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**In search of status: Unpacking the triggers behind, and impacts
of, status seeking behaviours across different products and
countries**

Submitted by

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is composed of my original work, and has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Nazia Nabi

Date: 19/09/2018

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ABSTRACT

The status concerns of consumers are considered a critical issue that shapes their behaviours. Consumers strive to fulfil their need for status through acquiring and consuming specific products and/or services that display their status to others. At present, the tendency for consumers to attain status through consuming products and/or services is a global phenomenon and is continuing to grow. To this end, this thesis examines the triggers that drive consumers toward the acquisition and consumption of specific products and/or services for status purposes. Furthermore, the extents to which status impacts consumers' satisfaction with life, as well as their loyalty toward specific brands are also examined. For the thesis purpose, data were collected from the USA and Bangladesh. By examining status consumption across different countries and products, this thesis provides additional insights to the literature. The findings of this thesis also generate important implications for marketers of status products and brands and policy makers about social issues related to status consumption.

To examine status consumption, three studies have been conducted. Therefore, this thesis employs the “thesis by publications” format, and consists of the three independent, but related academic papers focusing on status consumption. Paper one, “*Status consumption in newly emerging countries: The influence of personality traits and the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously*”, has been published in the Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services. To uncover the underlying reasons for consuming status products in

emerging countries which are experiencing economic transition, two personality traits - susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness - were examined. Further, the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously were studied to gain a deeper appreciation of consumption and to test the theoretical relationships between susceptibility to interpersonal influence, need for uniqueness and status consumption in such country context. In this regard, the conspicuous role of two product categories – automobiles as well as fashion clothing and apparel. Applying social identity and social comparison theories and drawing on data from Bangladesh, the findings provide insights about the positive influence of susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness on status consumption in an emerging country. Further, this study shows the extent to which motivation to consume automobiles, and fashion clothing and apparel conspicuously mediates the relationship between status consumption and susceptibility to interpersonal influence, but not need for uniqueness.

Paper two, *“In search for status and a satisfying life: Unpacking cultural and consumer drivers of status seeking and life satisfaction in developed and emerging countries”*, is under review in the European Journal of Marketing. Grounded on social comparison theory, this study examines the interplay between status consumption, life satisfaction, and cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism) in two different countries - the USA and Bangladesh. In addressing status consumption and life satisfaction, this study brings attention to creative choice counter-conformity as an important factor. Drawing on data from two countries - the USA and Bangladesh, the findings provide evidence of the positive relationship between cultural orientations, both individualism and collectivism, and status

consumption across countries. The influence of individualism and collectivism were shown to be stronger in the developed country than in the emerging country. Furthermore, the findings suggest a stronger relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in the emerging country compared to the developed country. Finally, creative choice counter-conformity was found to mediate this relationship in the developed country, not in the emerging country.

Paper three, “*Examining the perceived brand status in relation to consumers’ intrinsic/extrinsic motivations, anticipated emotions and loyalty in the context of luxury hotels*”, is under review in *Tourism Management*. This study examines the perceived status of service brands in the context of luxury hotels. Taking into consideration the significant growth of the luxury hotel industry, this paper investigates the extent to which perceived status of luxury hotel brands relates to consumers’ intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, positive and negative emotions, as well as consumers’ loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size. Applying self-determination theory and drawing on data from the USA, the findings show that intrinsic motivation in the form of self-consistency was positively related to the perceived status of luxury hotel brands. Additionally, it was expected that snob effect, an extrinsic motivation, negatively moderates the relationship between self-consistency and the perceived status of luxury hotel brands as consumers often select brands to enhance their social self than their personal self. Contrary to the expectation, the findings did not support the moderating role of snob effect. Further, the perceived status of luxury hotel brands was shown to be positively related to share of wallet. Additionally, consideration set size was shown to be negatively related to the perceived

status of luxury hotel brands. Moreover, consumers' positive and negative anticipated emotions demonstrated a significant moderating effect on the relationship between the perceived status of luxury hotel brands and loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size.

Overall, this thesis contributes to the literature by examining specific factors related to the tendency of individuals to consume for status. Using social identity theory, social comparison theory, and self-determination theory, the findings of this thesis enrich the literature and support the contention that status consumption is growing across different products and countries. On the one hand, the observed relationships of status consumption with personality traits, cultural orientations, and motivations provide marketers with the insights for managing and marketing status products and brands. On the other hand, by examining anticipated emotions, share of wallet and consideration set size in relation to the perceived brand status, the thesis demonstrates practical implications for marketing of intangible services like hotels. Moreover, this study contributes in the debate about the relationship between pursuit of status and life satisfaction.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The more a consumer seeks status, the more he will engage in behaviours, such as the consumption of status symbols that increase his status.

- (Eastman et al., 1999, p. 43)

1.1 Introduction and background

Over the past decade, the luxury market has experienced significant growth as the demand for luxury goods and services continues to increase (Koo & Im, 2017). In 2017, the global luxury market exceeds €1.2 trillion in sales, representing a growth rate of 5% (Bain & Co., 2017). It is expected that luxury consumers continue spending on luxury goods and service with the growth rate of 4% to 5% to 2020. In this growing market, luxury cars, luxury hospitality, and personal luxury goods are the most appealing products with the sales growth of 6%, 4%, and 5% respectively.

Given the significant growth of the luxury market, consumers' pursuit of status through luxury products continues to remain an important field of research (e.g., Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Eastman & Iyer, 2012; Eastman et al., 2013; Eastman & Liu, 2012; Flynn et al., 2016; Gao et al., 2016; Goldsmith et al., 2012; Gurzki & Woisetschläger, 2017; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O'Cass et al., 2013; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014; Zhang & Nelson, 2016). In the literature, status consumption refers to gaining status or social prestige from the acquisition and consumption of goods and services that a consumer and significant others perceive to be high in status (O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Status consumption remains an important area of research

because it is entwined in daily life and fulfils higher order needs of consumers. It is suggested that consuming status oriented products fulfils both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). On one hand, intrinsically motivated consumers consume status oriented products and/or services to express their identity through congruency of their self-concept and brand image (self-consistency) (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; O’Cass & Frost, 2002), to derive pleasure (hedonism) (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Wiedmann et al., 2009), and/or to ensure quality (perfectionism) (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Wiedmann et al., 2009). On the other hand, consumers are often extrinsically motivated to consume status oriented products and/or services to demonstrate their wealth and status (the Veblen effect), uniqueness (the snob effect), and to fit in a desired group (the bandwagon effect) (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Leibenstein, 1950). In other words, searching for status through specific products is considered a primary motivation behind the behaviours of many consumers (Anderson et al., 2015).

At present, consumers, regardless of their income levels and/or social positions, are willing to spend more for products that enhance their status (Chan et al., 2015). Therefore, what products constitute status oriented products is a critical issue for marketers. Recent studies examine how physical goods such as luxury fashion goods including apparels, shoes, handbags, accessories, watch, and jewellery can enhance one’s status (Chan et al., 2015; Lewis & Moital, 2016; O’Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O’Cass et al., 2013). However, a wider range of products than ever before are seen as status oriented products (Walley & Li, 2014) such as tourism and hospitality products (Phillips & Back, 2011; Yang & Mattila, 2017). The

growing desires of consumers to obtain such products raises a range of theoretical and practical issues (Hennigs et al., 2012).

Status consumption that primarily was the highlight of modern Western life is now finding its way to emerging countries (Chandon et al., 2016; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). Rising incomes and stronger spending patterns lead consumers in emerging countries toward the consumption of products and services that show their changing lifestyle and newly achieved status (Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013). Given the advancement of emerging countries, we still lack understanding of consumers' behaviours and choice of luxury and status products or whether such behaviours are similar to their counterparts in developed countries. Given that consumers' expressed behaviours to acquire and consume status oriented products and brands are continuing to grow, it is important to develop an understanding of the factors that drive consumers toward acquiring and consuming those products and brands.

1.2 Research gaps and research questions

Given the growing prominence of status consumption, several studies have been conducted to enhance knowledge on consumers' pursuit of status across different products and countries. However, there are still some avenues that can advance the knowledge about why consumers from different countries acquire and consume specific status oriented products and brands. In this thesis, three major gaps in the literature are identified related to status consumption.

First, an extensive review of the consumer behaviour literature shows that consumers' search for status through acquiring and consuming specific products appears to be increasing in some emerging countries with significant changes in spending and consumption patterns, resulting in changing lifestyle of consumers (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). These changes in consumers' lifestyle has led them in pursuing consumption of specific products that display status. In emphasising the importance of consumption related to status, attempts have been taken to understand the factors that influence the acquisition and consumption of status oriented products in emerging countries such as China, Iran, Thailand and India (see. Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O'Cass et al., 2013; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014; Shukla, 2010). These studies provide evidence that status consumption is significantly associated with consumers' perception of brands' status (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014), fashion consciousness (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012; O'Cass et al., 2013), situational and brand antecedents (Shukla, 2010), and interpersonal effects (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012). However, taking into consideration the importance of emerging countries as a potential luxury market (Eastman & Eastman, 2011), it has been argued that further research is needed to understand the triggers behind consumption of status products and the roles such products play in emerging countries (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). Existing literature suggests that consumers in emerging countries focus heavily on ostentatious or displaying behaviours (conspicuous consumption) (Batra et al., 2000) as they are motivated to demonstrate their wealth to differentiate themselves from less affluent people (Hennigs et al., 2012; Pino et al., 2017; Shukla, 2010). While it is acknowledged that consumers' motivation to consume conspicuously is important in emerging countries, at present, there have been very few, if any, studies examining the

extent to which consumers' motivation to consume conspicuously explains the relationship between personality traits and status consumption in emerging countries. Personality traits are of particular interest in this regard as personality traits often influence the behaviours of consumers (Clark et al. 2007; Clark & Goldsmith, 2005; Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012). In their study on Thailand, Lertwannawit and Mandhachitara (2012) examine the relationship between personality traits and status consumption and show that personality traits, that is susceptibility to interpersonal influence and self-monitoring, positively influence status consumption. Furthermore, personality traits such as need for uniqueness and materialism are attributed as major contributing factors to conspicuous consumption in emerging country such as India (e.g., Chaudhuri et al., 2011). Based on the above discussion, the following research question is posed, and is addressed more thoroughly in paper one presented in Chapter Two:

Research question 1: To what extent do personality traits and motivation drive status consumption in emerging countries?

Second, given the growing tendency of consumers to consume for status in emerging countries, it is important to understand whether status consumption differs in emerging and developed countries (Shukla, 2010)¹. In the literature, consumers' status seeking behaviours have largely been examined in developed country contexts, especially in the USA, the UK, and Australia (e.g., Eastman & Eastman, 2011; Eastman & Iyer, 2012; Goldsmith & Clark,

¹ In this thesis, developed countries are considered as rich in individualism and emerging countries rich in collectivism (Ahuvia, 2002).

2012; Goldsmith et al., 2012; Goldsmith et al., 2010; Phau & Cheong, 2009; Shukla, 2010; Zhang & Nelson, 2016). It is noted that status consumption has been a well-established phenomenon in developed countries, such as the USA, for more than hundred years (Zhang & Nelson, 2016). There is consensus that consumers in developed countries are strongly influenced by the individualism cultural orientation, where the emphasis is given on self-enhancement (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015; Zhang & Nelson, 2016) and unique identity (Brewer & Chen, 2007). As individualism is thought to be the main cultural orientation that are linked to attainment of status through acquiring and consuming specific products and brands (Zhang & Nelson, 2016), it is assumed that status consumption is higher in developed, individualist countries (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015). However, Batra et al. (2000) argue that consumers' concern for attainment of status is important in emerging countries because of high income disparity, social mobility, and economic transition. Furthermore, indicating the need for further research on status consumption and cultural orientation, Dubois and Ordabayeva (2015) argue that status consumption may be high in countries that are rich in collectivism as the focus is given on interpersonal relationship and social comparison. The above arguments regarding status consumption across countries, therefore, provide an area for further research that can enhance knowledge about whether the pursuit of status is similar or different across countries with economic and cultural differences. This is also in line with calls for further research on examining whether consumers have unique perception associated with status consumption in developed (individualist) and emerging (collectivist) countries (Shukla, 2010). Based on the above discussion, the following research question is posed, and is addressed more thoroughly in paper two presented in Chapter Three:

Research question 2: To what extent does status consumption differ between developed and emerging countries?

Third, apart from examining status consumption across countries, prior works have provided much attention on examining consumers' behaviours toward the attainment of status through the selection and consumption of tangible luxury products (e.g., Chan et al., 2015; Lewis & Moital, 2016; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O'Cass et al., 2013). It is suggested that, in a given product category, consumers' selection of brands depends on the psychological benefits those brands provide, such as being identified as a status symbol (Kim & Johnson, 2015). However, limited knowledge exists regarding the factors that drive consumers' selection of luxury services (such as hotel and restaurants) (Chen & Peng, 2014; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Studying behaviours of consumers toward the selection of luxury services is important as the service industry occupies a large portion of the markets in many countries (Arasli et al., 2005), specifically in developed countries (Australian Industry Report, 2014), and plays an increasingly important role in the economy of those countries (Ngoc Thuy & Nguyen Hau, 2010). With rapid growth of service industry, consumers' expectations toward services are increasing as a result of technology advancement and intensifying competition in the marketplace (Chen & Hu, 2010; Kandampully et al., 2015). To cope with consumers' increasing expectations, service marketers are becoming more concerned with increasing role and value of their brands, and to know their consumers' behaviours (Casidy et al., 2018; Nyffenegger et al., 2014). Despite the significant growth of the service industry, one potential area that has received less attention in the literature is to understand consumers' perception of status ascribed to specific service brands. Existing literature suggests that consumers'

perception of a specific brand is driven by their concern for status, which impacts the level of status they ascribe to that brand (O'Cass & Choy, 2008; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013). However, prior studies examine perceived brand status only for tangible luxury products such as fashion clothing (O'Cass & Choy, 2008; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013) and car (Sangkhawasi & Johri, 2007) with less focus on service brands. It is important to advance knowledge of consumers' perception of status ascribed to service brands because, as Shukla (2010) suggests, the brands with the "right status image" can provide value to both marketers and consumers. Given the growth of the service industry and paucity of works on status seeking in that industry, it is, therefore, important to develop deeper understandings about possible factors that help explain consumers' perception of status ascribed to service brands and their brand choice. Based on the above discussion, the following research question is posed, and is addressed more thoroughly in paper three presented in Chapter Four:

Research question 3: To what extent do motivations and emotions explain perceived status and loyalty behaviours related to luxury service brands in developed countries?

1.3 Contributions

In addressing the research questions and research gaps identified in Section 1.2, this thesis makes three contributions to the literature.

First, in addressing research question 1, two personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness) and motivation to consume conspicuously are examined in an emerging country context. The focus here is given to the factors that trigger the

acquisition and consumption of status products in emerging countries. With regard to the influence of personality traits on status consumption, Clark et al. (2007) suggest that both susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness impact consumers' tendency to consume for status. Clark et al. (2007) provide greater understandings of the relationship between these personality traits in the developed country context. By advancing the application of social comparison theory and social identity theory, this thesis contributes to the literature by examining the extent to which susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness influence consumers' acquisition and consumption of status products in an emerging country. Furthermore, this thesis enhances understanding about the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously in the relationship between personality traits and status consumption. Existing literature shows that consumers often prefer status oriented products to display their status to others and to differentiate themselves from less affluent people (e.g., Batra et al., 2000; Hennigs et al., 2012; Pino et al., 2017; Shukla, 2010). However, this thesis emphasises that consumers in emerging countries are inclined to display their selection of specific products which may help to achieve desired status that is acceptable to others and that help create unique identity. Accordingly, addressing calls in the literature to enhance knowledge of status consumption in emerging countries (e.g., Eastman & Eastman, 2011; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014), and extending the work of Bian and Forsythe (2012), Lertwannawit and Mandhachitara (2012), and Eastman and Eastman (2015), this thesis provides insights into the consumer behaviour literature by identifying and examining the triggers of status consumption in the context of emerging country.

Second, in addressing research question 2, this thesis examines the extent to which status consumption differs between developed and emerging countries. To enhance understanding of status consumption across countries, the focus is given on the interplay between status consumption, life satisfaction, cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism), and creative choice counter-conformity across countries. Existing literature presents contradictory or differing views regarding the relationship between status and life satisfaction (e.g., Ahuvia, 2008; Dumludag, 2015; Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015; Perez-Truglia, 2013; Richins, 2013). Some scholars argue that status attained from acquiring and consuming specific status products brings happiness or satisfaction with life as consuming such products signals one's status to others and helps to fit into a desired group (Dumludag, 2015; Perez-Truglia, 2013). However, those who argue against the positive role of status consumption in life satisfaction believe that satisfaction attained from acquiring and consuming status products are detrimental to one's life as the positive emotions deriving from such consumption are short-lived (see Ahuvia, 2008; Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Richins, 2013). The differing views also exists about the extent to which status impacts life satisfaction across countries which are different in cultural and economic domains (e.g., Dumludag, 2015; Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002). Building on previous works (e.g., Ahuvia, 2008; Dumludag, 2015; Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002; Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015; Perez-Truglia, 2013; Richins, 2013), this thesis contributes to the literature and extends social comparison theory by examining status consumption within the settings of cultural orientations and life satisfaction. Furthermore, recognising the importance of uniqueness seeking for a satisfying life (e.g., Debrosse et al., 2015), this thesis enhances knowledge of

the interplay between status consumption, life satisfaction, and creative choice counter-conformity across countries.

Third, in addressing research question 3, this thesis investigates the role of specific service brands play in attainment of status. Specifically, this thesis contributes to the literature by examining the perceived status of service brands, for this study luxury hotel brands, which have largely been overlooked by researchers. Luxury hotel industry is experiencing significant growth in recent years, demonstrating increases in revenues and positive trend in the industry (see Sheel, 2016). Despite the significant growth and value of the industry, little knowledge exists about the motivations that drive consumers toward the selection of luxury services (such as hotels) (Chen & Peng, 2014; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Identifying these factors is important as it helps marketers to understand their consumers' behaviour as well as performance of their brand in the industry (Casidy et al., 2018; The Boston Consulting Group, 2016). To explain consumers' hotel choice decisions, this thesis, therefore, contributes to the literature by examining specific intrinsic (self-consistency) and extrinsic (snob) motivations that determine the level of consumers' perceptions of a brand as having status. Examining motivations behind consumers' perception of status of luxury hotel brands, this thesis makes contributions to the self-determination theory by showing its relevance to understand and predict motivations that ascribe specific hotel brands as brands. Furthermore, existing literature indicates that consumers' purchase decision and strong loyalty toward a specific brand are often determined by their desire and emotion related to those brands (Casidy et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015; Han & Ryu, 2012). The decisions for acquiring and consuming specific brands become crucial when emotions, related to the

attainment of status, influence such decisions (Zielke, 2011). Overall, extending the works of Chen and Peng (2014), Casidy et al. (2018) and Yang and Mattila (2017), this thesis contributes to the literature and provides insights by showing the influence of motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) on perceived brand status, and the extent to which such perception and emotion result in consumers' loyalty in the luxury hotel context.

1.4 Theoretical foundation

In order to examine the theoretical frameworks of this thesis investigating the status consumption phenomenon, this thesis adopts the conceptual ideas of the social comparison theory, social identity theory, and self-determination theory. The following section provides a brief review of the theories used in this thesis.

1.4.1 Social comparison theory

Social comparison has been supported earlier as one of the important factors that determines behaviours of consumers (Karlsson et al., 2005). Introduced by Festinger (1954), social comparison theory advocates that consumers have the tendency to compare themselves with others in order to evaluate how they are doing. Consumers rely heavily on the social comparison when they do not have the objective criteria to evaluate their opinions and/or abilities (Zhang & Kim, 2013). Engaging in social comparison satisfies consumers in two ways: by notifying peers/similar others about what they have; and enhancing their own self-image (see Noble et al., 2009). To evaluate themselves in comparison to others, consumers involve in both upward (unfavourable) and downward (favourable) comparisons

(Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011; Zhang & Kim, 2013). Consumers have the tendency to compare themselves with those who are worse off (considered as downward comparison), or to someone who is better off (considered as upward comparison) than that of them in terms of the dimensions of interest (Chan, 2008; Wheeler & Miyake, 1992). Although both upward and downward comparisons are important to consumers, upward comparison occurs faster, and creates the feelings of inferiority, therefore, motivates consumers to display their possessions to prove their own position (Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011). While the primary purpose of such comparison is the self-evaluation, the expanded and revised view of social comparison theory points out that social comparison may also fulfil self-improvement and self-enhancement goals (see Gulas & McKeage, 2000).

There is a growing body of literature that examines the importance of status and the notion of social comparison (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012; Mandel et al., 2006; Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011). Consumers are more likely to hold a desire for more possessions and higher consumption intentions if they are involved in upward comparison (Chan, 2008; Zhang & Kim, 2013). Furthermore, because of their concerns about the opinion of others, consumers have the tendency to observe other members of their reference groups for social cues to identify the status oriented products (Clark et al., 2007). To attain and maintain status, consumers tend to select products what superior others are consuming and may help create a favourable image (Corneo & Jeanne, 1997; Karlsson et al., 2005). The feelings of having high status, thus, provide consumers with the sense of superiority and worthy compared to others (Amatulli et al., 2015), and provide the feelings of a satisfying life (Emmons & Diener, 1985; Frieswijk et al., 2004; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012).

Social comparison is a common phenomenon in all societies. In this regard, Batra et al. (2000, p. 85) noted that “all societies have processes of social comparison, ways of negotiating status and prestige, and markers of class”. Existing literature also indicate that consumers from both developed and emerging countries tend to be involved in social comparison (Song, 2015; Tsai et al., 2014). However, the motivations behind such comparisons may differ. Consumers in developed countries are more likely to be involved in downward comparison (Song, 2015; Tsai et al., 2014) and seek social comparison information to enhance their self-esteem (White & Lehman, 2005). Consumers from emerging countries are involved in upward comparison (Tsai et al., 2014), and are generally more conscious about the perceptions and opinions of others (White & Lehman, 2005).

1.4.2 Social identity theory

Social identity theory has been found as the key theoretical ground for many studies, including those within the marketing literature, to describe consumers’ identification (Elbedweihy et al., 2016; Johnson, 2005). According to Tajfel and Turner (1985)'s social identity theory, both social identity (identity related to groups to which consumers belong) and personal identity (identity related to consumers’ sense of their own self) are important parts of consumers’ self-concept (Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Elbedweihy et al., 2016; White et al., 2012). Consumers tend to respond to a given situation that are consistent either with their personal identity or their social identity. Proponents of social identity theory proposes that consumers categorize themselves as well as others into more inclusive social units which help them to order their social environment and serves as a means to define themselves and others (Elbedweihy et al., 2016).

In the literature, it is suggested that social identity theory can better explain why consumers are engaged in status consumption (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012). Consumers tend to evaluate products favourably when those products are related to their identity related goals (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012; White et al., 2012). In this regard, Lertwannawit and Mandhachitara (2012) noted that both social force (that is, displaying group membership) and internal force (that is, displaying individuality) help develop social identity. Specifically, when consumers' social identity is threatened, preference is given on those products, especially status oriented products, that help enhance their self (concept), display the image they want to possess, and that allow them to be a part of their desired group (Ivanic, 2015).

1.4.3 Self-determination theory

To understand the motivations behind consumers' goal-directed behaviours, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) has received much attention in the literature (Truong & McColl, 2011; Truong et al., 2008). Self-determination theory posits that consumers are driven by two motivations – intrinsic and extrinsic – toward specific behaviours (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself whereas extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). Intrinsic motivations are characterised by inward orientation where fulfilment of three psychological needs – autonomy, competence, relatedness - are important for the sake of satisfaction, enjoyment, and personal meanings. On the other hand, extrinsic motivations are outward oriented, driven by financial success (money and luxury), social recognition (fame),

and appealing appearance (image) stemming from a desire to earn a praise and reward (Van Hiel et al., 2010).

Grounded on self-determination theory, studies have broadened the knowledge of consumers' acquisition and consumption of products (Truong & McColl, 2011; Truong et al., 2008). By extending the application of self-determination theory to the context of luxury purchase, Ki and Kim (2016) assert that the purchase of luxury products are mostly influenced by the extrinsic motivation such as to signal wealth and status. However, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are important (Van Hiel et al., 2010), and help fulfil psychological needs (Truong et al., 2010). While examining service industry, prior studies utilise self-determination theory in relation to education, health care, tourism and leisure, skin care and beauty, hotels, to name a few (see Hon, 2011; Linet al., 2009; Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; White, 2015; White & Thompson 2009). In examining the hotel industry, studies utilize self-determination theory by emphasizing on employees' behaviour (Hon 2011; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu 2011). However, examining behaviours of consumers in relation to hotel brand choice is important because, as Lin, Tsai, and Chiu (2009) note, understanding of self-determined motivations exemplify the survival of service firms that depend heavily on consumers' patronage.

1.5 Research design

1.5.1 Research approach

Planning the research design is the crucial stage in any research. The process of research design instigates when the problems or opportunities are identified and defined as well as research objectives are established (Sreejesh et al., 2014; Zikmund, 1991). Sreejesh et al. (2014, p. 16) define a research design as “the actual framework of research that provides specific details regarding the process to be followed in conducting the research”. It is considered as the blueprint required for the completion of the study (Churchill, 1995).

In general, two types of research paradigm are used while conducting research - positivism which relates to the quantitative research, and phenomenology that uses qualitative research. Methodology using positivism view uses deduction reasoning, objective approach, begins with a theoretical position and moving towards concrete empirical evidence using structured questionnaires and employing data collection methods that require an extensive use of statistics (Cavana et al., 2001). The phenomenology view focuses on the inductive, subjective approaches that explore, seek, and describe the research using observations, interviews and case studies rather than using statistical analysis (Collis & Hussey, 2009). In order to effectively conduct the proposed research investigations and answer research questions, this research encompasses positivism paradigm, and, thus, applies quantitative research tools and techniques. Recent studies have largely focused on the positivistic approach or quantitative methods to examine status consumption (Chan et al., 2015; Huang & Wang, 2017; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2014; Kim & Jang, 2014; Nabi et al., 2017; O'Cass

& Siahtiri, 2013; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Therefore, utilising positivistic approach or quantitative methods is believed to be appropriate for this study.

Furthermore, among a number of quantitative research approaches, the survey approach is deemed appropriate. Malhotra (2000, p. 178) defines the survey approach as “a structured questionnaire given to a sample of a population and designed to elicit specific information from respondents”. The author also states that using survey provides a number of advantages - questionnaire used for conducting survey is easy to administer, the data obtained are often reliable and simple to code, analyse, and interpret (Malhotra, 2000). In addition to the above mentioned advantages, this research considers the following reasons to select the survey approach for the purpose of data collection. First, the survey approach is widely used as a means of data collection to conduct similar areas of study. Second, the survey approach is appropriate to collect specific information required to address the research questions and to test the hypotheses. Third, utilising the survey approach allows researchers to access large sample size at a relatively low cost, and generate questions and answers that help identify relationships of interest that are not directly observable (Cavana et al., 2001).

1.5.2 Development of measures

Measurement of the constructs is an integral part of research and an important aspect of quantitative research design. This research has adopted the existing measures of the constructs after the careful review of the literature. For the purpose of data collection, two survey instruments were administered. Specifically, the first survey instrument was employed to address research questions 1 and 2. In this survey, eight items were adopted

from the work of Bearden et al. (1989) to measure susceptibility to interpersonal influence. To measure need for uniqueness, seven items were drawn from the work of Bian and Forsythe (2012), adopted from the original items used by Tian et al. (2001). Status consumption was measured by five items utilised by Eastman et al. (1999)². Five items were adopted from the work of Diener et al. (1985) to measure life satisfaction. To measure collectivism and individualism, sixteen items (eight items for collectivism and eight items for individualism) were adopted from the work of Triandis and Gelfand (1998). Two survey items were developed to measure motivation to consume conspicuously. To evaluate the face and content validity of all measures, two pilot studies were conducted with 35 respondents for the first survey instrument. The results of pilot studies indicated that the instructions and items in the survey were clear and easy to understand, therefore no changes were made in the survey.

The second survey instrument was used to address research question 3 and included existing measures of the constructs from the literature. To measure self-consistency and snob motivation, three items from the work of Wiedmann et al. (2009) and four items from the work of Tian et al. (2001) were adopted respectively. Perceived brand status was measured by five items developed by Eastman et al. (1999). To measure anticipated emotions, eight items (four items for positive anticipated emotions and four items for negative anticipated emotions) were adopted from the work of Song et al. (2012). Finally, share of wallet and consideration set size were measured with single items used by Nyffenegger et al. (2014). A panel of expert

² As the first paper is published in the journal and went through review process, the negative worded item of status consumption was removed from the final analysis based on the reviewers' suggestions.

judges evaluated the face validity of the measures of this survey instrument. Based on their suggestions, three items of perceived brand status that indicate consumers' assigned level of status a luxury hotel brand possesses were utilised for the final survey. Additionally, as the survey was developed specifically for luxury hotel brands, the items were reworded and modified by indicating luxury hotel brands. Furthermore, ambiguous items were re-worded and modified.

1.5.3 Sample, data collection, and data analysis

The surveys for this research were administered to a sample of non-student, tertiary educated, professionals from the USA and Bangladesh. Two separate panels obtained from a professional research firm were recruited to collect data from the USA (to address research question 2 and 3). Further, the survey was administered by the researcher in person to collect data from Bangladesh (to address research questions 1 and 2). The collected data were analysed by using SPSS version 22.0. A number of statistical analysis techniques - descriptive analysis, factor analysis, reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and regression analysis – were conducted for describing data, preliminary analysis, and hypotheses testing.

1.5.4 Research contexts

The USA is considered as a leading market for luxury products and services (Shukla, 2012). The USA accounts for the second largest share (32%) of global personal luxury goods market (Bain & Co., 2017) and is expected to perform the role of main contributor of the future luxury market worldwide (The Boston Consulting Group, 2016). However, the growing

number of affluent and middle class consumers in emerging Asian countries is uncovering the opportunity to expand the market of luxury products (Shukla et al., 2015). The emerging countries are defined as the most populous, highest-potential emerging economies after the BRICS (O'Neill, 2018). These countries are considered to have extremely diverse economic and social conditions, and different levels of wealth (O'Neill, 2018). A review of the academic literature revealed that several studies have been conducted to understand consumers' status seeking behaviour in the context of emerging country (e.g., Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; O'Cass et al., 2013; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014; Shukla, 2010). However, countries like Bangladesh that are experiencing economic transition and are considered a potential market for luxury products have largely been overlooked by researchers. Bangladesh, positioned to become part of the next emerging countries after BRICS (e.g., Helal & Hossain, 2013; O'Neill, 2018), has seen the middle class increase to approximately 30 million individuals in last few years (The Australian Trade Commission, 2016). The prosperous growth of real estate and garment industry in Bangladesh has also created an affluent middle class who are considered a growing market for luxury products (Munir et al., 2015). Therefore, selecting Bangladesh provides a suitable research context to address research question 1 and examine consumers' status seeking behaviours in the context of an emerging country. Furthermore, to validate the theoretical framework developed to address research question 2, this thesis makes comparisons between an individualist, developed country and a collectivist, emerging country. In this regard, the USA representing as an individualist country and Bangladesh representing a collectivist country (Diener & Diener, 1995) meet the criteria respectively. This criterion is also supported by the work of Hofstede et al. (2010) showing that the USA holds the strong

position on individualism dimension with a score of 91 while Bangladesh scores 20 on individualism dimension indicating their position as a collectivist country (Haque & Mohammad, 2013). These two countries also met the criteria of developed and emerging countries (United Nations, 2016). Therefore, selecting the USA and Bangladesh is considered rational choices to address research question 2 of this thesis.

Moreover, this thesis examines consumers' behaviours related to perceived status of luxury service brands in the context of developed country. To examine perceived brand status, this thesis investigated luxury hotel industry, a broad sector of service industry. The hotel industry experiencing rapid growth in recent years. Hotels along with exclusive vacations are account for the largest share at \$354 billion in retail value of the overall luxury markets in 2016. According to Smith Travel Research report, the average occupancy daily rate in 2016 grew by 3.1% to \$124.18 in luxury hotel industry (see Sheel, 2016). Continuing the previous growth, the hotel industry is projected to sustain strong growth (by 5% – 6%) throughout 2018 (Deloitte, 2018). Despite this significant growth and value of this industry, limited studies have examined the extent to which consumers' perception of status ascribed to specific luxury hotel brands influence their hotel choice decisions, therefore, selecting luxury hotel industry is considered appropriate to address research question 3.

1.6 Terms and definitions

The following table (Table 1.1) includes the terms and definitions used in this thesis.

Table 1.1: Constructs and definitions

Constructs	Definitions
Status consumption	Gaining status or social prestige from the acquisition and consumption of products (goods and services) that both consumers and significant others perceive as high in status (O’Cass & Frost, 2002).
Susceptibility to interpersonal influence	The need to identify or enhance one’s image with significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands, the willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions and/or the tendency to learn about products and services by observing others and/or seeking information from others (Bearden et al., 1989).
Need for uniqueness	Pursuing differentness relative to others through the acquisition, utilization, and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one’s self-image and social image (Tian, et al., 2001).
Motivation to consume conspicuously	The tendency for individuals to enhance their image, through overt consumption of possessions, which communicates status to others (O’Cass & McEwen, 2004).

Life satisfaction	A global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his chosen criteria (Shin & Johnson, 1978).
Collectivism	A social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as an integral part of one or more in-groups, such as family or coworkers (Triandis, 1995).
Individualism	A social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as autonomous and independent (Triandis, 1995).
Creative choice counter-conformity	The tendency of individuals to differentiate themselves from others by selecting products or brands that are different from the established norms but acceptable to others (Tian et al., 2001).
Perceived brand status	The consumers' assigned level of status a brand possesses (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013)
Self-consistency	The motivational tendency to act in ways consistent with one's personal identity (Sirgy & Su, 2000).
Snob motivation	The extent to which the demand for a consumers' good is decreased owing to the fact that others are also consuming the same commodity (or that others are increasing their consumption of that commodity) (Leibenstein, 1950).
Share of wallet	The percentage of money spent on a specific brand relative to the money spent for other brands in the same product category (Nyffenegger et al., 2014).

Consideration set size	The number of brands of the same product category that a consumer considers when making a purchase decision (Nyffenegger et al., 2014).
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Anticipated emotions	<p>The anticipated post-behavioural positive/negative affective reactions (Han et al., 2015).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive anticipated emotion - A favourable aspect of prospect-based emotional responses. • Negative anticipated emotion - An unfavourable facet of forward-looking emotional responses.
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1.7 Summary of the papers

This research consists of three independent but related academic papers focusing on status seeking behaviours. A summary of these three papers are as follows.

Paper one: Status consumption in newly emerging countries: The influence of personality traits and the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously.

Utilising social comparison theory and social identity theory, this paper examines the influence of two personality traits – susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness – on consumers’ status consumption tendency in the emerging country context. Considering the conspicuous nature of the consumers in emerging countries, the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously on the relationship between status consumption and susceptibility to interpersonal influence as well as need for uniqueness were investigated. In this regard, this paper examines the extent to which two product categories - automobiles,

and fashion clothing and apparels - mediate the relationships between these two personality traits and status consumption. Drawing on data from Bangladesh, this paper contributes in the consumer behaviour literature and practice by identifying and examining the role of personality traits that stimulate the choice of status products in countries experiencing recent economic transition.

Paper two: In search of status and a satisfying life: Unpacking cultural and consumer drivers of status seeking and life satisfaction in developed and emerging countries.

While status consumption is prevalent in both developed and emerging countries, it is unclear whether such consumption differs between developed and emerging countries. Therefore, grounded on social comparison theory, this paper develops an integrated model to examine the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction across countries which are different in both economic and cultural domains. To enhance the knowledge of status consumption and life satisfaction across countries, this paper focuses on convergence of cultural values across different cultures and brings attention to creative choice counter-conformity, and two cultural orientations – individualism and collectivism. Drawing on data from the USA (as a developed country) and Bangladesh (as an emerging country), this paper enhances the knowledge of the interplay between status consumption and life satisfaction of consumers driven by individualism and collectivism in the developed country and emerging country context.

Paper three: Examining the perceived brand status in relation to consumers' intrinsic/extrinsic motivations, anticipated emotions and loyalty in the context of luxury hotels.

The tendency to consume wide range of products that enhance status of consumers is growing. However, lack of knowledge remains regarding the role of status in luxury intangible services, such as hotel brands choice. Therefore, using self-determination theory, this paper examines the relationships between perceived status of luxury hotel brands and self-consistency (an intrinsic motivation), snob (an extrinsic motivation), positive and negative anticipated emotions and behavioural loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size. This paper contributes in the literature by enhancing the knowledge of consumers' status seeking behaviour and their luxury hotel staying behaviour. This study also provides important implications for luxury hotel marketers.

To summarise these papers, Table 1.2 briefly illustrates the relationships in this thesis before the details of the papers in Chapter Two, Three and Four are presented.

Table 1.2: Relationships in the thesis

	Paper One	Paper Two	Paper Three
Independent variable(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Susceptibility to interpersonal influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collectivism • Individualism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-consistency motivation
Dependent variables(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status consumption 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life satisfaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Share of wallet • Consideration set size
Mediator(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation to consume conspicuously 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status consumption • Creative choice counter-conformity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived brand status
Moderator(s)			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Snob motivation • Anticipated emotions

1.8 Delimitations of scope

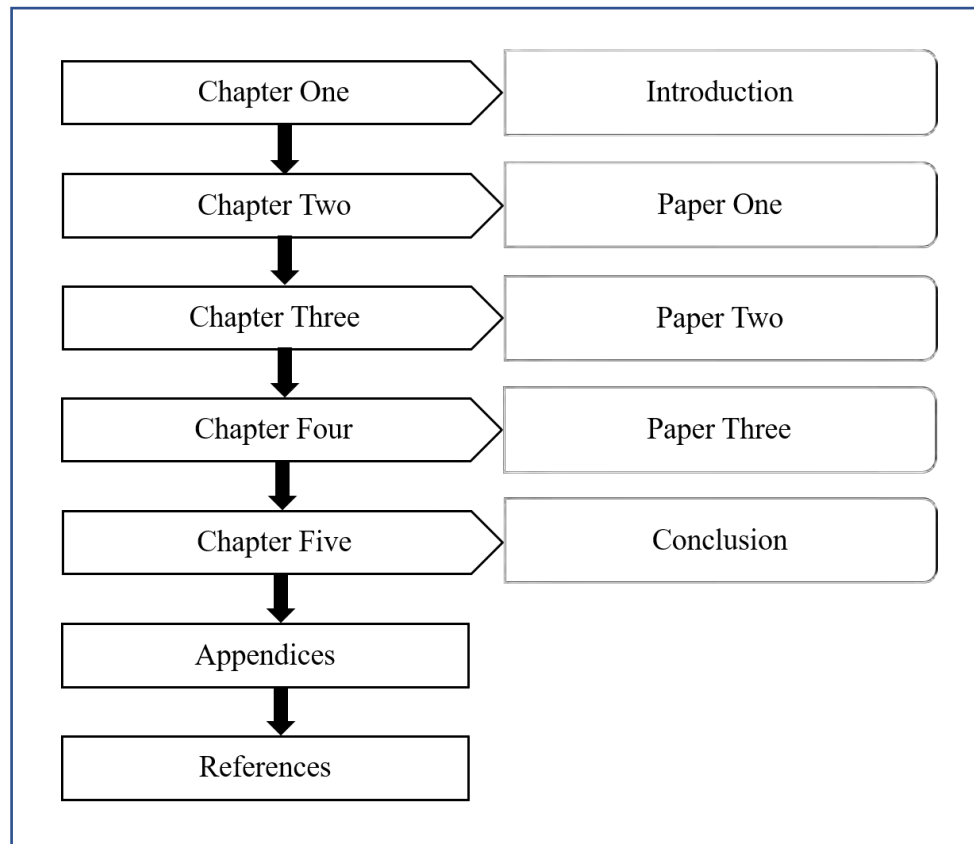
Although this thesis provides valuable insights, some potential delimitations of this thesis should be considered. These delimitations define the boundaries of this thesis within which the research has been conducted. The following delimitations limit the generalizability of the findings of this thesis. First, while examining the status consumption tendency in the context of developed and emerging country (addressed in paper one and paper two), this research did not use any specific brand(s). Second, the review of literature suggests that there is a plethora of factors that are related to status consumption. However, to keep the study in manageable proportions, this research utilised a limited set of factors to examine status consumption, for instance, susceptibility to interpersonal influence, need for uniqueness, snob, self-consistency, collectivism, individualism, motivation to consume conspicuously, life satisfaction, share of wallet, consideration set size, and anticipated emotions. Third, due to time and resource constraints, this research is delimited to collect data only from the USA to examine status in the context of luxury hotel. The limitations of this research are discussed in details in Chapter Five.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

The thesis comprises five chapters followed by appendices and references. A brief description of each chapter are given below. For better clarity, the structure of this thesis is summarized in Figure 1.1.

Chapter One provides an overview of this thesis. The chapter first describes the background of the study. This leads to discussion of research gaps, research questions, and objectives, followed by contributions of the research, theoretical foundations, research design, terms and definitions used in this research, summary of the papers, and delimitations of scope. **Chapter Two, Three and Four** contain three independent but related papers, with separate references, tables, and figures. In particular, Chapter Two examines the relationship of status consumption with susceptibility to interpersonal influence, need for uniqueness, and motivation consume conspicuously. Chapter Three, then, examines and compares the relationship of status consumption with life satisfaction, cultural orientations (e.g., individualism, collectivism), and creative choice counter-conformity. Chapter Four investigates the perceived brand status in relation to self-consistency (an intrinsic motivation), snob (an extrinsic motivation), loyalty (e.g., share of wallet, consideration set size), and positive and negative anticipated emotions in the luxury hotel context. **Chapter Five** summarizes the findings of the three papers discussed in Chapter Two, Three, and Four followed by both theoretical and practical implications, limitations and future research directions gathered from these three papers. The **Appendices** of this thesis provide the Ethics approval letter. At the end of the thesis, a complete **reference** list is provided that includes all the references used in this thesis.

Figure 1.1: Structure of the thesis



1.10 Conclusion

While the contributions of past research are acknowledged, several aspects related to status seeking warrant more research. This thesis, therefore, takes a step forward to conduct a holistic analysis of status consumption in several contexts on tangible products and intangible services. This chapter of the thesis has provided an overview of the research. The background information explicitly specifies the research gap in the literature, followed by research questions, and areas of contributions of this thesis. This chapter also provides an outline of the theoretical foundations, research design, terms and definitions used, followed by summary of three papers, delimitations of scope and structure of this thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

Paper One

**Status consumption in newly emerging countries:
The influence of personality traits and the mediating role
of motivation to consume conspicuously**

Pages 34-64 of this thesis have been removed as they contain published material. Please refer to the following citation for details of the article contained in these pages.

Nabi, N., O'Cass, A., & Siahtiri, V. (2019). Status consumption in newly emerging countries: The influence of personality traits and the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 46, pp.173-178.

DOI: [10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.09.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.09.009)

CHAPTER THREE

Paper Two

**In search for status and a satisfying life:
Unpacking cultural and consumer drivers of status
seeking and life satisfaction in developed and emerging
countries**

Abstract

Purpose – This study develops an integrated model to show status consumption and life satisfaction resulted from consuming status products is becoming a global dominant phenomenon. In this regard, this study aims to examine the extent to which cultures (countries) are converging toward status seeking behaviour. To test this proposition, the proposed research model explains the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction, creative choice counter-conformity and cultural orientations – collectivism, individualism in two developed and developing countries.

Design/methodology/approach - A survey of 428 respondents from two countries - 159 from the USA and 269 from Bangladesh - were used in this study.

Findings - The results show that the positive relationship between cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism) and status consumption was stronger in the USA compared to Bangladesh. Furthermore, Bangladeshis were more satisfied with their life than individuals' in the USA when consuming for status. Additionally, creative choice counter-conformity was found to mediate the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in the USA sample, but not in Bangladeshi sample.

Implications – Grounded on social comparison theory, the findings advance theoretical understanding of the interplay between status seeking, life satisfaction, cultural orientations (individualism, and collectivism), and creative choice counter-conformity. We show that, regardless of the differences across countries in economic and cultural domains, individuals from such countries are showing similar patterns of status seeking behaviour in search of a satisfying life. The findings also provide directions for further studies in relation to status consumption and life satisfaction.

Practical implications – For international marketers who want to expand their business in developed and/or emerging countries, we suggest that both individualistic and collectivistic elements may be used to position status brands across countries.

Originality/value – The findings enrich the existing literature by suggesting that the pursuit of status and corresponding levels of life satisfaction are becoming more similar across countries even in those with cultural differences, contributing to the ongoing debate around the relationship between status seeking and life satisfaction.

Keywords - Life satisfaction; Status consumption; Collectivism; Individualism; Creative choice counter-conformity.

Paper type - Research paper

3.1 Introduction

How happy are people today? How satisfied are people in different societies with their lives? How do our living conditions affect modes of consumption and satisfaction with life through status consumption? These questions have made the concept “life satisfaction” as a major research stream (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2017)⁸. Consumption as a means to a satisfying life has become engrained in an ongoing debate around excessive consumption, consumption used to define ourselves and our prestige and consumption to make us happy. According to a recent research report (Australian Psychological Society, 2016), one in ten individuals emphasize acquiring or consuming products such as expensive clothes, cars, or homes as symbols of success and predictors of a good life. However, while some advocate that consumption of certain products helps to achieve higher-order needs such as status (Zhang & Xiong, 2015) and consequently satisfaction with one’s life (Anderson et al., 2012), others claim that consumption may result in dissatisfaction with life (see Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; Linssen et al., 2011).

Advocates of a positive role for consumption in life satisfaction believe the choice of products differs when consumption is related to life satisfaction. For status conscious individuals consuming status-oriented products is thought to increase their satisfaction with life. Consuming status products is believed to send positive signals to others and help to fit into a desired group, compared to products that do not enhance status (Eastman & Eastman,

⁸ Here, the term life satisfaction has been used as a synonym with subjective well-being and happiness (Veenhoven, 1996), but some discussions of the literature use the term happiness and subjective well-being instead.

2015; Perez-Truglia, 2013; Dumludag, 2015). However, those who argue against the positive role of status consumption in life satisfaction believe individuals' efforts to gain status from products damages their life satisfaction due to short-lived positive emotions emanating from consumption of these products (Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Richins, 2013; Ahuvia, 2008).

In addition to the ongoing debate around the relationship between status seeking and life satisfaction, it remains unclear if the pursuit of status and corresponding levels of life satisfaction are similar across countries with cultural differences. Given the growing prominence of status seeking through consumption and individuals' desire for a satisfying life, understanding the interplay between these two significant social phenomena – status seeking and life satisfaction - is critical. In the literature, it is noted that search for satisfaction in life through consumption first emerged in the West (see. Shukla, 2010). Furthermore, the majority of studies on status consumption have been conducted in Western countries with the view that individualism drives status consumption (see. Zhang & Nelson, 2016). However, the tendency to be concerned with status appears to be increasing in some emerging Asian countries with significant changes in spending and consumption patterns (Nabi et al., 2017; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). This highlights the need to determine the extent cultural orientations influence individuals' propensity to consume for status, which leads to greater or lesser life satisfaction in emerging countries in comparison to developed countries. Therefore, motivated by previous studies and ongoing debate (e.g., Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015; Linssen et al., 2011; Anderson et al., 2012), we focus on the relationship of status consumption within the settings of cultural orientations and life satisfaction. We draw attention to the extent that status consumption influences life

satisfaction in different countries – focusing specifically on the developed, individualist country (e.g., USA) and emerging Asian country (e.g., Bangladesh).

One important aspect that determines one's life satisfaction is social comparison (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015). Thus, we build our model on social comparison theory and present a unique context comparing the relationship of status consumption within cultural orientations, creative choice counter-conformity and life satisfaction in two different country settings. We contribute to the literature by extending knowledge of the influences of collectivism and individualism on status consumption, and in turn examine the role of status consumption as an antecedent of life satisfaction (e.g. Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015; Schimmack et al., 2002).

Additionally, to better understand the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction, we analyse the mediating role of creative choice counter-conformity which helps individuals create a unique identity and differentiate themselves from others. While search for unique identity has been studied in relation to consuming specific products (Bian & Forsythe, 2012; Chan et al., 2015, Chan et al., 2012), the relationship between life satisfaction and uniqueness seeking has received less attention (Demir et al., 2013). In line with the argument that fulfilling one's uniqueness motivation is necessary for a satisfying life (Debrosse et al., 2015), we contribute to the literature by analysing how creating uniqueness through the creative, novel choices that are acceptable to others explains the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction.

3.2 Conceptual background and hypotheses development

Life satisfaction is defined as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his chosen criteria” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478). To evaluate their life satisfaction, individuals compare their circumstances with standards that they think are appropriate for them and they set themselves (Diener et al., 1985). In relation to this point some researchers have sought to identify the factors that influence life satisfaction positively (see Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). However, what makes individuals satisfied with their life differs greatly across countries based on two perspectives - the level of economic and social development (Stanca and Veenhoven, 2015) as well as on the cultural orientations of countries. Compared to emerging countries, individuals from developed countries are found to be higher in satisfaction with life because individuals’ better economic conditions lead to the fulfilment of their desires (Ahuvia, 2002; Dumludag, 2015; Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002)⁹. From a cultural orientation perspective, individualists emphasize more on intrinsic motivations such as personal growth or individual achievement to gain higher level of life satisfaction rather than focusing on extrinsic motivations as collectivists do (Ahuvia, 2002).

Consumption of certain products can reflect one’s position in society (Dumludag, 2015) or achieving a sought after social position that can influence their life satisfaction (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; 2015). In this regard, hedonic consumption (Guevarra & Howell, 2015),

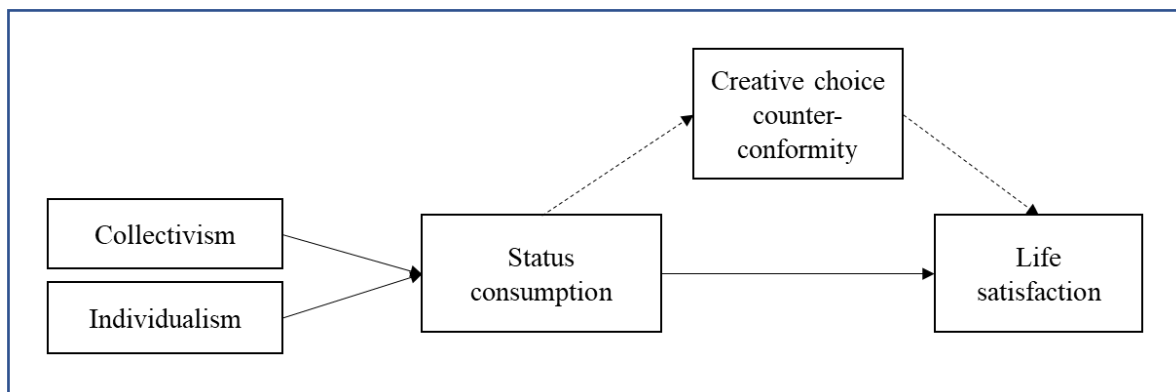
⁹ Developed countries are considered as rich in individualism and emerging countries rich in collectivism (Ahuvia, 2002).

material and experiential consumption (Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Dunn et al., 2011; Gilovich et al., 2015; Nicolao et al., 2009) and luxury consumption (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; 2015) have been studied to investigate their influence on life satisfaction. It has been noted that, while consuming specific products (visible products), one of the major concerns individuals have is to signal their identity (e.g., status). This phenomenon is denoted as status consumption which refers to gaining status or social prestige from the acquisition and consumption of products that an individual and significant others perceive as high in status (O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Signalling positive identity may influence one's life satisfaction positively by providing a sense of accomplishment (Carter & Gilovich, 2012) and group membership (DeLeire & Kalil, 2010; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). While it has been claimed that consumption of products for status attainment is detrimental to life, consumption of such products is more likely to improve social position and provides feelings of superiority. Individuals experience satisfaction in life through having a sense of status in terms of peer respect, and occupying a higher position giving a sense of power and social acceptance (Anderson et al., 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015).

To gauge life satisfaction and determine status, social comparison theory explains how and why individuals compare themselves with others (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015; Winkelmann, 2012). Festinger (1954) posits that while making decisions, individuals' compare their opinions and abilities with others when there is a lack of objective criteria to evaluate. Comparing characteristics, skills, and life circumstances with that of other people can influence how individuals feel about themselves (Festinger, 1954; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015). Moreover, in order to improve their position, individuals consciously

purchase and display ownership of status products to show superiority, which in turn, increases life satisfaction (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015). By engaging in social comparison, individuals may become satisfied with their life as long as they think they are doing better than others (Emmons & Diener, 1985; Frieswijk et al., 2004). Grounded on social comparison theory, the conceptual model demonstrates the interrelationships between the constructs of this study (see Figure 3.1).

Figure: 3.1: Conceptual model



3.2.1 Relationship between cultural orientations and status consumption

Culture is defined as the beliefs, values, and norms of a specific location group (Triandis, 1995). It is suggested that a country's economic conditions contribute in application of two cultural orientations, individualism and collectivism and how these cultural values influence many aspects of consumers' behaviour (Ahuvia, 2002). As Ahuvia (2002) noted, economically developed countries hold the individualism orientation, while collectivism occurs for economically underdeveloped or emerging countries. Similarly, cultural

orientations tend to occur at social class levels; for example, upper and middle class individuals are more likely to follow the individualism orientation, while lower social class holds collectivism. Upper and middle class individuals are in a better economic condition; therefore, they are able to make choices that fulfil their intrinsic motivations (often considered as individualistic) and increase their life satisfaction (Ahuvia, 2002).

Triandis (1995) defines collectivism as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as an integral part of one or more in-groups, such as family or coworkers. Collectivists give importance to conformity, cooperation, unity, and harmony. Individuals from collectivist countries are found to be more concerned about their in-group (e.g. tribe, nation, workgroup, family, and/or friends) relationship, rather than out-groups because they wish to integrate in their communities. On the other hand, individualism is defined as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as autonomous and independent (Triandis, 1995). Individualists take care of themselves and their immediate families (Hofstede, 1980) and are motivated by their own preferences and needs to enhance their self, placing greater emphasis on their personal goals (Kacen & Lee, 2002).

Further, cultural orientations are believed to play an important role in status consumption (Kim & Zhang, 2014). This belief represents a growing census among scholars that status consumption is becoming a worldwide trend (Gao et al., 2016). Individuals' quest for status is projected as a well-established phenomenon in individualist countries (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015; Zhang & Nelson, 2016); however, the presence of status consumption in collectivist countries appears to growing with a rapid pace because of economic

advancement. Collectivists' focus on both social groups as well as on social comparison which is thought to be behind the growth in status consumption in collectivist countries (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015). Recent work, comparing a collectivist country and individualist country, shows both individualism and collectivism cultural orientations present strong connection to status consumption; however, the reason behind this in each culture differs (Shukla, 2010). While individualists engage in status consumption because of their focus on self, collectivists engage in status consumption because of how others see and think of them (Shukla, 2010).

Further, as a cultural orientation, collectivists are more likely to focus on interpersonal relationships (Wu, 2011), honor, and status (Ahuvia, 2002) compared to their individualistic counterparts. Collectivists may rely heavily on consuming status products when they wish to be accepted by their in-group or to signal status to others (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015; Eastman et al., 2018; Tascioglu et al., 2017). While Asian countries are considered collectivist in nature (Sivadas et al., 2008), status consumption may be high as individuals from these countries are concerned about social identity (Oliver & Lee, 2010) and are susceptible to social comparison (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015). Taking these points into account, we propose collectivist countries, characterized by a hierarchical society where interpersonal relationships are based on status and position (e.g., Ehsan, 2002), have stronger reasons to engage in status consumption compared to their individualist counterparts. Therefore,

H1. The relationship between collectivism and status consumption is stronger in emerging countries than in developed countries.

Unlike collectivism, the hallmarks of individualists are uniqueness, independence, self-expression and base identity on personal accomplishment (Hofstede, 1980) which is a common theme in most Western countries (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Sivadas et al., 2008). Individuals from individualist countries are concerned about improving their individual status and differentiating themselves through competition, achievement and power (Shavitt et al., 2006). Individualists have keen interests to purchase status products that enhance their self-esteem and self-image (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015; Zhang and Nelson, 2016). In individualistic countries, status consumption has been an established pattern for more than 100 years (Zhang & Nelson, 2016). Further, individualism influences status consumption in individualist countries where maintaining status may be necessary for the fulfilment of personal-self over social-self. Therefore,

H2. The relationship between individualism and status consumption is stronger in developed countries than in emerging countries.

3.2.2 Relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction

Consuming status products is thought to positively influence one's life satisfaction because such consumption signals his/her accomplishment (Ahuvia, 2008; Anderson et al., 2012). The experiences ownership of status products provides (Mai & Tambyah, 2011), especially by creating feelings of having high status within peer groups, leads to a more positive emotional state that influences life satisfaction (DeLeire & Kalil, 2010; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). Although status consumption is prevalent (Gao et al., 2016), the precise relationship between status and life satisfaction is likely to differ across countries (Anderson et al., 2015) depending on the economic development (Dumludag, 2015). On this point, Ford

et al. (2015) propose that collectivists, compared to individualist countries, are more concerned with the search for life satisfaction in more or less socially engaged ways, especially through interpersonal relationships. At the same time, collectivists are more likely to set priority on maintaining status and social prestige (Ahuvia, 2002). Therefore, life satisfaction is predicated on possessing high status as well as by social acceptance which are considered as major traits of collectivist countries (Anderson et al., 2012; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998).

While the aspiration for status through products is prevalent in both developed and emerging countries (Shukla, 2012; Anderson et al., 2015), it is expected that the level of life satisfaction through status may be weaker in developed countries (Sortheix & Lönnqvist, 2014). In their study on personal values priorities and life satisfaction, Sortheix & Lönnqvist (2014) noted that self-enhancement values such as pursuit of status or prestige, and of being recognized as more successful than others represent a self-concerned motivation in Western developed countries which is detrimental to a satisfying life. This is because search for status and respect from others weakens one's personal autonomy and prevents one from nurturing their interpersonal relationships.

Whereas life satisfaction is strongly influenced by the standard of living in emerging countries compared to countries considered rich (Dumludag, 2015), the emergence of an affluent middle class in emerging Asian countries, is seeing a movement toward better lifestyles and widening purchase patterns (Xiao & Kim, 2009). This is especially so for products that are perceived as having higher status (Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013). As

individuals in emerging Asian countries move from lower to higher standards of living, they consciously select products that signal their achievements (Bhardwaj et al., 2011). Because of their collectivistic nature, individuals from emerging Asian countries generally focus more on group relationships and societal welfare, therefore, are often fulfilled (Xiao & Kim, 2009). The achievements individuals experience are often perceived as group achievements in addition to their own which in turn provides them with the perception of a satisfying life (Sortheix & Lönnqvist, 2014). Therefore,

H3. The relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction is stronger in emerging countries than in developed countries.

3.2.3 The role of creative choice counter-conformity in status consumption and life satisfaction

The existing literature indicates that individuals often experience threats to their identity when they perceived themselves similar to others, and this perception generates negative evaluation of their self-image (Chan et al., 2012; Snyder & Fromkin, 1977; Zhan & He, 2012). To lessen this identity threats, individuals are driven by counter-conformity motivations and behaviours that differentiate them from others (Tian et al., 2001). Therefore, creative choice counter-conformity, defined as the tendency of individuals to differentiate themselves from others by selecting products or brands that are different from the established norms but acceptable to others, is of particular interest (Tian et al., 2001).

It is noted that the search for uniqueness is stronger in countries dominant with individualism than collectivist countries (Kim & Markus, 1999; Triandis, 1995). Individuals in collectivist

countries emphasize collective identity and social group norms, focusing more on maintaining their group prestige in addition to that of their own (Bian & Forsythe, 2012). In contrast, individuals from individualist countries are more concerned about “I-identity” than “we-identity”, showing their concern about self-prestige rather than social (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Individualists focus more on uniqueness (Sivadas et al., 2008), thus, they often purchase original, novel, or unique products or display ordinary products in creative ways that expresses their unique identity (Tian et al., 2001). Consuming such products may also help individuals to be a part of a distinctive group (Tian & McKenzie, 2001). By integrating the identity of that desired group into their personal identity, individuals gain psychological benefits (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), which in turn, provide them with the feelings of having a satisfying life (Debrosse et al., 2015). On the other hand, as priority is given more to interpersonal relationships and conformity to group norms, individuals from emerging Asian countries may avoid products that are unique and less recognizable by their peers (Shukla, 2012). We assume representing unique identity through creative, novel or original products, which at the same time, are considered as good choices by others may explain how consuming for status is related to satisfaction with life for those in more individualistic countries than collectivist countries. Therefore,

H4. Creative choice counter-conformity mediates the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in developed countries, not in emerging countries.

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Sample and data collection

We collected data in the USA (an individualist country) and Bangladesh (a collectivist country) (e.g. Diener & Diener, 1995). Hofstede et al. (2010) notes the USA as the most individualist country with a score of 91, and Bangladesh as collectivist having a score of 20 on individualism (see Haque & Mohammad, 2013). These two countries also met the criteria of developed and emerging countries (United Nations, 2016). We administered the survey to a sample of non-student, tertiary educated, professionals. The surveys were distributed to 300 respondents in Bangladesh and 190 respondents in the USA. After removing incomplete questionnaires, 428 completed surveys were received, 159 from the USA and 269 from Bangladesh, and were used in the resulting analysis. The mean age was 36 for the USA sample and 46 for the Bangladesh sample. Of the total sample, 71.85% of the respondents held postgraduate qualifications (USA: 66%; Bangladesh: 75%), and had occupations such as engineers, architects, doctors, teachers, managers, and business people.

3.3.2 Measurement development and validation

We drew on existing measures from the literature. To measure cultural orientations, eight items measuring collectivism and eight items measuring individualism were adopted from Triandis & Gelfand (1998). Status consumption was measured with five items from Eastman et al. (1999). Five items were adopted from Diener et al. (1985) to measure life satisfaction. Finally, to measure creative choice counter-conformity, three items were utilised from the work of Bian and Forsythe (2012), adopted from the original items used by Tian et al. (2001).

The items focus on achieving unique identity through the purchase of original, novel, or unique products or displaying ordinary products in creative ways (e.g. Tian et al., 2001). All measures used seven-point Likert scales (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree).

To assess face and content validity, as well as conceptual and functional equivalency, a pilot study was conducted with twelve multinational PhD students, including five Bangladeshi nationals. As the survey was in English, later, twenty-three individuals from Bangladesh, similar to the final sample in terms of demographic characteristics, were included in the pilot study as suggested by Malhotra et al. (2008). The respondents were asked to complete the survey and then comment on instructions and items for readability and clarity. Outcomes suggested that the instructions and items were clear and easy to understand and no substantial differences were found regarding the meaning of the measures. Furthermore, to minimize the common method variance, specific procedural remedies recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) were employed. Respondents were assured of anonymity. To decrease the negative effect of social desirability, they were also informed that there were no right or wrong answers, and they should answer questions as honestly as possible. Finally, a specific attention check measure was included in the survey.

3.4 Analysis and findings

3.4.1 Preliminary analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to test the factor loading of items. Following previous studies (e.g., Yim et al., 2014), we removed items with factor loadings less than 0.50. Through this process, we removed one item for individualism and life satisfaction that did not meet these criteria. To assess the internal consistency, reliability tests were used for each sample. Cronbach's alpha for all constructs ranged from 0.76 to 0.96 consistent with the work of Shukla (2010). The results confirm the suitability of the measures across both samples. The results including factor loadings and reliabilities are reported in Appendix.

To determine convergent and discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated. As shown in Table 3.1, the values of all AVEs were above 0.50, greater than the threshold suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) indicating satisfactory convergent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the square roots of AVEs for all constructs with their corresponding correlations. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity is evident when the square roots of AVEs for all constructs exceed all corresponding correlations. Table 3.1 shows that the correlations are not higher than the square roots of AVEs for constructs for both samples, thus, demonstrating satisfactory discriminant validity.

Table 3.1: Correlations of the constructs

	M	SD	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
<i>USA sample</i>								
Collectivism	5.41	1.25	0.53	(0.73)				
Individualism	5.40	1.37	0.70	0.70**	(0.83)			
Status consumption	4.84	1.77	0.86	0.42**	0.66**	(0.93)		
Creative choice counter-conformity	5.69	1.22	0.75	0.61**	0.60**	0.47**	(0.86)	
Life satisfaction	5.49	1.32	0.72	0.56**	0.65**	0.53**	0.52**	(0.85)
<i>Bangladesh sample</i>								
Collectivism	5.62	1.14	0.54	(0.74)				
Individualism	5.70	1.13	0.65	0.66**	(0.81)			
Status consumption	4.78	1.72	0.71	0.16**	0.20**	(0.84)		
Creative choice counter-conformity	4.13	1.94	0.75	0.22**	0.19**	-0.05	(0.86)	
Life satisfaction	5.26	1.39	0.59	0.01	0.08	0.53**	0.03*	(0.77)

Note: Square root of AVE is in Italian diagonal entries.

** Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level

Data equivalence

As the study tested the model in a cross-country setting, we assessed the differences between the data collected from both countries. To enhance the homogeneity of the data, sample equivalence was considered holding the sample who are non-student, educated and professional from both countries as suggested by Wiedmann et al. (2007). Further, based on the suggestions of Davis et al. (1981) and O'Cass and Ngo (2011) that the differences across samples is reflected in the reliabilities of the constructs, we analysed the equivalence of the data by calculating Cronbach alphas with 95% confidence intervals. We found evidence that all constructs, except status consumption and life satisfaction, fall in the overlapping ranges

of the two samples, suggesting a suitable level of equivalency. Regarding the non-equivalency of data, it is noted that some degrees of weakness is always present in survey data for cross-cultural studies (Davis et al., 1981). However, the factor loadings and reliabilities of status consumption and life satisfaction met the cutoff criteria of 0.50 and 0.60 respectively.

3.4.2 Results of hypothesis testing

Before testing the hypotheses, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine whether the USA and Bangladeshi sample differ in collectivism, individualism, status consumption, life satisfaction and creative choice counter-conformity. One-way ANOVA results show that the USA sample and Bangladesh sample differed in collectivism ($F(1, 426) = 6.59, p < 0.05$), individualism ($F(1, 426) = 14.80, p < 0.05$), life satisfaction ($F(1, 426) = 4.49, p < 0.05$), and creative choice counter-conformity ($F(1, 426) = 114.64, p < 0.05$) dimensions. However, the USA and Bangladesh samples did not differ in status consumption dimension ($F(1, 426) = 0.16, p > 0.05$).

Linear regression was conducted to test the hypotheses. Table 3.2 shows the results between the two countries. For H1, H2, and H3, we compared the standardized betas of the two samples following the procedures adopted by Souiden et al. (2011). Further, following previous studies (e.g., Atuahene-Gima & Li, 2002), we used t-tests to assess differences between the hypothesized relationships across samples. H1 predicts stronger relationship between collectivism and status consumption in emerging countries than in developed countries. The results show that the hypothesized relationship was significantly stronger in

the USA sample ($\beta = 0.47$, $t = 5.78$, $p < 0.05$) compared to the Bangladeshi sample ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 2.67$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, at odds with our expectations, H1 was not supported. The t-test results also suggested that the relationship between collectivism and status consumption was significantly different across samples (countries) and was stronger in the USA sample than the Bangladeshi sample ($t = 3.07$, $p < 0.05$). H2 posits a stronger relationship exists between individualism and status consumption in developed countries than in emerging countries. The results indicate that the hypothesized relationship was significantly stronger for the USA sample ($\beta = 0.78$, $t = 11.14$, $p < 0.05$) than the Bangladeshi sample ($\beta = 0.28$, $t = 3.32$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, H2 was supported. The t-test results also indicated that the relationship between individualism and status consumption was significantly different across samples and also stronger in the USA sample than the Bangladeshi sample ($t = 6.77$, $p < 0.05$). H3 predicts a stronger relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in emerging countries than in developed countries. The results indicate that the relationship was significantly stronger in the Bangladesh sample ($\beta = 0.31$, $t = 10.23$, $p < 0.05$) than the USA sample ($\beta = 0.29$, $t = 7.96$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, H3 was supported. However, the t-test results showed that the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction was not significantly different across samples ($t = -0.23$, n.s.).

Table 3.2: Results of regression analysis

			<i>USA Sample</i>		<i>Bangladesh sample</i>		Hypotheses supported
	IV	DV	β	t	β	t	
H1	Collectivism	Status consumption	0.47	5.78	0.19	2.67	No
H2	Individualism	Status consumption	0.78	11.14	0.28	3.32	Yes
H3	Status consumption	Life satisfaction	0.29	7.96	0.31	10.23	Yes

Note: All relationships are significant at $p < 0.05$

To test H4, we examined the mediating effect of creative choice counter-conformity between status consumption and life satisfaction. Using the PROCESS computational macro for SPSS, we implemented bootstrapping with 1000 resamples (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The results presented in Table 3.3 using the USA data show status consumption was a strong predictor of creative choice counter-conformity ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$), and creative choice counter-conformity was a significant predictor of life satisfaction ($\beta = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the indirect effect was positive and significant and 0 did not appear in the 95% confidence interval (CI = 0.05 - 0.14). Thus, creative choice counter-conformity mediates the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in the USA sample. In contrast, as shown in Table 3.3, non-significant relationships were found between status consumption and creative choice counter-conformity ($\beta = -0.03$, $p > 0.05$), and between creative choice counter-conformity and life satisfaction ($\beta = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$) for the Bangladeshi sample. The indirect effect was negative and 0 appears in the 95% confidence interval (CI = -0.02 - 0.00). Therefore, creative choice counter-conformity does not mediate the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction for the Bangladeshi sample (emerging country). The results provide evidence that H4 was supported, indicating that

creative choice counter-conformity mediates the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in developed countries, not in emerging countries.

Further, we compared the regression coefficient of the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction with and without the control for the mediator to determine whether the mediation effect was full or partial. Partial mediation is supported if the regression coefficient of the relationship between independent and dependent variables with the control for mediator is lower than the relationship without the control for the mediator (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003). Our results show that the relationship between independent and dependent variables when controlling for mediator was lower but still significant ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$), supporting partial mediation effect for the USA sample. Additionally, we conducted the Sobel (1982) test to determine whether the mediation effect was statistically significant for the USA sample. The results of Sobel test suggested that the mediator carried the effect of independent and dependent variables ($z = 3.91$, $p < 0.05$), supporting significance level of the mediation effect.

Table 3.3: Results of H4 – Mediating role of creative choice counter-conformity

	<i>USA sample</i>					<i>Bangladesh sample</i>				
	β	SE	t	LLCI	ULCI	β	SE	t	LLC I	ULCI
<i>Direct paths</i>										
SC → CCC	0.18	0.03	6.63**	0.13	0.23	-0.03	0.04	-0.79	-0.12	0.05
CCC → LS	0.49	0.10	4.83**	0.29	0.69	0.05	0.04	1.16	-0.04	0.14
SC → LS	0.29	0.04	7.96**	0.22	0.37	0.31	0.03	10.23**	0.25	0.37
<i>Indirect paths</i>										
SC → CCC → LS	0.09	0.02		0.05	0.14	-0.00	0.00		-0.02	0.00

Note: ** p < 0.01; Level of confidence interval = 95%; Number of bootstrap sample = 1000

SC=Status consumption, CCC=Creative choice counter-conformity, LS=Life satisfaction

3.5 Conclusion and implications

Status consumption tendency is a global, well-known consumer phenomenon that has significant social and economic impacts (Gao et al., 2016). While status consumption is thought to be an established phenomenon in countries high in individualism (Zhang & Nelson, 2016), countries recognized as high in collectivism are also acknowledged as possessing a high status orientation. In fact, Asian countries are thought to be more interested in status consumption (D'Arpizio et al. 2014; Gao et al., 2016). We believe it is being driven for differing reasons in different countries. Collectivists appear to prefer status products that fulfil their social self over personal self, conform to their desired group, and to show others their superiority, position, and status. Whereas individualists prefer status products for the fulfilment of their personal self, and to enhance their self-image and self-esteem. We believe that, although not at same level as developed country like the USA, individuals from

emerging country like Bangladesh are enjoying rising income and stronger spending patterns, we show this is resulting in increasing concern about status attainment and individualist tendencies.

Furthermore, an analysis of the ongoing debate about consumption, especially consumption directed toward achieving status demonstrates globally consumers are pursuing life satisfaction through possessions. It appears that individuals believe their level of social status is enhanced through consumption of prestigious products and brands and through such possessions they will achieve higher status which give them a more satisfying life. To address the role of status seeking and life satisfaction across culture, we adopted social comparison theory. In examining life satisfaction and status achievement through possessions, we extend social comparison theory by examining how the interplay between cultural orientations and status consumption determine life satisfaction.

Moreover, we suggest that the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction is converging across countries (becoming more significant and more positively associated with each other). This is so even when considering economic and cultural settings of countries; suggesting that individuals from such countries are showing similar patterns of status seeking behaviour in search of a satisfying life. Our findings may go some way to advancing the view that the influence of status consumption on life satisfaction is becoming stronger to some extent in emerging countries compared to developed countries (e.g., Sörtheix & Lönngqvist, 2014). This may be due to the fact that individuals from emerging country such as Bangladesh are experiencing new wealth and a better lifestyle from rising

incomes, wants to spend their disposable income on status products to display their new wealth (Ariquzzaman, 2010). During the transition that is occurring, individuals may feel the need to display their new wealth to gain and reinforce social approval, driving them toward increasingly devoting resources to the purchase and consumption of status products. Obtaining such products provides a satisfying life through the positive feelings aroused from the individual's increasing status, as well as to raising their group (e.g., family and kinship clan) status derived through ownership.

On the other hand, individuals from individualistic developed countries view their achievement as a means to protect their self. Focusing more on gaining a desirable status position prevents oneself from cultivating interpersonal relationships as well as weakens their personal autonomy (see Sortheix & Lönnqvist, 2014), which decreases satisfaction with life. However, to enhance self-esteem, individuals from individualistic developed countries may increase their tendency to avoid being influenced by social pressure to conform and rely more on their own preference, thus, are more likely to prefer products that are highly unique. However, what we show is that individuals perceive life satisfaction positively when ownership of such products demonstrate their unique identity in a way that is acceptable to others. In individualistic, developed country like the USA, individuals do not seek to affirm their uniqueness by increasing disapproval from others. Both acceptance from in-group members or significant others as well as showing individuality through specific products may be important for a satisfying life in such country. On the other hand, as interpersonal relationships are at the centre of the self in collectivist countries, there may be a conscious

effort to select those products that are less unique and highly recognizable to one's social groups.

Further, in practical terms we show that status consumption is prevalent in countries regardless of economic development and cultural orientation. It has particular relevance for international marketers who wish to expand their businesses. As both individualism and collectivism cultural orientations are found to be significant in influencing status consumption, marketers of status brands might consider individualistic elements (such as personal achievement, independent self, uniqueness) as well as collectivistic elements (such as interpersonal relationship, conformity) simultaneously to position their brands whether the target market is a developed country or an emerging country. Given the importance of the collective self, in addition to the personal self, especially in individualistic developed countries, it may be useful to design marketing strategies that emphasize a brand's ability to help foster the simultaneous occurrence of unique identity and the reinforcement of social approval in a consumer's life.

3.5.1 Limitations and future research

This study has specific limitations which require consideration when making generalizations and give rise to future research. Though our study provides important outcomes in relation to status consumption, one of the major limitations is that we did not consider specific brands. This limits our understanding of the role of the brand in gaining status and whether brands can help foster satisfaction with life. Thus, future research could examine the role of brands and if individuals who fixate or place a high priority on ownership of specific brands have

greater or lesser life satisfaction. This is important because as consumption choices vary for individuals, it would be worthwhile to determine if the level of status a brand possesses influences on life satisfaction or provide detrimental long term effects to consumers' psychological well-being. Moreover, our findings show that the influence of collectivism on status consumption was weaker in Bangladesh compared to the USA. It might be the case as most of the samples were highly educated. It is suggested that, in emerging countries, university-educated individuals' cultural values differ from the remainder of the population as they have a higher level of education and have greater familiarity of Western culture (Oyserman et al., 2002). Therefore, it might be worth examining the relationships with other samples such low income, less educated individuals to see if there are different outcome.

Furthermore, we did not examine other issues such as materialism in our study which is thought to be a common trait influencing life satisfaction across countries. However, previous studies provide contradictory findings regarding the materialistic behaviours of individuals in both developed and emerging countries. For example, contradicting the growing tendency of materialism in emerging countries (e.g., Sharma, 2010), Shukla (2012) affirms that materialism influences the purchase of specific products in developed countries, not in emerging countries. Future research may extend findings of this study by examining the moderating role of materialism on the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction and determining whether the role of materialism differs across countries. Finally, our data shows that the level of individualism was significantly higher among Bangladeshi sample than among the USA sample. We assume that this unexpected finding might result from more educated sample from Bangladesh (75%) than the USA (66%) as cultural values

may differ based on the education level (e.g., Oyserman et al., 2002). Therefore, future research may generalise this finding with samples holding same criteria (e.g., educated and professional) with other developed, individualistic and emerging, collectivistic countries to determine whether similar outcome occurs.

Appendix

Factor loadings and reliability

	USA sample	Bangladesh sample
Constructs	Factor loadings	Factor loadings
Collectivism (Triandis and Gelfand,1998)	$\alpha = 0.87$	$\alpha = 0.83$
If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	0.66	0.80
The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.	0.75	0.85
To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	0.75	0.51
I feel good when I cooperate with others.	0.74	0.60
Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	0.68	0.72
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	0.72	0.83
Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	0.77	0.80
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	0.76	0.72
Individualism (Triandis and Gelfand,1998)	$\alpha = 0.77$	$\alpha = 0.76$
I'd rather depend on myself than others.	0.80	0.77
I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.	0.85	0.87
I often do "my own thing".	0.81	0.80
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	0.82	0.68
Winning is everything.	0.90	0.86
Competition is the law of nature.	0.84	0.83
When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.	0.82	0.70
Status consumption (Eastman et al., 1999)	$\alpha = 0.96$	$\alpha = 0.90$
I would buy a product just because it has status.	0.92	0.83
I am interested in new products with status.	0.92	0.88
I would pay more for a product if it had status.	0.94	0.85
The status of a product is relevant to me.	0.94	0.85
A product is more valuable to me if it has some snob appeal.	0.92	0.81
Life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985)	$\alpha = 0.86$	$\alpha = 0.76$
The conditions of life are excellent.	0.86	0.76
I am satisfied with my life.	0.87	0.78
So far I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	0.84	0.79
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	0.83	0.74
Creative choice counter-conformity (Tian et al., 2001)	$\alpha = 0.82$	$\alpha = 0.81$
I'm often on the lookout for new products or brands that will add to my personal uniqueness.	0.86	0.85
Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.	0.88	0.86
I often try to find a more interesting version of run-of-the-mill products because I enjoy being original.	0.85	0.86

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CHAPTER FOUR

Paper Three

Examining the perceived brand status in relation to consumers' intrinsic/extrinsic motivations, anticipated emotions and loyalty in the context of luxury hotels.

Abstract

The luxury hotel industry has been experiencing significant growth over the past decade. Despite this growth, a deep appreciation of the factors that drive consumers toward selection of specific luxury services such as hotel brands is lacking. To unpack the underlying factors that relate to consumers' specific hotel choice, we examine perceived brand status of luxury hotels in relation to self-consistency (an intrinsic motivation), snob (an extrinsic motivation), positive/negative anticipated emotions, and consumers' loyalty (share of wallet and consideration set size). To test the hypotheses, data were collected from 468 professional, white collar who had recently experienced a luxury hotel brand. Grounded on self-determination theory, we show that the level of self-consistency is positively related to the perceived brand status. However, contrary to our expectations, the moderating role of snob motivation in influencing the relationship between the level of self-consistency and the perceived brand status was not supported. We also show that the perceived brand status is positively related to share of wallet, and negatively related to consideration set size indicating consumers' loyalty toward specific brands. Additionally, by examining the moderating role of anticipated emotions, we show that the relationships between perceived brand status and consumers' loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size is moderated by both positive and negative anticipated emotions. Overall, the findings provide valuable insights on consumers' selection of luxury hotel brands based on their perception of those brands as having status.¹⁰

¹⁰ Based on the requirement of Tourism Management, American English has been used in paper three.

Keywords: luxury hotel; perceived brand status; self-consistency; snob; anticipated emotions; share of wallet; consideration set size

4.1 Introduction

The choice of hotel brands is a crucial and complex decision confronting most consumers¹¹ who plan to travel (Casidy et al., 2018). Hotels are generally constructed to fulfil consumers' need for accommodation when they travel or visit a destination (Xu, 2010). However, because of increasing competition, consumers are exposed to numerous hotel brands (Lee & Jeong, 2014), and are provided with homogeneous services/benefits that makes the hotel choice decisions complicated (Sohrabi et al., 2012; Xu & Chan, 2010). Therefore, consumers, to a great extent, depend on hotel brands that are believed to have different meanings in the minds of consumers and communicate different messages (Xu & Chan, 2010). With growing focus of consumers on brands, hotel marketers are becoming more concerned with increasing role and value of their brands (Casidy et al., 2018). However, we still lack understanding of the factors that drive consumers toward the selection of specific hotel brands (see Chen & Peng, 2014; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Identifying factors behind specific hotel choice is important as it helps marketers understand the behaviors of their consumers in addition to the brand's performance in the industry (Casidy et al., 2018; The Boston Consulting Group, 2016).

¹¹ Consistent with the work of Casidy et al., (2018), travelers/patrons are referred to as consumers here.

One factor that motivates many consumers to acquire specific products and brands is their need for status. Consumers' status seeking behaviors through tangible luxury products are well-established in the literature (e.g., Lewis & Moital, 2016; O'Cass et al., 2013; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). Prior research on status consumption suggests that consumers who are high in need for status prefer highly visible products as they engage in such consumption to signal their status and impress others (Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Existing literature indicates that selection of brands often depends on the psychological benefits such as being identified as a status symbol (Kim & Johnson, 2015; Yang & Mattila, 2017), and also on a brand's consistency with self (referred as self-consistency motivation) (O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Additionally, products and brands that are exclusive and are not used by the majority of people in the market are often preferred by consumers (referred as snob motivation) (Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2014). However, little is known about the motivations of consumers behind the selection of luxury products that are intangible (services, such as hotels) (e.g., Chen & Peng, 2014). The growth of service industry, especially hotel industry, has created a highly competitive market where the consumers are treated as important assets of the firms (Kandampully et al., 2015). However, behaviors of consumers regarding their hotel brand choice may be different, compared to tangible luxury products, as the hotel services are intangible in nature and is difficult to evaluate prior to stay (Chen & Peng, 2014; Yang & Mattila, 2017).

Given the growth in the hotel industry and paucity of work on status seeking through hotels, we attempt to examine perceived brand status of hotels, that is, consumers' assigned level of status a brand possesses (e.g., O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013). we draw attention to the influence

of self-consistency as an intrinsic motivation and snob as an extrinsic motivation to understand the extent to which perceived status ascribed to a hotel brand contributes to consumer hotel selection decisions and expenditure. We believe that examining self-consistency and snob as motivations toward status enhancement through patronage of specific luxury hotel brands can generate both theoretical and practical insights. Here, we also attempt to answer the call for more research to examine the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations influencing status consumption tendency (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). To unpack consumers' motivations toward the selection of luxury hotel brands, we build our theory on self-determination theory which explains the motivations behind the choice (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000). Additionally, consumers' decisions about the consumption of products and brands often depend on their feelings or emotions related to such consumption or experience (Casidy et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015; Han & Ryu, 2012). Therefore, unpacking the role of emotions consumers anticipate for staying or not staying at specific hotel brands in future may provide additional insights in understanding their selection of specific hotel brands.

Further, apart from unpacking the motivations behind the perceived status of luxury hotel brands, it is expected that consumers are more likely to demonstrate loyalty toward specific hotel brands that convey their status. To understand consumers' loyalty and to evaluate brand performance, marketers often use measures such as share of wallet (proportion of one's spending on a specific brand) and consumers' consideration set size (the number of brands one evaluates to make his/her purchase decision). This is an important point for hotel marketers as loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size are significant

measures of consumers' long term associations with hotel brands (Casidy et al., 2018). They are triggers to revenue streams and also help guide managerial decisions about how to maximize revenues from customers (Casidy et al., 2018). It has been suggested that consumers are more likely to remain loyal to status enhancing brands for the purpose of maintaining their status over time (e.g., Goldsmith et al., 2012; Goldsmith et al., 2010). Therefore, we believe that examining the extent to which perceived brand status impacts share of wallet and consumers' consideration set size may help both theorists and practitioners to better understand hotel brand choices.

4.2 Theoretical background and hypotheses development

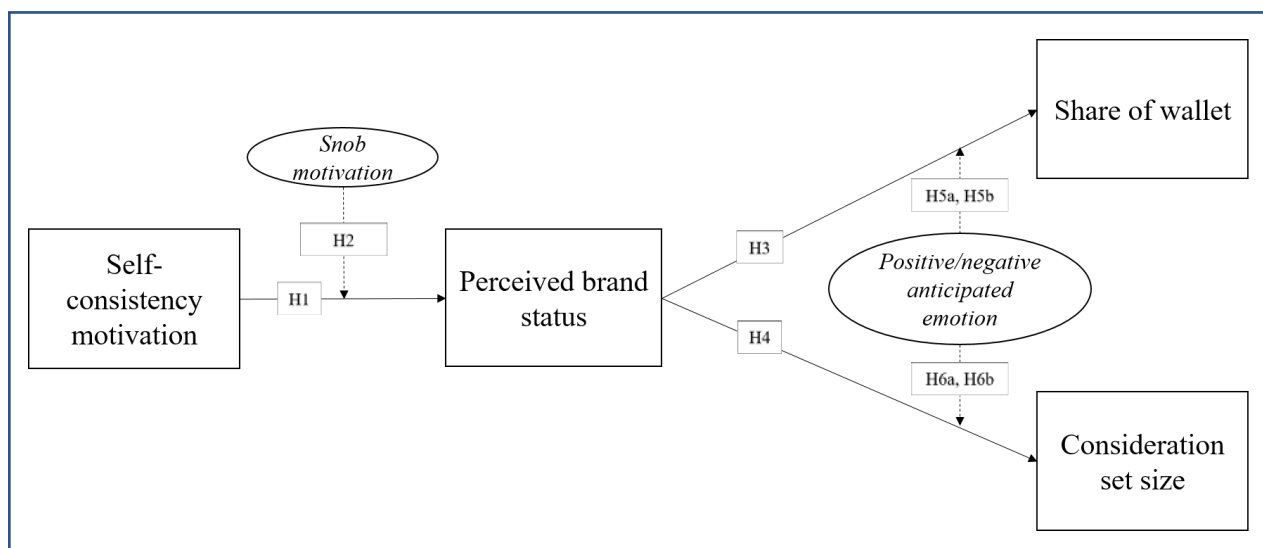
Status consumption refers to gaining status from the acquisition and consumption of products (goods and services) that both consumers and significant others perceive as high in status (O'Cass & Frost, 2002). For consumers, it is thought that consuming status products and specific brands fulfils a number of motives such as portraying a particular social class, to communicate a desired self-image, to show significant others that they can afford high priced products (Nwankwo et al., 2014), or to express identity to others (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). To fulfill these motives, consumers search for products having distinguishing features like brands, exclusivity, and features indicating status (Han et al., 2010). Further, it has been identified why and to what extent products such as handbags, fashion clothing, cars, to name a few, are acquired and consumed for the purposes of attaining and maintaining status (Han et al., 2010; Nabi et al., 2017; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014; Shukla, 2008).

Status consumption is often related to consumers' perception of status ascribed to a specific brand (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013). In relation to specific brands, O'Cass and Siahtiri (2013) define perceived brand status as "the consumers' assigned level of status a brand possesses" (p. 508). To enhance status, consumers rely on a brand's status as consuming that brand helps symbolize their success and prestige (Baek et al., 2010). Shukla (2010) argue that gaining knowledge on what motivates consumers to select brands is important as the brands with the "right status image" can provide value to both marketers and consumers. In this regard, Deci and Ryan (1985)'s self-determination theory, "a theory of human motivation that proposes a multidimensional conceptualization of motivation and an associated model of individual and contextual antecedents" (Roca & Gagné, 2008, p. 1586), can help explain consumers' pursuit of status through specific brands. Self-determination theory proposes that consumers are driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Intrinsic motivations refer to doing an activity for its own sake and might be fulfilled for self-determination and competence (Miller, 1988). Extrinsic motivations, on the other hand, refer to doing an activity to enhance for a consequence separable from the activity itself, such as the pursuit of a reward or the avoidance of a punishment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). On particular relevance to hotels and branding is that, according to Miller (1988), consumers tend to develop different "causality orientations" that determine how they respond to a given stimulus and what situations they pursue.

In applying self-determination theory, researchers have broadened knowledge of consumers' selection of products (Truong & McColl, 2011; Truong et al., 2008). In this regard, Ki and Kim (2016) assert that consumers' acquisition and consumption of specific products are

influenced mostly by the extrinsic motivations such as signaling wealth and status. However, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are important (Van Hiel et al., 2010), and help fulfil psychological needs (Truong et al., 2010). Apart from tangible luxury products, self-determination theory has been applied to examine services such as education, health care, tourism and leisure, skin care and beauty, to name a few (see Lin, Tsai, and Chiu 2009; White 2015; White and Thompson 2009). In examining the hotel industry, prior works utilize self-determination theory by emphasizing on employees' behavior (Hon 2011; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu 2011). However, examining behaviors of consumers in relation to hotel brand choice is important because, as Lin, Tsai, and Chiu (2009) note, understanding of self-determined motivations exemplify the survival of service firms that depend heavily on consumers' patronage. Grounded on self-determination theory, the conceptual model shown in Figure 4.1, demonstrates the interrelationships between the constructs of this study used to focus on hotel brand status.

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Model



4.2.1 The impact of self-consistency motivation on perceived brand status

To express and define themselves, consumers are often motivated to maximize the level of congruence between their self-concept and the specific images of the brands they choose (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). This intrinsic motivation is referred to as self-consistency motivation which is defined as “the motivational tendency to act in ways consistent with one’s personal identity” (Sirgy & Su, 2000, p. 343). It is noted that consumers generally hold beliefs about their values, identity, lifestyles, and preferences (Kressmann et al., 2006), and to protect these beliefs, they behave in ways (e.g., prefer products/brands) that are congruent with their own image (Sirgy & Su, 2000). Inconsistency between beliefs and behaviors (preference of products/brands) produce feelings of unpleasantness and tension (Malär et al., 2011). For example, in their study on destination image, Sirgy and Su (2000) note that consumers may feel uncomfortable if they find themselves visiting a place that does not reflect their actual self-image. This seems also highly relevant when consumers are motivated to protect their own personal identity, but the image of other visitors/patrons in a destination does not match their identity (Sirgy & Su, 2000). This is a significant issue for hotel marketers who target specific consumers with specific images, lifestyles and values and who may perceive other patrons to be distinctly different from themselves.

In accounting for the role of congruency–incongruency of person and object, it is suggested that perceiving a brand as similar to one’s self-image is a strong predictor of consuming status brands, especially when as such brands help reflect one’s image to others (O’Cass & Frost, 2002). To maintain consistency with their self-image, status conscious consumers consciously select and use brands which can enhance their image through integrating the

symbolic meanings the brands possess (Aguirre-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Wiedmann et al., 2009). Moreover, Ekinici and Riley (2003), in their study on self-congruence in service industry, suggest that hospitality brands are often evaluated by their role in the enhancement of one's self-image. This seems relevant when consumers are exposed to several competing brands which makes their evaluation process complex. We believe that consumers who identify and experience consistency between their self-image and a specific hospitality products such as a hotel brand's image are more likely to perceive that hotel brand as having status. Therefore,

H1: The level of perceived self-consistency is positively related to perceived brand status.

4.2.2 The moderating role of snob motivation

To help create an identity, many consumers prefer products which demonstrate exclusivity compared to regular products (Eastman & Eastman, 2015; Hennigs et al., 2013), and to which others have limited access (Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012). Rarity and exclusivity of products satisfy the need for differentiation and provide the perception of having status through self-enhancement and self-evaluation (Drèze & Nunes, 2009). This leads to what is referred to as the snob effect or motivation¹² (van Herpen et al., 2009). According to Leibenstein (1950), snob effect refers to the extent to which the demand for a consumer good “is decreased owing to the fact that others are also consuming the same commodity (or that others are increasing their consumption of that commodity)” (p. 189). In other words,

¹² Snob motivation is often used interchangeably with snob effect (e.g., Correia & Kozak, 2012; Eastman & Eastman, 2015)

consumers are driven by snob motivation to fulfil their need for differentiation (Correia & Moital, 2009).

The tourism and hospitality literature suggests that pursuit of status is strongly related to hotels because of their conspicuous nature, in that consumers often share their experience with other consumers (Back, 2005; Han & Hyun, 2012). In this sense, to enhance one's public self-image, consumers are driven by snob motivation, and seek luxury hotel brands that are not common and not overly popular among the general public (Chan et al., 2016), and that others cannot afford (Correia & Kozak, 2012). In his study, Back (2005) asserts that consumers' preference for specific brands is influenced by their need for social approval. Therefore, visibility and exclusiveness are the major criterion while selecting tourism and hospitality products, especially hotels (Han & Hyun, 2012).

Literature suggests that consumers can have both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations that drive them toward consuming for status (Eastman and Eastman 2015). However, the social self, over personal self, is considered as a major concern of consumers for tourism and hospitality brands preference (Sirgy and Su 2000). In their study on status tourism choices, Correia, Kozak, and Reis (2016) note that consumers often prefer those tourism and hospitality brands that provide them with a sense of status in terms of exclusivity and uniqueness. Furthermore, while distinguishing the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations set within self-determination theory, Ryan and Deci (2000) note that individuals are extrinsically motivated to perform a behavior when they want to be valued by others and which provide extrinsic benefits to them. Intrinsic motivations are undermined when the desire to receive extrinsic

rewards is strong (Ryan and Deci 2000). It is assumed that concern for status enhancement through the exclusivity of luxury hotel brands (an extrinsic motivation) moderates the influence of self-consistency motivation (an intrinsic motivation) on the perceived status of a hotel brand. Therefore,

H2: The relationship between the level of perceived self-consistency and perceived brand status is moderated by a consumer's level of snob motivation.

4.2.3 The impact of perceived brand status on share of wallet

The importance of share of wallet has been highlighted in the literature. Research has addressed a wide range of issues when examining the antecedents of share of wallet including brand relationship orientation (Casidy et al., 2018), willingness to pay price premium, word-of-mouth communication, consideration set size (Nyffenegger et al., 2014), confidence, satisfaction (Hunneman et al., 2015), affective, emotional commitment (Mattila, 2008; Tanford, 2016) in service industry (hotels, airlines, grocery chains etc). Share of wallet, defined as “the percentage of money spent on a specific brand relative to the money spent for other brands in the same product category” (Nyffenegger et al., 2014, p. 93), is considered as one of the crucial factors in determining a firm's success. It is suggested that share of wallet is an indicator of loyalty toward a brand as it reflects a consumer's spending in a specific product category (Mattila, 2008).

It is suggested that consumers become more loyal to those brands that yield status to them (Goldsmith et al., 2010). Given that status conscious consumers view the consumption of specific brands (or a specific set of brands) as a means to enhance their image to others

(Eastman & Eastman, 2015), continuing a relationship with a brand and spending more on that brand are important decisions for consumers (Kapferer & Laurent, 2016; O'Cass & Choy, 2008). When relationships continue, it results in a higher share of wallet for the brands. In their study, Kim and Jang (2014) affirm that status conscious consumers tend to spend more for luxurious hospitality products such as upscale cafés and restaurants to display their status. As share of wallet is commonly used as an indicator of loyalty for offerings that are intangible in nature (Nyffenegger et al., 2014), we believe that consumers' selection of a luxury hotel brand for the purpose of gaining status will increase their loyalty toward the brand, resulting in an increased share of wallet of that brand. Therefore,

H3: The perceived brand status is positively related to share of wallet.

4.2.4 The impact of perceived brand status on consideration set size

Similar to share of wallet, another important precondition of consumers' decision making process, and indicator of their loyalty is their consideration set size (Bian & Moutinho, 2009; Casidy et al., 2018; Nyffenegger et al., 2014). Nyffenegger et al. (2014) define consideration set size as "the number of brands of the same product category that a consumer considers when making a purchase decision" (p. 93). In the tourism and hospitality literature, loyalty in terms of consideration set size has been examined in relation to brand relationship orientation (Casidy et al., 2018), availability of hotels (Jones & Chen, 2010), and online hotel reviews (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009).

Consumers often limit the number of brands to a smaller subset in their consideration set to make their decision making process simple (Casidy et al., 2018; Nyffenegger et al., 2014).

In general, this reduction of the consideration set size depends on one's involvement and identification with a specific brand, personal and symbolic benefits the brand provides, and association of the brand with his/her self-image (Bian & Moutinho, 2009; Casidy et al., 2018; Nyffenegger et al., 2014). Specifically, when a brand is strongly associated with status enhancement, it is more likely that consumers will develop a relationship with that brand to enhance and maintain status over time (Goldsmith et al., 2010). When this occurs, consumers avoid the inclusion of other brands in their consideration set (Bian & Moutinho, 2009). Therefore,

H4: The perceived brand status is negatively related to consumers' consideration set size.

4.2.5 The moderating role of anticipated emotions

The term, anticipated emotions, is often treated interchangeably with prospect-based emotional responses and forward-looking affective responses (Han et al., 2015), and is considered an important element influencing consumers' behavior (Han et al., 2015; Song et al., 2012). Han et al. (2015) define anticipated emotions as "the anticipated post-behavioral positive/negative affective reactions" (p. 98). While evaluating the outcome for attaining or not attaining the desired goals, consumers tend to anticipate emotions from two aspects: positive and negative anticipated emotions (Han & Ryu, 2012; Song et al., 2012). Positive anticipated emotions are favorable aspects of prospect-based emotional responses (Han et al., 2015) which include aspects like being excited, satisfied, happy, and glad (Song et al., 2012). Negative anticipated emotions are unfavorable facets of forward-looking emotional

responses (Han et al., 2015) which include facets like being angry, disappointed, worried, and sad (Song et al., 2012).

In the literature, anticipated emotions are acknowledged as an important element in festival settings (Song et al., 2012), hotels (Casidy et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015), and restaurants (Han & Ryu, 2012). Further, anticipated emotions have been examined in relation to brand relationship orientation, share of wallet, consideration set size (Casidy et al., 2018), desire, past behavior, and behavioral intentions (Han & Ryu, 2012; Song et al., 2012). Examining anticipated emotions in the hotel context, Casidy et al. (2018) assert that the emotions one anticipates from brand-specific experiences plays an important role on one's future decisions. This is likely to occur as strong emotional responses take place when brands shape one's identity (Wallace et al., 2014) and remind consumers of their emotions related to past experiences (Casidy et al., 2018).

Decisions regarding expenditure on and selection of specific brands are influenced by the level of perceived brand status (Kim & Jang, 2014) and anticipated emotions (Casidy et al., 2018). However, we contend that the relationship between the level of perceived brand status and consumers' loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size will differ when both positive and negative anticipated emotions are accounted for. This is because anticipated emotions act as motivators and play a crucial role in influencing one's decisions (Han et al., 2015). As anticipated emotions impact consumers' future purchase decisions, specifically, when such emotions are related to the attainment or nonattainment of status or social acceptance (Zielke, 2011), we believe that the emotions one anticipates moderate the

relationships between perceived status of a luxury hotel brand and consumers' loyalty toward that brand. Therefore,

H5: The relationship between perceived brand status and share of wallet is moderated by a) positive anticipated emotions and b) negative anticipated emotions.

H6: The relationship between perceived brand status and consideration set size is moderated by a) positive anticipated emotions and b) negative anticipated emotions.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Data collection and sample

To collect data, we recruited respondents from the USA using a panel obtained from a professional research firm. The socio-demographic criteria of the respondents were selected following the work of Han and Hyun (2017). To participate in this study, respondents had to be university educated (bachelor degree or higher), full-time employed, with an annual income of \$45000 or more. To ensure that respondents are eligible to participate in the study, we included screening criterion regarding education, employment status and income at the beginning of the survey. We also included a quality check item "Select strongly disagree for this line" in the survey to detect blind checking. This item indicates whether respondents provide responses to questions without reading them. After eliminating 18 respondents who did not meet the screening criterion, and responded differently to the quality check item, a total of 468 respondents were included in this study. Appendix shows the demographic analysis of respondents.

4.3.2 Measures

Our measures were generated from items based on empirically validated scales employed in past studies. Three items from the work of Wiedmann et al. (2009), that were utilised to measure self-identity value, were adopted to measure self-consistency motivation. Snob motivation was measured with four items, focusing on the popularity of the products among general population, used by Tian et al. (2001). Perceived brand status was measured by five items developed by Eastman et al. (1999) that measure status consumption. To measure anticipated emotions, eight items (four items for positive anticipated emotions and four items for negative anticipated emotions) were adopted from the work of Song et al. (2012). Finally, share of wallet and consideration set size were measured with single items used by Nyffenegger et al. (2014). With two exceptions (share of wallet and consideration set size), all items were measured with five point Likert-type scales anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree. Share of wallet was measured with a single question asking the percentage consumers spent on specific hotel brand. Consideration set size was measured by asking respondents the number of brands they would consider for their next purchase.

To test the face validity of the measures, a panel of expert judges reviewed the items based on the definitions. They were also asked to assess and comment on the suitability of items in the luxury hotel brand context. Based on their suggestions, only minor revisions to some ambiguous items were re-worded, and two items from perceived brand status were removed from the survey. Moreover, to minimize the common method variance, respondents were informed that there were no right or wrong answers, and they should answer questions as honestly as possible (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Furthermore, to identify hotel brands that are perceived as luxury by the respondents, a question was included in the beginning of survey stating “People tend to stay in hotels that they perceive as luxurious or luxuries. Please tell us the brand name of a hotel you perceive as a luxury hotel and that you stay at”. We did not present specific hotel brand name(s) as the same brand(s) might not be perceived as luxury by all respondents (e.g., Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). In this process, the top four brands respondents mentioned were Hilton (24%), Marriott (19%), Ritz-Carlton (8%), and Hyatt (6%).

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Preliminary results

We conducted exploratory factor analyses using SPSS to ensure the validity of the measures. Using Varimax with Kaiser Normalization method, our dataset showed that all factor loadings ranged between 0.68 and 0.92. For all constructs, Cronbach’s α ranged between 0.89 and 0.95, indicating a high degree of internal consistency among items. Values of both factor loadings and Cronbach’s α are consistent with the work of Tanford (2013). To determine the convergent validity, average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated for all constructs. AVE measures the amount of variance captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance attributable to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Results indicates that the AVE ranged from 0.56 to 0.79 which are greater than the suggested criteria of 0.50 (e.g., Fornell & Larcker, 1981), indicating strong convergent validity. Altogether, the results indicate the suitability of the measures for further analysis. Results of factor analysis,

reliability, AVEs in addition to descriptive statistics of the measures are presented in Table 4.1.

Furthermore, discriminant validity was assessed by following the recommendation of O'Cass and Siahtiri (2013). If the reliabilities are higher than the respective correlations between two constructs, then discriminant validity exists. Therefore, construct correlations were examined and compared with the reliabilities. As shown in Table 4.2, no correlation is higher than their respective reliabilities. The comparison of reliabilities and construct correlations, thus, suggested that discriminant validity was not a problem for this study.

Table 4.1: Results of preliminary analysis

Constructs and items	Loadings	Cronbach's α	AVEs	Mean (SD)
<i>Self-consistency</i>		0.95	0.56	
I stay at this luxury hotel because it is consistent with my own image.	0.78			3.11(1.36)
I stay at this luxury hotel because it shows how I see myself.	0.78			3.13(1.35)
This luxury hotel matches my personality.	0.68			3.39(1.31)
<i>Snob motivation</i>		0.92	0.77	
I stay at this luxury hotel less because it is popular among the general population.	0.75			2.20(1.37)
I try to avoid staying at this luxury hotel because it is preferred by the general population.	0.91			1.76(1.25)
I dislike this luxury hotel because it is preferred by everyone.	0.92			1.63(1.17)
I am less interested to stay at this luxury hotel because it has become commonplace among the general population.	0.91			1.72(1.24)
<i>Perceived brand status</i>		0.94	0.69	
I stay at this luxury hotel just because it has status.	0.81			3.01(1.29)
I am interested in this luxury hotel because it has status.	0.84			3.03(1.32)
The status of this luxury hotel is important to me.	0.84			3.02(1.35)
<i>Positive anticipated emotions</i>		0.95	0.79	
If I am able to stay at this luxury hotel again, I will be excited.	0.80			4.07(0.97)
If I am able to stay at this luxury hotel again, I will be glad.	0.89			4.20(0.93)
If I am able to stay at this luxury hotel again, I will be satisfied.	0.89			4.30(0.85)

If I am able to stay at this luxury hotel again, I will be happy.	0.89			4.25(0.92)
<i>Negative anticipated emotions</i>		0.89	0.67	
If I am not able to stay at this hotel again, I will be angry.	0.83			2.45(1.25)
If I am not able to stay at this hotel again, I will be disappointed.	0.79			3.24(1.40)
If I am not able to stay at this hotel again, I will be worried.	0.79			2.27(1.27)
If I am not able to stay at this hotel again, I will be sad.	0.87			2.77(1.36)
<i>Share of wallet</i>				
Considering all your stays at hotels in the past 1 year, what percentage have you spent on this luxury hotel brand compared to other hotels?	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	48.33(79.78)
<i>Consideration set size</i>				
How many other hotel brands would you consider staying at/booking for your next trip?	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2.81(1.32)

Table 4.2: Correlations of the constructs

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Self-consistency	(0.92)						
2. Snob motivation	0.35**	(0.95)					
3. Perceived brand status	0.76**	0.44**	(0.94)				
4. Positive anticipated emotions	0.60**	0.09*	0.49**	(0.95)			
5. Negative anticipated emotions	0.54**	0.26**	0.43**	0.41**	(0.89)		
6. Share of wallet	0.25**	0.09	0.22**	0.21**	0.08	(n.a.)	
7. Consideration set size	-0.46**	-0.12*	-0.34**	-0.37**	-0.31**	-.15**	(n.a.)

Note: Reliabilities is in Italian diagonal entries. ** Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level, * Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level

4.4.2 Results of hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, multiple linear regression analyses were conducted. The moderation effects for H2, H5, and H6 were tested by including the interactions of independent variables in the regression. Prior to creating the interaction terms, the independent variables were standardized to reduce the risk of multicollinearity. The variance inflation factors (VIF) were in the range of 1 and 2 suggesting that multicollinearity is not a problem for this study (see O'Cass & Ngo, 2011).

Table 4.3 shows the results of each hypothesis. H1 posits a positive relationship between the level of perceived self-consistency and perceived brand status. The results show that the level of perceived self-consistency was positively related to the perceived brand status ($\beta = 0.76$, $t = 25.29$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H1. H2 predicts that snob motivation moderates the relationship between the level of perceived self-consistency and perceived brand status. The results indicate that snob motivation did not significantly moderate the relationship between

the level of perceived self-consistency and perceived brand status ($\beta = 0.02$, $t = 0.69$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, contrary to our expectation, H2 was not supported. H3 posits a positive relationship between the perceived brand status and share of wallet. The results suggest that the perceived brand status was positively related to share of wallet ($\beta = 0.22$, $t = 4.75$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H3. H4 predicts a negative relationship between the perceived brand status and consumers' consideration set size. The results suggest that the perceived brand status was negatively related to consumers' consideration set size ($\beta = -0.34$, $t = -7.86$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H4.

Table 4.3: Results of multiple regression analysis

	IVs	DV	β	t-value	p	Hypotheses supported
H1	Self-consistency	Perceived brand status	0.76	25.29	0.00	Yes
H2	Self-consistency X Snob motivation	Perceived brand status	0.02	0.69	0.49	No
H3	Perceived brand status	Share of wallet	0.22	4.75	0.00	Yes
H4	Perceived brand status	Consideration set size	-0.34	-7.86	0.00	Yes
H5a	Perceived brand status X Positive anticipated emotions	Share of wallet	0.13	2.23	0.03	Yes
H5b	Perceived brand status X Negative anticipated emotions	Share of wallet	-0.14	-2.95	0.00	Yes
H6a	Perceived brand status X Positive anticipated emotions	Consideration set size	0.00	0.39	0.70	No
H6b	Perceived brand status X Negative anticipated emotions	Consideration set size	0.23	5.41	0.00	Yes

Note: ΔR^2 : H2 = 0.00, H5a = 0.01, H5b = 0.02, H6a = 0.01, H6b = 0.05.

H5 and H6 predict the moderation effects of positive and negative anticipated emotions. To test the moderation effects, the dependent variable was regressed on independent variable, moderator, and independent variable X moderator for each of the hypotheses. To identify regions in the range of moderators, we used Johnson-Neyman (JN) technique (Johnson & Neyman, 1936) using PROCESS SPSS macro (model 1). The results of moderation effects are shown in Table 4.3, Figure 4.2, and Figure 4.3.

H5a posits that positive anticipated emotions moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and share of wallet. The results show that positive anticipated emotions significantly moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and share of wallet ($\beta = 0.13$, $t = 2.23$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H5a. The JN point for $p = 0.05$ ($t = 1.97$) for positive anticipated emotions occurred at a value of 16.57, indicating that high level of perceived brand status results in significantly higher share of wallet than low level of perceived brand status for all values of positive anticipated emotions above 16.57. H5b predicts that negative anticipated emotions moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and share of wallet. The results show that negative anticipated emotions significantly moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and share of wallet ($\beta = -0.14$, $t = -2.95$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H5b. The JN point for $p = 0.05$ for negative anticipated emotions occurred at a value of 14.15 ($t = 1.97$), indicating that high level of perceived brand status results in significantly lower share of wallet than low level of perceived brand status for all values of negative anticipated emotions below 14.15.

H6a predicts that positive anticipated emotions moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and consideration set size. The results show that positive anticipated emotions did not significantly moderate the relationships between perceived brand status and consideration set size ($\beta = 0.00$, $t = 0.39$, $p > 0.05$), therefore, H6a was not supported. H6b posits that negative anticipated emotions moderate the relationship between the perceived brand status and consideration set size. The results show that negative anticipated emotions significantly moderate the relationship between perceived brand status and consideration set size ($\beta = 0.23$, $t = 5.41$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H6b. Additionally, the JN point for $p = 0.05$ for negative anticipated emotions occurred at the value of 13.53 ($t = 1.97$) and 19.78 ($t = 1.97$), indicating that high level of perceived brand status results in significantly lower consideration set size than low level of perceived brand status for all values of negative anticipated emotions below 13.53 and above 19.78.

Figure 4.2: Moderation effects of positive and negative anticipated emotions on share of wallet and consideration set size

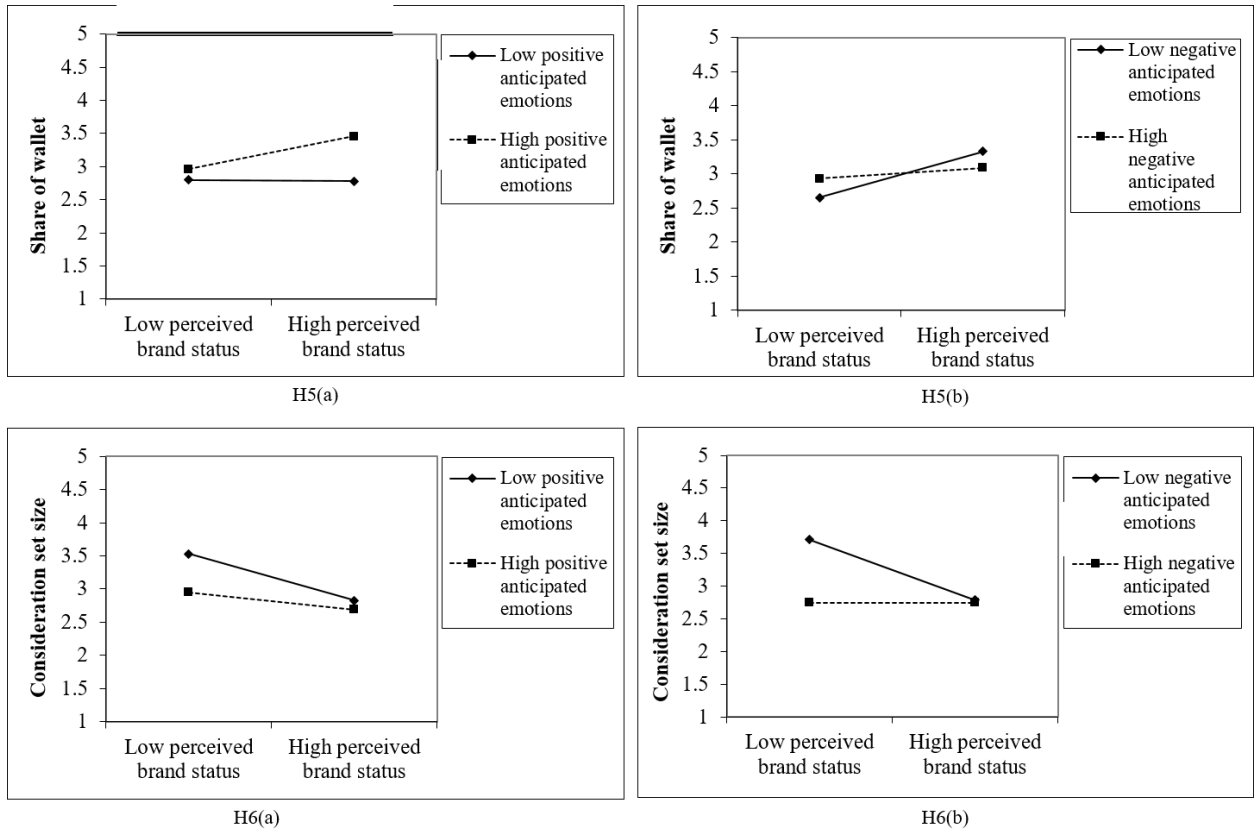
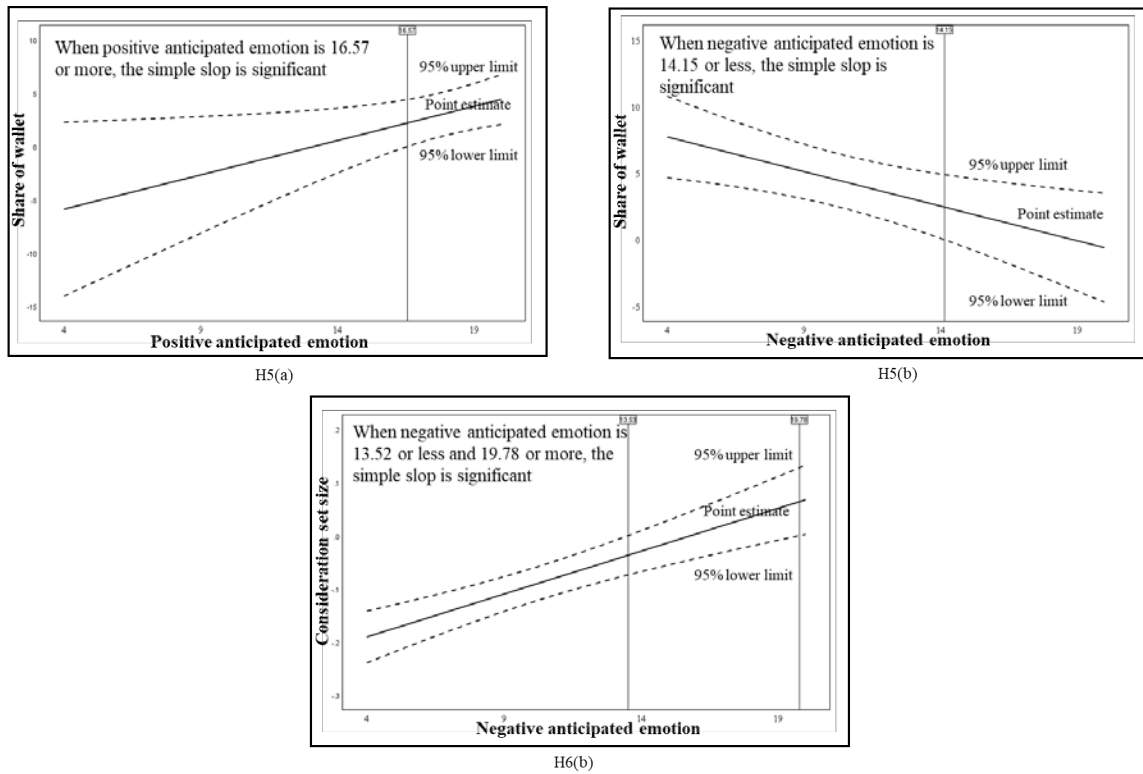


Figure 4.3: Johnson-Neyman points for moderation effects



4.5 Conclusion

4.5.1 Theoretical implications

As key sectors in the luxury market, tourism and hospitality have gained considerable attention by scholars and practitioners. Taking into consideration the significant growth of the luxury hotel industry and acknowledgement of luxury hotels as status enhancing products, our study specifically examined the perceived status of luxury hotel brands. Our findings provide important theoretical contributions to the literature.

First, we contribute to self-determination theory by showing its relevance to understand and predict consumers' motivations that assign specific hotel brands as status brands. The perceived status of brands is strongly tied to enhancement of the self-concept, and therefore it motivates consumers' purchase behaviors and future decisions regarding specific brand selection. To our knowledge, our study is the first to examine the motivations behind the perceived status of brands in the luxury hotel context. It is suggested that consumers prefer those brands that are consistent with their beliefs, values, and lifestyles and that match with their own self-image. Additionally, we affirm that the presence, not the interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations is necessary for consumers' selection of specific brands for status enhancement purposes.

Second, our study advances knowledge of the extent to which consumers' loyalty toward specific hotel brands is influenced by their perception of those brands as having status. To our knowledge, this study is the first that examines the extent to which status consumers ascribed to specific luxury hotel brands influence consumers' hotel choice decisions, therefore, contributes in the status consumption literature. In the tourism and hospitality literature, attention has been given to measure loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size. However, the extent to which the perceived brand status influences loyalty has received limited attention. Our study demonstrates that consumers' level of status ascribed to luxury hotel brands plays an important role in their selection of and spending on those brands. This is important as both share of wallet and consideration set size for hotel brands act as triggers of revenues through gaining more sales from consumers over

competitor brands and tying consumers to brands through reducing the number of competitor brands considered.

Lastly, our study contributes to the literature by examining the role consumers' anticipated emotions played in determining their spending on luxury hotel brands as well as their consideration set size when making patronage decisions for hotels. The tourism and hospitality literature has addressed the direct and/or mediating effect of anticipated emotions in determining future behavior or loyalty (Casidy et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015; Han & Ryu, 2012; Song et al., 2012). However, we show that anticipated emotions play a crucial moderating role in strengthening and/or weakening the decisions on selection and spending on luxury hotel brands. Moreover, to our knowledge, this study is the first to examine the extent to which anticipated emotions play a role in reinforcing to status seeking behaviors through patronage of luxury hotel brands. We suggest that when a specific brand relates to the enhancement of self (concept) as well as possesses status, anticipated emotions associated with that brand are more likely to influence consumers' decisions regarding the selection of those brands in future. Furthermore, in their decision making process, consumers anticipate the potential positive and negative aspects of emotions that moderate actual spending on the brand(s) over time, resulting in larger or smaller share of wallet. However, both positive and negative anticipated emotions were found to weaken the relationship between the perceived brand status and consideration set size. The explanation of these findings is that consumers are more likely to search for other alternatives and spend less on a specific brand perceived as having status when they account/acknowledge their own anticipated emotions, especially negative anticipated emotions, associated with that brand. When individual differences in

anticipated emotions are considered, the difference in consumers' share of wallet and consideration set size between the high and low level of perceived brand status is observable. Overall, our findings suggest that negative anticipated emotions for not being able to stay at specific luxury hotel brands weaken the relationship between a brand's perceived status and loyalty to the brand. As anticipated emotions are found to be important moderators in influencing consumers' decisions, we argue that the emotions consumers anticipate they will have at staying or not stay at the hotel brand impacts on their selection of status brands. This may be so for both tangible and intangible luxury products, when those brands are used to demonstrate their status image.

4.5.2 Practical implications

Apart from our theoretical contributions, we provide some important practical implications for luxury hotel marketers. It is suggested that understanding the extent to which consumers use luxury hotel brands to enhance their own status can guide hotel marketers in designing their marketing strategies especially through selective target marketing and positioning on status attributes. While designing and promoting their brands, hotel marketers should highlight the symbolic or conspicuous value of their hotel brand. Furthermore, by emphasizing these values and the extent to which the hotel brand possesses them, hotel marketers may promote their brand in specific magazines, websites and the like targeted to status conscious consumers.

Further, hotel marketers may also position their brands by focusing on the consistency between the image of their targeted consumers who stay at their hotels and the hotel's brand

image. Managing customer relationship management (CRM) systems by conducting ongoing research will support hotel marketers to better manage the connection about how consumers view themselves and the hotel brand, and applying this knowledge in branding strategies as well as how to communicate with customers. Moreover, as we show, positive anticipated emotions are strong motivators for better understanding the share of wallet, maximizing positive emotions in branding strategies may play a crucial role for hotel brands. Marketers can implement thoughtful marketing efforts to provide excellent service experiences to the consumers that may create the image of the hotel. The image, thus, may eventually increase positive anticipated emotions and reduce negative anticipated emotions while making hotel choice decisions.

4.5.3 Limitations and suggestions for future research

While we make important contributions to the literature, our study is subject to several limitations which may also provide opportunities for future research directions. One of our limitations is examining self-consistency as an internal motivation for status enhancement purpose, neglecting the influence of other intrinsic motivations such as perfectionism (a desire for quality) and hedonism (a desire to obtain emotional benefits or pleasure). Hotels are often evaluated on the tangible dimensions (such as location, equipment, employee appearance) demonstrating hotels' quality (Chang, 2008) as well as the enjoyment consumers experience from staying at those hotels (Lee et al., 2017; Yang & Mattila, 2017). Therefore, future research may examine the influence of perfectionism and hedonism on the perceived status of luxury hotel brands. Similarly, we examined snob as an extrinsic motivation excluding the influence of bandwagon effects. Some literature suggests that

gaining social recognition or status through achieving membership to a status group also creates motivations to acquire and consume status brands (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). Therefore, future research may consider examining the moderating role of bandwagon effects when investigating intrinsic motivations and the perceived status of brands in the luxury hotel context (or other tourism and hospitality products). Furthermore, while we examined anger, disappointment, worry, and sadness in relation to negative anticipated emotions, other factors such as shame and guilt related to social acceptance or status may also offer insights into consumers' future purchase behavior and loyalty (e.g., Zielke, 2011). Therefore, future research may examine how shame or guilt plays a role in status conscious consumers purchase behavior and loyalty toward luxury hotel brands. Moreover, we didn't measure consumers' revisit intention which is an important consumer loyalty measures in addition to share of wallet and consideration set size. Therefore, it might be worth examining the influence of perceived brand status and anticipated emotions on consumers' revisit intention for luxury hotel brands. Lastly, we did not consider the purpose of consumers' staying at specific hotel brands that may confer status to them. As leisure and business travelers are two major segments of the hotel industry who travel for specific purposes (Su & Reynolds, 2017), future research may address the moderating role of the purpose of staying at specific luxury hotel brands.

Appendix

Demographic analysis of respondents

Characteristics		Frequency	% ^a
Education	Bachelor's degree	294	62.8
	Master's degree	149	31.8
	Professional degree	25	5.3
Annual Income (USD)	45,000-59,999	74	15.8
	60,000-79,999	111	23.7
	80,000-99,999	103	22.0
	100,000-149,999	103	22.0
	150,000 or more	77	16.5
Age	25-35	122	26.1
	36-45	99	21.2
	46-55	115	24.6
	56-65	87	18.6
	66 and over	45	9.6
Gender	Female	252	46.2
	Male	216	53.8

^a The percentage is referred to the valid percentage

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CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This thesis provides an empirical investigation of the triggers behind, and impacts of status consumption across products and services in different countries with different culture. While status consumption is a growing phenomenon in emerging countries, there are much more to learn, specifically its effects across different culture and products in spectrum of tangibility and intangibility. A review of the literature identified research gaps which led to specific research questions being posed. As outlined in Section 1.2 of Chapter One, three research questions were proposed which sought to identify:

Research question 1: To what extent do personality traits and motivation drive status consumption in emerging countries?

Research question 2: To what extent does status consumption differ between developed and emerging countries?

Research question 3: To what extent do motivations and emotions explain perceived status and loyalty behaviours related to luxury service brands in developed countries?

Based on the appraisal of the various theoretical concepts and empirical works within the domains of marketing and consumer behaviour relating to the research questions, three studies were designed and presented in Chapter Two, Three, and Four. This final chapter, Chapter Five, discusses the findings of the three studies. The practical and theoretical implications are also discussed in terms of applicability of the outcomes of this thesis to

theory and practice. The chapter concludes with a discussion of limitations of this thesis and suggestions for future research.

5.2 Findings

This thesis answers three research questions, proposed in Section 1.2 of Chapter One, that were addressed in three separate studies. To aid in the discussions, the findings are examined in terms of the hypotheses developed in three papers, as outlined in Chapter Two, Three and Four, to address the research questions. The findings of the three separate papers addressing three research questions are discussed next in section 5.2.1.

5.2.1 Findings for research question 1

The focus of research questions 1, as discussed in section 1.2 of Chapter One, was to examine the extent to which personality traits and motivation drive status consumption in emerging countries. To answer this research question, four hypotheses were developed in paper one, presented in Chapter Two, stating the relationship between personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness), motivation to consume conspicuously, and status consumption.

Hypotheses 1 and 2, proposed in paper one, stated that *susceptibility to interpersonal influence* and *need for uniqueness* is positively related to status consumption in emerging countries. As shown in Table 2.3 of paper one presented in Chapter Two, the findings provide

support for these two hypotheses in that both susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness were positively related to status consumption in Bangladesh.

As discussed in Section 1.2 of Chapter One, less attention has been given to the consumption of status oriented products in the context of emerging countries. Shukla et al. (2015) note that a growing number of affluent middle class in emerging Asian countries, and their increasing discretionary spending on luxury products has created a growing market for luxury products. Therefore, further research is needed on this context, that may provide additional insights to the literature, and enhances understandings of the consumers' behaviours in emerging Asian countries (e.g., Eastman & Eastman, 2011; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014). Therefore, by answering calls for more research in the literature on consumers' status seeking behaviours in emerging countries (e.g., Eastman & Eastman, 2011; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2014) and extending the work of Bian and Forsythe (2012), Lertwannawit and Mandhachitara (2012), and Eastman and Eastman (2015), this thesis takes a step forward to advance the knowledge of personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness) that trigger the choice of status oriented products in Bangladesh, an emerging country. The findings of paper one show that, on the one hand, status-seeking consumers have the tendency to compare themselves with others and this comparison influences their desires to keep up with their reference groups. This tendency leads consumers in Bangladesh to acquire and consume status-enhancing products that help them to fit into their desired groups. Consuming specific products that are perceived as prestigious to their desired groups, therefore, shows consumers' conformity to that groups' norms and help increase their status within the group. On the other hand, consumers are prone to express

their unique self and social image that help achieve social respect and differentiate them from others. In line with the arguments of Clark et al. (2007) and Bian and Forsythe (2012), it is, therefore, suggested that, despite of being susceptible to interpersonal influence, acquiring and consuming specific products within the parameter of group norms fulfils consumers' need for being unique within their group and provides them with the perception of having status.

Hypotheses 3 and 4, proposed in paper one, stated that *motivation to consume conspicuously* mediates the relationship between personality traits, that is susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness, and status consumption in emerging countries. In this regard, the conspicuous role of two product categories automobiles and fashion clothing and apparels was examined. As shown in Table 2.3 of paper one presented in Chapter Two, the findings provide support for the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously (through automobiles and fashion clothing and apparels) on the relationship between susceptibility to interpersonal influence and status consumption in Bangladesh. However, the findings did not support the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously on the relationship between need for uniqueness and status consumption.

As discussed in section 1.2 of Chapter One, consumers' motivation to consume conspicuously is important in emerging countries as consumers are inclined to show their wealth to others. However, less attention has been given to understand the extent to which consumers' motivation to consume conspicuously explains the relationship between personality traits and status consumption. The findings of paper one presented in Chapter

Two suggest that, while engaging in consuming for status, consumers in Bangladesh rely on the displaying behaviour to get entry to their desired groups. By consuming specific products, such as automobiles and fashion clothing and apparels, consumers attempt to create similarity with their group members' choices and demonstrate their ownership of such products to others for the purpose of gaining status. However, it might be not be applicable for consumers who seek status to fulfil their need for uniqueness. In line with the previous arguments (e.g., Clark & Goldsmith, 2005; Snyder & Fromkin, 1977), it is, therefore, suggested that uniqueness seeking consumers may find themselves free of social constraints and may hold strong self-confidence that allow them to stand out in the crowd.

5.2.2 Findings for research question 2

The focus of research questions 2, as discussed in section 1.2 of Chapter One, was to examine the extent to which status consumption differs between developed and emerging countries. To answer this research question, four hypotheses were developed in paper two, presented in Chapter Three, comparing the relationship between life satisfaction, cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism), creative choice counter-conformity and status consumption between two countries, the USA (a developed country) and Bangladesh (an emerging country).

Hypotheses 1 and 2, proposed in paper two, stated that the relationship between *collectivism* and status consumption is stronger in emerging countries than in developed countries, and the relationship between *individualism* and status consumption is stronger in developed countries than in emerging countries. As shown in Table 3.2 of paper two presented in

Chapter Three, the findings indicate the stronger relationships between both cultural orientations, that is, individualism and collectivism, and status consumption in the USA compared to Bangladesh.

As discussed in Chapter Three, literature suggests that consuming for status is a well-established phenomenon in individualistic, developed countries like the USA (see Zhang & Nelson, 2016) where the emphasis is given on self-enhancement (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015). However, consumers from collectivistic countries may also have the tendency to consume for status because of their concern about the perception of the social groups (Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015). Therefore, by answering the calls for further research on the relationship between cultural orientations (e.g., individualism and collectivism) and status consumption (e.g., Dubois & Ordabayeva, 2015), this thesis shows that consumers' pursuit of status is stronger in the USA, and is increasing in Bangladesh.

Hypotheses 3, proposed in paper two, stated the relationship between status consumption and *life satisfaction* is stronger in emerging countries than in developed countries. As shown in Table 3.2 of paper two presented in Chapter Three, the findings provide support for the hypothesis that the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction was stronger in Bangladesh than in the USA.

As discussed in Chapter Three, despite the extensive research on status and life satisfaction, contradictions remain regarding the relationship between consumers' search for status and their life satisfaction. While some scholars support the fact that consuming status oriented

products may influence life satisfaction (Ahuvia, 2008; Anderson et al., 2012; DeLeire & Kalil, 2010; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012), others provides contrary arguments regarding the relationship between status and life satisfaction (Ahuvia, 2008; Guevarra & Howell, 2015; Richins, 2013). Furthermore, it is noted that the level of life satisfaction may be higher in developed countries, compared to emerging countries, as consumers from such countries generally have the economic means to satisfy both of their lower- and higher-order needs (Ahuvia, 2002; Dumludag, 2015; Dutta-Bergman & Wells, 2002). Building on previous studies (e.g., Anderson et al., 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2015; Linssen et al., 2011), this thesis, therefore, takes a step forward to enhance the knowledge of the impact of status on satisfaction with life across countries. This thesis argued that changes in consumers' socio-economic conditions in emerging countries like Bangladesh lead them toward the consumption of specific status oriented products that show their prestige and achievement to others. Consumers from such countries, to some extent, experience more satisfaction with their life when the consumption of specific products provides them with the perception of having status. As consumers in emerging countries are collectivistic in nature (Ahuvia, 2002), it is therefore, suggested that consumers' concerns about their social groups, social identity as well as their tendency for social comparison are thought to be the reasons behind the increasing status consumption tendency influencing their life satisfaction in Bangladesh.

Hypotheses 4, proposed in paper two, stated that *creative choice counter-conformity* mediates the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in developed countries, not in emerging countries. As shown in Table 3.3 of paper two presented in

Chapter Three, the findings provide support for the mediating role of creative choice counter-conformity on the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction in the USA, not in Bangladesh.

As discussed in Chapter Three, consumers from individualistic, developed countries are driven by their concern about personal self than social self, and focus more on creating unique identity (Sivadas et al., 2008; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). To create such unique identity and to be a part of distinctive groups, consumers in Western developed countries strive to create personal style through selecting and consuming original, novel, or unique products or display ordinary products in creative ways (Tian et al., 2001; Tian & McKenzie, 2001). Consumers experience the feelings of a satisfying life through the psychological benefits they gain by integrating the identity of their desired distinctive group into their personal identity. On the contrary, consumers in collectivistic emerging countries focus more on their interpersonal relationships and group conformity, and therefore, prefer those products that are acceptable to their group and are less unique (Shukla, 2012). It is suggested that consumers in developed countries like the USA experience the feelings of a satisfying life when the ownership of specific products show their unique identity in a way that is acceptable to in-group members or significant others.

5.2.3 Findings for research question 3

The focus of research question 3, as discussed in section 1.2 of Chapter One, was to examine the extent to which motivations and emotions explain perceived status and loyalty behaviours related to luxury service brands in developed countries. To answer this research question, six hypotheses were developed in paper three, presented in Chapter Four, stating the relationships between intrinsic motivation (self-consistency), extrinsic motivation (snob), anticipated emotions (positive and negative), consumers' loyalty (share of wallet and consideration set size) and perceived status of service brands (for this thesis, luxury hotel brands).

Hypotheses 1 and 2, proposed in Chapter Four, stated that the level of *perceived self-consistency* is positively related to the perceived brand status, and the relationship between the level of perceived self-consistency and the perceived brand status is moderated by *snob motivation*. As shown in Table 4.3 of paper three presented in Chapter Four, the findings provide support for the positive relationship between the level of perceived self-consistency and the perceived brand status. However, the findings indicate the non-significant influence of snob motivation as a moderator, suggesting that level of perceived self-consistency and the perceived status of a luxury hotel brand do not changes across different levels of snob.

As discussed in Chapter Four, the selection of hotels is strongly tied to consumers' perception of having status (Back, 2005), however, few researches have focused on the motivations behind the selection of luxury services such as hotel (Chen & Peng, 2014). Therefore, by answering the call for further research about the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic

motivations while influencing status consumption (Eastman & Eastman, 2015), and by extending the work of Chen and Peng (2014) and Yang and Mattila (2017), this research takes a step forward to advance the knowledge of the interplay of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. It is suggested that specific brands are preferred when consumers' find a consistency between their own self-image and the hotel brands' image. As consuming specific brands helps represent and enhance one's self-image (O'Cass & Frost, 2002), consumers consciously select specific luxury hotel brands which possess symbolic meaning for them and demonstrate their self-image. However, as consumers focus more on social self than personal self while consuming status brands, snob, as an extrinsic motivation, was expected to moderate the relationship between the level of self-consistency and the perceived status of a luxury hotel brand. However, this thesis suggests that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations do not interact with each other while influencing the selection of luxury hotel brands.

Hypotheses 3 and 4, proposed in Chapter Four, stated that the level of perceived brand status is positively related to *share of wallet*, and negatively related to *consideration set size*. As shown in Table 4.3 of paper three presented in Chapter Four, the findings provide support for the hypothesised relationships between perceived brand status, share of wallet and consideration set size.

As discussed in Chapter Four, taking into consideration the importance of share of wallet and consideration set size to measure consumers' loyalty toward specific brands, research have been conducted to understand such loyalty in the service industry (Casidy et al., 2018;

Hunneman et al., 2015; Mattila, 2008; Nyffenegger et al., 2014; Tanford, 2016). However, there is a lack of understanding of consumers' decisions regarding share of wallet and consideration set size based on perceived status of service brands. Taking into consideration limited empirical studies, and extending previous works (e.g., Casidy et al., 2018; Mattila, 2008), this thesis examines luxury hotel brands as service brands, and suggests that the perceived brand status also contribute in how much consumers pay on a particular luxury hotel brands and how many hotel brands they evaluate in their decision making process. Consistent with the work of Casidy et al. (2018), this thesis, therefore, concludes that both share of wallet and consideration set size are the important indicators of consumers' loyalty toward a hotel brands.

Hypotheses 5 and 6, proposed in Chapter Four, stated that the relationships between perceived brand status and consumers' loyalty in terms of share of wallet and consideration set size are moderated by *positive and negative anticipated emotions*. As shown in Table 4.3 of paper three presented in Chapter Four, the findings provide support for the moderating role of anticipated emotions on the relationships between perceived brand status, and share of wallet and consideration set size.

As discussed in Chapter Four, the emotions consumers anticipate to have from a brand-related experience influence their behavioural intentions including loyalty toward that brand (e.g., Casidy et al., 2018). However, there are limited empirical studies on the extent to which consumers' anticipated emotions influence such intentions in intangible services. This thesis, therefore, takes a step forward to provide additional insights to the literature by examining

the extent to which emotions related to specific brands may determine consumer's loyalty toward those brands. The findings presented in Chapter Four suggest that consumers' anticipated emotions for staying or not staying at a specific luxury hotel brand play an important role in influencing their spending on specific brands and inclusion as well as evaluation of other brands in the selection of luxury hotels.

5.3 Contributions

Given the attention devoted to status consumption across products and countries, this thesis makes contributions to the consumer behaviour literature. This thesis enhances understanding of personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness), motivations (extrinsic, intrinsic, and motivation to consume conspicuously), and cultural orientations (individualism and collectivism) as triggers of status consumption. Examining the extent to which status impacts life satisfaction, loyalty (share of wallet and consideration set size), creative choice counter-conformity, and anticipated emotions (positive and negative), this thesis advances knowledge of the impacts of status, and provides additional insights to the literature. As such this thesis makes a number of contributions to consumer behaviour literature.

First, this research advances the application of social comparison theory, social identity theory, and self-determination theory in the area of status consumption. While social comparison theory and social identity theory have been studied extensively to enhance knowledge about status consumption (see Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012), this thesis extends the application of these theories by showing the extent to which motivation to

consume conspicuously explains the relationships between personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness) and status consumption in an emerging country. Additionally, acknowledging the role of status across countries, this thesis extends the social comparison theory by examining and comparing the interplay between status consumption, life satisfaction and cultural orientations between a developed and an emerging country. Furthermore, this thesis contributes to self-determination theory by showing its relevance to understand and predict consumers' behaviours that determine consumers' service (hotel) brand choice. Grounded on self-determination theory, previous works have enhanced the understandings of consumers' behaviours in relation to the acquisition and consumption of luxury products (Ki & Kim, 2016; Truong & McColl, 2011; Truong et al., 2008). Examining the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations on perceived status ascribed to luxury hotel brands, this thesis, therefore, extends the application of self-determination theory within the service domain.

Second, while consuming for status is a well-established phenomenon in Western developed countries, this thesis suggests that, although not at same level as developed countries, rising income and stronger spending patterns are leading consumers in collectivist, emerging countries toward status consumption through products and brands. Furthermore, this thesis provides insights to the status consumption literature by examining the role of motivation to consume conspicuously in the context of susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness with status consumption. It is suggested that consumers in Bangladesh, perhaps in other emerging Asian countries, rely on the displaying behaviour, in part of the purpose of gaining status, when they are influenced by significant others.

Third, this thesis makes a contribution to the literature by examining the relationship between need for uniqueness and status consumption in the context of an emerging country. Uniqueness seeking is found to be common in developed countries strong in individualism (Kim & Markus, 1999; Sivadas et al., 2008; Triandis, 1995). However, by showing the positive relationship between need for uniqueness and status consumption, this thesis suggests that consumers from Bangladesh and perhaps other emerging countries are adopting individualistic elements without changing their social label as a collective society (e.g., Bian & Forsythe, 2012). Consumers in emerging countries like Bangladesh tend to select specific products that enhance their self and social image by creating a unique identity, therefore, fulfil their need for uniqueness.

Fourth, this thesis contributes to the literature by advancing the knowledge of the tendency to consume for status through different product categories. While examining status consumption, previous works focus on why and to what extent consumers rely on physical goods such as fashion clothing, handbags, automobiles for the purpose gaining status (Han et al., 2010; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; Shukla, 2008). This study makes a contribution to the literature by examining perceived status of brands in the luxury hotel context. Moreover, examining motivation to display wealth and status through two product categories – automobile, a high priced high status product, and fashion clothing and apparel, a low priced high status product – as an antecedent and mediator of status consumption is unique.

Fifth, this thesis makes a contribution in the literature by examining the relationship between perceived status of a luxury hotel brand and motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic), emotions

(positive and negative), and behavioural loyalty (share of wallet and consideration set size). More importantly, to the authors' knowledge, this is the first study that examined the perceived brand status and loyalty in the luxury intangible service in hotel context. These findings suggest that status consumers attuned to luxury hotel brands have significant influence on their spending decisions and their selection and evaluation of other brands.

Lastly, this thesis contributes to consumer behaviour and service literature by providing insights into the crucial role of anticipated emotions in relation to consumers' perception of brand status in the context of luxury hotel. Previous research examined anticipated emotions as an antecedents and/or mediators that determine the future behaviour or their loyalty toward firms (Casidy et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015; Han & Ryu, 2012; Song et al., 2012). This study shows the moderating role of anticipated emotions in influencing consumers' loyalty toward a luxury hotel brand. More importantly, to the authors' knowledge, this is the first study that examines the extent to which consumers' anticipated emotions regarding staying or not staying at a luxury hotel brand influence their status seeking behaviours related to specific luxury hotel brands. This thesis suggests that when consumers perceive a specific hotel brand as having status, they are more likely to select that brand in future based on their associated emotion regarding staying or not staying at that hotel.

5.3.1 Practical implications

The findings of this thesis provide avenues to help marketers of status products to expand their business across countries. It is suggested that status consumption is prevalent in countries regardless of economic development and cultural orientations which provides pathways for national and international marketers to create and develop markets for their products and brands in other countries. Given the importance of personal self over social self, marketers of status oriented brands targeting Western developed countries like the USA may implement marketing strategies by applying the role of unique identity in consumers' life.

Moreover, as luxury hotel brands are interrelated with consumers' perception of status attuned to such brands, hotel marketers should design their marketing strategies taking into account the selective target markets. More importantly, hotel marketers can implement advertising strategies by emphasising on the symbolic characteristics their hotel brands possess. Hotel marketers may also promote symbolic characteristics of their hotel brands in selective magazines targeted specifically for luxury consumers. Furthermore, this thesis suggests that positive anticipated emotions can influence share of wallet of the hotel brands, suggesting that consumers' positive anticipated emotions may lead their spending decisions toward specific hotel brands. Therefore, implementing positive emotional appeals in advertising strategies may be of importance for hotel marketers. Demonstrating positive emotional appeals, such as excitement, satisfaction, happiness, and gladness, in advertising may reduce the negative anticipated emotions attached to the luxury hotel brands.

In addition, this thesis provides insights for the marketers of status products who are planning to expand their businesses and enter into newly emerging countries. It is suggested that susceptibility to interpersonal influence is a strong predictor of consumption of status oriented products in an emerging country context. Therefore, reference groups of the targeted segments may be demonstrated in the promotional strategies to attract consumers of the status oriented products. To attract the consumers, marketers may also implement displaying behaviours in promotional appeals that would better demonstrate how such behaviours helps achieve a desirable image. Furthermore, the findings of this thesis shows that both individualism and collectivism cultural orientations are found to be significant in influencing status consumption. Therefore, marketers of status brands might consider individualistic elements (such as personal achievement, independent self, uniqueness) in addition to interpersonal influence. Marketers may simultaneously position their brands based on individualistic and collectivistic self and emphasise a brand's ability to help foster the simultaneous occurrence of unique identity and the reinforcement of social approval in a consumer's life, whether the target market is a developed country or an emerging country.

5.4 Limitations

As with all research, it is important to acknowledge and learn from the limitations of the study. While efforts were made to ensure that the conceptual and methodological aspects of three papers presented in this thesis were as precise as possible, certain constraints need to be taken into account when assessing the outcomes of its findings and implications. Table 5.1 points out the limitations of three papers, along with directions for future research, that should be considered as the limitations of this thesis.

Table 5.1: Limitations of the papers

Papers	Limitations and directions for future research
Paper one (chapter two)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This study selected two product categories, automobiles and fashion clothing and apparels, to examine the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously in the relationship between personality traits (susceptibility to interpersonal influence and need for uniqueness) and status consumption. The outcomes of the relationships may be different for other products or luxury services, such as luxury cafés, hotels and retail store as they are intangible in nature. Therefore, future research can study the tested relationships with service categories.• Consumers prefer status brands that are considered to have status, however, this study did not consider any specific brands which limits the understandings of the role of the brand in gaining status. (This limitation is also applicable for Paper two). Considering this limitation, future research may examine the role of brands in the tested relationships.• This study did not use established scale in the literature to measure motivation to consume conspicuously. Future studies may consider the previous established scale while measuring motivation to consume conspicuously.
Paper two (chapter three)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This study did not consider low-income, less educated consumers to study status consumption, therefore, the findings of this study cannot ensure the generalisability of the findings on the population. The sample of this study was educated individuals, who are generally thought to be individualistic in nature (e.g., Oyserman et al., 2002), therefore, future research may examine the tested relationships with low-income, less educated samples to determine if there is different outcome.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While trait such as materialism is associated with both status consumption and life satisfaction, this study did not examine materialism to see whether materialism influences the relationships studies. Therefore, future studies may examine the moderating role of materialism in the relationship between status consumption and life satisfaction. • Findings showed that the level of individualism was significantly higher among Bangladeshi sample than among the USA sample. This finding goes against the basic assumption that developed countries are high in individualism and emerging countries are high in collectivism. We assume that this unexpected finding might resulted from more educated sample from Bangladesh (75%) than the USA (66%) as cultural values may differ based on the education level (Oyserman et al., 2002). Further research may examine the tested relationships considering similar sample criteria in other developed and emerging countries.
Paper three (chapter four)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This study examined self-consistency and snob motivations representing intrinsic and extrinsic motivations respectively. However, other intrinsic (such as hedonism and perfectionism) and extrinsic (such as bandwagon) may provide different outcomes while testing the theory, therefore, limit the generalisability of the study. Future research may examine the tested relationships with other intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to determine whether there is similar outcomes. • This study did not examine shame or guilt to measure negative anticipated emotions although these factors are often found to be related to social acceptance or status (e.g., Zielke, 2011). Future research may examine such factors to determine their impact on the

	<p>relationship between the level of perceived brand status and consumers' loyalty.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This study did not examine whether perceived brand status has impacts on consumers' revisit intention which is an important consumer loyalty measures in addition to share of wallet and consideration set size (Casidy et al., 2018; Nyffenegger et al., 2014). Therefore, future research may examine the impacts of perceived status on revisit intention. • Although purposes of staying at specific hotel brands are important (Su & Reynolds, 2017), this study did not consider the purposes of consumers to stay at specific hotel brands which might provide valuable insights in the literature. Future research may examine the purpose of staying at luxury hotel brands as a control variable of the tested relationships.
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5.5 Conclusion

To answer the research questions and to achieve the research aims, this research developed three frameworks to gain conceptual insights. This research provides insights to the triggers of status consumption tendency in the context of an emerging country. The understanding of the presence of status consumption are further enhanced by comparing such consumption across countries. This research also advances the knowledge of the extent to which status seeking influences the levels of life satisfaction of consumers across countries. Furthermore, examining the perceived status of brands in the context of luxury hotels provides new insights on the motivations behind such consumption and consumers' luxury hotel staying behaviour. Moreover, the findings of this research extended the use of social comparison

theory, social identity theory, and self-determination theory in new contexts by using these theories as theoretical bases of the tested variables. Overall, by examining status consumption across different products and countries, this research provides evidence that status consumption is an established phenomenon across countries and across sectors.

*Status implies not just a high or low binary but a continuum
(and that it may stand out or fit).*

– O’Cass & McEwen, 2004 p. 34

Appendices: Ethics approval letter

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HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (TASMANIA) NETWORK

3 November 2015

Professor Aron O'Cass
Tasmanian School of Business and Economics
University of Tasmania

Student Researcher: Nazia Nabi

Sent via email

Dear Professor O'Cass

Re: MINIMAL RISK ETHICS APPLICATION APPROVAL
Ethics Ref: **H0015363 - Examining Art Consumption Behaviour: The Role of Status Seeking Motivation in a Developing Country**

We are pleased to advise that acting on a mandate from the Tasmania Social Sciences HREC, the Chair of the committee considered and approved the above project on 3 November 2015.

This approval constitutes ethical clearance by the Tasmania Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee. The decision and authority to commence the associated research may be dependent on factors beyond the remit of the ethics review process. For example, your research may need ethics clearance from other organisations or review by your research governance coordinator or Head of Department. It is your responsibility to find out if the approval of other bodies or authorities is required. It is recommended that the proposed research should not commence until you have satisfied these requirements.

Please note that this approval is for four years and is conditional upon receipt of an annual Progress Report. Ethics approval for this project will lapse if a Progress Report is not submitted.

The following conditions apply to this approval. Failure to abide by these conditions may result in suspension or discontinuation of approval.

1. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval, to ensure the project is conducted as approved by the Ethics Committee, and to notify the Committee if any investigators are added to, or cease involvement with, the project.

A PARTNERSHIP PROGRAM IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

2. Complaints: If any complaints are received or ethical issues arise during the course of the project, investigators should advise the Executive Officer of the Ethics Committee on 03 6226 7479 or human.ethics@utas.edu.au.
3. Incidents or adverse effects: Investigators should notify the Ethics Committee immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
4. Amendments to Project: Modifications to the project must not proceed until approval is obtained from the Ethics Committee. Please submit an Amendment Form (available on our website) to notify the Ethics Committee of the proposed modifications.
5. Annual Report: Continued approval for this project is dependent on the submission of a Progress Report by the anniversary date of your approval. You will be sent a courtesy reminder closer to this date. **Failure to submit a Progress Report will mean that ethics approval for this project will lapse.**
6. Final Report: A Final Report and a copy of any published material arising from the project, either in full or abstract, must be provided at the end of the project.

Yours sincerely



Katherine Shaw
Executive Officer
Tasmania Social Sciences HREC

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