அளவு வெளிச்சமூகத்தில் உங்களுக்கு கிடைக்கும் பிரதிபலனின் அளவே					
12.		1	2	3	4	5
a	மற்றவர்கள் அதிகம் நுகரும் பொருட்களை வாங்குவதற்கு நான் விரும்பவில்லை					
13.		1	2	3	4	5
a	குறித்த சமூகமொன்றிற்கு உறித்தாக உள்ள பொருட்களை நுகர்வதற்கு என் மனம் விரும்புகிறது.					
b	குறித்த சமூகமொன்றின் பாவனை முறையை நீர் பின்பற்றுகையில் நீரும் அச்சமூகத்தை உடையவர் என உமக்கு உணரத்தோன்றுகிறதா					
c	வாடிக்கையாளரின் நடத்தையில் சமூக ரீதியான ஆதிக்கம் பொருள்கள் சேவைகள் கொள்வனவில் தாக்கத்தை ஏற்படுத்தும்.					

14. சமூக நிலைமையை வெளிக்காட்டுகின்ற நுகர்வுப் பொருள் (Conspicuous good) கொள்வனவு செய்வது சம்பந்தமாக கீழே கூற்றுக்கள் தரப்பட்டு இருக்கின்றன. நீங்கள் அந்த கூற்றுக்களை ஏற்றுக் கொள்கிறீரா ? அல்லது மறுக்கிறீரா? என்பதை குறிப்பிடுக (கீழே “பொருள்கள்” என சுரப்பட்டவையை சமூக நிலைமையை வெளிக்காட்டுகின்ற நுகர்வுப் பொருட்கள் க்கே ஆகும்)

முழுமையாக நிராகரிக்கிறேன் **1** நிராகரிக்கிறேன் **2** ஏற்கலோ மறுக்கலோ இல்லை **3** ஏற்றுக்கொள்கிறேன் **4** முழுமையாக ஏற்றுக் கொள்கிறேன் **5**

UNIQUE		1	2	3	4	5
14.1	ஒப்பீட்டு பார்க்கையில் கிராக்கியாக இருக்கின்ற பொருட்களை கொள்வனவு செய்வதற்கு நான் மிகவும் விரும்புகிறேன்					
14.2	நவீன பொருட்களையும் அறிதாக விற்பனைக்கு இருக்கின்ற பொருட்களையும் விற்பனை செய்கின்ற விற்பனை சாலையில் பொருள்களை கொள்வனவு செய்ய என் மனம் நாடுகிறது.					
14.3	விற்பனை பொருளில் ஏதேனும் ஒரு விசேட தன்மை உள்ள பொருட்களை கொள்வனவு செய்ய நான் விரும்புகிறேன்.					
14.4	வேரொருதரின் வடிவமொன்றை பிரதி பன்னுவதையும் பார்க்க என்னுடைய புதி ஆக்கத்திற்கு நான் விரும்புவதுடன் சமூகத்தில் நானும் ஒருவன் என புலப்படுத்தும் பிரசித்தமான பொருட்களை வாங்க விரும்புகிறேன்.					
14.5	நானும் சமூகத்தில் ஒருவன் என புளப்படுத்தும் பிரசித்தமான பொருட்களை வாங்க நான் விரும்புகிறேன்					
STATUS		1	2	3	4	5
14.6	நான் நுகர்கின்ற ஆடம்பரப் பொருட்கள் சமூகத்தில் என் வெற்றியின் நிலைமையை வெளிக்கொணுகிறது.					
14.7	நான் நுகர்கின்ற ஆடம்பரப் பொருட்கள் ஊடாக நான் ஒரு சிறந்த தனவந்தர் என வெளிச்சமூகம் உளர்கின்றது.					

Cultural Values, Demographic Perception & Conspicuous Consumption

14.8	நான் நுகரும் அந்த பொருள்களின் விலைகளை என்னைக்கென்றி உள்ள சமூகம் தெரிந்து கொள்வது எனக்கு விருப்பத்தைக் கொண்டு வரும்					
14.9	நான் நுகரும் அப் பொருட்கள் உயர்மட்ட சிறப்பான ஒரு சமூகம் நுகர்பவை என மற்ற சமூகம் தெரிந்து கொள்வது எனக்கு பிக்க சந்தோசத்தை கொண்டு வருகிறது.					
14.10	ஆடம்பர பொருட்களை நுகர்வதனால் எனக்கு அதிக வரவேற்று கிட்டுகிறது.					
HEDONIC		1	2	3	4	5
14.11	ஆரம்ப பொருள் ஒன்றை அனுபவிக்க முடியுமெய்யாயின் அதை வாங்க முற்படுவேன்.					
14.12	எனக்கு உச்ச திருப்தியை தரக்கூடிய பொருளாகப் பிரசித்தமான பொருள் அமையுமாயின் மாத்திரம் நான் அதை நாடுவேன்.					
14.13	ஆடம்பரப் பொருள் எனக்கு உட உல ரீதியாக திருப்தியை தரவேண்டும்.					
14.14	ஆடம்பரப் பொருளிலாடாக கிடைக்கும் உல ரீதியான திறுப்தியை விட அப்பொருள் நடை முறையில் பிரயோசனத்தை தரவேண்டும்.					
14.15	எனது நண்பர்கள் நுகரும் பிரசித்தமான பொருள்களை பயன் படுத்த நான் மிக்க விருப்பம் உடையவனாக இருக்கிறேன்					
CONFORMITY		1	2	3	4	5
14.16	உயர்சமூகத்தில் நானும் ஒருவன் என சொல்லிக்கொள்வதற்கு பிரசித்தமான பொருள் கொள்வனவு செய்வது அவசியம்					
14.17	எனது சகாக்களின் எதிர் பார்ப்புக்களை நிரைவேற்றுவதற்கு பிரசித்தமான பொருள் நுகர்வின் மூலம் எனக்கு அடைந்து கொள்ள முடியும்					
14.18	மற்றவர்கள் அதி உயர் பெருமதிமிக்க பொருட்களை நுகர்வும் போது என்னிட இருக்கும் பொருட்கள் தொடர்பாக வெட்கம் உணர்வு ஏற்படுகிறது.					
14.19	எனது உணர்வுகளை தூண்டக்கூடிய பிரசித்தமான பொருட்களை வாங்குவதற்கு என்னை அரியாமலையே மனம் போகிறது.					
14.20	பிரசித்தமான பொருட்களை நுகர்வும் போது நானும் சமூகத்தில் மதிக்கத்தக்கவன் என்ற உணர்வு மேலோங்குகிறது.					

15. சமூக அந்தஸ்தை உணரும் பொருட்களை நுகர்வது :

15.1	நீங்கள் பணம்படைத்த உயர் சமூக நிலமையில் இருக்கின்ற ஒருவர் என பிரரருக்கு தெரியப்படுத்துவதற்கு.	1	2	3	4	5
15.2	உங்களின் உயர் சமூக நிலமையை சமூகத்திற்கு வெலிக்காட்டுவதற்கு	1	2	3	4	5
15.3	அதிக விலை உடைய பொருட்களை நுகர்வதற்கு பணப்பலம் உடையவர் என மற்றோருக்கு தெரியப் படுத்துவதற்கு	1	2	3	4	5
15.4	சமூக ரீதியான சந்தப்பங்களையும் சமூகத்தின் வரவேற்பையும் பெற்றுக் கொள்வதற்கு	1	2	3	4	5
15.5	மற்றவர்களிடமிருந்து உங்களை பிரித்துக்காட்டுவதற்கு	1	2	3	4	5
15.6	சமூகப் வரப்பிரசாதத்தை அடைந்து கொள்ள	1	2	3	4	5
15.7	வேறு ஏதேனும் விசேடமான நோக்கத்திற்கு					

16. கீழே தரப்பட்டிருக்கின்ற 5 பொருட்களும் சமூகத்தில் உங்கள் அந்தஸ்தை அதிகமாக உயர்த்தின் காட்டக்கூடிய பொருட்களை ஏறுவரிசைப்படுத்துக.

உயர்ரக ஆடை அணிகள்	கையடக்கத் தொலைபேசி	கைக்கடிகாரம்	ஆடம்பர வாகனம்	குடிபான வகைகள் (வைன்)
தங்க ஆபரணங்கள்	சொகுசு ஆடம்பர இல்லம்	விளையாட்டுப் பொருட்கள்	வீட்டுத் தலபாடங்கள் பாவனை பொருட்கள்	வாசனைப் பொருள்
CD Player	பாதணிகள்			

முன்ராவது பகுதி (C) : கலாச்சார முக்கியத்துவம்

17. தனிநபர் உள்ளடக்கிய கலாச்சார முக்கியத்துவம் வாய்ந்தது சம்பந்தமாக கீழே கூற்றுகள் வழங்கப்பட்டிருக்கின்றன. நீங்கள் அக் கூற்றுகளை ஏற்றுக் கொள்கிறீர்களா? மறுக்கிறீர்களா? என்பதை தெரிவிக்கவும்

Strongly Disagree (SD) **1** Disagree (DA) **2** Neither Agree nor Disagree (AD) **3** Agree (AG) **4** Strongly Agree (SA) **5** Strongly Disagree (SD)

கூற்றுக்கள்		Select one only				
அனேகமான கலாச்சாரத்திலும் கீழே குறிப்பட்டு இருக்கின்ற முக்கியத்துவங்கள் நான் ஏற்றுக்கொள்கிறேன்						
INDIVIDUALISM						
1. மக்களுக்கு இடையில் உயர் ஏற்றத்தால்வை நாம் எதிர் பார்கின்ற அதேவேலை அது சமூகத்திற்கு நன்மை பயக்கும்.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. வழிமை குன்றியவர்கள் வழிமை உடையவர்கள் மீது தங்கி நிடக வேண்டும்.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. மக்களுக்கு இடையில் ஏற்றத்தாழ்வு குறைந்த பெறுமானமாக வேண்டும்.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. பலம் பொருந்தியவர்களும் பலம் குறைந்தவர்களும் ஒருதருக்கொருத்தர் மீது தங்கி நிடக வேண்டும்	1	2	3	4	5	
UNCERTAINTY						
5. ஒருவரின் தலையாயக் கடமையானது தன்னையும் தனது நெருங்கிய உரவினர்களையும் சம்பந்தமாக பொருப்புடையவராக இருத்தல்.	1	2	3	4	5	
6. ஒருவரை இனங்கண்டு கொள்வது அவரின் சமூகத்தின் அடிப்படையில் அல்ல மாராக அவரின் சுதந்திரத்தன்மையைப் பொருத்தே.	1	2	3	4	5	
7. தத்தமது குடும்பத்தில் உள்ள வயோதிபர்களை அன்பாகவும் கருணயாகவும் பாரத்துக் கொள்ள வேண்டும்.	1	2	3	4	5	
8. ஒருவரை இனங்கண்டு கொள்வது அவர் அச் சமூகத்தில் ஏற்று இருக்கின்ற சமூக நிலமையைப் பொருத்தே	1	2	3	4	5	
MASCULINITY						
9. பணமும் பெளதீக பொருட்களும் வாழ்க்கைக்கு மிக அத்தியவசியமானது.	1	2	3	4	5	
10. ஆண்கள் என்கிரவர்கள் மற்றவர்களுக்கு தினிக்கக்கடியவராகவும் இலச்சியமுடைய திடகாத்தமான ஒருவராகவும் இருக்க வேண்டும்	1	2	3	4	5	
11. சமூகப் பொருப்பு என்னவென்றால் சமூக உருப்பினர்கள் பற்றிய உளர்வும் அவர்களின் வாழ்க்கையில் புனிதத்தன்மையையும் பேனுவது தான்	1	2	3	4	5	
12. மன அழுத்தமும் மன வரத்தியும் மக்களுக்கிடையே காணக்கடிய பொது அடையாலங்களாகும் / நிலமைகையை	1	2	3	4	5	
UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE						
13. மன அழுத்தமும் மன வரத்தியும் மக்களுக்கிடையே காணக்கடிய பொது அடையாலங்களாகும் / நிலமைகளாகும்	1	2	3	4	5	
14. மன குலப்ப நிலமைகள் அனுபவமற்ற அல்லது பரிச்சாத்தியமற்ற அபாய நிலமைகள் போன்றவை சம்பந்தமாக எங்களுக்கும் அச்சம் பிரப்பது சகஜம்	1	2	3	4	5	
15. நிலையில்லாத தன்மை வாழ்க்கையில் இருப்பது பொதுவான அடையாலமாகும் வாழ்க்கை எவ்வாரான தன்மையெனினும் முகம் கொடுக்கவே வேண்டும்	1	2	3	4	5	
16. உணர்வுகளுக்கு அடிபனியாமல் இருப்பதுடன் அவைகளை வெலியே தெரியப்படுத்தவும் கூடாது	1	2	3	4	5	
17. ஒரு விடையம் சம்பந்தமாக ஒருவருக்கு உதவி ஒத்தாசை வலங்குவது என்பது எங்களில் சாதாரன தன்மையாகும்	1	2	3	4	5	
18. நீண்ட கால இலக்கை மையமாகக் கொண்டு மனிதன் முழு முயற்சியோடு ஈடுபடுதல் அவசியம்	1	2	3	4	5	
19. சமூக சம்பிரதாயங்களுக்கு மதிப்பலிக்க வேண்டும்	1	2	3	4	5	
20. சமூக நல்லுணர்வுகளுக்கும் மதிப்பலிக்க வேண்டும்	1	2	3	4	5	
Source: Refined Hofstede Dimensions battery, adopted from Oliver <i>et al.</i> (1999/2000)						
	1	2	3	4	5	

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

Any Special Remarks

Province/District	Filled by	Questionnaire No	Province/District
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Cultural Values, Demographic Perception & Conspicuous Consumption

APPENDIX H: ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR CCM & CVD's

Rotated Factor Matrix^a for Conspicuous Consumption Motives [CCM]

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
I am attracted to rare things	.095	.406	.211	.099	.572
I enjoy shopping at stores that carry merchandise that is unusual	.038	.629	.077	.156	.097
I am more likely to buy a CPG if it is unique	.035	.708	.075	.128	.096
I tend to be a fashion leader rather than a fashion follower	.223	.382	-.200	.098	.074
I value the ability of a CPG to make me feel special	.267	.504	.087	.227	-.013
It is important that I advertise my success by owning CPGs	.573	.238	.171	.003	.094
I hope people think I am wealthy when they see me with a CPGs	.555	.205	.299	-.013	-.124
It is important that people know that a CPG that I own was expensive	.697	.065	.217	-.055	.051
A CPG is worth more if people think it is a status product	.580	.002	.169	.115	.394
People are more likely to accept me if they see me with a CPG	.678	.006	.179	-.034	.185
I am more likely to purchase CPG that I would enjoy	.067	.044	.089	.580	.137
My reason for consuming CPG is that it puts me in a good mood	.059	.139	-.059	.763	-.013
CPGs should give me pleasure	-.036	.192	-.087	.671	.091
The performance of a CPG is my major reason for purchase	-.081	.197	.151	.357	-.064
I prefer the CPGs that my friends already own	.118	-.009	.669	.085	.022
Sometimes it is necessary to purchase a CPG to gain membership of a group	.390	.155	.617	-.003	.106
CPGs help me conform to the expectations of my peers	.310	.028	.556	-.045	.158
Sometimes I am ashamed of products I own because others own better	.274	.072	.486	.043	.169
I am very attracted to CPGs that stimulate the senses	.293	.052	.200	.117	.344
I feel more socially acceptable if I possess a CPG as compared with inconspicuous good	.466	.400	.101	.117	-.041

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Rotated Factor Matrix^a for Cultural Values [CVD's]

	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Inequalities among people are both expected and desired	.193	.757	.067	-.019	.211	-.030
Less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful	.060	.508	.106	.053	.498	.057
Inequalities among people should be minimized	.028	.864	.084	.129	-.107	.183
There should be, and there is to some extent, interdependencies between less and more powerful people	-.014	.448	-.011	.028	.305	.163
Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only	.083	.074	-.051	-.016	.346	.458
People are identified independently of the groups they belong to	-.158	.147	.009	.670	.056	.450
An extended family member should be protected by other members in exchange for loyalty	-.238	.142	.097	.098	-.002	.772
People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong	-.113	-.024	.163	.731	.175	-.130
Money and material things are important	.364	.153	-.008	.084	.108	-.120
Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough	.021	.029	-.153	.119	.459	.009
Dominant values in society are the caring for others and preservation of life	-.093	.186	.960	.170	-.042	.061

Both men and woman are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships	-.204	.095	.219	.062	.449	.119
High stress and subjective feelings of anxiety are frequent among people	.350	.100	-.034	-.035	-.087	-.120
Fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks is normal	.490	.127	.018	.002	.061	-.084
Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes	.535	.052	-.045	-.191	.170	-.019
Emotions should not be shown	.447	-.036	-.032	-.181	-.087	-.045
Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose is normal	.429	-.015	-.209	-.118	-.216	-.002
People should be perseverant towards long-term results	.350	-.430	-.268	.017	.223	.153
Traditions should be respected	.668	-.073	-.050	-.080	.016	.094
Social obligations should be respected	.650	-.193	.010	.046	-.128	.077

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

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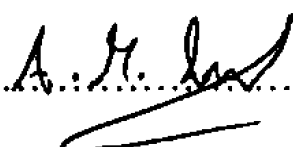
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