

Conspicuous Parental Consumption
Antecedents of Luxury Brand Preference for Parents as
Consumers

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Summary

In 1899, Thorstein Veblen published a book called “The Theory of the Leisure Class”, in which he described how the upper class consumed conspicuously to display wealth and signal status. He noted how the affluent man consumed vicariously through his wife and servants, who functioned as reflections of his persona. Today, over 100 years later, tables have turned, and women are no longer merely viewed as “trophy wives”. Rather, women today engage in vicarious consumption themselves, in this case on the behalves of their children.

The market of luxury apparel for children has grown at a rapid pace over the last decade. Only ten years ago, the market was dominated by a few major actors, whereas today a continuously increasing number of fashion designers have discovered this prosperous market. Despite the evident development in this market, very little research has been devoted to explaining the motivation behind parents’ consumption of luxury items for children. Parents are the central benefactors behind children’s consumption, and parents’ values and consumer behavior influences children’s attitudes and behavior in the marketplace. Examining what motivates parents to spend outrageous sums of money to have their children dressed in the latest couture is the central focus of this thesis.

The sample of $N = 246$ consists of Norwegian parents of children in the age between 0 and 13 years. The chosen research design is a 2 x 2 hybrid experiment, where self-consciousness is manipulated and socioeconomic status is measured. Self-consciousness (SC) is manipulated by randomly assigning participant to a condition of low or high self-consciousness. The high SC group was instructed to write five sentences regarding how they were different from their friends and family, while the Low SC group was asked to write the name of the film they had last seen in a movie theater. The question sequencing was also different for the High SC and Low SC group. Manipulation check revealed significant results of this manipulation.

Parents’ social and psychological characteristics are investigated as drivers of Luxury Brand Preference, believed to represent Conspicuous consumption. Six main hypotheses are developed in the thesis, altogether eighteen partial hypotheses. Due to validation concerns, two dimensions of vanity are excluded from further analysis. The final constructs investigated through analysis are *Luxury Brand Preference*, *Socioeconomic Status (SES)*, *Public Self-Consciousness*, *Vanity* on dimensions *Physical View and Achievement Concern*, *Parental Empathy* and *Marital Status*.

A few of the most interesting findings include

- Unfavorable view of own physical appearance demonstrates a positive influence on Luxury Brand Preference.
- Both low status and/or low marital status are socioeconomic factors increasing the propensity for Luxury Brand Preference.
- Manipulating consumers’ level of public self-consciousness can lead to increased Luxury Brand Preference.

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Ålesund,
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1. Introduction

This chapter provides a short introduction to the chosen focus of this thesis. An outline of how conspicuous consumption is relevant in a context of parents' consumption for children is explicated, before presenting the purpose and research questions of the thesis. Finally, implications of the research are suggested.

1.1. Theoretical background

In the most general sense, consumption can be defined as “The act of buying and using goods”. It is a basic activity, which is necessary for people of all groups of society to take part in from time to time. However, sometimes consumption is not only sought out because of the utility it brings, but rather the social and symbolic benefits it yields. Consumption can often be a self-defining and self-expressive behavior (Schau et al. 2003), and it “serves to produce a desired self through the images and styles conveyed through one’s possessions” (Thompson and Hirschman 1995).

Conspicuous consumption is a phenomenon that has received a great deal of attention within the field of consumer behavior. Thorstein Veblen was the first to introduce the concept in his 1899 book “The Theory of the Leisure Class”, in which he portrayed the upper class’ efforts to signal their wealth and fortune through ostentatious and wasteful consumption. He described how the affluent man engaged in vicarious consumption by lavishing their wives, children, and even servants with expensive, unnecessary products, serving as costly displays of status. Oxford Dictionary (2005) defines conspicuous consumption as “The buying of expensive goods in order to impress people and show them how rich you are”. The idea that people turn to visible possessions to improve their social standing has been widely investigated in newer research as well, and although improvements to his theories have been suggested to fit today’s modern society, Veblen’s theories have made important contributions to insight into why people consume in this manner. While the concept originated within the leisure class, conspicuous consumption is no longer restricted to those who have endless resources, and who can afford to consume wastefully. Rucker and Galinsky (2008) studied how a state of powerlessness could drive people to endeavor to attenuate this state by obtaining and displaying status products, hoping to compensate for this low feeling of power.

In spite of a solid accumulation of literature in the field of conspicuous consumption, only a modest amount of contributions has been made on the conspicuous consumption which takes place vicariously by parents, on the behalves of their children (i.e. Brusdal (2008;

Prendergast and Wong 2003; Boulton 2007). In his analysis of fashion advertisements for designer children's clothing, Boulton (2007) states "Much has been written on the negative impact of marketing *to* children, but there is a curious gap in the literature concerning marketing to adults *through* children". Up until children reach the age where they can provide for themselves, parents are the benefactors behind their children's consumption. Also, up until the age where children begin forming own opinions about what kinds of clothing they want to wear, parents are the key decision makers. Although children eventually begin forming own opinions, these opinions will to a large degree be based on values and consumer socialization skills that parents have instilled in their children (Moschis et al. 1977).

During the last decade there has been an upsurge in the market for exclusive children's clothing, and parents' spending on these products now comprises a large market. Hence, motivation behind parents' consumption of luxury brands for children should be investigated carefully. Parents' increased focus on luxury items for children has also been evident over the last decades. Designer clothing for toddlers, or even infants, is no longer just something you see on the arms of celebrities on TV, or in glossy magazines. Like most trends have a way of doing, high fashion for young children is trickling down into to the lives of ordinary families. Aspirational consumption, whether amounting from parents wanting the lives of famous people or simply admiring the style of the boy next door, is only one potential explanation as to why parents might choose to splurge on these items for their youngsters.

A widespread and socially accepted motivation for buying luxury brands for children is the superior quality of the clothing items', i.e. when it comes to toughness and durability. Although this is probably a very important factor in parents' decision-making process, this argument does not always hold up. The relationship between price and quality can be quite weak (Gerstner 1985), and hence additional motivations behind this kind of spending should be found. Simply liking the appearance of the product is also an important factor influencing parents' choice of brand clothing. Prendergast and Wong (2003) found that parents are motivated by the good quality and design associated with luxury brands, yet they found no support for a desire to impress others with their ability to pay (Social consumption motivation). However, this study fails to account for the elicitation problems related with conspicuous consumption, which are crucial when investigating motivations behind this type of consumption. Asking a status-conscious individual about his incentives for buying purchasing branded goods is not likely to yield an honest answer (Mason 1992).

Belk (1988) was one of the first to claim that the self can be extended to include not only personal possessions and objects, but also other persons (e.g. children). He states that “knowingly, or unknowingly, we regard possessions as a part of ourselves”, and that “possessions are a major contributor to and reflections of our identities”. In other words, possessions are important for both how *we* perceive ourselves, and how *others* see us. Belk’s (1988) notion that “we are what we have” suggests that the items, people etc. we choose to surround ourselves with affects others’ image of us. This suggests that parents might choose possessions for their children that align with their own possessions, while depicting the parents as resourceful and caring parents with a certain social status.

1.2. Practical background

Insight into why parents engage in conspicuous consumption for their children is interesting, both from a managerial view and a consumer-welfare view. On one side, knowledge about the conspicuous parental consumer helps managers identify, target, and reach these parents, who are more susceptible to these products than others. Designer clothing for children is becoming a substantial industry, and it is growing at a tremendous pace (Alexander 2013). By knowing what motivates this type of consumer behavior, managers can more easily trigger the desired needs in parents who are consuming for their children in their communication efforts, and facilitate the choice of their brand over others.

On the other side are the deteriorating effects an unhealthy focus on appearances or a heightened self-consciousness can have on young children, and their self-image. “Brand bullying” is a term used to describe the act of tormenting children by their own peers, as a consequence of not wearing the “right” brands of clothing. This is becoming a widespread problem in schools, and even kindergartens, across the world. Also, the pressure conspicuously consuming parents create for other parents to “keep up” is an important factor. When parents are “forced” to work longer hours to keep up the kind of lifestyle they wish to demonstrate, and to “keep up with the Joneses”. The consequences are, among others less time for parents to spend with their children. This is also thought to have a negative impact on family life, which can later on result in negative effects for society as a whole. More knowledge regarding what creates the desire to consume conspicuously can establish more awareness of how to prevent some of the negative footprints the luxury branded shoe leaves behind.

1.3. Purpose and research questions

An interesting aspect about conspicuous consumption is that people engaging in it will rarely admit to it. Likely because this is a personal matter, intertwined with one's self-image and admitting to rely on symbols to provide status may infer insecurity or lack of confidence. Many conspicuous consumers hide behind socially accepted reasons for consuming brand items, such as quality and design, and refuse the fact that they are paying extra for the brand itself and the associations the brand conveys. Although this can be problematic in research for several reasons, the very notion that the motivation behind this type of consumption is something that people prefer to hide and cover up makes it all the more intriguing, and makes me want to probe for answers. Where do these needs to signal success and wealth come from? What describes the conspicuous consumer? And how does it affect consumer behavior?

This study seeks to investigate whether the motivation behind parents' conspicuous/vicarious consumption merely concerns filling physical needs of the children, or whether parents' emotional and psychological needs for status and approval of others could play a part. I am interested in what drives parents to spend outrageous amounts of money to have their young children dressed up in designer clothing, when the child itself is not able to distinguish between brand and non-brand items. A special emphasis is placed on consumption on younger children's behalves, because these are less likely to have a reference group that they seek to accommodate their self to. Older children are also more likely to ask their parents for specific brands, thus serving as a source of influence. In addition to this, younger children are more likely to limit their requirements for clothing to terms of color and shape, rather than specific brands, compared to older children, who likely are more brand-conscious.

Parents' social and psychological traits are of paramount interest for this thesis, serving as vital drivers of conspicuous consumption. Evidently, social and psychological characteristics are known to influence consumers purchase attitudes, motivations and behaviors all together. Based on the theoretical background of conspicuous consumption and the apparent gap in theory the following research questions are generated.

Research question 1: How does parents' level of socioeconomic status and marital status influence conspicuous consumption of brand clothing on children's behalves?

Research question 2: How does parents' level of innate characteristics such as vanity, self-consciousness and parental empathy influence their conspicuous consumption of brand clothing on children's behalves?

1.4. Structure of the thesis

The thesis follows a classic structure of academic writing in economics and management. Chapter 1 provides a general introduction to the chosen topic, and presents the research questions, which confine the borders for following chapters. Chapter 2 gives a theoretical overview of the theoretical background for the thesis. A brief literature review of chosen constructs follows in Chapter 3, developing hypotheses and the conceptual framework consecutively. In chapter 4, methodology and the selected research design is presented and discussed. Chapter 5 describes the validity and reliability of the thesis, and the results from the experiment are presented, before findings are discussed in chapter 6. Finally, theoretical and practical implications of the findings are introduced, followed by propositions for further research.

2.0. Theoretical review

This chapter will present a review of existing literature on relevant theoretical background for this thesis. Theory on conspicuous consumption is followed by an exploration of the extended self, before a review of prestige-seeking consumer behavior. Research on both parents and children as consumers is presented. Finally, an overview of the market for luxury apparel for children is given, before reviewing of the signaling effect of clothing.

2.1. Conspicuous Consumption

Conspicuous consumption is a renowned concept within the field of consumer behavior. Several definitions of the concept exist, such as: “consumers’ deliberate, conscious activity to achieve the objective of status enhancement” (Veblen 1899), “the acquisition and display of possessions with the intention of gaining social status” (Veblen 1899), and “wasteful and lavish consumption expenses to enhance social prestige” (Chaudhuri and Majumdar 2010). The first element these definitions have in common is the element of status or prestige, and the desire to enhance this through the act of consumption. Conspicuous consumption refers to consumption that seeks to satisfy other needs than merely functional needs, especially symbolic and psychological needs for acceptance or status. The conspicuous consumer is aware of the associations attached to the brands she consumes, and how these associations are perceived by others, especially people in their reference group. Hoping that the associations of the brand will rub off on them, conspicuous consumers are willing to spend tremendous amounts of money to have their selves affiliated with the brand, and what the brand communicates.

Chaudhuri (2006) identifies three antecedents or motivations for conspicuousness; ostentation and signaling, uniqueness, and social conformity. *Ostentation and signaling* refers to the ability of products to display wealth and power, often using price as a medium or surrogate indicator of power and status. The primary objective here is to impress others. Although ostentation explains a part of the equation, it does not recognize the products that are consumed in private. *Uniqueness* was first described by Liebenstein (1950) as the “snob effect”, which will also be discussed later. The need for uniqueness is an expression of consumers’ desire to “do their own thing”, and through consumption the consumer can invent new ways of self-expression and communication (Douglas and Isherwood 1979). *Social conformity* is both the opposite of the snob effect, and an antecedent to it (Berry 1994; Miller et al. 1993; Rogers 1983). Liebenstein called this the “bandwagon effect”, driven primarily by a motivation to conform and “blend in” by having what others have. Burt (1982) argued

that in ambiguous situations people turn to other people who serve as a reference group in order to come up with a solution that makes sense in that particular context (Chaudhuri 2006).

Veblen (1899) identifies two disparate motives for consuming conspicuously; invidious comparison and pecuniary emulation. *Invidious comparison* refers to situations in which a member of a higher class consumes conspicuously to distinguish himself from members of a lower class. *Pecuniary emulation* occurs when a member of a lower class consumes conspicuously so that he will be thought of as a member of a higher class (Bagwell and Bernheim 1996). These two separate motives both refer to signaling, the first through stimulus specialization, and the latter through stimulus generalization. In other words, if we did not have pecuniary emulation, we would not have invidious comparison either. “Even though snobs and followers buy luxury products for apparently opposite reasons, their basic motivation is essentially the same: whether through differentiation or group affiliation, they want to enhance their self-concept” (Dubois and Duquesne 1993).

Sundie et al. (2011) define Conspicuous consumption as a form of economic behavior in which self-presentational concerns override desires to obtain goods at bargain prices. Trigg (2001) calls this willingness to pay a higher price for a functionally equivalent good “Veblen effect”. Veblen proposed that individuals crave status, and that status can be enhanced by material displays of wealth. He also emphasizes that consumers have private information about the value of their assets, and they attempt to signal their wealth by consuming a conspicuous good. Hence, luxury brands are often purchased by consumers who seek to signal high levels of wealth through their consumption (Bagwell and Bernheim 1996). Veblen’s theory of conspicuous consumption is based on the premise that those who “prove” their wealth are rewarded with preferential treatment by social contacts, i.e. in terms of higher status, or admiration.

Veblen’s work has been under scrutiny ever since it was first published, and Chaudhuri and Majumdar (2010) argue that his contributions were more relevant in Veblen’s own days, and that his research requires updating, to adjust to modern society. Furthermore, they propose an alternative conceptualization of the conspicuous consumption construct: “a deliberate motivation to involve a symbolic and visible purchase, possession, and usage of products, which are characterized by the presence of scarce economic and cultural capital, to communicate a distinctive self-image to the significant others”.

Although I agree that the world has changed since Veblen’s days, I believe that the desire of people have to appear successful and affluent, especially those who are in fact *not*, is a universal desire, transcending time and place. When dressing their children, many have their

own social position and status in mind, and by choosing certain brands over others, parents can communicate their *desired* class- or group belonging. The definition I have chosen to define conspicuous consumption is: “the acquisition and display of possessions with the intention of gaining social status” (Veblen 1899).

2.2. The Extended Self

Belk (1988) uses the terms “self”, “sense of self” and “identity” as synonyms for how a person subjectively perceives who he or she is (Ahuvia 2005). Belk (1988) argues that our possessions are a major contributor to and reflection of our identities. He claims that the sense of self can be extended, and summarizes the major categories of extended self as body, internal processes, ideas and experiences, and those persons, places and things to which one feels attached. Of these categories, the last three appear to be the most clearly *extended*. Extending ourselves can ultimately be a strategy of altering the way others see us.

Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton (1981) claim that “We invest ‘psychic energy’ in an object in which we have directed our efforts, time and attention. This energy and its products are regarded as a part of the self because they have grown or emerged from the self.” Anyone who has brought up a child is likely to tell you that this is a process that requires great amounts of effort, time, and attention. These arguments point to the possibility that some parents might view their children as a part of their extended self. Belk also draws on the work of McClelland (1951), who states “External objects become viewed as part of self when we are able to exercise power or control over them. The greater the control we exercise, the more closely allied with the self the object should become.” This supports the previous notion that parents of younger children are more suitable for this study, drawing on the fact that younger children generally are easier to control, and hence are more easily viewed as an extension of parents’ self.

Veblen (1899) depicted wives and children as playing a decorative and expressive role in the turn of the century *nouveau riche*. He also noted that one can consume vicariously through one’s dependents, so that consumption that enhances dependents’ extended selves also enhances one’s own extended self, of which dependents are a part (Belk 1988). On vicarious consumption, Veblen also suggested that parental pride was manifested in dressing one’s children as well as possible, even if it entailed sacrifice, so that they might prove as evidence of the family’s fortune and well-being.

2.3. Prestige-Seeking Consumer Behavior

In their review of prestige-seeking consumer behavior, Vigneron and Johnson (1999) categorized prestigious brands into three types; upmarket brands, premium brands, and luxury brands, in an increasing order of prestige. Using self-consciousness to represent consumers’ responses to social influence (Brinberg and Plimpton 1986), and the importance of price as an indicator of prestige, Vigneron and Johnson developed a framework for explaining prestige-seeking consumer behavior.

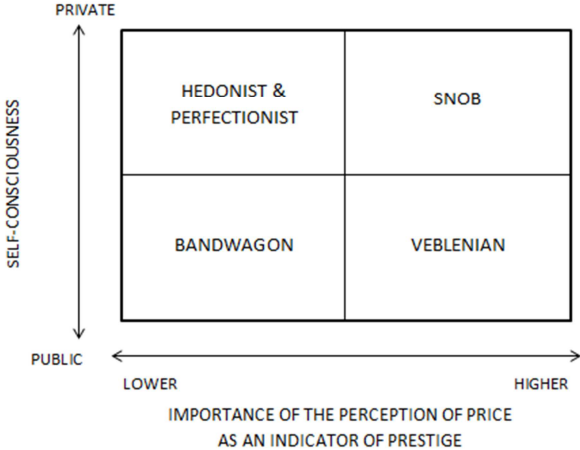


Figure 1- Prestige-Seeking Consumer Profiles

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that the preference for each alternative value may describe a separate prestige-seeking profile (i.e. Veblenian, Snob, Bandwagon, Hedonic, and Perfectionist). Based on previous research, the framework identifies five types of prestige seekers, influenced by five perceived prestige values, and self-consciousness. The first three are interpersonal effects, while the two latter are personal effects. The five profiles represent five different motivations for prestige consumption, and while certain consumers might belong to more than one category, most consumers are likely to fit better into one category than the others. The five profiles are presented below.

Table 1 – Profiles and Motivations for Prestige-Seeking Consumer Behavior

VALUES	MOTIVATIONS
Conspicuous	Veblenian
Unique	Snob
Social	Bandwagon
Emotional	Hedonist
Quality	Perfectionist

Interpersonal Effects

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) distinguish between the two types of effects *interpersonal* and *personal* effects, arguing that consumers are usually more influenced by one than the other.

2.3.1. Veblenian – Perceived Conspicuous Value

Bearden and Etzel (1982) found that publicly consumed luxury products were more likely to be conspicuous products than privately consumed products. As previously mentioned, Veblen (1899) suggested that conspicuous consumption was used by people to signal wealth and, by inference, power and status. In other words, the utility of prestige products may be to demonstrate wealth, leading us to believe that highly visible prestige brands would dominate the conspicuously motivated consumers. Several studies have revealed that consumers often use price cue as evidence for judging quality when choosing between different brands (Erickson and Johansson 1995; Lichtenstein et al. 1988; Tellis and Gaeth 1990).

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that Veblenian consumers attach a greater importance to price as an indicator of prestige, because their primary objective is to impress others.

2.3.2. Snob – Perceived Unique Value

Originating in both personal and interpersonal effects, the snob effect is driven by both personal and emotional desires, but also influences and is influenced by other individuals' behavior (Mason 1992). It can take place whenever a snob adopts a product available only to a limited number of consumers, or when a status sensitive consumer rejects a product after seeing it consumed by the general mass of people (Mason 1981). Solomon (1994) found that "items that are in limited supply have high value, while those readily available are less desirable. Rare items command respect and prestige". A need for uniqueness is the outcome of a social comparison process, where an individual's desire is to be perceived as different from other individuals (Festinger 1954).

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that Snob consumers perceive price as an indicator of exclusivity, and avoid using popular brands to experiment with inner-directed consumption.

2.3.3. Bandwagon - Perceived Social Value

Serving as an antecedent for the snob effect, the bandwagon effect occurs when an individual is influenced to conform to prestige reference groups and/or to be distinguished from non-prestige reference groups (i.e. French and Raven 1959). As noted above, Belk (1988) claims that people’s desire to possess prestige brands may serve as a symbolic marker of group membership, and instate a feeling of belonging. Bandwagon consumers may use the perceived extended-self value of prestige brands to enhance their self-concept.

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that relative to snob consumers, bandwagon consumers attach less importance to price as an indicator of prestige, but will put a greater emphasis on the effect they make on others while consuming prestige brands.

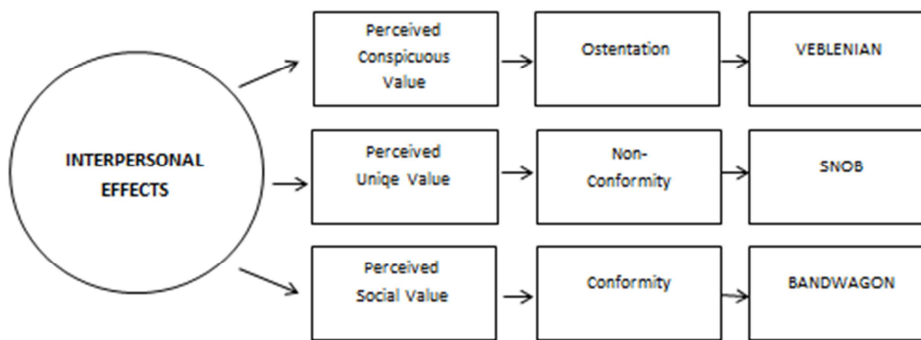


Figure 2 - Interpersonal Effects on Prestige Consumption

Personal Effects

While the consumption of prestige brands seems to be strongly influenced by social purposes and hereby interpersonal effects, Vigneron and Johnson recognize that personal matters such as aesthetic taste and sensory emotion may also motivate prestige-seeking consumer behavior.

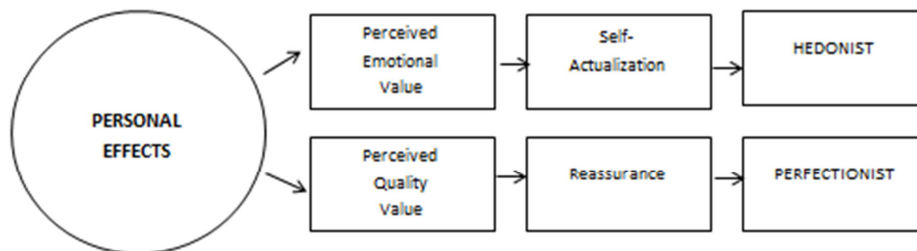


Figure 3 - Personal Effects on Prestige Consumption

2.3.4. Hedonist – Perceived Emotional Value

Dichter (1960) was one of the first to demonstrate that consumer choice may be driven by non-cognitive and unconscious motives. Dubouis and Laurent (1994) found that emotional value was an essential characteristic of the utility which people perceived to get from consuming luxury products: "...a vast majority subscribes to the hedonic motive and refutes the snobbish argument". The hedonic effect takes place when consumers value the perceived utility acquired from a prestige brand to arouse feelings and affective states. People who are first and foremost concerned with their own personal values, depend on the individual alone for fulfillment, or are insusceptible to interpersonal influence, (i.e. conformity to reference groups) may represent hedonist consumers.

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that hedonist consumers are more interested in their own thoughts and feelings, and thus will place less emphasis on price as an indicator of prestige.

2.3.5. Perfectionist – Perceived Quality Value

The function of quality is often emphasized in studies on luxury consumption. Prestige brands are expected to show evidence of greater quality, and luxury or premium brands should display even greater levels of quality (Garfein 1989; Roux 1995). Because people perceive higher prices as evidence of greater quality, high prices may make certain products or services more desirable (Groth and McDaniel 1993). The quality effect is likely to occur when consumers value the perceived utility acquired from a prestige brand to suggest superior product characteristics and performance.

Vigneron and Johnson (1999) propose that perfectionist consumers are driven by, and rely on, their own perception of the product's quality, and may use the price as evidence supporting the quality issue.

2.4. Parents as conspicuous consumers

When Prendergast and Wong (2003) studied parental influence on the purchase of luxury brands of infant apparel, they asked themselves "Why do some parents buy luxury brands of clothing for their infants, when in fact their infants are too young to appreciate Armani, Versace and other such labels?" Although Prendergast and Wong were interested in investigating whether parents were doing this to impress others, their findings indicated that parents were simply motivated by the good quality and design associated with the luxury brand. However, the authors make no comments on the difficulties of elicitation connected

with conspicuous consumption, which will be discussed below. Darian (1988) suggests that buying luxury brands for children would reflect favorably on the financial status of the parents.

Prendergast and Wong (2003) found that materialistic parents are likely to spend more on luxury brands for their children. Materialism is “the idea that goods are a means to happiness; that satisfaction in life is not achieved by religious contemplation or social interaction, or simple life, but by possessions and interaction with goods” (Richins 1987). Also, highly materialistic individuals find possessions to be generally involving and devote more energy to activities involving products and brands (Browne & Kaldenberg 1997).

Boulton (2007) draws on the work of Veblen in analyzing fashion advertisements for designer children’s clothing in an upscale magazine targeted at affluent mothers. He notes that Veblen claimed that conspicuous consumption was only a part of the picture for the elite. Vicarious consumption must also be included, whereby an aristocrat “demonstrated his wealth and this legitimate claim to gentility, through the lavish treatment bestowed upon his servants or his wife” (Veblen 1899). In other words, women were considered the property of their husband, and equipping her with the finest clothing would reflect positively back on him as a husband, as it showed he was able to provide for her. Today, women enjoy greater economic freedom, and while “trophy wives” still exist, most women can, and wish to provide for themselves. Boulton (2007) poses a theory that the vicarious consumption that husbands exercised on their wives behalves has evolved, and that today modern women engage in vicarious consumption on their children’s behalves: “Women are slowly migrating up within the existing hierarchy from chattel to master—assuming the role of the generous benefactor behind their children’s conspicuous consumption of clothing.”

Boulton suggests that the recent and rapid growth of the designer children’s clothing industry may be driven by a form of aspirational consumption, whereby parents are invited to demonstrate their own social distinction through the tasteful clothing of their “trophy children”. He also points to three factors contributing to the child fashion boom. The first factor is the possible impact of affluent consumers who dress their children as extensions of themselves, which is ultimately a description of aspirational consumption. The second factor is the notion that some mothers wait long to have children, and thereby compile resources to spend on luxuries such as designer children’s clothing. Thirdly, the rise of children’s collections from well-known designer brands has been both rapid and dramatic. He also

points to the celebrity mother as a source of influence, setting the bar for aspirational consumption.

2.5. Children as consumers and “trophy children”

According to Brusdal (2008), children’s consumption to a large degree is the parent’s consumption: “It reveals their social and economic status and ambitions, how caring and responsible they are as parents, as well as how much they invest in their children’s skills and competence.” Brusdal also argues that children’s consumption is not always about the child, but rather the parents and even the grandparents, about what *they* like and dislike, and about how *they* wish to be perceived.

Parents are the most important agent in young children’s consumer socialization processes, which is defined as “the process in which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning in the marketplace” (Ward 1980). Parents also contribute much to young children’s consumer decisions, such as evaluative criteria. Moschis et al. (1977) suggested that children and adolescents learned shopping attitudes and behavior through parent-child interactions within the retail setting, especially for consumer items such as clothing. Children are also influenced by their peers. Studying 5-, 7-, and 10-year old children’s internalization of in-groups within the self-concept, Bennett and Sani (2008) found that children process information for in-groups and self similarly. They also found that at least by the age of 5, in-groups are treated as part of the self-concept. This implies that most children are able to make judgments concerning their own belonging to a certain group at least by the time they start school.

An emerging term for today’s children is “trophy children” (Tufte 1999). The term fills both the conspicuous and vicarious aspects of the consumption. According to Veblen (1976), a trophy is a “tangible testimony of skill”, and the trophy children can be viewed as visible signs of their parents’ social and economic position. First used by Lee Hausner (1990), a trophy child is defined as “a child who is used to impress other people and enhance the status of the parent or parents.” Hausner says some youngsters are often “trophy children” whose parents see them as nothing more than an extension of themselves:

"There is so much pressure to perform: They have to be in the best schools; they always have to look good. These parents are so narcissistic; they can't see their child as an individual, only a reflection of themselves."

Although older children likely have a say in deciding or influencing the purchases made on their behalves, parents' consumption for younger children and infants is a peculiar condition, since the user of the products in this case is neither the buyer nor the influencer (Prendergast and Wong 2003).

2.6. The market of luxury brand clothing for children

Earlier this spring it was announced that the first ever fashion week for children would be held in London (Alexander 2013). While luxury fashion for children is not a new concept, this market has grown progressively, especially in the past years. French Christian Dior, for instance, released his first line of luxury attire for children in the late 1960's, *Baby Dior*. The market for exclusive children's clothing is largely dominated by brand extensions, such as Burberry Children, Tommy Hilfiger Kids and Lanvin Paris Only five years ago, upmarket clothing for children was set-aside for a few major designers such as Ralph Lauren, Burberry and Christian Dior. However, over the last few years there has been an influx of new additions to the children's luxury market (Perusek 2013).

Versace, Oscar de la Renta, Fendi, Marc Jacobs, Roberto Cavalli, Gucci and Stella McCartney are only a few of the examples of renowned designers who have discovered the booming children's market as an important place to be represented, over the last years (Horyn 2012). According to designer Oscar de la Renta, "Children's wear is a way to introduce mothers to the brand". While some designers claim to be concerned with taking children's comfort and body proportions into account, others merely make miniature versions of their adult clothing. Either way the clothes are designed, profits of children's clothing are somewhat higher due to the notion that less material is used.

Luxury fashion accounts for just a fraction (just above 3 per cent) of the \$34 billion market for luxury fashion. However, it is growing at a faster pace than children's clothing in general and the market for clothing in total (NPD Group Inc. in Wang Alexander 2013). In 2011, Burberry sold for \$91 million in luxury apparel for children, comprising everything from diaper bags for infants to teenage fashion.

Although the scope of this research is Norway, worldwide trends should be accounted for, since Norwegians are very susceptible to international trends. China is the world's second-largest luxury-consumption country, after Japan. A report by a Hong Kong-based

consulting firm specializing in the luxury industry, found that a booming 60 per cent of survey respondents indicated having spent more than \$474 per month on luxury items for their children over the last year (Wang 2012).

2.7. Clothing as a signaling mechanism

Consumers are more likely to use products that are socially visible to others to communicate their identity (Hyatt 1992), probably guided by the notion that clothing is visible to others, and can easily be observed. According to Cass (2001) clothing is potentially used for its symbolic value and thereby could be used by high self-monitors to modify self-presentation. Cass found a very strong relationship between fashion clothing involvement, materialism and image-oriented aspects, in addition to the ability to use fashion clothing to portray and express image. Solomon (1986) and Jager (1983) state that clothing and automobiles, respectively, can be acquired as a “second skin” in which others may see us. Belk (1988) also views aspects such as clothing, accent, and grooming as tools consumers can employ to distinguish oneself from others and express an individual sense of being, although they can also be used to indicate group identity and express belonging to a group. Davis & Lennon (1985) point out high self-monitoring females in particular as opinion leaders in clothing, focusing on how clothing is used to attain social approval. The results indicate that generally, female respondents were more involved in fashion clothing than males. This suggest that mothers are generally more involved in shopping for clothing for their children than fathers, because of a higher level of interest in fashion in general, but also because of a higher need to use clothing as tools in a self-presentation strategy among women.

Cass (2001) found a significant relationship between fashion clothing involvement and materialism. He saw this as an indication of the tendency of materialists to see product as a sign of success, as creating happiness and being central to their lives, believing that this does in fact influence their levels of involvement in a product such as fashion clothing that offers such benefits. This applied particularly to the success aspect that fashion clothing may fulfill and display the happiness that it provides to the materialist (Tidwell and Muller 2001).

2.8. Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to provide a backdrop for conspicuous consumption, and to view this concept in the context of parents' consumption for children. Relevant literature on theories regarding the extended self, and prestige-seeking consumer behavior has been reviewed to provide insight into possible motivations for parents' conspicuous consumption. Given the promising outlook of the market for upscale children's clothing, this is an important and relevant field of research that is yet to be fully discovered. Existing literature has traditionally not devoted much attention on the consumption of parents and children together; however a few contributions within this field have been discussed in this review. Based on this overview of the theoretical background, variables for further study have been selected. These variables and the conceptual framework will be presented in Chapter 3.

3.0. Conceptual framework

In this chapter the conceptual framework will be presented. Existing literature on central constructs is reviewed, and hypotheses on the relationships between constructs are generated continuously. Finally, the conceptual model illustrating these relationships is presented.

3.1. Luxury brand preference

Luxury products are usually regarded as being of high quality, and these products can provide a desired image of exclusivity (Bearden and Etzel 1982). However, research shows that apart from the quality of luxury brands, consumers consume these types of brands to serve several important purposes (Grubb and Grathwohl 1967). As mentioned in chapter 2.3., consumers might be motivated by either personal (intrinsic) or interpersonal (extrinsic) effects. According to Jackson and Haidt (2002), luxury brands have a higher status, which gives the managers of these brands the possibility to charge higher prices. These brands can give the user a higher experience of status through its ownership, and hence the motivation for owning luxury brands encompasses more than the purely functional.

The luxury brands' constructed scarcity in terms of volume and access, as well as their association with certain consumer segments, are only a few of the reasons why luxury brands appear as attractive and desirable (Moore and Birtwistle 2005). In addition, several researchers have proposed that a desire for status is an important impetus in the market for luxury goods (Dreze and Nunes 2009; Griskevicius et al. 2007 in Nelissen and Meijers 2010). Consumption of luxury goods can in many cases appear to be a beneficial strategy, because visible exposure of luxury can signal status, which can consequently lead to special treatment in social interactions (Nelissen and Meijers 2010). Luxury brand preference is used as the operationalization of conspicuous consumption, since conspicuous involves the element of luxury, and the desire of people to show it off for signaling purposes.

3.2. Socioeconomic status

"Individuals and families vary in their current access to jobs, earnings, assets, and power, and they also vary according to the status of their families of origin" (Mueller and Parcel 1981). Socioeconomic status, often referred to as SES, can be defined as "a person's overall social position...to which attainments in both the social and economic domain contribute" (Ainley et al. 1995). Dreze and Nunes (2009) define status as "one's relative position (or rank) in a social group, where position can be broadly construed and unobservable (e.g. in terms of income), or more narrowly construed and observable (e.g. in terms of one's endowment with specific status-granting possessions)". A person of high status thereby has a higher social rank

within a certain group of people, while a person of lower status has a lower rank. Status often determines the resources or control one is given or able to allocate within a group (Rucker and Galinsky 2008). A person lacking the desired status might be motivated to compensate for this through consumption, seeking to improve their status.

Ordabayeva and Chandon (2011) found that consumers at the bottom of the income distribution spend a larger share of their budget on status-conferring consumption, in order to reduce the dissatisfaction they feel with their current level of possessions, due to the widening gap between what they have and what others have. This draws on the work of Dupor and Liu (2003), Elster (1991), and Solnick and Hemenway (1998). Ordabayeva and Chandon (2011) reach the conclusion that increasing equality in the distribution of wealth among people does reduce both inconspicuous and conspicuous consumption for people at the bottom of the distribution when they are *not* concerned with status. However, when the people at the bottom of the distribution *do* care about their social position, increasing equality actually motivates conspicuous consumption. This is due to the fact that greater equality increases the share of people in the middle of the distribution, giving people at the bottom more to gain in terms of social position, and hence status, by spending conspicuously.

In terms of parents having high or low status, aspects such as income, occupation, wealth and marital status can be seen as drivers of status. In many societies, single parents are looked down on and are thought to have a lower socioeconomic status. A report developed by the Danish Social Research Institute (Bonke et al. 2005) on the Scandinavian countries revealed that parents in “exposed” groups were more concerned about whether their children had the same things which other kids had, and hence spent more on “keeping up”, while the “well-established”, who easily could afford to provide their children with the things they need did not exhibit this need to compensate. These “exposed” groups consist of parents who deviate from the ideal “nuclear family” – i.e. single parents, young parents, unemployed parents or poor parents. These are considered groups of lower social status, whereas the “well-established”, typically consist of resourceful, married couples, with secure incomes and esteemed occupations - generally thought to have a higher social status (Bonke et al. 2005).

P1: Parents of low socioeconomic status have a larger probability to consume conspicuously, hereby showing a higher Luxury brand preference.

H1 There is a negative main effect of socioeconomic status on luxury brand preference.

3.3. Self-consciousness

Self-consciousness is defined as the consistent tendency of persons to direct attention inward or outward (Fenigstein et al. 1975). The construct is often seen divided in two; *public self-consciousness* and *private self-consciousness*. Public self-conscious individuals are particularly concerned about how they appear to others, whereas privately self-conscious persons are more focused on their inner thoughts and feelings (Vigneron and Johnson 1999). Also, publicly self-conscious persons are especially concerned about the impression they make on others. Thornton and Maurice (1999) found that people high in public self-consciousness hold a high regard to outward appearances. This indicates a higher probability to engage in conspicuous consumption, to enhance their image.

People who are high rather than low in public self-consciousness are more concerned about physical appearances and fashions (e.g., Miller & Cox, 1982; Ryckman et al., 1991; Solomon & Schopler, 1982), and are more likely to use self-presentation strategies to gain approval from others (e.g., Doherty & Schlenker, 1991; Shepperd & Arkin, 1989). Also, they are more compliant with normative standards in social contexts (e.g., Froming & Carver, 1981); are more likely to distance themselves from negative reference groups (Carver & Humphries, 1981), and are more sensitive to interpersonal rejection (Fenigstein, 1975).

P2: Parents high in public self-consciousness are more likely to consume conspicuously than parents low in public self-consciousness.

H2a: Public Self-consciousness has a positive main effect on Luxury Brand Preference.

A highly self-conscious parent of low status is likely to be aware of her status, and has a higher motivation to increase her status through status consumption, as opposed to a parent of higher SES. This can be viewed in context the previously mentioned bandwagon effect (Liebenstein 1950).

H2b: High Public self-consciousness and low socioeconomic status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high socioeconomic status.

3.4. Vanity

Vanity is a universal construct, which has concerned people for thousands of years. Aristotle stated that “the vain have a blown up self-image, but they are not worthy of it”. This “fixation on physical appearance and achievement of personal goals” as Netemeyer et al. (1995) describe it, implies a conceited view of one self and one’s accomplishments, a view that is not necessarily grounded in reality. Rarely has the concept been cast in a favorable light, frequently being related to conceit, arrogance, boastfulness, haughtiness, and priggishness (Chakrabarti 1992).

Within research on vanity, formal definitions comprise two primary dimensions; physical vanity and achievement vanity. Physical vanity has been defined as *an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of one’s physical appearance* (Netemeyer et al. 1995; Raskin and Terry 1988). On the other hand, achievement vanity is *an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of one’s personal achievements* (Netemeyer et al. 1995). Netemeyer suggests that a person’s concern for self-advancement, physical appearance and status can be observed, for example, from an individual’s use and choice of cosmetic products, clothing products, and conspicuous consumption in general.

Watson et al. 1999 found that consumers with high levels of vanity not only rated advertisements using achievement, sex, and appearance-related appeals more favorably than consumers with low levels of vanity, but also the thoughts elicited from these advertisements were significantly more positive for consumers with high levels of vanity. Although it is common sense that advertisements with sexually oriented content should not be included in advertising portraying or targeted towards children, both achievement appeal and appearance-related appeals are widespread in advertisements for children’s fashion (Bolton 2007).

An excessive concern for one’s appearance implies that the way one presents oneself is of particular interest for those prone to vanity as a trait. Schau et al. (2003) argue that “Consumption can often be a self-defining and self-expressive behavior” in that people express themselves by acquiring and using certain products. This is in line with Belk’s theory that “We are what we have”, and that among other things, items and other people can be seen as an extension of an individual’s self. When studying the motivations for consumption of luxury clothing items in China and Taiwan, Hung et al. (2011) found that the trait of vanity

had a direct positive effect on luxury purchase intention (intention to purchase a specific luxury brand). This establishes the role of vanity as a motivation in luxury brand preference.

Durvasula et al (2001) also argue that vanity has an important link to the consumption of luxury fashion brands. This suggests that individuals prone to vanity have a higher likelihood for buying products to enhance their appearance than individuals who are less vain, and care less about their physical appearance (Netemeyer et al. 1995). According to Belk's theory that children can be viewed as an extension of their parents' selves, I suggest that parents who exhibit vanity as a trait are more concerned about not only their own appearance, but also their children's appearance. This is due to the fact that they view the children as a reflection of themselves, and hence if the children do not look good, neither do the parents.

This leads me to suggest that parents who possess the trait of vanity are more likely to have a desire to enhance not only their own physical appearance, but also their children's appearance. One effective and highly visible strategy for pursuing this goal is buying branded clothing for the children, assuming this will make a favorable impression on the surroundings. By demonstrating this purchase pattern, the parents show off their unique sense of fashion, while at the same time proving that they have the resources for this kind of consumption, which again amplifies their own perceived achievement of success.

According to Netemeyer et al. (1995) the Vanity concept consists of both an appearance dimension and an achievement dimension. Furthermore, these dimensions are divided into the concern for one's appearance and achievements, and the view of one's appearance and achievements.

P3: Parents who are prone to Physical vanity exhibit a higher Luxury brand preference, and are more likely to consume conspicuously on their children's behalves.

H3a: Physical concern has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.

H3b: Physical view has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.

An individual who exhibits a High level of concern/view for/of physical appearance and is highly self-conscious is more likely to consume conspicuously than an individual who has a lower level of concern for/lower view of physical appearance.

H3c: High concern for personal physical appearance and High public self-consciousness leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low physical concern.

H3d: High view of personal physical appearance and High public self-consciousness leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low physical view.

P4: Parents who are prone to Achievement vanity exhibit a higher Luxury brand preference are more likely to consume conspicuously on their children's behalves.

H4a: Achievement concern has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference

H4b: Achievement view has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.

The status-oriented connotation of achievement concern and achievement view suggests that with these combined, a person who is caught up with accomplishments has low status is more likely to consume conspicuously than an individual who is less caught up with accomplishments, and/or has a lower level of self-consciousness. The person of low status is likely to exhibit more motivation for alleviating their state of low power.

H4c: High concern for personal achievements and low status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high status.

H4d: High view of personal achievements and low status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high status.

Self-consciousness is likely to influence the perceived importance of personal achievements. An individual who exhibits a High level of concern for/view of personal achievements and is highly self-conscious is more likely to consume conspicuously than an individual who is less self-conscious.

H4e: High concern for personal achievements and high public self-consciousness leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low public self-consciousness.

H4f: High view of personal achievements and high public self-consciousness leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low public self-consciousness.

3.5. Parental Empathy

Empathy in the broadest sense is described as “reactions of one individual to the observed experiences of another” (Davis 1983). More specifically, *parental empathy* can be described as “the ability of the parent to understand the child’s experiences without actually experiencing the feelings of the child” (Bavolek 1984). This is related to perspective-taking, and the parent’s awareness of the child’s needs.

A cognitive and an emotional aspect comprise the empathy construct. Cognitive empathy describes an intellectual reaction, in the form of an individual’s ability to simply understand the other person’s perspective, while emotional empathy depicts a visceral, affective type of understanding based on compassion. It is this very distinction that makes the psychological construct empathy so difficult to define. A common definition of empathy is “the ability and tendency of a person (“observer”) to understand what another person (“target”) is thinking and feeling in a given situation”. Cognitive empathy is concerned with the issue of role-taking, and Mead (1934) and Piaget (1948) pointed out how this was related to the ability to recognize and understand another’s perspective. In other words, the skill to discriminate between the experiences of one self and those of others. They also claimed that cognitive empathy required a higher level of development than that of mere affective reactivity.

Although research traditionally has tended to take one side over the other, either the cognitive or the emotional, in recent years there has been a movement toward increased integration of these previously separate research fields. As more and more empathy theorists have recognized that there are both affective and cognitive components to the empathic response, the overall understanding of empathy has grown (Davis 1983). Feshbach (1995) defined parental empathy as “a shared emotional response between parent and child that is contingent upon the cognitive factors of the ability to discriminate affective cues in others and to assume the perspective of others”. Kilpatrick (2012) argues that when it comes to a definition of parental empathy, this must include an understanding by the parent of the child’s developmental and individual needs. Parental empathy has previously been associated with child maltreatment risk (Kilpatrick 2012), and lack of it is fundamentally and theoretically recognized as an important, possibly the most important, factor underlying child maltreatment potential. However, this thesis will be investigating parental empathy in the context of consumer behavior.

Because parental empathy describes parents' ability to relate to children's feelings and needs, I propose that a parent who exhibits a high level of parental empathy not only is more concerned with detecting these needs, but also more concerned with *filling* these needs for the child. This can also apply to needs that the child has yet to realize, like the need for recognition and acceptance by their peers. A high level of parental empathy could indicate that the parent remembers what it was like to be a child, and wishes to give the child the things she/he had, or wanted to have, while growing up. Parents high in parental empathy might be motivated to give their children products to satisfy not only the child's physical needs in terms of functionality, for example clothing that is comfortable and keeps them warm, but also their social needs, their need for belonging. Perhaps their wish is to give the child a good starting point, from a social view. Also, highly empathetic parents might be more concerned with avoiding that their children become targets of brand bullying, or any kind of bullying for that matter, and attempt to prevent this through consumption.

P5: Parents who are prone to a high level of parental empathy exhibit a higher luxury brand preference, and are more likely to consume conspicuously on their children's behalves.

H5a Parental empathy has a positive main effect on luxury brand preference.

An individual who possesses good empathic qualities is also more likely to be successful in the workplace, due to higher qualifications of e.g. communication and teamwork. Parents exhibiting high levels of parental empathy that are concerned with, or have a high regard for own achievements are more likely to be motivated to consume conspicuously, compared with parents with less concern or regard for own achievements.

H5b High parental empathy and high concern for personal achievements leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low concern for personal achievements.

H5c High parental empathy and high view of personal achievements leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to low view of personal achievements.

3.6. Marital status

Marital status is often included as a control variable, or demographic variable in research (Schiffman et al. 2008) Plentiful existing literature on marital status had been directed towards psychology and health (i.e. depression, mortality and substance abuse). This implies that marital status has several important implications for the way consumers live their lives, and the choices they make. Marital status also affects the total amount resources available for the household as a consuming unit. Weiss (1984) noted how a larger share of single-parent household followed an increased number of marital separations throughout the 1970's. He demonstrated the consequences of marital dissolution on income reduction in all social classes. However, he discovered that the greatest reduction in income occurred in the upper income level, where separation or divorce reduced income to half of its original level. Another observation was that once the income had plummeted after marriage dissolution, it remained low, whereas the income of the married increased steadily. This implies that the differences in income contribute to increasing the socioeconomic differences between parents of low and high marital status. "The divorced are lumped, for example, into the broad category of the nonmarried"(Durkheim 1966).

Literature has specifically focused on the effects of divorce, e.g. "deep sense of disorientation and hurt, the loss of companionship, the loss of both emotional and financial support of the spouse, increased sexual tensions, and a sense of guilt derived from the perceived self-produced loss of the spouse" (Lester 1992; Stack 1980, 1992 in Stack and Wasserman 1993). Rucker and Galinsky (2008) found that powerlessness is often accompanied by actual or perceived loss of control over one's own behavior or the behavior of others. They found that when experiencing powerlessness, people are likely to try to attenuate this state through status consumption, because status signals power.

Marriage or cohabitant dissolution, and consequently single-parent households, are becoming increasingly common among Norwegian parents, making this an important factor to investigate. Although marital status is generally viewed as a control variable, it should also be investigated as a variable in the context of luxury consumption. Single, divorced or nonmarried parents are more likely to consume conspicuously on their children's behalves, to compensate for a lack of power and/or resources.

P6: Parents of low marital status have a larger probability to consume conspicuously, hereby showing a higher luxury Brand Preference.

H6a: There is a negative main effect of marital status on luxury brand preference.

Parents of both low marital status and low socioeconomic status should be more motivated to consume conspicuously and hereby compensate for their lack of status, compared to parents of higher marital status.

H6b: Low marital status and low socioeconomic status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high marital status.

Parents of low marital status (single or divorced) who exhibit high concern for/view of own physical appearance are more likely to be more motivated to increase their status and/or self-image by consuming conspicuously on their children's behalves, perhaps hoping to compensate for feelings of loneliness or powerlessness.

H6c: Low marital status and high physical concern leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high marital status.

H6d: Low marital status and high physical view leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high marital status.

3.7. Conceptual model

Based on the hypotheses that have been formulated, a conceptual model has been developed. The figure below illustrates the framework of this thesis:

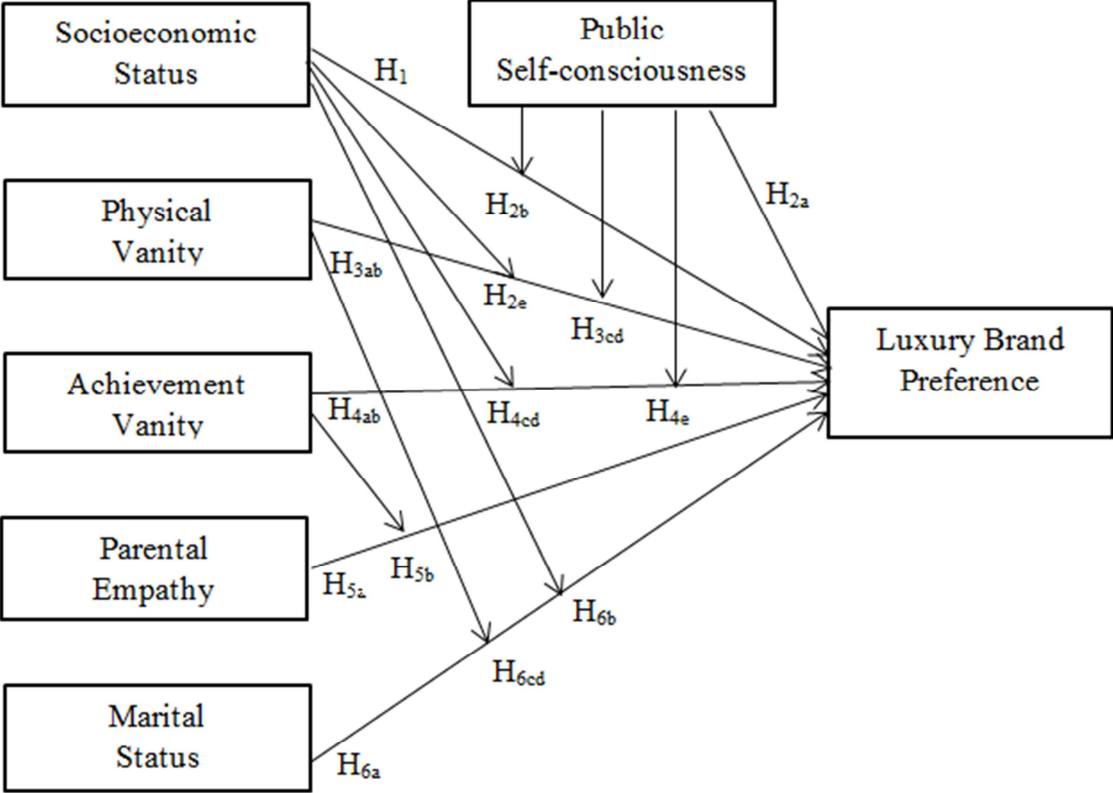


Figure 4 Conceptual Framework

3.8. Summary of hypotheses

Table 2 - Summary of hypotheses

Hyp	Rationale	Dir
H ₁	Socioeconomic status has a negative main effect on luxury brand preference.	-
H _{2a}	Public Self-consciousness has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{2b}	High public self-consciousness and low Status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{3a}	Physical concern has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference	+
H _{3b}	Physical view has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{3c}	High Physical concern and low marital status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{3d}	High Physical view and low marital status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{4a}	Achievement concern has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{4b}	Achievement view has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{4c}	High Achievement concern and low status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{4d}	High Achievement view and low status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{4e}	High Achievement concern and high public self-consciousness leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{5a}	Parental empathy has a positive main effect on Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{5b}	High parental empathy and high achievement concern leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{6a}	Marital status has a negative main effect on Luxury brand preference.	-
H _{6b}	Low marital status and low socioeconomic status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{6c}	Low marital status and high physical concern leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+
H _{6d}	Low marital status and high physical view leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference.	+

4.0. Research methodology

This chapter will discuss research design and research methodology, as well as a discussion of the chosen research design. An exploration of measure development and measure instrument is carried out, following sampling frame, size and setting. Finally, an overview of the chosen method of data collection is given.

4.1. Research design

The research design is an overarching plan of how to carry out the study. There are mainly three types of design to choose from; explorative design, descriptive design, and causal design (Selnes 1999).

An *explorative* design is suitable when the problem statement is unclear, or if research is conducted on an area where the existing level of understanding and knowledge is low (Selnes 1999; Gripsrud et al. 2008). When the problem statement is more well-defined and an elementary understanding exists, a *descriptive* design might be more appropriate. The purpose of a descriptive design is to describe the relationship between one or several variables, which requires a certain level of knowledge in advance (Gripsrud et al. 2008). A *causal* design is used when the research goal is based on investigating possible causal effects by examining the effect of one or more independent variable(s) on a dependent variable (Selnes 1999).

The chosen topic and research questions have guided the choice of research design, and consequently a causal design has been chosen for this thesis. A cause can be described as an explanation for some characteristic, attitude, or behavior of groups, individuals, or other entities (such as families, organizations, or cities), or for events. Identifying causes, and figuring out why things happen, is the goal of most social science research (Catalano 2006 in Bachmann and Schutt 2010). In a causal design, the independent variable is the presumed cause and the dependent variable is the potential effect, and hypotheses are created to test these effects. Causal effects can be viewed from two different perspectives. The nomothetic perspective views variation in one phenomenon (an independent variable), as leading to or resulting in, on average, variation in another phenomenon, (the dependent variable). Example of a nomothetic causal effect: variation in temperature in water causes water to boil; low temperature does not cause the water to boil, while high temperature causes it to boil. The other perspective, the idiographic perspective, views a series of concrete events, thoughts, or actions as resulting in a particular event or individual outcome. Example of an idiographic causal effect: an increase in temperature causes snow in the mountains to melt. The melted

snow then trickles down the mountainside, creating a small creek, which runs down into a lake, causing the level of the water to rise.

For this thesis, the research questions regard how variations in different social and psychological traits of individuals are assumed to have an effect on level of luxury brand preference. Hence, a nomothetic perspective is assumed. As mentioned previously, when selecting a research design, the research question and the purpose of the research should always influence the decision, as well as the researcher's knowledge of the topic in question, and the motivations to analyze and explain relationships and/or contexts. Compared to explorative designs, descriptive and causal designs are less flexible, in that the process of collecting data is more formal and structured. While hypotheses are *generated* in an explorative design, in descriptive and causal designs hypotheses are *tested* (Gripsrud et al. 2008).

Within causal design there are four main groups of research techniques; experiments, quasi-experiments, cross-sectional studies, and pre-experimental designs. In an experiment, participants are selected randomly for a control- and an experimental group, while the dependent variable is observed (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). An experiment enables the researcher to compare, control, manipulate, and often generalize.

The simple experiment, which is chosen for this thesis, involves two groups of participants, which at the start of the experiment should not be different from each other in any systematic way. However, throughout the experiment, one group will be treated differently from the other (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). Participants are selected randomly for the control or the experimental group, while the dependent variable is observed (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Before randomly assigning participants to one of the groups, an experimental hypothesis must be created. This hypothesis must be based on the assumption that the control group will show statistically significant differences from the treatment group, due to the treatment's effect. In other words, the hypotheses must predict that some *treatment* that will be manipulated will cause an *effect* (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). This experimental hypothesis, also known as the alternative hypothesis, proposes that there is significant difference between the groups, while the null hypothesis predicts that there is no difference between the groups. To reject the null hypothesis, a significant difference between groups due to the manipulation must be proven.

In any experiment, "participants are presented with the same general scenario (e.g. rating photographs of items of clothing), but at least one aspect of this general scenario is

manipulated” (Ickes 2003). In simple experiments, an independent variable can assume two values, or levels. The two levels can be *types* of treatment (e.g. lighting versus psychotherapy) or *amounts* (e.g. 1 hour of lighting versus 2 hours of lighting) (Mitchell and Jolley 2010).

As mentioned above, participants who are randomly and independently assigned to receive the higher level treatment are called the *experimental group*, while the participants randomly assigned to get the lower level treatment, or no treatment, are called the *control group*. The purpose of the control group is to compare the results of this group with the experimental group, to determine whether there are significant differences between the two groups. In order for the differences to make any sense, there must be no systematic differences between the two groups before the stimuli is presented, as this would lead to systematic differences in the results as well, created by other factors than the stimuli itself (Mitchell and Jolley 2010).

Each group should preferably consist of more than 30 participants, for each condition. The more participants the better, as this increases the probability for the groups being similar at the beginning of the experiment (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). For the same reasons why participants are assigned to a group independently, participants should also be *tested* independently. Firstly, it is desirable to minimize participants’ chance to influence each other’s responses. Secondly, testing all participants of one group in one session and the other in another session will create systematic differences between the two groups, which is unfortunate. The experiments in this study are two 2 X 2 between-subject design hybrid experiments.

In a hybrid experiment, one of the variables is manipulated, while the other is measured. The main limitation with using a hybrid design is that they do not allow cause-effect statements regarding the nonexperimental factor (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). This is due to the fact that the two groups of the nonexperimental factor may vary not only in terms of its factor, but several other ways. For the experiment in this thesis, Self-consciousness is the manipulated variable, while Socioeconomic status is the measured variable.

Table 3 - Experiment design

Self-consciousness	Status
Low self-consciousness	Low status
	High status
High self-consciousness	Low status
	High status

4.1.1. Requirements of causality

In order to be able to draw conclusions regarding causality, Bollen (1989) points out three requirements that need to be fulfilled. Although causality can never be proven 100%, we can say that is probable that X influences Y.

The first requirement is *isolation*. To be able to determine that an independent variable X influences a dependent variable Y, these variables must be isolated from all external influence (Bollen 1989). A failure to do so will have a negative impact on the internal validity, since it cannot be sure that X is the actual cause of Y without isolation, and hence this might cause results to be incorrect. *Internal validity* deals with the degree to which the causality of the study is up to par (Gripsrud et al. 2006). If for example we claim that X has an effect on Y, we must be certain that it is actually X that causes Y, and that this variation is not due to other relations that we have omitted from our model. To be able to isolate effects in this way – and secure the internal validity – laboratory experiments are often used. In a field study this is not as simple, and field experiments therefore generally have lower internal validity.

Controlling for alternative explanations is therefore very important, and the critical question to ask is whether any other explanation to the coherence between X and Y exists, other than the one we have proposed (Selnes 1999). There might be a third variable explaining the relationship between X and Y. This is called a spurious variable, and may be the variable which is the actual cause of both X and Y. By randomly drawing an experimental group and a control group from the same population spuriousity can be controlled for, by comparing any changes in the experimental group to control group. Also, arguing that alternative explanations are not as good as our explanation is an option. But to be able to eliminate other explanations, we must first recognize that these exist. According to Bollen (1989), complete isolation is an impossible ideal, because full isolation would only occur when the two variables exist in a vacuum (Dörnyei and Schmidt 1999).

A laboratory experiment is the best way to maintain control as it allows the researcher to manipulate one variable, while keeping all other factors constant (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). However, a laboratory experiment has weaknesses with regards to external validity. *External validity* is present in the degree to which the results from one study can be transferred to similar situations (Gripsrud et al. 2006). In other words, external validity deals with generalizability. Because a laboratory experiment is not a natural, but a *constrained* setting, a field experiment will generally have higher external validity. In this way, we can

view the trade-off between internal and external validity as a trade-off between isolation and causality on one side, and generalizability on the other side.

The second requirement of causality is *covariation*, which implies that to be able to claim that X causes Y, there must be a certain relationship or covariation between the two (Bollen 1989). In other words, different levels of X must consequently lead to different levels of Y (Selnes 2004). A statistically significant covariance must be determined between the two variables, to ensure that this connection is not merely spurious. Covariation is a necessary, but not adequate proof to claim that X causes Y, since covariation only means that there is coherence between the variables, yet this tells us nothing about cause and effect. As Mitchell (1985) underlines “correlation does not imply causation” (Bollen 1989). If there is no covariation, there is no evidence that X causes Y.

Temporarity is the third and final requirement of causality. Although covariation and isolation is proven, these aspects alone are not enough to allow us to conclude that X causes Y. We must also be sure that X precedes Y. If X does not precede Y, it cannot possibly be the cause of Y. Because it is possible to control both the stimuli and their order in an experiment, this requirement is usually regarded as unproblematic to fulfill. To ensure temporarity in the experiments, Group 1 was supposed to receive the treatment of high self-consciousness, and hence they were asked questions from the Public Self-consciousness Scale before selecting the clothing items, while the Low self-consciousness group (Group 2) answered these questions at the very end of the survey, in an effort to ensure low self-consciousness.

4.2. Setting

The setting for the studies is Norwegian parents. Although there are socioeconomic differences within this group, this is something the studies account for, and since socioeconomic status is one of the independent variables, a certain level of variance is both expected and required. The reason for selecting parents and not students, for example, is obvious. Only studying parents who are students would not yield results that would be representable for the entire population, which is Norwegian parents. This is due to the fact that students are likely to have a tighter budget than the average parent, and hereby their likelihood to purchase brand items for their children is different from the average parent. Although it would be interesting to investigate differences between parents who are students and working parents, this is not the research question of this thesis.

The samples mainly consist of female respondents (Experiment 1: 148 female, 2 male; Experiment 2: 140 female, 3 male). This is due to the fact that most of the members of the groups and internet forums, from which I have recruited, are female. As discussed in chapter 2.7., mothers are also known to be the key decision makers for this type of consumption, and hereby such a distribution was not unexpected. Male respondents also had a lower response rate, likely related to a lack of interest for clothing. Respondents are recruited from all parts of Norway, and this is accounted for by asking respondents to type in their postal code. Including this gives a more representable picture of Norwegian parents as a group.

4.3. Demographic variables and control variables

The control variable is something that is constant and unchanged in an experiment. Control variables are used to maintain the requirement of isolation, which consequently will increase the internal validity of the study (Bollen 1989). In this study several control variables are used; gender of parent, age of parent, gender of child, and age of child, household income, level of education, and marital status of parent.

Gender

Gender is an important influencer of consumer decision-making behavior. Tigert et al. (1976) found that females have higher fashion involvement than males. According to Bakshi (2012), women also seem to display satisfaction and find pleasure while they shop, whereas men appear to express more disdain for shopping. Bakshi also claims that women consider shopping as a social need, whereas male consumers pay importance to shopping as a way of obtaining products. When it comes to decision making, women are more prone to using other people's opinions to help make their own decision while men are more likely to use other people's decisions to help them form their own opinion (Bakshi 2012)

Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann (2011) found that women have a more positive attitude towards luxury brands than men. However, men are generally more inclined to engaging in conspicuous consumption, to demonstrate economic achievement, and eventually attract a potential mate. These findings indicate that it is likely that differences will be found between male and female parents as consumer.

Age

Age is found to have several effects on consumption. Green et al. (1996) suggest that "impulsivity in decision making declines rapidly in young adulthood, reaching stable levels in

the 30s.” Age and income appear to interact in determining the impulsivity of decision making by adults. Young adults are also less likely to take the long-term consequences of their behavior into account (e.g. Ball et al. 1984 in Green et al 1996). These findings indicate that young parents may be more inclined to buy expensive clothing for their children, without considering the consequences of this consumption.

Card and Wise (1978) found that young people who became parents at an early age acquired less education than their peers; they are often limited to less prestigious jobs and, the women, more dead-end ones. This is also associated with lower income and greater job dissatisfaction (Card and Wise 1978). This suggests a limited possibility to spend large sums on symbolic goods, such as items of luxury clothing. Yet, since young parents can be considered an “exposed” group (Bonke et al. 2005), which can be associated with low status, some young parents might seek to compensate for this lack of status by consuming luxury brand- items for their children (Rucker and Galinsky 2008).

Income

Both individual and family income are well-known measures of social class and socioeconomic status (Schiffman et al. 2008). People of different income strata have different motivations for luxury consumption (Goldman 1999). While people with high income have the spending power to consume more expensive items than those with lower income, and hence should consume more luxury items than people with lower income, these people also have less to prove through their consumption. Hence, income may also assume a negative impact on luxury brand consumption, as people at the bottom of the income distribution might be more motivated to consume conspicuously (Rucker and Galinsky 2008).

Education

A person’s level of formal education is often included as a measure of social class or socioeconomic status (Schiffman et al. 2008). The reasoning behind this measure is that the higher education a person has, the more likely the person is to be well-paid and have an admired or well-respected position (Crispell 1994). In this way, education is often seen in the context of income and/or occupational status.

Both education and income is likely to have an effect on luxury brand preference, and these effects may go in both directions. On one hand, respondents with a high level of education and/or income are more likely to have a larger dispositional income than people

with lower education and/or income. Hence, they have a higher probability to purchase this type of products, because they can afford it. On the other hand, as Rucker and Galinsky (2008) pointed out in what they called the Compensatory Hypothesis, people who experience a state of low power or low status are more likely to seek compensation through consumption, and hereby are more inclined to purchasing status products.

4.4. Measure development and measure instrument

The measurement process begins with the concept. A concept is an idea that unites phenomena (e.g. attitudes, behaviors, traits) under a single term (Bollen 1989). Bollen (1989) describes a process in four steps which starts with stating the meaning of the concept, followed by identifying the dimensions and latent variables to represent it, before measures are formed, and the relation between the measures and the latent variables is specified. Measure development should be seen in the context of validity, since by ensuring the validity of the study we are confirming that we are measuring what we want to measure (Bollen 1989). Construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity for this study will be discussed in chapter 5.

The four independent variables for this study are *public self-consciousness*, *vanity*, *parental empathy* and *socioeconomic status*. Self-consciousness, parental empathy and vanity was measured by asking respondents to rate their level of agreement with different statements on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates “Strongly disagree”, and 7 indicates “Strongly agree”. An option for respondents to “Neither agree nor disagree” was included. Although this ensures that respondents who really are neutral towards the question have an appropriate alternative, it might also influence some respondents who otherwise would have chosen a different alternative to select the neutral option. To assess socioeconomic status, participants were to place themselves on a ladder depicting socioeconomic status, ranging from 1 to 7, where 1 represents the people who are worst off in society, and where 7 represents the people who are best off in society. Also, demographic questions such as household income, level of education, type of housing, and housing ownership were asked. The dependent variable, *Luxury brand preference*, was measured in absolute numbers by number of luxury items selected, ranging from 0 to 6.

Demographic variables were measured using different scales, elaborated in chapter 4.4.6.

4.4.1. Socioeconomic status

The MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status is a self-reporting scale. There are two versions – one linked to traditional SES indicators (SES ladder), and the second linked to standing in one’s community (community ladder). The text below was adapted to Norwegian parents by changing “Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States” to “Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in *Norway*”. Also, instead of placing an X like in a paper survey, participants were asked to select between steps 1-7, where 1 represents the lowest step on the ladder and 7 the highest.

Table 4 - Measure of socioeconomic status

Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in Norway.

At the **top** of the ladder are the people who are the best off – those who have the most money, the most education and the most respected jobs. At the **bottom** are the people who are the worst off – who have the least money, least education, and the least respected jobs. The higher up you are on the ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom.

Where would you place yourself on this ladder?

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 is the lowest and 7 is the highest, where you think you stand at this time in your life, relative to other people in the Norway.



Figure 5 - SES Ladder

The limitation with self-reporting measures of socioeconomic status is that they are subjective, and hence not always accurate (Schiffman et al. 2008). Additional measures such as education, income, housing type and housing ownership were included. These are explained more thoroughly under chapter 4.3. Control variables.

Schiffman et al. (2008) recommend using composite indexes to form one overall measure of social class. These indexes can combine a number of socio-economic variables, and may give better reflection of the complexity of social class. Proposed variables include income, occupational status and education. For this thesis, income, and education are included as objective measures, while the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status is included as a self-reporting scale.

4.4.2. Vanity

Netemeyer et al. (1995) argue that vanity consists of two components; physical vanity – an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of, one’s physical appearance, and achievement vanity – an excessive concern for, and/or a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of, one’s personal achievements. These statements were to be evaluated by respondents on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates “Strongly disagree” and 7 indicates “Strongly agree”, and the same scoring was employed in the questionnaire.

Table 5 - Vanity scale

<i>Physical-Concern Items</i>
1. The way I look is extremely important to me.
2. I am very concerned about my appearance.
3. I would feel embarrassed if I was around people and did not look my best.
4. Looking my best is worth the effort.
5. It is important that I always look good.

<i>Physical-View Items</i>
1. People notice how attractive I am
2. My looks are very appealing to others.
3. People are envious of my good looks.
4. I am a very good-looking individual.
5. My body is sexually appealing.
6. I have the type of body that people want to look at.

<i>Achievement-Concern Items</i>
1. Professional achievements are an obsession with me.
2. I want others to look up to me because of my accomplishments.
3. I am more concerned with professional success than most people I know.
4. Achieving greater success than my peers is important to me.
5. I want my achievements to be recognized by others.

<i>Acheivement-View Items</i>
1. In a professional sense, I am a very successful person.
2. My achievements are highly regarded by others.
3. I am an accomplished person.
4. I am a good example of professional success.
5. Others wish they were as successful as me.

In addition to the scales taken from Netemeyer et. al (1995), some measures of vanity were developed. The scale ranged from 1-7, where 1 corresponds with “Never” and 7 corresponds with “Every day”.

Table 6 - Additional scale of Vanity

<i>Additional Vanity items</i>	
1.	How often do you use make-up?
2.	How often do you wear high heels?
3.	How often do you work out?
4.	How often do you use a tanning bed?
5.	How often do you use contact lenses instead of glasses?

4.4.3. Parental empathy

The parental empathy measures below were developed by Kym Kilpatrick (2012). The scoring was originally based on a dichotomous measure (mostly agree/mostly disagree), where items 1, 7, 10 and 12 gave 1 one point in cases where respondents selected mostly agree, and items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11 and 13 gave 1 point where respondents selected mostly disagree, while other answers yielded no points, implying the need to reverse score. Instead of applying the dichotomous scoring to the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate statements on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates “Strongly disagree”, and 7 indicates “Strongly agree”. Making this adjustment was a necessity, to facilitate interpreting data. Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11 and 13 were reverse scored before the data analysis.

Table 7 - Parental empathy scale

1.	I can remember very well how it feels to be a child.
2.	If I know I’m in the right, I don’t bother listening to my child’s point of view.
3.	Being a parent is mostly hard work with little pleasure.
4.	Some children are just born bad.
5.	Children need to be taught right from the start that demanding attention is not going to get them anywhere.
6.	I believe there’s a fair bit of truth in the old saying, ‘children should be seen and not heard’.
7.	Before punishing a child, I think it’s best to try and imagine what will be the most helpful learning experience given the situation and the child’s age.
8.	Children these days have it too easy.

9.	Children should always be respectful and obey adults, no matter what.
10	It's pretty tough sometimes being a child.
11	One of the best reasons to have a child is that when you do, you will have someone who will truly be yours.
12	I believe that it is more important to tell children what they do right than it is to tell them what they do wrong.
13	Some children are too sensitive and get unreasonably upset by 'just kidding' comments.

4.4.4. Self-consciousness

To measure self-consciousness, the Public Self-Consciousness scale by Fenigstein et al. (1975) was used. This is part of the Self-Consciousness Scale (SCS), a self-report questionnaire designed to measure different kinds of dispositional self-consciousness (Fenigstein et al. 1975) It consists of three dimensions; *private self-consciousness*, the tendency to pay attention to private, internal aspects of the self, *public self-consciousness*, the tendency to be aware of and concerned about aspects of the self that others can perceive, and *social anxiety*, the tendency to be anxious and ill at ease in social settings.

For the research questions of the thesis, *public self-consciousness* is the dimension of main interest. Paired with the writing task, which is the manipulation of self-consciousness for this study, these questions are likely to give a good overview of respondents' level of self-consciousness.

In Fenigstein et al. (1975) original studies, respondents were asked to choose the number from 0 to 4 that best indicate how well the item characterizes them, where 0 equals extremely uncharacteristic (not at all like me) and 4 equals extremely characteristic (very much like me). To facilitate interpreting and analyzing data, this was adapted to a Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates "Strongly disagree", and 7 indicates "Strongly agree".

Table 8 - Public self-consciousness scale

<i>Public Self-Consciousness</i>
1. I'm usually aware of my appearance.
2. I'm concerned about what other people think of me.
3. One of the last things I do before I leave my house is look in the mirror.
4. I usually worry about making a good impression.
5. I'm self-conscious about the way I look.
6. I'm concerned about the way I present myself.
7. I'm concerned about my style of doing things.

4.4.5. Luxury brand preference

The dependent variable, *Luxury brand preference*, was measured in absolute numbers by number of luxury items selected, ranging from 0 to 6, where 0 indicates no brand items selected, and 6 indicates all items selected. Respondents were asked to select six items, one from each category of clothing. In each category the amount of cheap/retail items was the same as number of expensive/luxury items, ensuring that the probability for selecting a retail or luxury item would be the same, from a statistical point of view. The experiment of the thesis was originally created as two separate experiments, that were combined after data collection.

In Study 1, clothing items were displayed with a picture of the item, with the correct brand name written underneath. Luxury brand items (Burberry, Tommy Hilfiger, Dior, Ralph Lauren, GANT) was given the code 2, while retail brand items were given the code 1 (H&M, Lindex, Cubus, Kappah, Ellos). Details regarding how brands were chosen the studies will be discussed in chapter 4.5.2.Pretest.

In Study 2, clothing items were displayed with a picture of the item, with the switched brand name written underneath. Expensive luxury items were given a retail brand name underneath, and any recognizable feature, such as logos or tags were erased to make the product look generic. For example, a GANT sweater for boys had the logo removed by using MS Paint, and in cases where the tag was visible, replaced with a retail brand tag, to make the switch seem convincing. For retail clothing, most items had no distinguishable features, so logos and tags were added where necessary. These were the only alterations made, however. In this study, the item itself is not the basis for scoring, but the text underneath. For example, where an H&M dress is given a Ralph Lauren logo and the text underneath says Ralph Lauren, this is scored as 2, luxury brand items (Burberry, Tommy Hilfiger, Dior, Ralph

Lauren, GANT), and vice versa - retail brand items were given the code 1 (H&M, Lindex, Cubus, Kappah, Ellos).

4.4.6. Demographic variables

Gender is a dichotomous variable measured on a nominal level. Both gender of parent and gender of child were included as items, since both were considered relevant variables. Number of children was measured as a discrete variable, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 4 or more children. Birth year of children was also included to filter out parents whose children were too old to be considered the target group. Age of parent was measured by asking parents to choose an age box ranging from “Under 18” to “Over 55”. For marital status, options included “Single”, “Boyfriend/girlfriend, not living together”, “Boyfriend/girlfriend, living together” (“Samboer” in Norwegian), “Married” or “Divorced”.

Respondents were asked to enter their postal code. Income was measured as annual household income, with options ranging from “Under 200 000 NOK” to “Over 1 000 000”. An option for respondents who did not wish to answer this question was included. Education was measured as highest completed education, ranging from “Secondary school” (“Ungdomsskole” – grades 8 through 10) to “Doctoral degree”. Housing type was included as a variable and seven possible answers ranged from “Studio apartment” to “House”. Housing ownership was also included as a dichotomous variable. E-mail address could be entered voluntarily, and was only used to contact the winner of a gift card of 500 NOK (≈85 USD /67 EUR) from Polarn O. Pyret (store of Children’s clothing).

For a detailed overview of the questions asked, see Attachment A. The experiment originally existed of two separate experiments who were later combined. Both studies include the exact same questions, and the only difference between the two is the clothing items, which were displayed with the correct brand name in Study 1, and the switched brand name in Study 2. The clothing items can be viewed in Attachment A. Original brand names and logos/tags are displayed to the left, and the manipulated images with switched brand names and logos/tags are displayed to the right.

4.5. Data collection

This section discusses the selection frame and selection methodology of the thesis, the structure of the experiment and survey, as well as the process of data collection. There are a myriad of approaches to collecting data, from focus groups or telephone interviews to using

databases or online surveys, all of which have their advantages and disadvantages. As with research design, the purpose of the research, and the research question, should influence the decision of how to collect data (Saunders et al. 2003). The method of data collection chosen for this thesis is an online self-administered experiment in the shape of a survey. The software MI Pro was used to design the questionnaire and gathering data. This is a user-friendly, yet advanced program that enables the researcher to upload pictures, and create questions that were to be answered electronically via a web-link. This link was posted in several groups for parents on the social media site Facebook, and sent to members of different online parent forums. For a list of Facebook groups and parent forums, see Attachment B.

Some of the advantages of an online survey include that it is an inexpensive and effective way to distribute and gather data, in which many respondents can be reached in short time, and across geographically dispersed areas (Wilson 2006). It is also anonymous, which increases the likelihood of valid and true answers. Because the survey is self-administered, there is no interviewer present. This means that respondents will not be subjected to any bias from the interviewer, but it also means that there is no interviewer present to clarify questions or responses, if needed (Wilson 2006). This makes the importance of a clear and unambiguous survey even greater, with detailed instructions on how to complete the tasks. This leads me to in my opinion the most critical disadvantage of self-administered surveys or experiment: lack of control. Although the software allows us to make sure that all questions are answered, it does not mean that participants have answered the questions correctly, or that they have followed the instructions (Wilson 2006). This very disadvantage is what forced me to complete the data collection process not only one time, but twice.

4.5.1. Why the manipulation in my first experiments failed

During the first round of data collection, participants were randomly assigned to Group 1 or Group 2 by the software. Participants in Group 1 were instructed to “Write a short paragraph describing how you are different from your friends, family, or people in general”, followed by a written example of how to complete the task. By making participants focus on themselves, this was supposed to induce a high level of self-consciousness. Participants in Group 2 were given instructions to “Write a short paragraph describing how a friend or family member of yours is different from your other friends, family, or people in general”, and were given equivalent examples. This was supposed to induce a low level of self-consciousness, by focusing respondents’ attention on a different person. For both Group 1 and Group 2 seven items measuring public self-consciousness followed the writing task, to serve as a

manipulation check. Data was collected concurrently for both experiments, and once this was completed I began the data analysis. I quickly discovered that the manipulation check revealed no significant difference between the groups' mean scores, which was a major problem. So, what had gone wrong, and how could I make the differences significant the second time around?

The first problem was that most participants had written very short sentences, some only one sentence, or even just a couple of words (Mean length Study 1: 10.2 words; Mean length Study 2: 12 words). This suggests that a large part of the participants did not apply themselves to the task very thoroughly, and I did not succeed to manipulate them. This may have been caused by the wording of the question, and instead of "Write a short paragraph...", participants were instructed to "Write five sentences..." in the next round of data collection. This increased the mean length of responses to 29.4 words, which is a much more acceptable number. The second problem with the experiment was that the tasks given to Group 1 and Group 2 were likely too similar. For round two of data collection Group 1 was still guided to write about "How you differ from your friends, family, or people in general", while Group 2 were prompted to write the name of the last movie they had seen in the cinema. Giving the control group participants a very low level of the independent variable, while giving the experimental group a very high level of the independent variable, is likely to have make the effect larger (Mitchell and Jolley 2010).

The third, and final problem was that by exposing both groups to the Public self-consciousness scale, a scale that induces self-consciousness (which I unfortunately was not aware of at the time) (Eichstaedt and Silvia 2003). Consequently, both groups exhibited a very high self-consciousness score. Because I wanted to test if high self-consciousness would lead participants to select more luxury items of clothing, this was very unfortunate for results from Group 2, who were supposed to show a low level of self-consciousness. Still, in order to check whether the manipulation had worked, the questions were kept in the survey, but were moved to the very end of the survey for Group 2, to make sure it did not influence responses to other questions. For Group 1, the ordering of the questions remained unchanged, in order to maximize self-consciousness.

Although it was unfortunate that the first round of data collection proved unsuccessful, the benefit of this was the possibility to view this as a pretest of the survey. After making the

modification mentioned above, the link to the survey was again distributed through various parent forums, and through Facebook groups for Norwegian parents throughout the country.

4.5.2. Data sample

The goal of the data collection is to estimate a certain characteristic of a population (Selnes 2004). To reach this goal, it is common to use the sample as an indicator of what the population looks like. The results from the sample can be used to generalize towards the population as a whole, depending on the sampling procedure. It is important to decide which population we want to generalize towards, and what this population encompasses, and excludes (Selnes 1999). The population for this thesis is Norwegian parents, meaning people living in Norway, or of Norwegian descent, who have one child or more.

When choosing the sampling method, this will depend on the sampling frame. The sampling frame is the list of the population, which the sample is drawn from (Selnes 1999). For example, random sampling requires a list of all the members of the population (Selnes 1999). A distinction is made between probability samples and non-probability samples. In a probability sample, each and every element of the population has a known probability (different from 0) of being selected (Selnes 1999). In a non-probability sample, the probability of being selected is unknown. With a probability sample sampling error can be computed, and the sample can be counted as representative of the population. This is not possible with a non-probability sample.

Because of the limited time and resources available for this thesis, a convenience sample was employed. This is a common way of gathering data for this purpose, and is an inexpensive and quick technique (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). A drawback of a convenience sample is that you cannot be sure whether the sample really represents the population. Also, the samples are likely to be systematically skewed in that some groups are overrepresented, while others are underrepresented (Selnes 1999). As discussed previously, this is one of factors contributing to the very skewed distribution between female and male respondents in this thesis.

The chosen experimental design suggests that at least 30 participants are needed for each condition of the manipulation (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). This equals to 30 x 4, in total 120 respondents for each experiment. These requirements were adequately met: $N = 246$.

4.5.3. Pretest

Before selecting items for respondents to select from, a pretest of different brands was carried out. 13 extensive discussions in different online parent forums with the topic of what defines brands clothing for children, and which brands are considered “branded clothing” were scrutinized. In these threads forum members express how they perceive different brands as being “cheap retail clothing”, “expensive upscale clothing”, or “something in between”, to name a few examples. While answers and definitions vary, there is a clear consensus about the distinction between retail chain clothing such as H&M, Lindex and Cubus on one side, and expensive clothing such as Ralph Lauren, Burberry and Gant on the other.

The pretest was carried out to get an overview of how Norwegian parents perceive different brands of children’s clothing, as well as which brands have high brand recognition and brand awareness. The most important criterion for the clothing selected for the experiment was that people would recognize the brand, and that the brand had a clear position – either exclusive/luxury or retail/cheap. In other words, there should be a very clear consensus in the mind of consumers about the brands selected, in order to provide the most valid responses as possible.

As mentioned previously, the scope of the thesis includes indoor clothing only, because the quality argument has less functional importance for inside than outside, especially in Norway, where the climate is known to vary greatly from season to season, or even day to day. Winters are usually very cold, demanding a lot from children’s outdoor clothing. Hence, brands of outdoor clothing have been excluded from this list, as well as woolen underwear (which is very common to use during winter or on cold days). It is more socially acceptable to buy “quality brands” for outdoors clothing and wool. As one forum member puts it:

“I am very concerned with my son having proper outdoor clothing, which is tough, and I gladly buy Bergans trousers, Reima suits etc. for him, even though cheaper and OK outerwear can be bought at H&M. I’m willing to pay a little extra to get what I think is the best. But when it comes to regular clothes, jeans, sweaters etc. I’m not willing to pay a lot of money, because I don’t have the same requirements for this kind of clothing!”

Only records where distinctions between brands/stores are made, have been noted. For example, this passage does not state any opinions about the different brands, rather all brands are treated alike, and are therefore not counted: *“I buy things on sale, like ida T, Lindex and H&M”*. However, when the forum member describes the brand/store, or makes a clear distinction between brands and retail stores, this is recorded: *“I buy what I think is nice,*

functional, and of good quality. A lot of different brands, some Petit Bateau, Ralph Lauren, Burberry, Mexx, GAP, but also H&M, Lindex etc.” “In my opinion branded clothing is something that is not sold in the retail stores, and which is more expensive than retail clothes”.

The five most recognized and unambiguous (clear signals for which category it belongs to exist) “retail/chain” brands and the five most recognized and unambiguous “luxury/expensive brands” are chosen for the experiment. For a comprehensive overview of all records, and how they are distributed, see Attachment C.

4.5.4. Selecting clothing items for experiment

After deciding which brands to focus on, different online shops were searched for pictures and descriptions of clothing to be used in the experiment. One of the purposes of the experiment would be to test whether participants would select the most expensive brand, both in a condition where the correct brand names and prices were included and in a condition where brand names and belonging prices were switched. Therefore, to increase the likeliness for stimulus generalization on the participants’ account, clothing which could be perceived to be similar for both expensive and inexpensive brands were selected. Consequently, I avoided selecting items from the retail brands with visible prints of i.e. cartoon characters, skulls, princesses, because this is stated as one of the most common reasons among parent forum members for avoiding shopping in these “chain stores”, and this would reveal that the clothes were retail clothing.

In total 40 items of expensive/luxury clothing were selected, of these 20 were boys’ clothing, and 20 were girls’ clothing. The same number went for the cheap/retail items of clothing; 40 items in total, 20 of these for boys and 20 for girls. The type of clothing was indoor clothing; trousers, jeans, sweatshirts, cardigans, t-shirts, shirts for boys and skirts and dresses for girls. The numbers of each type of clothing, such as jeans, were the same for expensive and inexpensive clothing, to ensure that the statistical probability for selecting an expensive or a cheap item was the same. No outdoors items, nor shoes, were included, based on the reasons mentioned above. For a detailed overview of the distribution of brand/non-brand items for each category, and the origin of the different items of clothing, see Attachment D.

Because several of the luxury items had visible logos or recognizable features, such as logos or tags, I used “Microsoft Paint” to erase or blur these logos for the conditions where

brands were to be switched between expensive and inexpensive, in Study 2. This was done to make the branded items less distinguishable and let participants base their decision on the way the product looked, as well as the name of the brand written under the picture. Whether to include prices or not was debated. On one side, providing the price would make the experiment more realistic, hence increasing the external validity of the study, and participant would perhaps make more rational decisions if they had this information. On the other side, stating the price would possibly lead, or even mislead, respondents in an unfortunate way, and remove focus from the exclusivity of the brand, which is the topic of interest, not price. Consequently, it might have a negative effect on the internal validity. The brand itself should signal the price level, and because all the chosen brands are well-known, people are likely to have a reference price of the products in their mind, from which they will make inferences from.

Gijsbrechts (1993) used the term “reference price” to denote the consumers’ internal standard for price evaluation. This internal level can be influenced by externally provided “standards for comparison”, such as the regular prices in advertisements, also known as external reference prices. The conclusion reached was that that the utility of including prices on clothing items was lower than the benefit it would give, and therefore the items will only be described by brand names, and not prices.

4.5.5. Crafting the survey

After it became clear which variables should be investigated, the next step involved investigating which kinds of scales had previously been used to measure these variables. The idea was to use existing scales where this was possible, and where these were congruent with the research purpose. Because several different scales existed for most of the variables, the different scales were reviewed and compared. The task of selecting which scales to employ and which to discard was challenging, but gave me better insight into how the different constructs have previously been measured. The main advantage of using existing scales is that these have previously been thoroughly tested and validated by others, facilitating the data analysis (Weathington et al. 2010). However, a scale measuring exactly the topic of interest might not always exist, creating the need to adapt existing scales, or create new scales.

Since the scales were originally in English and the survey was to be carried out in Norway, the scales were translated to Norwegian. The translated scales were then back-translated to English by someone who is regarded as an excellent English speaker, with a

great vocabulary. The back-translation was performed to eliminate any misunderstandings, and to improve the quality of the translations. Consequently, a few words and sentences were adjusted and improved. The order of the question sequences was reviewed. To maintain validity, questions were asked in the same order as in their original setting within each sequence.

Questions were grouped according to the variable being measured, i.e. questions concerning vanity were placed in the same sections, to make answering the questions as easy and quick and possible, and prevent people from exiting the survey before completion. For the questions where items of clothing were presented, the order in which these were presented was randomized, to eliminate any ordering effects. In total, the survey had 108 items, and after pretesting with four participants, the average time used to complete the survey was thirteen minutes. Three attention filter questions were included in the survey. The purpose of this was to filter out any respondents who were not paying attention to the questions, or simply answering questions randomly. This can be unfortunate for the results, and therefore eliminating any cases of this type from being included in the analysis, as this could have a negative impact on validity.

4.5.6. Recruiting respondents

Participants were recruited via Norwegian parent forums online, and through groups for selling and buying children's clothing and gear on Facebook. To increase the response rates, participants were informed about a gift card worth 500 NOK from Polarn O. Pyret. To be able to win this gift card, participants would need to type in their e-mail address at the end of the survey, but they were informed that this was 100 % voluntarily. To be able to obtain this information, an application was sent to NSD, the Norwegian Data Protection Official for Research, in which the plan for ensuring respondents' privacy must be accounted for. A consent letter which participants must read and consent to in order to participate in the study was formulated and included in the beginning of the survey. This can be viewed in Attachment A.

4.6. Removing cases and manipulation check

Public Self-consciousness (SC) was manipulated by randomly assigning participants to either group 1 or group 2 by the software. For study 1, 97 participants were placed in group 1, while 53 participants were placed in group 2. This gives a percentage distribution of 65/35, which is slightly skewed in the favor of group 1. For study 2, 73 participants were assigned to group 1, while 70 participants were placed in group 2, which is close to 50/50. Manipulation check was

carried out to ensure that differences existed between the groups: group 1 (High Self-consciousness), which was given the task to write five sentences about how they were different from their friends and family, and group 2 (Low Self-consciousness), which were only asked to state which movie they had last seen in a movie theater.

Removing cases

Although self-consciousness can be manipulated, respondents' innate characteristics and level of self-consciousness were thought to play an important role. For example, some respondents in group 1, the High SC group, stated that "I'm not very self-conscious", or "I care little about other people's opinions". Cases with this type of statements which indicated that they were not susceptible to being manipulated into a state of high self-consciousness were excluded. In total there were four cases of this type in Study 1, and three from Study 2. Two cases also simply indicated that they were "not very different from my friends and family" or "quite normal". These were also excluded, since they had not completed the task according to the instructions, which was to describe how they were different from friends and family.

Vice versa, in group 2 it was also expected to encounter incidents in which highly self-conscious participants were placed in the low self-consciousness group, and were not susceptible to manipulation leading to low self-consciousness. A pattern was discovered in group 2 where respondents who added extra information or punctuation in their reply to the movie question all exhibited high self-consciousness. For example, putting quotation marks "Karsten og Petra blir bestevenner", adding the year in which the movie came out, *Intouchables* (2011), or adding the name of an actor in the movie *Angelina Jolie SALT*. This is likely related to the fact that self-conscious individuals are concerned with how they are perceived by others, and are hereby more eager to complete this simple task as "correct" as possible. Based on this assumption, 11 cases were removed.

In addition to cases that were removed because of lack of susceptibility for manipulation, a few cases were removed due to a failure to complete the task according to instructions. Group 1's task was to write five sentences, however only 32.5% wrote five sentences. Since the remaining 67.5% cases could not be removed due to a failure to complete the task based on the instructions, a minimum requirement was set to 15 words, and cases where respondents had written less than this were excluded. This was to ensure that respondents had taken the time to think this task through, hereby increasing the chances of

actually being manipulated into becoming more self-conscious. Based on my experiences from my first and failed manipulation experiment, where there was no difference between groups, much due to the length of answers, my prediction was that writing less than 15 words would not set a respondent in the right state of mind for manipulation. Hence 28 cases were removed due to length considerations. Naturally, there are considerations to make when removing cases from a data set. With this in mind, I think my arguments for removing the mentioned cases are logical and solid. A more detailed overview of removed cases can be found in Attachment E.

Manipulation check

The manipulation check indicated significant differences in means for Self-consciousness: ($M_{\text{Low SC}} = 4.914$) vs. ($M_{\text{High SC}} = 5.226$), $F_{(1,243)} = 1.724$, $p < 0.01$. From the results we conclude that there is in fact a significant difference between High SC(Group 1) and Low SC (Group 2). Participants in Group 1 exhibited a significantly higher degree of self-consciousness. Results from the Independent samples T-test can be viewed in Attachment F. The items included in the manipulation check are the Public Self-Consciousness Scale by Fenigstein (1975), described previously. Items SC7 (I'm concerned with my own way of doing things.) and SC4 (I'm usually worried about making a good impression.) were excluded due to low values (>0.5) in the Factor analysis..

4.7. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of types of research design, in general. Requirements of causality have been explored due to the choice of a causal design. Different approaches for data collection have been discussed, with an emphasis on experimental design, as this is the chosen approach for this thesis. The experiments are two 2 (High vs. Low level of Self-consciousness) x 2 (Low vs. High level of Status) between subjects experiment, where stimuli for Self-consciousness is developed to create differences between groups, and Status is measured, making this a hybrid experimental design. Also, measure development for this thesis has been discussed, as well as an outline of sampling method and instrument.

5.0. Results and analysis of experiments

In this chapter, results from the two studies will be presented. First, validity and reliability will be discussed, before examining assumptions of ANOVA and the impacts of these assumptions on the studies. Finally, hypotheses are tested using ANOVA.

5.1. Descriptive statistics

The data material consists of 293 cases. Of these 288 were women, and five were men. The subjects are parents recruited via social media groups and forums for parents. Median age group of parents was 26-35 years ($SD = .625$), and mean age of the youngest child of participants was 2 years ($SD = 1.790$), ranging from 0 to 13 years. The manipulation in the experiment included a short writing task, in which parents were randomly assigned to a condition of either high or low self-consciousness. The high self-consciousness group was instructed to write five sentences on how they were different from their friends and family, while participants in the low self-consciousness group were asked to write the name of the last film they had seen in a movie theater. A failure to complete this task within reasonable limits lead to the removal of the case, and in total 47 cases were removed from the data material, leaving 246 cases to be further analyzed.

Normal distribution for the variables of the study will be presented in Chapter 5.5.2. Assumptions of normality. A complete overview of variables and their descriptive statistics is also presented in Attachment G. Means of relevant constructs are also shown in Attachment G.

5.2. Measure validation

Validity is concerned with whether a variable measures what it is supposed to measure, and deals with whether there is consistency between the construct and the indicators used to measure the construct (Bollen 1989). Bollen (1989) also claims that although validity can never be proven, we can develop strong support for it, increasing the likelihood that what we are measuring is what we actually want to measure. Bollen (1989) distinguished between four types of validity; content validity, criterion validity, construct validity and convergent and discriminant validity. All these different types of validity share the same goal: to show whether a measure corresponds to a concept, however the ways they do so differ.

5.2.1. Content validity

Content validity is of a qualitative nature, and relates to clarifying the domain, and establishing whether the measures fully represent this domain (Bollen 1989). This domain is based on the theoretical definition, which explains the meaning of a concept. In praxis it might be difficult to map the entire domain of a construct, since different people have different perceptions of the same construct (Gripsrud et al. 2006). Gripsrud et al. (2006) recommend performing a thorough literature search to investigate previous operationalizations of a construct. Clarifying the dimensions of the domain is also of importance, and each dimension of a domain should have one or more measures. Bollen (1989) elaborates “to adequately represent the domain, we need four latent variables and measures for each dimension”. If not, we cannot trust the content validity of the measure.

For the experiments in this thesis, well-known and established scales have been used to measure the independent variables. This increases the content validity of the study, as these measures have previously been through validity tests. For the variable Status there are one to three items measuring the construct, For Empathy, there are thirteen items, while Self-consciousness is both manipulated and a manipulation check is performed with seven items. For vanity, there are four dimensions, all of which are measured by five and six items.

5.2.2. Construct validity

Mitchel and Jolley (2010) define construct validity as “the degree to which the measure is measuring what it claims to measure”. Mitchell and Jolley (2010) view content validity, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity as different measures of construct validity, and claim that by strengthening these forms of validity, the construct validity is improved. According to Bollen (1989), construct validity can be used instead of content or criterion validity. He claims that construct validity can be regarded as the degree to which a measure relates to other observed variables in a way that is consistent with theoretically derived predictions. Gripsrud et al. (2006) quote Carmines and Zeller (1979) “Fundamentally, construct validity is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the concepts and/or constructs) that are being measured”. Gripsrud et al. (2006) point out two elements of particular importance for establishing construct validity; convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity

Convergent validity is a measure of “the extent to which the results from a scale correlate with those from other scales or measures of the same topic/construct” (Wilson 2006). In order for the convergent validity to be satisfactory, indicators of a construct must show a high factor loading in the first factor of the factor analysis. What qualifies as a high enough value for the factor loading depends greatly on the number of respondents in the study. Stevens (1992) in Trelease (2008) recommends that the level of factor loadings of a sample of 200 should be greater than 0.364 in order to achieve significant factors of 0.01 alpha-level (two-tailed). For this thesis, $N_1 = 150$ and $N_2 = 143$, and the lower requirement of factor loadings is set to 0.4, to ensure that convergent validity is maintained at an acceptable level. Maximum Likelihood is used as extraction method, with Direct Oblimin rotation. Maximum Likelihood allows us to estimate factor loadings for different combinations where the discrepancies between observed and reproduced correlations are minimized (Field 2005). The choice of using oblique rotation is based on the assumption that the constructs are relatively tightly connected, and varimax rotation is used in the case of independent constructs (Field 2005). Since several of the constructs in this thesis have proven to be correlated, oblique rotation is therefore used.

Bollen (1989) claims “convergent validity correlations should be greater than the correlations between one variable with any other variable, with which it shares neither trait nor method”. Also, the convergent validity correlations should be larger than the correlations of different traits measured with the same method (Bollen 1989).

Results of convergent validity analysis are good for all constructs, with only two items below 0.54, and no items below 0.4. Public self-consciousness is one-dimensional after removing item SC7 and SC4, while Vanity is comprised by four dimensions, precisely as in the work of Netemeyer et al. (1995), from which the scale was taken. For Parental empathy, seven indicators were removed in order to establish only one dimension. For status, the self-reporting SES Ladder, and objective measures income, education and marital status were combined with good convergent results. For results from the convergent validity analysis, see Attachment H.

Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity (also known as divergent validity) tests whether indicators, which are assumed to measure different theoretical constructs, are weakly correlated with each other (Gripsrud et al. 2006). In other words, it measures the extent to which the results from a scale

do *not* correlate with other scales from which one would expect it to differ (Wilson 2006). According to Mitchell and Jolley (2010), discriminant validity is a test to show that you are not measuring the wrong construct. Although convergent validity is necessary, alone it is not sufficient to establish construct validity. By showing that the measure also has discriminant validity we show that we are not measuring a different construct. Discriminant validity is established by showing that the measure 1) does not correlate with measures of unrelated constructs and 2) does not correlate too highly with measures of related constructs.

When using Direct Oblimin rotation the output consists of both a Pattern Matrix and a Structure Matrix. The pattern matrix shows regression coefficients associated with the factors on each variable, while the structure Matrix shows how strongly each variable is correlated with each factor, if factors are substantially correlated, and if the variable has high regression weights on other factors (Robins et al. 2009). It is the Pattern matrix that most clearly states the simple structure achieved by an oblique rotation, and this should be reported whenever oblique rotations are performed (Robins 2009). However, the structure matrix is also informative, especially when investigating the discriminant validity.

After running the convergent analysis for all constructs, I proceeded to test whether the items would pass the discriminant validity test. Unfortunately I discovered that one of the dimensions of the Vanity construct (Concern for physical appearance - Physical concern) showed high factor loadings (over 0.5) on the Self-consciousness construct as well. These constructs/dimensions are related from a theoretical viewpoint, so the results were not too surprising, but serious, and compelled me to remove the Physical concern dimension from the Vanity construct, since there were four dimensions of this construct. There was only one dimension of Self-consciousness, and it was regarded as imperative to keep Self-consciousness as a construct.

The vanity construct originally contained four dimensions. After Physical concern was removed, three dimensions remained. However, results indicated that Achievement concern and Achievement view loaded on the same factor, with factor loadings between 0.2 and 0.5, connoting the removal of one of these dimensions. Both alternatives were explored, and removing Achievement concern yielded the most satisfactory results overall. Based on these analyses, Physical view and Achievement concern were the two dimensions chosen to represent the Vanity construct. For results from discriminant validity analysis, see Attachment I.

5.2.3. Statistical conclusion validity

Statistical conclusion validity (or conclusion validity) refers to the appropriate use of statistics to conclude whether there is covariation between the presumed independent and dependent variables (Cook and Campbell 1979). This regards two related statistical inferences; whether the presumed cause and effect covary, and how strongly they covary. Common threats to statistical conclusion validity include e.g. low statistical power, violated assumptions of the test statistics, unreliability of measure, unreliability of treatment implementation, and random heterogeneity of respondents (Cook and Campbell 1979). For example, the chosen level of statistical significance will affect the probability of committing Type II errors (Grisrud et al. 2006). For this thesis, the level of significance is set to 95%, which implies a 5% probability of making a Type II error.

5.3. Reliability

Reliability is the consistency of measurement, or “the degree to which a measurement will yield the same result if it is repeated several times” (Bollen 1989; Gripsrud et al. 2006). Random error is what causes results to vary from time to time, and if an experiment is repeated, it is therefore very unlikely to get the exact same results. All measurement is subject to random errors, and the smaller these random errors are, the more reliable the measurement is (Gripsrud et al. 2006). Also Mitchell and Jolley (2010) view reliability as “producing stable, consistent scores that are not strongly influenced by random error (chance)”. They list the three most common sources to random error; the observer, the participant, and the way the measure is administered. Because we can have consistent, but invalid measures, reliability is a necessary, yet not adequate, condition for validity (Selnes 1999). This means that reliable measures may not be valid, even though valid measures must be reliable.

Two common ways of establishing reliability includes stability over time, and internal consistency. Internal consistency can be measured by Cronbach’s alpha. Test-retest reliability is a test of the total extent to which random error is influencing the measure (Mitchell and Jolley 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), the lowest commonly accepted value of the Cronbach’s alpha is between 0.6 and 0.7, although many prefer to use 0.7. An important issue with Cronbach’s alpha is its positive relationship with number of items in the scale, hence one should be careful with including too many when relying on Cronbach’s alpha as a measure of reliability (Hair et al. 2010). Results of reliability are presented in the table below.

Table 9 - Reliability analysis

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	Indicators
Self-consciousness	.776	4
Vanity – Physical view	.875	4
Vanity – Achievement concern	.881	4
Empathy	.621	5
Status	.626	3

Results for Self-consciousness, Vanity - Physical view and Vanity – Achievement concern are good, as these are all above 0.7 and 0.8. However, Empathy is barely below the acceptable limit of 0.7. Including more items to measure empathy would have raised the alpha, however this would cause problems for the discriminant validity, and hence this marginal increase in reliability is sacrificed for the good of the discriminant validity. Regarding the results for Status, these are also generally lower than what we would hope for, but given the fact that Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to numbers of items, this might be a possible explanation as to why this result is low. Although reliability for Empathy and Status is lower than reliability for Self-consciousness and Vanity dimensions, no results are below 0.6 and they are not critically low. Hence, all constructs are kept for further analysis. Results from reliability analysis are also presented in Attachment J.

5.4. Indexing constructs

Based on the previous analyses of validity and reliability, the next step is indexing the constructs. This reduces number of variables, and makes data more suitable for further analysis. The statistical formula *Mean* is used to compute the new variables, where the new variables are created by summing up items and dividing on number of variables. By using the statistical mean, a theoretical construct is created, comprised solely of variables which have passed the validity and reliability tests. See below for an overview of which items were included when indexing the different constructs.

Table 10 - Indexing variables

Construct	Variable name	Items and procedure
Self-consciousness	SELFCONSC	Mean(SC1, SC2, SC3, SC5)
Vanity – Physical view	VAN_PHYSV	Mean(VAN7, VAN8, VAN9, VAN10)
Vanity – Achievement concern	VAN_ACHCONC	Mean(VAN12, VAN13, VAN14, VAN15)
Empathy	EMPATHY	Mean(EMP2,EMP3, EMP4, EMP5, EMP13)
Status	SES_STATUS	Mean(INCOME_SCALE, EDUCATION, SES_LADDER)

5.5. Assumptions of ANOVA

ANOVA is a common method for analysis of variance of means between groups. *“Its purpose is to predict a single dependent variable on the basis of one or more predictor variables, and to establish whether those predictors are good predictors”* (Cardinal and Aitken 2006). For this thesis, the General Linear Model is selected. This encompasses a variety of linear models such as ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, MANCOVA, t-test and linear regression (SPSS Library 2013). Like the t-test, ANOVA is also a parametric test and has certain assumptions, which should be complied with in order to obtain suitable results. Hair et al. (1998) point out these three assumptions as the most critical; independent observations, homogenous variance-covariance matrices for all treatment groups, and normal distribution for all independent variables, as well as satisfactory results for linearity and multicollinearity of the variance of dependent variables.

5.5.1. Independent observations

The assumption of independent observations implies that participants should not be influenced by others than themselves, before or during the experiment. In this thesis, respondents completed the surveys via the internet, and had no opportunity to communicate with each other, since they did not know who else participated. This increases the probability of independent observations for these studies. Also, randomizing the order of answer options reduces the likelihood of respondents being influenced by the order in which alternatives are presented. According to Hair et al.(1998) a violation of this assumption is the most serious breach, as this implies that a number of outside factors and unmeasured effects can impact the results by creating dependence between groups.

5.5.2. Assumption of normality

The assumption of normality entails that the scores are normally distributed around their mean. A more correct way to phrase this is that “error is normally distributed within conditions” (Howell 2012). This is also called the normal distribution of error, or normally distributed residuals. Moderate violations of normality are usually not critical. Neither of the indexed variables show signs of skewness or kurtosis. This indicates that the variables are normally distributed, fulfilling the assumption of normality. All variables except Marital fulfill the requirements of normality, which is due to an overrepresentation of respondents categorized as “High marital status”. Results are presented in Attachment K.

In addition to meeting these three assumptions, ANOVA requires the dependent variable to be continuous or on the interval scale, while any type of independent variable, including nominal and/or categorical variables can be included in an ANOVA model. However, when using an ordinal variable we will follow the common agreement of handling ordinal variables as interval variables. It should also be considered mentioning the use of ordinal variables as a limitation for the study (Schwab 2007).

5.5.3. Homogeneity of variances

This assumption is commonly tested using Levene’s test. This tests the null hypothesis, which states that the variances of the groups are equal. If Levene’s test is significant then we can claim that the variances are significantly different, and this would require an action to rectify this violation (Field 2012).

Results for homogeneity of variances indicate that all variables fulfill the assumption of homogeneity of variances. A breach on this assumption means that the variability in one of the conditions for this variable vary more than the scores in the other condition. Studies have shown that the assumption of homogeneity can be violated with little effect on the validity *as long as the two groups have the same or very similar sizes* (i.e. when $N_1 \approx N_2$) (Gordon 2008). If the N’s differ greatly, however, then heterogeneity can seriously affect the validity of the t test. To be considered equal groups, Gordon (2008) claims that the larger group cannot be larger than 1.5 times the size of the smaller group, while according to Schwab (2007) the size of the larger group cannot be larger than three times the size of the smaller group. For results of the analysis of homogeneity of variances, see Attachment K.

5.6. Testing hypotheses

Due to the fact that two dimensions of Vanity (Physical concern and Achievement view) were excluded after the test of discriminant validity, the number of hypotheses is slightly reduced. Each construct is tested using ANOVA. Dividing variables into high- and low groups is performed by using the median value of the indexed constructs as the cut-off point. Although there are limitations concerned with making this division using the median, in order to be able to analyze the variables using ANOVA, continuous variables must be divided into a high and low group (Sweet and Martin 2011). The first analysis is a study of Between-subjects effects on the dependent variable. The significance level chosen for this thesis is based on a two-tailed test, since hypotheses are formulated with a direction. This implies that stated levels of significance can be divided in two to find the correct one-tailed significance value (Selnes 1999). Results from main effects can be viewed in Attachment L, while results from testing interaction effects are displayed in Attachment M.

5.6.1. Socioeconomic status

Hypothesis 1 tests the effect of *Socioeconomic status* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. A negative relationship between Socioeconomic status and luxury brand preference is suggested. The results from ANOVA show a weak main effect of socioeconomic status on Luxury brand preference. The direction of the relationship is negative, as predicted.

H₁ Socioeconomic status ($M_{\text{Low Status}} = 2.122$) vs. ($M_{\text{High Status}} = 1.832$), $F_{(1,244)} = 2.461$, Sig. = .118/2 = $p < .10$

5.6.2. Self-consciousness

Hypothesis 2_a tests the effect of *Self-consciousness* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. The hypothesized direction suggests a positive relationship between self-consciousness and luxury brand preference, and hence the high self-consciousness group should exhibit a significantly higher mean for luxury brand preference than the low self-consciousness group. The results from ANOVA show a weak main effect of Self-consciousness on Luxury brand preference. These findings indicate that self-consciousness influences luxury brand preference, and the relationship has a positive direction. H_{2a} is weakly supported.

Self-consciousness has a weak positive main effect on Luxury brand preference:

H_{2a}: Self-consciousness ($M_{\text{Low Self-consciousness}} = 1.904$) vs. ($M_{\text{High Self-consciousness}} = 2.156$), $F_{(1,244)} = 1.739$, Sig. = 0.189/2 = $p < 0.10$.

H_{2b} tests the interaction between the variables Self-consciousness and Status on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. Results from ANOVA show an interaction effect between these two variables, $F_{(1,242)} = 6.204$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 11 Interaction effects SC x SES

		Status	
		Low	High
Self-consciousness	Low	2.000 ^{a c} (1.414)	1.750 ^{a d} (1.310)
	High	1.897 ^{b c} (1.447)	2.625 ^{b d} (1.641)

^a No significant difference in Status for Low self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 1.130$, $p > 0.05$

^b Significant difference in Status for High self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 5.359$, $p < 0.05$

^c No significant difference in Self-consciousness for Low status, $F_{(1,242)} = .189$, $p > 0.05$

^d Significant difference in Self-consciousness for High status, $F_{(1,242)} = 1.113$, $p < 0.01$

SD in parenthesis

N=246

H_{2b} predicted that if a parent is high in public self-consciousness and has low socioeconomic status, this leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to if the parent is of high socioeconomic status. As the table illustrates, there are significant differences between high and low status, in the high self-consciousness condition. This fulfills H_{2b}'s notion that high self-consciousness increases luxury brand preference in interaction with status. However, the direction of the relationship is positive, contrary to what was predicted. This means that in this condition, parents of high status selected more luxury items than parents of low status. This means that the relationship of H_{2b} is supported, but not the direction.

5.6.3. Vanity - Physical view

Hypothesis 3_b tests the effect of *Vanity - Physical view* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. The hypothesized direction proposes a positive relationship between vanity and luxury brand preference, and hence the high vanity group should exhibit a significantly higher mean for luxury brand preference than the low vanity group. The results from ANOVA show a main effect of Physical view on Luxury brand preference. These findings indicate that physical vanity influences luxury brand preference significantly, however, the relationship is not positive, but negative. This supports the relationship of H3_a, but not the direction.

Vanity – Physical has a negative main effect on Luxury brand preference:

H_{3b} Vanity – Physical view ($M_{\text{Low Physical view}} = 2.197$) vs. ($M_{\text{High Physical view}} = 1.814$), $F_{(1,244)} = 4.366$, Sig. = 0.038/2 = $p < 0.05$

Hypothesis 3_d tests the interaction between the variables Self-consciousness and Vanity – View of physical appearance on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. Results from ANOVA show no interaction effect between these two variables, $F_{(1,242)} = .251$, $p > 0.05$. However, when investigating the cell means, three effects are evident.

Table 12 Interaction effects Physical view x SC

		Self-consciousness	
		Low	High
Vanity – Physical view	Low	2.072 ^{a c} (1.377)	2.500 ^{a d} (1.522)
	High	1.712 ^{b c} (1.359)	1.946 ^{b d} (1.542)

^a Weak significant difference in Self-consciousness for Low Physical view, $F_{(1,242)} = 2.153$, $p < .10$

^b No significant difference in Self-consciousness for High Physical view, $F_{(1,242)} = .848$, $p > .05$

^c Weak significant difference in Vanity for Low Self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 2.456$, $p < .10$

^d Significant difference in Vanity for High Self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 3.164$, $p < .05$

SD in parenthesis

n = 246

H_{3d} suggests that parents portraying a favorable (high) view of personal physical appearance and who is highly public self-conscious has an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to parents with an unfavorable (low) physical view. The table indicates significant differences in means between low and high physical view in the high self-consciousness condition. Although the table supports the notion of H_{3d} that high self-consciousness leads to higher luxury brand preference, the parents with the least favorable view of own appearance selected more brand items in both the low self-consciousness and the high self-consciousness condition. H_{3d} is not supported, although the relationship is supported.

5.6.4. Vanity – Achievement concern

Hypothesis 4_a tests the effect of *Vanity – Achievement concern* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. The hypothesized direction suggests a positive relationship between vanity and luxury brand preference, and hence the high vanity group should exhibit a significantly higher mean for luxury brand preference than the low vanity group. The results from ANOVA show that there is no main effect of Physical view on Luxury brand preference. Although there is no support for H_{3a}, the direction of the relationship seems to be positive, as predicted.

H4_a: Vanity – Achievement concern ($M_{\text{Low Achievement concern}} = 1.935$) vs. ($M_{\text{High Achievement concern}} = 2.057$), $F_{(1,244)} = .437$, Sig. = $.509/2 = p > .05$.

The purpose of H4_c is to test the interaction effect between the Achievement concern dimension of Vanity and Status. Results from ANOVA show a weak interaction effect between these two variables, $F_{(1,242)} = .114$, $p < 0.10$.

Table 13 Interaction effects Achievement concern x SES

		Status	
		Low	High
Vanity – Achievement concern	Low	2.013 ^{a c} (1.463)	1.800 ^{a d} (1.531)
	High	1.907 ^{b c} (1.387)	2.298 ^{b d} (1.413)

^a No significant difference in Status for Low Vanity, $F_{(1,242)} = .622$, $p > .05$

^b Weakly significant difference in Status for High Vanity, $F_{(1,242)} = 2.122$, $p < .10$

^c No significant difference in Vanity for Low status, $F_{(1,242)} = .207$, $p > .05$

^d Significant difference in Vanity for High status, $F_{(1,242)} = 2.734$, $p < .05$

SD in parenthesis

n = 246

H4_c posits that parents displaying high concern for personal achievements and low status have an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to parents of high status. The table indicates that there is a weakly significant difference between low and high status in the high achievement concern condition. This fulfills H4_c's notion that high achievement leads to higher luxury brand preference in interaction with status, compared to low status. H4_c is weakly supported.

Hypothesis 4_e tests the interaction between the variables Self-consciousness and Vanity – Achievement concern on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. Results from ANOVA show an interaction effect between these two variables, $F_{(1,242)} = 3.188$, $p < .05$.

Table 14 Interaction effects Achievement concern x SC

		Vanity – Achievement concern	
		Low	High
Self-consciousness	Low	1.769 ^{a c} (1.423)	2.092 ^{a d} (1.296)
	High	2.394 ^{b c} (1.580)	2.017 ^{b d} (1.404)

^a Weakly significant difference in Achievement concern for Low self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 1.914$, $p < .10$

^b No significant difference in Achievement concern for High self-consciousness, $F_{(1,242)} = 1.432$, $p > .05$

^c Significant difference in Self-consciousness for Low Achievement concern, $F_{(1,242)} = 4.570$, $p < .05$

^d No significant difference in Self-consciousness for High Achievement concern, $F_{(1,242)} = .082$, $p > .05$

SD in parenthesis

n = 246

H_{4e} suggests that a parent who has high concern for personal achievements and high public self-consciousness displays an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to a parent low in public self-consciousness. The table shows significant differences for both the low self-consciousness condition and the low achievement condition, however no significant differences for the hypothesized directions. H_{4e} is hereby not supported.

5.6.5. Empathy

Hypothesis 5_a tests the effect of *Empathy* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. The hypothesized direction suggests a positive relationship between empathy and luxury brand preference, and hence the high empathy group should exhibit a significantly higher mean for luxury brand preference than the low empathy group. The results from ANOVA show no main effect of Empathy on Luxury brand preference, and the relationship shows a negative direction, which is opposite of what was predicted.

H_{5a} Parental empathy (M_{Low Empathy} = 2.087) vs. (M_{High Empathy} = 1.899), $F_{(1,244)} = 1.035$, Sig. = .310/2 = $p > .05$

The purpose of H_{5b} is to test the interaction effect between Empathy and the Achievement concern dimension of Vanity. Results show a weak interaction effect. $F_{(1,242)} = 2.160$, $p < 0.10$.

Table 15 Interaction effects Parental empathy x Achievement concern

		Vanity – Achievement concern	
		Low	High
Empathy	Low	2.164 ^{a c} (1.540)	2.015 ^{a d} (1.462)
	High	1.714 ^{b c} (1.408)	2.107 ^{b d} (1.344)

^a No significant difference in Achievement concern for Low empathy, $F_{(1,242)} = .337$, $p > .05$

^b Weak significant difference in Achievement concern for High empathy, $F_{(1,242)} = 2.199$, $p > .10$

^c Significant difference in Empathy for Low Achievement concern, $F_{(1,242)} = 3.011$, $p < .05$

^d No significant difference in Empathy for High Achievement concern, $F_{(1,242)} = .123$, $p > .05$

SD in parenthesis

n = 246

H_{5b} suggests that parents exhibiting high parental empathy and high concern for personal achievements possess an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to parents with low concern for personal achievements. The table indicates a weak significant difference in means between high and low achievement concern in the high empathy condition. Compared to individuals with low achievement concern, individuals displaying

high empathy and high achievement concern selected a significantly higher number of luxury brand items. This fulfills the predictions of the hypothesis, and H_{5b} is supported weakly.

5.6.6. Marital status

Hypothesis 6a tests the effect of *Marital status* on the dependent variable Luxury brand preference. A negative relationship is suggested. Results indicate that there is a significant main effect of marital status on luxury brand preference, and that the relationship is negative.

H_{6a} Marital status ($M_{\text{Low Marital status}} = 2.692$) vs. ($M_{\text{High Marital status}} = 1.957$), $F_{(1,244)} = 3.220$, Sig. = .074/2 = $p < .05$

The purpose of H_{6b} is to test the interaction effect between Marital status and Socioeconomic status. Due to a too low number of participants in one of the conditions, this effect was not possible to test in ANOVA.

Table 16 Interaction effects Marital status x SES

		Marital status	
		Low	High
Status	Low	2.692 ^{a c} (1.437)	1.894 ^{a d} (1.408)
	High	^{.b c}	2.054 ^{b d} (1.485)

^a Significant difference in Marital status for Low Status, $F_{(1,243)} = 3.669$, $p < .05$

^b Not possible to estimate difference in Marital status for High Status, $F_{(0,243)}$

^c Not possible to estimate difference in status for Low Marital status, $F_{(0,243)}$

^d No significant difference in Status for High Marital status, $F_{(1,243)} = .695$, $p > .05$

SD in parenthesis

n = 246

H_{6b} proposes that low marital status and low socioeconomic status leads to an increased propensity for Luxury brand preference, compared to high marital status. The table indicates a significant difference in means between low marital status and high marital status in the low status condition. In this condition, parents of low marital status selected significantly more luxury brand items than parents of high marital status. This supports H_{6b}.

The purpose of H_{6d} is to test the interaction effect between Marital status and the Physical view dimension of Vanity and Status. Results from ANOVA show no interaction effect between these two variables, $F_{(1,242)} = .967$, $p > 0.05$.

5.7. Summary of data analysis and testing of hypotheses

Table 17 Summary of results

Hypothesis	Dir.	F-value	Sig. value	Conclusion
H ₁ (Status →LBP)	-	2.461	p < 0.10	Weak support
H _{2a} (SC →LBP)	+	1.739	p < 0.10	Weak support
H _{2b} (High SC x Low Status)	-	1.113	p < 0.01	Not supported*
H _{3b} (PV→LBP)	-	4.366	p < 0.05	Not supported*
H _{3d} (High PV x High SC)	-	3.164	p < 0.05	Not supported*
H _{4a} (VAN-AC→LBP)	+	.437	p > 0.05	Not supported
H _{4c} (High VAN AC x Low Status)	+	2.122	p < 0.10	Weak support
H _{4e} (High AC x High SC)	+	.082	p > 0.05	Not supported*
H _{5a} (EMP→LBP)	-	1.035	p > 0.05	Not supported
H _{5b} (High EMP x High AC)	+	2.199	p < 0.10	Weak support
H _{6a} (Marital status → LBP)	-	3.220	p < 0.05	Supported
H _{6b} (Low Marital status x Low status)	+	3.669	p < 0.05	Supported
H _{6d} (Low Marital status x High Physical view)	+	.967	p > 0.05	Not supported

*The relationship is supported, but not the direction of the relationship.

Only two of the thirteen hypotheses are supported on a 5% level, while four additional hypotheses are supported in the relationship, but not the direction. Weak support is developed for four of the remaining hypotheses. Hypothesis H_{3ac} and H_{3bdf} were not tested. Results of MANCOVA indicate that the overall model is not severely influenced by introducing gender of child as a control variable. However, investigating this variable may be an idea for further studies, as it is weakly significant: $F_{(1,205)} = 2.216$, $p < 0.10$ (Attachment M). Results will be discussed in chapter 5, which will also include implications of the findings, limitations of the study, as well as suggestions for further research.

6. Discussion

In this chapter, results from the experiment will be discussed. Implications of these results are examined, from both a managerial view and a consumer welfare point-of-view. Finally, limitations of the research are reported, before introducing suggestions for further research.

A very brief and concise purpose of the thesis is to answer the research questions. As mentioned previously, the research questions sought answered in this thesis are as follows:

Research question 1: How does parents' level of socioeconomic status and marital status influence conspicuous consumption of brand clothing on children's behalves?

Research question 2: How does parents' level of innate characteristics such as vanity, self-consciousness and parental empathy influence their conspicuous consumption of brand clothing on children's behalves?

Based on these research questions several hypotheses were constructed, hoping to provide answers, or at least insight, into these questions. While the original theoretical framework of conspicuous consumption coined by Veblen (1899) focused on describing the act of conspicuous consumption and the consequences of this, this thesis is dedicated to investigating the motivations behind the consumption – what drives parents to consume conspicuously on children's behalves, and which personality traits are more important drivers than others? While a considerable amount of research has been devoted to conspicuous consumption on a more general basis, carried out by individuals, the concept is rarely investigated in the context of family consumption or even with vicarious consumption. This thesis contributes to insight that can be useful from both a managerial view, and a consumer-welfare view. With both positive and negative connotations, the results can be perceived as a double-edged sword that brings up important ethical considerations.

6.1. Discussion of results

While the experiment was originally developed as two studies, these should be seen in the same context and were investigated together. The only difference between these two studies was that the in the first study participants were presented with clothing items displayed with correct captions and logos. In the second study participants were presented with clothing items where labels and logos had been switched for luxury and retail items of clothing..

Investigating whether highly self-conscious individuals would select significantly more luxury brand items in both Study 1 and Study 2 would indicate whether highly self-conscious individuals place more emphasis on the brand and/or logo than the actual product.

6.1.1. The effect of Socioeconomic Status on Luxury Brand Preference

Weak support was found for H1, which tests the relationship between socioeconomic status and luxury brand preference. It was predicted that that the low status group would select a higher number of luxury brand items than the high status group, with the compensatory hypothesis as the ground premise. Based on the theories of Rucker and Galinsky (2008), parents of low socioeconomic status should have a greater need to consume conspicuously, to alleviate their feeling of powerlessness and to conceal their lack of resources.

Results indicate a negative relationship between status and luxury brand preference, as predicted. This implies that parents of lower socioeconomic status have chosen a significantly higher share of expensive luxury clothing for their children than parents of higher socioeconomic status. The significantly lower income of lower socioeconomic status group, compared to the higher socioeconomic status group, suggests that parents of lower social strata should have a lower preference for luxury brands, from an economic point of view. However, as the compensatory hypothesis suggests, parents experiencing a state of powerlessness might seek to attenuate this state through consumption. Selecting more high-class brands of clothing for their children can therefore be viewed as a strategy of coping with low power and/or low amount of resources. Although owning expensive Tommy Hilfiger sweaters or Dior dresses does not increase parents' power or resources directly, owning these products may give the parents a feeling of accomplishment or pride. Furthermore, the signaling effect that these items have to other people might motivate parents of low status to consume conspicuously through children's clothing. To parents of higher status, how others view their status or class belonging might be less important, since they feel more belonging to a higher group of status. Hence, using consumption to underline their status may be less central to these parents.

Socioeconomic status could be seen in context of status-consciousness. O'Cass and Frost (2002) found a positive relationship between individuals' susceptibility to interpersonal influence and status-consciousness. They also discovered that status-conscious individuals ascribed greater status to the focal brands of their study, and perceived them to have higher value, leading to a higher purchase intention. This implies that status-conscious parents might

be more strongly guided to choose brands that are associated with brands which communicate status: “Brands that have characteristics that provide status can provide entry into groups and allow consumers to fit in by portraying a particular image” (O’Cass and Frost 2002).

6.1.2. The effect of Public Self-consciousness on Luxury Brand Preference

Results show that public self-consciousness has a weakly significant main effect on luxury brand preference, and the relationship is positive, supporting H1. This reinforces the belief that parents exhibiting a high degree of self-consciousness have a higher likelihood for consuming branded items of clothing for their children, compared to parents who exhibit a low degree of self-consciousness. This may indicate that self-conscious individuals are not only concerned with how they are perceived by others, but also how their children are perceived by others. This could ultimately derive from the parents’ concern of how they are perceived, with the children playing the part as a reflection of their parents, and enhancing their children’s image could reflect favorably on parents and the family as a whole. It could also originate from a selfless desire to give their children a chance to be viewed positively by their peers, hoping that this will yield certain benefits for the child. Publicly self-conscious individuals are known to value the opinions of others more than less self-conscious individuals (Bushman 1993) and are more likely to use self-presentation strategies to gain approval from others (e.g. Doherty and Schlenker 1991 in Bushman 1993). This further supports the hypothesis that parents high in public self-consciousness are more attracted to luxury brands of children’s apparel, compared to parents who are less publicly self-conscious. Clothing products are highly noticeable items, and are observable for others. Hence it is likely that parents exhibiting a high level of public self-consciousness view clothing as an effective product category for conspicuous consumption.

The main effect of self-consciousness is significant and positive in both the condition where images of clothing are described with correct captions and logos/labels, and in the condition where captions and logos/labels have been switched. This indicates that self-conscious parents are more guided by the “label effect” than less self-conscious parents. On average, self-conscious parents selected significantly more items of luxury brand clothing than their less self-conscious peers. For the switched-brands condition this means that self-conscious parents chose branded items in spite of the origin of the items being switched. Ultimately, this means that parents prone to public self-consciousness are more likely to choose the brand itself, rather than the items of clothing, compared to parents displaying a

lower level of self-consciousness. This is similar to what was seen in Bushman (1993), where labels on jars of peanut butter were switched. Self-conscious individuals were found to evaluate upmarket brands of peanut as more favorable than cheaper brands, regardless of the actual product tasted. Bushman concluded that labels have significant meaning for the publicly self-conscious consumer, and this is supported by this experiment.

H_{2b} was also supported, implying an interaction effect of self-consciousness and socioeconomic status on luxury brand preference. A closer examination of the interaction effects between status and self-consciousness reveals a significant difference in means between low and high status in the high self-consciousness condition, with high status parents choosing the most luxury brands. This implies that for parents prone to high self-consciousness, high status parents are more attracted to luxury apparel for children than low status parents. This contradicts H1, which found that low status promoted luxury brand preference. There are also significant differences in means between low and high self-consciousness in the high status condition, in favor of the high self-consciousness group. This supports H_{2a}, which found that public self-consciousness increases luxury brand preference.

6.1.3. The effect of Physical Vanity on Luxury Brand Preference

As previously mentioned, the Vanity construct is examined through four dimensions; two related to physical appearance, and two related to professional achievements. Furthermore, Physical vanity is divided into concern for physical appearance (Physical concern) and view of own physical appearance (Physical view). The same division is made for Achievement vanity; concern for achievements (Achievement concern) and view of own achievements (Achievement view).

Results indicate a main effect of vanity in terms of physical view on luxury brand preference, supporting H_{3a}. This implies a significant effect of parents' view of own physical appearance on choice of clothing for children. Based on existing literature, which has noted a positive relationship between physical vanity and use of appearance-enhancing products (e.g. Netemeyer et al. 1995), the predicted direction of the relationship was positive. However, results indicate a negative direction on the relationship, suggesting that parents with a less favorable impression of how they look have a larger likelihood for consuming conspicuously. While this contradicts existing literature on the vanity construct, this might be seen as a compensation approach, which is often seen in situations where consumers feel inferior (e.g. Rucker and Galinsky 2008). Dressing children in luxury brands of clothing can be viewed as a

strategy for enhancing the parents' own image or appearance. Perhaps buying luxury brands for their children is a conscious, or unconscious, strategy of directing attention away from their own appearance and over to the children's appearance. Receiving compliments on the way their children are dressed might increase the parent's low self-esteem, alleviating the feeling of insecurity. An example of this might be beauty pageants for children: "Like parents with children in sports, pageant mothers have been accused of living vicariously through their children" (Hetsley and Calhoun 2003).

The vanity dimension *Physical concern*, which measured how preoccupied parents are with their physical appearance, was excluded as result of discriminant validity analysis due to it being too similar the public self-consciousness construct. Yet, since Physical view showed this surprising finding of a negative direction, Physical concern was tested out of curiosity, and it showed a significant yet positive main effect on luxury brand preference. This is consistent with Netemeyer et al. (1995). This suggests that the concern for one's appearance is positively related to choice of luxury brands, while the view of one's appearance is negatively related to luxury brand preference. These findings should however be interpreted with caution, due to this dimension's resemblance with the public self-consciousness construct.

H_{3d} investigated the interaction effect between view of physical appearance and public self-consciousness on Luxury brand preference. The same surprising finding as in H_{3b} was found, with regards to low physical view promoting luxury brand preference, this time in interaction with both high and low self-consciousness. This accentuates that parents' view of own physical appearance is an important indicator of level of attraction to luxury brands for children.

6.1.4. The effect of Achievement Concern Vanity on Luxury Brand Preference

Although there is no support for H_{4a}, which tested the main effect of achievement concern on Luxury brand preference, the direction of the relationship seems to be positive, as predicted. The achievement concern dimension of vanity measured how preoccupied parents were with professional success and accomplishments, and this concern has previously been associated with materialism and status concern (Netemeyer et al. 1995), and hence the predicted direction was positive. This was supported, indicating that parents who are concerned with occupational success and being recognized for their achievements are more likely to consume

conspicuously than parents who are less concerned with accomplishments as symbols of success.

Receiving positive feedback that the work we have performed is satisfactory, and being recognized by others are basic human needs, often studied in the context of organization psychology, e.g. for job satisfaction (e.g. Kaufmann and Kaufann 2004). However, some parents attach greater importance to this than others. In this study, Achievement concern was seen to correlate positively with both income and education, which may indicate that parents who are concerned with accomplishments achieve more success – if success is measured on these dimensions. Alternatively, it might mean that having higher education and higher income drives a need for and expectations of recognition and achievements. Regardless of the causality of this relationship, parents with higher focus on professional achievements generally have a larger income at their disposal, which might contribute to why achievement-oriented parents are more likely to consume conspicuously.

Individuals who are concerned with achieving success are likely to also be more concerned with displaying this success, which they have worked hard to accomplish. Hence, parents with high achievement concern might view their children as an excellent opportunity for displaying their success and wealth, much like what was originally described in Veblen's 1899 book "*The Theory of the Leisure Class*".

As mentioned previously, the other dimensions of Achievement vanity was removed as a consequence of the discriminant analysis, in which Achievement view and Achievement concern were shown to be too similar. After discovering that Achievement concern did not have a significant effect on luxury brand preference, the relationship between Achievement view and Luxury brand preference was investigated, uncovering a significant main effect between the two. This may imply that parents with a favorable impression of own achievements are more inclined towards selecting luxury brands. As with the Physical concern dimension of Physical vanity, this finding should also be interpreted with caution.

The interaction effect between achievement concern and socioeconomic status was investigated in H_{4c}. Results weakly indicated that combined with low socioeconomic status, high achievement concern lead to an increased probability for luxury brand preference, compared to high socioeconomic status. This suggests that for parents concerned with achievements, parents of low status are more inclined towards conspicuous consumption than parents of higher status. There are also significant differences in means between parents of

low and high achievement concern for the high status condition, suggesting that for parents of high status, parents who exhibit high achievement concern are more likely to consume conspicuously than parents with low achievement concern.

H_{4e} examines the interaction effect between achievement concern and self-consciousness. Although the hypothesis predicted that high achievement concern and high self-consciousness interacted to increase luxury brand preference, results indicated significant differences between low and high self-consciousness only in the low achievement concern condition. This effect was positive, and in the low achievement concern condition significant differences also existed, and this effect was also positive. From this can be interpreted that public self-consciousness and achievement concern increase luxury brand preference together, however only in the low vanity/low self-consciousness conditions.

6.1.5. The effect of Parental empathy on Luxury Brand Preference

No support was found for H_{5a}, the hypothesis testing Parental empathy and the effect of the concept on conspicuous consumption. Results indicated that the relationship showed a negative direction, which is opposite of what was predicted. A possible explanation for this might be that parents who exhibit a high degree of parental empathy have values which conflict with luxury brand-buying behavior. Rather than simply buying luxury brands for their children, and hence contributing to increase the pressure of owning luxury brands, parents who are prone to high parental empathy might be more concerned with communicating that brands are unnecessary and unhealthy for children.

Parental empathy is linked with empathy at a more general level (Letourneau 1981 in Kilpatrick 2012), and hence high parental empathy might manifest itself in parents caring not only about the needs of one's own children, but other children, or other people in general. It is therefore less likely that highly empathetic parents should want to participate in increasing the pressure to live up to certain standards of luxury brand ownership, when this conflicts with public interest. While a concern for physical attractiveness can lead to positive behavior such as exercising and healthy eating, it has also been associated with several harmful trends, e.g. eating disorders and excessive use of elective cosmetic surgery (Netemeyer et al. 1995). While fear of these negative tendencies might be one of the factors influencing parents high in parental empathy to avoid buying luxury brands for children, parents displaying lower parental empathy might be less concerned with, or less aware of, these risks.

Additionally, for parents prone to lower levels of parental empathy, filling their own needs for status and recognition through the act of conspicuous consumption might be a higher priority than meeting the children's needs. Low parental empathy has previously been associated with child maltreatment and egoism, and according to Newberger and White in Kilpatrick (2012) "Some parents, the more dysfunctional and abusive, remain in the highly egocentric phase and are thus unable to perceive their children except in terms of their own needs". Although the parents of this study are normal parents who are in no way suspected of child maltreatment, exploring the parental empathy construct must be done on the grounds of previous theories. While denim jeans from Burberry certainly look charming on a toddler, they might not fulfill the child's needs for clothing that is practical and comfortable. However, skinny jeans from H&M might not do that either.

H_{5b} tests the interaction effect of parental empathy and achievement concern. The hypothesized direction of this relationship predicted that a high level of parental empathy and a high concern for achievements would together increase the probability for luxury brand preference. Although the main hypothesis of parental empathy, H_{5a}, indicated a negative effect on luxury brand preference, interaction results demonstrate that together with high achievement concern, parents with high parental empathy exhibit a larger probability for consuming conspicuously. This implies that parents who are aware of, and concerned with, satisfying their children's needs and at the same time concerned with succeeding professionally have a higher probability of selecting luxury brands for their children, compared to parents exhibiting lower parental empathy.

6.1.6. The effect of Marital Status on Luxury Brand Preference

Results show a main effect of marital status on luxury brand preference. The direction of the relationship is negative, as predicted. This indicates that parents of low marital status (single or divorced) are more inclined towards luxury brand preference. An independent samples T-test reveals that there are significant differences in both income and education between parents of low and high marital status, in favor of the high marital status group. This supports existing theory that single-parent households have less financial resources, on average.

However, in spite of lacking resources, single and divorced parents in the study have selected a significantly higher number of luxury brand items for their children than parents who are in a relationship, cohabitants or married. This suggests that, as predicted, parents of low marital status show a larger willingness to sacrifice their scarce resources to consume

conspicuously. The motivation of parents of low marital status can be compared with the motivation of low socioeconomic parents: compensating through consumption. As discussed in Chapter 6.1.1. The effect of socioeconomic status on luxury brand preference, a state of low status can be related to a state of powerlessness, since power encompasses the feeling or actual loss of control of one's own behavior or the behavior of others. Marital status can also be viewed as a state of powerlessness, a state that many try to escape. Some do so through status consumption, since status signals power. Since parents of low marital status exhibit a significantly higher probability of consuming luxury brands for their children than parents of high marital status, this suggests that single or divorced parents are more concerned with displaying status through consumption than parents who are in a relationship.

Perhaps conspicuous consumption of single and divorced parents emulates from a desire to create an image of oneself as successful in spite of their marital status, or a wish to distance oneself from other individuals of low marital status. This may ultimately increase the chances of moving from the low marital status group to the high marital status group, which might be the overarching goal of some single-parents.

H_{6b} tested the interaction effect between Socioeconomic status and Marital status. Results indicate a weak interaction effect between these variables. After examining the cell means of low and high groups, it becomes clear that there is a significant difference in marital status for Low Status. This means that for parents of low status there is a significant difference in means between parents of low marital status and parents of high marital status. Parents of both low status and low marital status selected the highest number of luxury brand items, suggesting that low status and low marital status in interaction has synergetic implications. A parent experiencing both low status and low marital status in combination might exacerbate the feeling of loneliness or powerlessness, creating an ever greater need to compensate through consumption.

H_{6d} posits that together with low marital status, high physical view has a positive effect on luxury brand preference. It was predicted that parents of lower marital status would exhibit a greater need to compensate through consumption than parents of high status. However, no interaction effect between the two is found. This may have severe implications on the financial situation of parents comprising this group, whose economy is generally not good to start with. Consuming more than one can afford can send families into accumulation of debt. As Rucker and Galinsky (2008) suggest: "Those low in socioeconomic status might

be most inclined to price premiums, which might lead to a downward spiral of constantly spending beyond one's means in order to compensate for low power".

6.2. Practical implications

Several important implications emerge from the findings of this study. Level of public self-consciousness plays an essential role in parents' choice of luxury brand apparel for children. The experiment has shown that by increasing parents' self-consciousness, number of exclusive brand items becomes significantly higher.

The study identifies public self-consciousness, view of own physical appearance, and marital status as the most noteworthy social and psychological traits determining conspicuous consumption on children's behalves. For business owners, this implies that parents inhabiting these characteristics should be more susceptible for persuasion to buy their products. A challenge associated with discovering strategies for targeting individuals possessing these traits may be to discover how to identify these individuals.

The negative effect of socioeconomic status on luxury brand preference suggests that parents of lower socioeconomic status are more susceptible for advertisements depicting increased status and social benefits. In their communication of luxury clothing for children to low status parents, advertisers should incite feelings of prestige and belonging. However, this strategy should be pursued with caution. The challenge connected with targeting low status parents is that parents of higher status buy these luxurious brands for their children to express their uniqueness and taste. These parents might not wish to be associated with, or have their children associated with, parents or children of lower status. Making the products available for "everybody" will also contribute to reducing the perceived exclusivity of the brand. Park et al. (1986) argue that an important positioning strategy for a brand with a symbolic concept is to maintain group- or self-image based associations. They argue that symbolic brands should engage in what they refer to as market shielding: "protecting the target segment can be done by making consumption more difficult for non-targeted customers", i.e. by raising the price or making the products unattainable in other ways. This ultimately depends on the ultimate goal of the business, whether this is long-term brand management and sustainability or merely short-term profits.

Results indicate that public self-consciousness is an important driver of luxury brand preference, and consequently conspicuous consumption. This makes parents high in self-

consciousness a major target for luxury brands. Since the highly self-conscious consumer attaches importance to the social and signaling benefits of conspicuous consumption, this is something which should be emphasized in luxury brands' positioning strategy targeted towards self-conscious parents. While there are benefits of this consumption for both parents and children, focusing on the benefits of the parents is likely to yield the most desirable results. Parents who are high in self-consciousness are also more prone to interpersonal influence, suggesting marketing through e.g. blogs, personal recommendations and social media as options worth exploring, as these channels are interpersonal in nature. When it comes to implications for consumers regarding these findings, a question raised is whether parents high in self-consciousness pass this quality on to their children by consuming in this way. A heightened level of self-consciousness in children may have several unfortunate consequences, e.g. eating disorders, fixation on appearances or low self-esteem.

The effect of parents' view of own physical appearance on luxury brand preference advocates that parents with low regard of their looks are more prone to dress children in luxury attire, to enhance parents' own self-image. Emphasizing benefits of beauty and using attractive models in the luxury brand's marketing mix is likely to have a positive influence on parents who feel inadequate when it comes to attractiveness. Lacking physical appearance might be viewed as motivation for compensation through conspicuous consumption. There are however ethical considerations to make when preying at other people's dissatisfaction with themselves. What about the message this is sending to the children who are the "trophies" or vessels of these strategies employed by adults? Is it right to teach children that in order to succeed in life, you need to look a certain way, or own certain kinds of products?

Parents exhibiting a high concern for achievements demonstrate a larger probability for consuming conspicuously, compared with parents who have a lower concern for this. Parents high in achievement concern are preoccupied with having their accomplishments appreciated and admired by others. These parents want their children to manifest as trophies of their merits, and are likely to be motivated by Veblenian theories, which suggest that people engage in conspicuous consumption to demonstrate wealth and success. Ideas such as "You have earned it" or "You deserve it" might be a message that can be communicated to these parents, as a way to satisfy their need for recognition, as well as signaling prestige and success through the brand's image.

The weakly negative effect of parental empathy on choice of luxury item for children suggests that parents exhibiting a lower level of parental empathy are more prone to conspicuous consumption. This can be argued to stem from a failure to put the child's needs first, and rather prioritizing the parents' own needs, for e.g. status and admiration from other parents. Parents displaying low parental empathy are less likely to allow their children to influence the choice of clothing, so for these parents, communications should be directed towards parents directly, rather than to the children. Findings may be an indicator that highly empathic parents are more concerned with protecting children from the negative impacts of consuming conspicuously, compared with less empathic parents.

The effect of marital status on luxury brand preference suggests that parents of low marital status display a greater propensity for conspicuous consumption. This implies that single and divorced parents are disposed for luxury consumption through the act of compensation. However, there are risks involved with a symbolic brand targeting low marital status parents, as discussed with socioeconomic status. There are also negative implications for the family unit associated with overspending. According to Rucker and Galinsky (2008), consumers regularly exposed to states of low power might be more disposed to overspending and gaining large amounts of debt, as result of an increased willingness to pay for status products. "The problem might be exacerbated when feelings of powerlessness are derived from an actual lack of resources, especially given power's link with socioeconomic status" (French and Raven 1959; Keltner et al. 2003).

6.3. Limitations

Although this research thesis has succeeded to answer the research questions, some limitations and shortcomings were evident. Experiments will never represent a perfect reflection of reality, due to the trade-off between external and internal validity. Bollen (1989) claims that a major limitation of causal design is that "We can only reject a model – we can never prove a model to be valid". We can however develop support for the validity of the model, increasing our belief that the model is correct.

The distribution of female and male respondents in the sample is an important limitation of the study, since very few men participated. However, like previously argued female consumers exhibit greater interest and desire for fashion than men, and are viewed as the key decision makers when it comes to the decision-making process for the family's

clothing. Although differences are expected to exist between female and male consumers, both motivations for conspicuous consumption and for the extent to which parents employ this strategy for impressing others are also expected. This makes generalizing findings to the entire parent population difficult, and should be done with caution. This is viewed as one of the consequences of using a non-probability sample. In the future this could be overcome by selecting recruitment channels where potential male respondents are more present.

The distribution of marital status among parents also demonstrated skewness in favor of parents in a relationship; dating, cohabitating or marriage. Relatively few parents were categorized as being of “Low marital status”. Although the distribution generally represents society, for future studies, attempting to include more single-parents, or performing studies on single-parents as consumers might give important insight into their purchase patterns.

Another relevant limitation of the study is the notion that social media has been used to recruit respondents, and hence parents who are not active in social media have consequently been excluded from participating. Although an increasing number of Norwegian parents have embraced social media, this does not encompass all parents. It is unfortunate to exclude such a large group in the event that there are differences between parents who are active in social media and those who are not. It has been suggested that social media might raise self-consciousness (Mehdizadeh 2010). Including parents who are not members of social media sites would give the possibility to investigate any differences between social media users and non-users.

There are also limitations regarding the experimental setting as basis for evaluating the items of clothing. In a real-life setting, consumers would be able to make inferences from more attributes than merely looking at the object. Parents would for instance be able to judge the quality of the clothing through several sensory experiences, such as touching and physically trying the clothing on the children. Although online shopping is a booming trend, most online shops offer images of much better quality, and the possibility to zoom and view the products from different angles. This was not possible to accommodate in this thesis, due to limited resources. As previously discussed, price could have been included as an element in the experiment, to make the experiment more realistic. However, this would have removed focus from the brands and might have created a price effect. These elements, among others, are likely to separate the experiment from a real-life setting, and lead to other choices in the experiment than consumers’ choice in real-life. Despite these limitations, parents’ choices of

clothing items in the experiments are likely to represent their attitudes towards the different brands.

Although most of the variables in the study showed good qualities for validity and reliability, parental empathy has proven to be a less valid and reliable construct than what was hoped. Items seemed unrelated, and correlations followed the reverse scoring. Hence items that were reverse coded were correlated with each other, but not with items that were not subject to reverse scoring. This is an obvious shortcoming of this scale, which might be better suited for dichotomous scoring (Agree/Disagree), like it originally was used. Consequently, few significant results were produced from the parental empathy construct. Using more renowned and validated scales of empathy at a more general level may be advised in this context.

Originally, the experiment in the thesis consisted of two separate experiments, which were later combined. This poses a threat to the reliability of the study, since the randomization in regards to assigning participants to one of the two experiments is not perfect. However, due to limited time and resources, and problems with the data collection, creating two versions of the same survey was a less complicated procedure. Study 1 was the condition in which pictures of clothing item's portrayed with correct brand names displayed underneath, and logos and/or tags were original. In Study 2, the brand names underneath were switched between luxury items and retail/chain items, making luxury items look cheap and retail items look expensive. Any logos or trademarks of the brands were also switched.

There are also limitations associated with removing cases from a study, as this can be considered tampering with the data material. In total, 47 cases were removed from the study, most of these based on a failure to complete the writing task (manipulation), at a minimal level. Although this meant altering the data, removing these cases was a sacrifice which was necessary to make in order to retain only participants who in fact had been open to manipulation.

Difficulties of elicitation

Many Norwegians are believers in a "classless" society, and hereby attempts of anyone to separate oneself from the rest can be viewed as snobbish. Norwegians take great pride in their society and the ideal of equal opportunities for all people, regardless of their status or position, which probably is one of the reasons why Norway usually ranks as one of the top countries when it comes to social mobility and intergenerational mobility (i.e. reports

by Centre for Economic Performance at the London School of Economics 2005; Corak 2006).

Attempts to deviate from this ideal is likely to make it more challenging to be a conspicuous consumer in Norway, creating a strong need to defend conspicuous consumption behavior. Many rationalize their splurging on brand clothing by holding brand clothing's superior quality as the number one criteria when selecting clothing for their children. In other words, these consumers try to cover up their acts of consumption as being simply utilitarian, and claim that it has nothing to do with neither status nor signaling effects. As mentioned previously, Prendergast and Wong (2003) found that mothers' consumption of infant luxury apparel was primarily driven by a desire for good quality and design. They find no evidence that mothers buying luxury brands are motivated by the social visibility factor. The findings are especially surprising due to the location in which the research took place; Hong Kong, which is known to be a place where conspicuous consumption is prevalent. The authors mention several limitations to their study as an attempt to gain insight into why the expected results were not found, yet they fail to mention one central issue: elicitation problems related to this field of research.

Research at the individual level is made particularly difficult by the special nature of status-seeking consumption. First, consumers who intend to purchase for reasons associated with social esteem and recognition will often deny that their market behavior is determined by status-seeking motives. Such denials are rational, for societies generally insist that social recognition and status is conferred upon but not overtly sought by individuals. Whilst there is some evidence to suggest that, in more recent years, younger consumers have been showing a greater willingness to admit to status-seeking expenditures, the taboos surrounding overt and conspicuous consumption are still strong. (Mason 1992).

This implies that many might over-emphasize the utilitarian function of products, such as the superior quality of clothing, because this is a more rational, socially acceptable purpose for buying such an expensive product. This notion is something that should be kept in mind throughout the whole research process, from selecting research design to interpreting results.

6.4. Suggestions for further research

Several ideas for future research have been ignited from carrying out this research thesis. Examining the relationship between power and conspicuous consumption would give important answers to whether powerlessness drives motivation to impress others with consumption. Power is closely related to the status concept. Low socioeconomic status can be seen as a form of powerlessness. Also, status is regarded as one of several sources of power, and according to Fiske and Berdahl (2007), obtaining or demonstrating status is one way to

obtain or restore power in a state of powerlessness. Rucker and Galinsky hypothesized that people experiencing a feeling of powerlessness will seek to compensate for and diminish these feelings through increasing their status, i.e. through consuming high-status products. They found that high-status products could serve a compensatory purpose for states of low power. Also, evidence found that placing consumers in a state of low power increased their desire to acquire status-related products.

Also, since support has been found for the relationship between public self-consciousness and luxury brand preference, it would be interesting to investigate whether private self-consciousness also has a significant effect on parents' choice of luxury brands. Existing literature on this construct suggests that private self-consciousness is often connected with awareness of the more personal and covert aspects of the self, and that a person high in private self-consciousness is very cognizant of his or her own thoughts, feelings and motives (Fenigstein et al. 1975). Hence, parents exhibiting a high level of private self-consciousness might have different, or even opposite motivations for consuming conspicuously than parents with high levels of public self-consciousness, e.g. aesthetics. Examining how the private self-conscious parent and the public self-conscious parent differ might explain more of the conspicuous consumption question.

As mentioned in Chapter 6.3. Limitations, the parental empathy construct lacked the validity and reliability results that the other constructs had. Using scales measuring empathy in general, i.e. The Hogan Empathy Scale (1969), The Interpersonal Reactivity Index by Davis (1980) or The Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy by Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) might yield answers concerning how empathy might guide luxury brand preference.

Investigating how marital status impacts choice of luxury items for other product categories is also relevant, as there should be considerable differences between people of low and high marital status. Consumers of low marital status might be more motivated to consume luxury items from categories that ultimately might alter their marital status from low to high, and hence reducing i.e. felt loneliness or powerlessness. A "side-effect" of increasing marital dissolution is manifested in the increasing trend of children having multiple homes. How does this impact parents' brand-buying behavior? Which parents choose to buy two wardrobes for their children, and do these wardrobes vary according to the level of the status and/or self-consciousness of the parents? Differences may be expected between high status parents and low status parents.

Other research constructs of interest include fashion involvement, status-concern and

the degree to which parents view children as an extension of themselves. As discovered during analysis, gender of child showed a weak effect on Luxury brand preference, and further investigating this difference between boys and girls may provide insight into how gender roles influence purchasing behavior.

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Attachment A - Survey

Velkommen til denne undersøkelsen!

Jeg er en masterstudent i markedsføring ved Høgskolen i Buskerud som holder på med den avsluttende masteroppgaven, og denne undersøkelsen utgjør min datainnsamling. Formålet med oppgaven er å undersøke hvordan personlige egenskaper påvirker klespreferanser hos foreldre.

Spørsmålene vil dreie seg om deg som person og hvordan du ser på deg selv, og i løpet av undersøkelsen bes du om å velge mellom ulike klær til ditt barn. Undersøkelsen vil ta ca. 12-15 minutter. Etter undersøkelsen er avsluttet vil det bli trukket en vinner av et gavekort på 500 kr fra Polarn O. Pyret. Vinneren vil bli kontaktet via e-post, og dette er den eneste årsaken til at e-postadressen oppbevares inntil undersøkelsen er avsluttet. Dersom du ikke har blitt kontaktet via e-post, men trykket på link til undersøkelsen, kan du oppgi e-post adresse i slutten av undersøkelsen dersom du ønsker å være med i trekningen. Dette er imidlertid helt valgfritt.

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste (NSD). Det er frivillig å være med og du har mulighet til å trekke deg når som helst underveis, uten å måtte begrunne dette nærmere. Dersom du trekker deg vil alle innsamlede data om deg bli anonymisert. Opplysningene vil bli behandlet konfidensielt, og ingen enkeltpersoner vil kunne gjenkjennes i den ferdige oppgaven. Opplysningene anonymiseres og e-post adressene slettes når oppgaven er ferdig, innen 15. mai.

Hvis du har spørsmål kan jeg kontaktes på tlf: 97 08 56 22, e-post: lena.bjorlo@gmail.com. Du kan også kontakte min veileder Cathrine von Ibenfeldt ved Markedshøgskolen på tlf: 90 92 92 33.

Med vennlig hilsen

Lena Vatne Bjørlo

Jeg har lest skriftlig informasjon ovenfor og er villig til å delta i studien.

Sex	Er du mann eller kvinne?
Kvinne	<input type="radio"/> 1
Mann	<input type="radio"/> 2

Number_children	Hvor mange barn har du?
Ingen	<input type="radio"/> 1
Ett barn	<input type="radio"/> 2
To barn	<input type="radio"/> 3
Tre barn	<input type="radio"/> 4
Fire barn eller flere	<input type="radio"/> 5

Birth_year	I hvilket år ble barnet født? Dersom du har mer enn ett barn, vennligst oppgi fødselsår for ditt yngste barn.
Fødselsår	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> 1

random	Random variabel
Fylles inn automatisk	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> 1

delutvalg	Eksperiment delutvalg
Del 1	<input type="radio"/> 1
Del 2	<input type="radio"/> 2

SC_High	Vennligst skriv et avsnitt med fem setninger om hvordan du er forskjellig fra dine venner, familie eller andre mennesker generelt. F.eks. "Jeg er veldig tålmodig. Jeg er mer opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut enn andre jeg kjenner. Jeg er over gjennomsnittet opptatt av interiør og møbler. Jeg er interessert i gjenbruk. Jeg har et bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold."
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SC_Low	Hvilken film var den siste du så på kino?
	Open

Public_SC_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er vanligvis bevisst på utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av måten jeg presenterer meg selv på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er selvbevisst på hvordan jeg ser ut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg bekymrer meg vanligvis over å gjøre et godt inntrykk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
En av de siste tingene jeg gjør før jeg forlater huset er å se meg i speilet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av hva andre mennesker syns om meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av å gjøre ting på min egen måte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

VAN_Physical_concern	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken	Litt enig	Enig	Svært

VAN_Physical_concern	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	uenig		uenig eller enig			enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Måten jeg ser ut på er utrolig viktig for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1
Jeg er veldig opptatt av utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 2
Jeg ville blitt flau hvis jeg var rundt andre og ikke så ut så bra som mulig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 3
Å se best mulig ut er verdt anstrengelsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 4
Det er viktig at jeg alltid ser bra ut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 5

VAN_Physical_view	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Andre legger merke til hvor tiltrekkende jeg er	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1
Utseendet mitt er veldig tiltalende for andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 2
Andre er misunnelige på utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 3
Jeg er en veldig tiltrekkende person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 4
Kroppen min er seksuelt tiltalende	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 5
Jeg har den type kropp som andre liker å se på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 6

Att_filt1	Hva heter hovedstaden i Norge?
	Open

VAN_Achievement_concern	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Yrkesmessige oppnåelser er en besettelse for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1

VAN_Achievement_concern	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?								
Jeg vil at andre skal se opptil meg på grunn av oppnåelsene mine	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
Jeg er mer opptatt av yrkesmessig suksess enn de fleste vet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3
Å oppnå mer suksess enn andre er viktig for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Jeg ønsker at mine oppnåelser skal anerkjennes av andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5

VAN_Achievement_view	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I en yrkesmessig betydning er jeg en veldig fremgangsrik person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
Oppnåelsene mine er høyt ansett av andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
Jeg er en person som har oppnådd mye	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3
Jeg er et godt eksempel på yrkesmessig suksess	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Andre skulle ønske at de var like fremgangsrike som meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5

VAN_How_ofte	Hvor ofte...							
	Aldri	Nesten aldri	Kun ved spesielle anledninger	Noen ganger i måneden	Noen ganger i uka	Nesten hver dag	Hver dag	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
...bruker du sminke, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
...bruker du høyhælte sko, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
...tar du solarium, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3

VAN_How_ofte_n	Hvor ofte...								
...trener du, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4

VAN_Glasses	Bruker du briller eller kontaktlinser?	
Briller	<input type="radio"/>	1
Kontaktlinser	<input type="radio"/>	2
Begge deler	<input type="radio"/>	3
Ingen av delene	<input type="radio"/>	4

VAN_Contacts	Hvor ofte...							
	Aldri	Nesten aldri	Kun ved spesielle anledninger	Noen ganger i måneden	Noen ganger i uka	Nesten hver dag	Hver dag	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Bruker du kontaktlinser i stedet for briller?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1

Sex_child	Er ditt barn jente eller gutt?	
Jente	<input type="radio"/>	1
Gutt	<input type="radio"/>	2

	○ 1	
Burberry		KappAhl
	○ 2	
KappAhl		Burberry
	○ 3	
KappAhl		Tommy Hilfiger
	○ 4	
Burberry		Lindex
	○ 5	
Burberry		H&M
	○ 6	
Cubus		Dior

Figure 6 Girls' pants in survey

















	○ 1		○ 1
Lindex		Dior	
	○ 2		○ 2
Dior		H&M	
	○ 3		○ 3
Cubus		Ralph Lauren	
	○ 4		○ 4
Ralph Lauren		Cubus	
	○ 5		○ 5
KappAhl		GANT	
	○ 6		○ 6
Lindex		Burberry	
	○ 7		○ 7
Dior		Lindex	
	○ 8		○ 8
Ralph Lauren		Cubus	

Figure 7 Girls' sweaters in survey



H&M

○ 1



Dior



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 2



Ellos



Cubus

○ 3



Tommy Hilfiger



Dior

○ 4



H&M



GANT

○ 5



Lindex



H&M

○ 6



Ralph Lauren

Figure 8 Girls' t-shirts in survey



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 1



Ellos



H&M

○ 2



Dior



Ellos

○ 3



GANT



Ellos

○ 4



Tommy Hilfiger



Burberry

○ 5



KappAhl



Dior

○ 6



Lindex
Figure 9 Girls' skirts in survey



Figure 10 - Girls' cardigans in survey



H&M



Ralph Lauren

○ 1



GANT



H&M

○ 2



Lindex



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 3



Ralph Lauren



Ellos

○ 4



KappAhl



Burberry

○ 5



H&M

○ 6



Ralph Lauren



Hilfiger

Tommy

○ 7



H&M



Ralph Lauren

○ 8



Cubus

Figure 11 - Girls' dresses in survey



Cubus

○ 1



Ralph Lauren



KappAhl

○ 2



Ralph Lauren



Cubus

○ 3



GANT



Burberry

○ 4



KappAhl



GANT

○ 5



Lindex



Burberry

○ 6



H&M

Figure 12 - Boys' shirts in survey



Lindex

○ 1



Dior



Dior

○ 2



Cubus



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 3



Lindex



Ralph Lauren

○ 4



Ellos



Kappahl

○ 5



GANT Figure 13 Boys' pants in survey



Ralph Lauren



Ellos

○ 1



GANT



H&M

○ 2



Cubus



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 3



Lindex



GANT

○ 4



KappAhl



Burberry

○ 5



KappAhl



Dior

○ 6



Cubus



Ralph Lauren

○ 7



Tommy Hilfiger



KappAhl

○ 8



Burberry



Lindex

○ 9



Ralph Lauren



Cubus

○ 10

Figure 14 Boys' sweaters in survey



	○ 1	
Ellos		GANT
	○ 2	
Ralph Lauren		H&M
	○ 3	
Ellos		GANT
	○ 4	
GANT		Ellos
	○ 5	
Tommy Hilfiger		KappAhl
	○ 6	
Ellos		Tommy Hilfiger

Figure 15 Boys' cardigans in survey



Burberry



Ellos

○ 1



H&M



Tommy Hilfiger

○ 2



KappAhl



Dior

○ 5



H&M



Burberry

○ 6



Dior



KappAhl

○ 9

Figure 16 Boys' pants in survey



Dior



Lindex

○ 1



Ellos



GANT

○ 2



GANT



H&M

○ 3



Ellos



Ralph Lauren

○ 4



○ 5

H&M



Ralph Lauren



○ 6

Tommy

Hilfiger



H&M



○ 7

Tommy

Hilfiger



KappAhl



○ 8

Ellos



Tommy Hilfiger

Figure 17 Boys' t-shirts in survey

Att_filt2	Hvilket årstall er det nå?
	□ □ □ □ 1

EMP1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken enig eller uenig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg huskerveldig godt hvordan det føles å være barn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1
Hvis jeg vet at jeg har rett bryr jeg meg ikke om å høre på mitt barns synspunkter	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 2
Å være forelder er for det meste hardt arbeid, med lite glede	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 3
Noen barn er bare født rampete	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 4
Barn må læres fra de er små at de ikke vil oppnå noe ved å kreve oppmerksomhet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 5
Jeg mener det finnes en god del sannhet i det gamle uttrykket "barn skal sees og ikke høres"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 6
Før man straffer et barn mener jeg det er best å prøve å forestille seg hva som vil være den mest nyttige læringsopplevelsen, gitt situasjonen og barnets alder	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 7

EMP2	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken enig eller uenig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Barn nå til dags har det for enkelt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1
Barn skal alltd respektere og adlyde voksne, uansett hva det gjelder	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 2
Det er nokså vanskelig å være	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 3

EMP2	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
barn noen ganger								
En av de beste grunnene til å få et barn er at når du får barn så vil du ha noen som alltid vil virkelig være din	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Jeg tror det er viktigere å fortelle barn hva de gjør riktig enn å fortelle dem hva de gjør feil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5
Noen barn er for følsomme og tar seg alt for nær av kommentarer som er ment som en spøk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	6

VAN_Physical_concern_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Måten jeg ser ut på er utrolig viktig for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
Jeg er veldig opptatt av utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
Jeg ville blitt flau hvis jeg var rundt andre og ikke så ut så bra som mulig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3
Å se best mulig ut er verdt anstrengelsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Det er viktig at jeg alltid ser bra ut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5

VAN_Physical_view_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Andre legger merke til hvor tiltrekkende jeg er	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
Utseendet mitt er veldig tiltalende for andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2

VAN_Physical_view_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?								
Andre er misunnelige på utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3
Jeg er en veldig tiltrekkende person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Kroppen min er seksuelt tiltalende	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5
Jeg har den type kropp som andre liker å se på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	6

Att_filt1_1	Hva heter hovedstaden i Norge?
	Open

VAN_Achievement_concern_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Yrkesmessige oppnåelser er en besettelse for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
Jeg vil at andre skal se opptil meg på grunn av oppnåelsene mine	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
Jeg er mer opptatt av yrkesmessig suksess enn de fleste vet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3
Å oppnå mer suksess enn andre er viktig for meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4
Jeg ønsker at mine oppnåelser skal anerkjennes av andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5

VAN_Achievement_view_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?							
	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I en yrkesmessig betydning er jeg en veldig fremgangsrik person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1
Oppnåelsene mine er høyt ansett av andre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2
Jeg er en person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3

VAN_Achievement_view_1	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
som har oppnådd mye							
Jeg er et godt eksempel på yrkesmessig suksess	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 4
Andre skulle ønske at de var like fremgangsrike som meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 5

VAN_How_ofte_n_1	Hvor ofte...						
	Aldri	Nesten aldri	Kun ved spesielle anledninger	Noen ganger i måneden	Noen ganger i uka	Nesten hver dag	Hver dag
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
...bruker du sminke, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1
...bruker du høyhælte sko, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 2
...tar du solarium, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 3
...trener du, gjennomsnittlig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 4

VAN_Glasses_1	Bruker du briller eller kontaktlinser?	
Briller	<input type="radio"/>	1
Kontaktlinser	<input type="radio"/>	2
Begge deler	<input type="radio"/>	3
Ingen av delene	<input type="radio"/>	4

VAN_Contacts_1	Hvor ofte...						
	Aldri	Nesten aldri	Kun ved spesielle anledninger	Noen ganger i måneden	Noen ganger i uka	Nesten hver dag	Hver dag
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bruker du kontaktlinser i stedet for briller?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1

Age	Hvor gammel er du?	
Under 18 år	<input type="radio"/>	1
18-25 år	<input type="radio"/>	2

Age	Hvor gammel er du?
26-35 år	<input type="radio"/> 3
36-45 år	<input type="radio"/> 4
46-55 år	<input type="radio"/> 5
Over 55 år	<input type="radio"/> 6

Marital_status	Hva er din sivilstatus?
Enslig	<input type="radio"/> 1
Kjæreste	<input type="radio"/> 2
Samboer	<input type="radio"/> 3
Gift	<input type="radio"/> 4
Skilt	<input type="radio"/> 5

Zipcode	Hva er ditt postnummer? Dersom du ikke bor i Norge, vennligst skriv 0000.
Skriv inn postnummer <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> 1	

Socmed_active	Er du aktiv på sosiale medier? (Som for eksempel Facebook, Twitter, blogg eller lignende)
Ja	<input type="radio"/> 1
Nei	<input type="radio"/> 2

Socmed_which	Hvilke sosiale medier er du aktiv på?
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Instagram	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Pinterest	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
Forum	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Egen blogg	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Annet	<input type="checkbox"/> 7

Sosmed_photos	Hvor ofte...						
	Aldri	Nesten aldri	Kun ved spesielle anledninger	Noen ganger i måneden	Noen ganger i uka	Nesten hver dag	Hver dag
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Legger du ut bilder av barnet/barna ditt/dine på sosiale	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/> 1

Sosmed_photos	Hvor ofte... medier?
Lar du barnet/barna velge klær selv?	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> 2

Socmed_profile	Har du "åpen"/offentlig profil som er mulig for andre enn vennene dine å se på, eller "lukket"/privat profil som kun venner kan se?
Offentlig	<input type="radio"/> 1
Privat	<input type="radio"/> 2

Att_filt3	Hvilke farger har det norske flagget?
Gult og blått	<input type="radio"/> 1
Rødt og hvitt	<input type="radio"/> 2
Rødt, hvitt og blått	<input type="radio"/> 3


Income	Hva er din husstands årlige bruttoinntekt?
Under 200 000	<input type="radio"/> 1
200 000 – 399 999	<input type="radio"/> 2
400 000 – 599 999	<input type="radio"/> 3
600 000 – 799 999	<input type="radio"/> 4
800 000 – 999 999	<input type="radio"/> 5
Over 1 million	<input type="radio"/> 6
Ønsker ikke svare	<input type="radio"/> 7

Education	Hva er din høyeste fullførte utdanning? Velg riktig alternativ, eller tilsvarende.
Ungdomsskole	<input type="radio"/> 1
Videregående skole	<input type="radio"/> 2
Høgskolekandidat	<input type="radio"/> 3
Bachelorgrad	<input type="radio"/> 4
Videreutdanning	<input type="radio"/> 5
Mastergrad	<input type="radio"/> 6
Doktorgrad	<input type="radio"/> 7

Housing_type	Hvilken type bolig bor du i?
Hybel	<input type="radio"/> 1

Housing_type	Hvilken type bolig bor du i?
Leilighet	<input type="radio"/> 2
Firemannsbolig	<input type="radio"/> 3
Rekkehus	<input type="radio"/> 4
Tomannsbolig	<input type="radio"/> 5
Kjedet enebolig	<input type="radio"/> 6
Enebolig	<input type="radio"/> 7

Housing_own	Eier du boligen selv?
Ja	<input type="radio"/> 1
Nei	<input type="radio"/> 2

SES_ladder	Se for deg at dette er en stige som representerer hvor folk står i Norge. På toppen av stigen finne man de menneskene som har kommet best ut – de som har mest penger, høyest utdanning og de mest respekterte jobbene. På bunnen finner man de menneskene som har kommet dårligst ut – som har minst penger, lavest utdanning og de minst respekterte jobbene, eller ingen jobb. Jo høyere opp du befinner deg på denne stigen, desto nærmere er du menneskene helt på toppen, jo lavere nede, desto nærmere er du menneskene helt på bunnen.
	<p>Hvor ville du plassere deg selv på denne stigen? Vennligst velg et trinn fra 1 til 7, som du synes du befinner deg på dette tidspunktet i livet, sammenlignet med andre mennesker i Norge.</p> 
1	<input type="radio"/> 1
2	<input type="radio"/> 2
3	<input type="radio"/> 3
4	<input type="radio"/> 4
5	<input type="radio"/> 5
6	<input type="radio"/> 6
7	<input type="radio"/> 7

Clothing_signaling	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?
	<p>Svært uenig Uenig Litt uenig Verken uenig eller Litt enig Enig Svært enig</p>

Clothing_signaling	Hvor enig er du i disse utsagnene?						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Man kan si mye om en person ved å observere hva slags klær han/hun bruker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Man kan si mye om foreldrene til et barn ved å observere hva slags klær barnet bruker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg ser på mitt/mine barn som en representasjon av meg selv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg ser på mitt/mine barn som er representasjon av vår familie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Svært uenig	Uenig	Litt uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Litt enig	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jeg er vanligvis bevisst på utseendet mitt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av måten jeg presenterer meg selv på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er selvbevisst på hvordan jeg ser ut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg bekymrer meg vanligvis over å gjøre et godt inntrykk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
En av de siste tingene jeg gjør før jeg forlater huset er å se meg i speilet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av hva andre mennesker syns om meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er opptatt av å gjøre ting på min egen måte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

E_post	Dersom du ønsker å være med i trekningen av et gavekort kan du oppgi e-post adresse her, for kontakt. Dette er frivillig, og dersom du ikke ønsker å oppgi din e-post trykker du på neste.
Open	

Attachment B – List of online parent forums and Facebook groups

List of parent forums, which respondents were recruited from.

1. Tett Inntil: www.tettinntil.no
2. Nybakt Mamma: www.nybaktmamma.com
3. Foreldreportalen: www.foreldreportalen.no/forum
4. Din baby: www.klikk.no/forum/dinbaby/

List of Facebook groups, which respondents were recruited from

1. Barneutstyr Salg/Kjøp Stavanger/omegn
2. Barneklær og utstyr – kjøp og salg Kristiansund og omegn
3. Barneutstyr i Trondheimsområdet
4. Barneutstyr kjøpe-selge-bytte Arendal/Aust-Agder
5. Vi med 2010/2011 barn Ålesund og omegn
6. Vi med 2010/2011 barn Bergen og omegn

Attachment C – Pretest – Overview of brands

Table 18 Overview of consumers' definitions of brands

Branded clothing/more expensive clothing		Luxury brands/ designer clothing/ high price range/ snob brands		In between/more expensive brands		Danish brands	
Mexx	12	Burberry	19	Namelt	23	Katvig	18
Nøstebarn	10	Dior	18	PoP	11	Småfolk	8
Levi's	9	Ralph Lauren	17	Nøstebarn	9	idaT	7
Jean Paul	7	Gant	9	Lego Wear	5	Molo	7
GAP	5	Tommy Hilfiger	8	Benetton	5	Noa Noa	3
PoP	5	Laura Ashley	1	Katvig	3	Pomp	2
Benetton	3	Armani	6	Me Too	3	deLux	2
DC	3	Gucci	4	Claire	2	Me too	2
Timberland	3	Tiger	1	Claire	2	Ej sikke lej	2
Diesel	3	Hugo Boss	1	Aya Naya	2	Snabelfant	1
Hummel	2	Calvin Klein	4	Mini A Ture	2	Wheat	1
				Albababy	2		
						Cheap brands/ retail stores/ regular clothing/ chain stores	
Norli	2	Lacoste	2	Zara	1		
Brubaker	2	Sand	1	Me & I	1		
Noppies	1	D&G	4	Odd Molly	1	Lindex	100
IKKS	1	GAP	2	UCC	1	HM	137
Benetton	1	Juicy Couture	1	Memini	1	Cubus	49
Finger in the nose	1	Prada	1	Chill Norway	1	Kappahl	21
MP	1	Petit Bateau	6	Ti Mo	1	Sparkjøp	13
Melton	1			Pomp deLuxe	1	Name IT	9
Many Months	1			Me too	1	Reflex	6
Holly	1					Ellos	6
Monsoon	1					Zara	3
Stummer	1						

Attachment D – Overview of girls' and boys' items and brands

Table 19 Girls' clothing

Girls' clothing			
Category	Retail brands	Luxury brands	Total
Pants	3	3	6
Sweaters	4	4	8
Cardigans	3	3	6
Dresses	4	4	8
Skirts	3	3	6
T-shirts	3	3	6
<i>Total</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>40</i>

Table 20 Boys' clothing

Boys' clothing			
Category	Retail brands	Luxury brands	Total
Pants - colorful	3	2	5
Pants – basic colors	2	3	5
Gensere	5	5	10
Jakker/cardigans	3	3	6
Skjorter	3	3	6
T-skjorter	4	4	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>40</i>

Table 21 Luxury brands

Luxury brands			
Brand	Girls' clothing	Boys' clothing	Total
Ralph Lauren	4	5	9
Burberry	5	5	10
Christian Dior	3	5	8
Tommy Hilfiger	5	5	10
GANT	3	5	8
<i>Totalt</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>40</i>

Table 22 Retail brands

Retail brands			
Brand	Girls' clothing	Boys' clothing	Total
H&M	6	4	10
Lindex	4	2	6
Kappahl	5	5	11
Cubus	1	4	5
Ellos	4	5	8
<i>Totalt</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>40</i>

Attachment E – Overview of removed cases

Table 23 High Self-consciousness group responses.

ID	Tekst	Sentences /words	Remove?
1	Jeg er mer nerdete enn gjennomsnittet. Jeg er veldig glad i godteri. Jeg er høyere enn de fleste jenter. Jeg er opptatt av rettskriving. Jeg har fobi for edderkopper.	5/29	
2	Jeg er snill, omtenkstom og empatisk. Jeg trener 3-4 ganger i uken og er over gjennomsnittet bevisst på hva jeg spiser ,også barna mine. Jeg er frisør som i skrivende stund omskoleres til Barn og Ungdomsarbeider med gode resultater og stor interesse for faget. Jeg har en gutt på 3.5 år og en jente på 1.5 år. Jeg er alene og har hovedomsorgen for barna.	4/64	
4	Jeg er mor. Jeg er verdens heldigste. Jeg har mye ansvar. Jeg er bestemt på hva jeg vil. Jeg er selvstendig.	5/21	
5	Jeg er utrolig tålmodig. Jeg er mindre opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut enn andre jeg kjenner. Jeg er veldig intressert i hest . Intresserer meg for gjenbruk av ting, men kjøper nye klær. Spiser litt for mye godteri	5/39	Yes Low SC
12	Jeg er bevisst på hva jeg bruker penger på, men kan også handle impulsivt.. følger med på tester av klær og utstyr til barna	2/24	
14	Jeg har stor selvillit på egne valg (Respondentens barn er i tillegg født i 1995, eneste som er født før 2000)	1/7	Yes Less than 15 words
15	Jeg skiller meg ikke spesielt ut.	1/6	Yes Less than 15 words
18	Eg er opptatt av interiør. Eg er over gjennomsnittet opptatt av hår. Eg velger klær til barna mine med omhu. Eg er veldig sosial. Eg er svært opptatt av familien.	5/30	
22	Jeg er jordnær og reflekterende. Menhar sterkemeninge og stort pågangsmot, samtidig som jeg respekterer alles andres meninge også. Jer reserulerer og liker å lære barna verdiene i dette som hjelper miljøet. Liker å sy og skape ting selv fremfor å ha alt ferdig slik som alle andre!	4/47	
23	Jeg er glad i trening jeg er omgjengelig jeg er omtenkstom jeg er glad i å gjøre ting med familien min jeg har mange venner	5/25	
25	Jeg er ivrig på gjenbruk å arv av klær og ting Jeg er bevisst på mat og kosthold Jeg elsker utendørs tid med familien Jeg er opptatt av at klærne skal tåle røff bruk og fuktighet Jeg er aktiv med hest	5/41	
26	Jeg er naturinteressert og liker å være ute i all slags vær. Kvalitet på klær er viktig og jeg mener barna skal ha like gode klær og kanskje bedre enn de voksne.	2/32	

27	Jeg har opplevd en dødfødsel Jeg er tålmodig Jeg er ærlig Jeg er opptatt at ting skal være rettferdig Jeg setter andre før meg selv	5/25	
30	Eg er over middels opptatt av at barna skal se rene og velstelte ut, men ikke dermed sagt jålete. Eg er miljøbevisst. eg har sterke ambisjoner i forhold til jobbkarriere. Er opptatt av at barna skal bli veldig sjølstendige og karrierebevisste. Eg er nok også mer opptatt av hvordan eg ser ut enn andre tobarnsmødre.	4/55	
37	jeg følger mine egne veier jeg velgerdet jeg liker ikke det som er på "moten" jeg er bestemt jeg er viljesterk jeg sier ofte at man for ikme mer en man klarer når noe går feil vei med meg eller andre.	5/41	
38	jeg bryr meg lite om hvordan jeg ser ut forskjll til mange av mine venner. jeg er ikke med på bruk og kast trenden. jeg er veldig rastløs, og liker ikke å sitte hjemme. liker ikke å bruke penger. spar mest mulig. bryr meg ikke om hva jeg spiser. spiser det jeg vil ha.	5/54	Yes Low SC
40	Opptatt av friluftsliv. Opptatt av å spise sunn mat og rene produkter. Prøver å unngå mye rosa klær til jentebaby. Synes arveklær er toppen. Liker ikke å kaste mat. (Dropped out in the middle of the survey)	5/29	Yes Dropped out
46	Jeg er veldig tålmodig. Jeg verdsetter familie og venner veldig høyt. Jeg er glad i jobben min. Jeg interessert i gjenbruk. Jeg er interessert i håndball.	5/26	
47	Jeg er over gjennomsnittet glad i dyr. Jeg liker god økologisk mat. Jeg ser ikke på tv. Jeg elsker barnet mitt. Jeg liker å stelle i hjemmet mitt.	4/28	
49	Jeg tar ting på strak arm Stresser veldig lite Jeg driver med hundesport(lydighet) Jeg lever bedagelig, fks. Kan feire jul i stilongs og nissesokker Men! Jeg er perfektjonist	5/28	
50	Jeg er opptatt av å lære barnet mitt sunne matvaner. Jeg er opptatt av interiør. Jeg er opptatt av trening. Jeg er opptatt av at barnet mitt skal få mye kjærlighet. Jeg er interessert i moter,men lever ikke for det	4/40	
51	er veldig opptatt av ommøblering og få nytt på plass. er mye på farten. nokså tålmodig. elsker morsrollen. elsker og finne på ting.	5/23	
52	jeg er ikke spesielt opptatt av å gå i de nyeste motene, men jeg kler meg anstendig og passer på at jeg ikke ser ustelt ut. Passer heller på at min lille prinsesse alltid er pen i tøyet. Jobber i barnehage å må si jeg er mer tålmodig der, enn hjemme.	3/51	
54	Jeg er empatisk. Jeg er middels opptatt av utseende i forhold til andre. Jeg liker likevel å føle meg fin. Jeg er åpen med mine følelser. Jeg er en gla person.	5/31	
56	Jeg er lite selvoptatt når det gjelder klær til meg selv, men veldig bevisst når det gjelder ungene. Jeg er opptatt av interiør. Elsker det bedagelige livet på landet,	5/63	Yes Low SC

	men vil bo i byen. Svært opptatt av utdanning og bruker mye tid på å forklare barna viktigheten av god utdanning. Jeg er opptatt av at mine barn ikke skal skille seg ut negativt.		
57	Jeg er en rastløs sjela som må ha mye å gjøre til en hvertid. Jeg er bok mer opptatt av klær og ha det fint rundt meg enn familien min.	2/30	
67	Eg er opptatt av å gi barnet mitt en god og sunn oppvekst. Så lenge barnet har det bra er det ikkje så viktig om det alltid er rein og fin. Liker å ha det fint i heimen, men prioriterer barnet og å være sosial ofte framfor husarbeid. Er nok ganske opptatt av at det skal vere god kvalitet på klede eg kjøper. Fine og gode kle er viktig.	5/69	
70	Jeg er veldig utolmodig. Liker at tidsskjema blir holdt. Jeg har et bevist forhold til mat og kosthold. Er ikke så opptatt av mote, tar det som er bra og passer. Jeg er veldig strukturert.	5/35	
71	Jeg finnes ikke opptatt av kosthold, minteriør, mote eller sminke overhodet.	1/10	Yes Less than 15 words
75	Jeg er utålmodig. Jeg bryr meg lite om andres meninger. Jeg har ingen hobbyer. Jeg liker ikke sunn mat. Jeg har over gjennomsnittet mye rosa klær til meg selv.	5/29	Yes Low SC
82	Jeg er interessert i gjenbruk. Jeg er under gjennomsnittet opptatt av interiør, møbler, merker, materiell status. Jeg føler ofte at jeg kommer til kort (ofte dårlig samvittighet). Jeg har høy arbeidsmoral. Jeg har nådd målene jeg har satt meg i livet	5/41	
85	Jeg ble tidlig ung mor som 17åring. Måtte tidlig bli selvstendig. Jeg er glad i barn og kles design. Har en variert kosthold.	4/23	
87	Jeg er glad i fritida mi og setter pris på å tilbringe tid med familoe og venner	1/17	
90	Jeg er opptatt av tid sammen med familien. Jeg er altfor glad i søtsaker, og liker godt å bake. Jeg synes det er viktig med gjenbruk, i sær av barnetøy og utstyr da dette sjelden slites opp av et barn. Jeg ser ikke poenget med dette spørsmålet, sett i forhold til undersøkelsen. Og jeg tror ikke jeg er særlig annerledes enn mine venner og familie :)	5/63	Yes Low SC
92	Jeg er en realistisk forbruker. Jeg har et i overkant bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold. Jeg er realist. Jeg ser de fleste ting fra mange vinkler. Jeg er ofte deprimert.	5/31	
95	Eg er opptatt av at mine barn får i seg riktig mat. Eg tenker på andre før meg sjølv. Eg er opptatt av foto, av natur og personer. Eg er veldig tolmodig. Eg liker å nyte naturen for alt den er verdt.	5/42	
103	Jeg er nok over gjennomsnittet interessert i interiør og bolig. Jeg er opptatt av barna skal ha godt yttertøy. Og det er viktig for meg at barna ikke mangler noe, hverken av klær eller utstyr de trenger.	3/37	
104	Jeg er over gjennomsnittet glad i matlaging. Jeg er veldig interessert i ernæring og kroppsbiologi knyttet til kosthold og trening. Jeg er ikke den fornuftige typen når det gjelder personlig	5/49	

	økonomi. Jeg er opptatt av god kvalitet på stoff og søm når det gjelder klær. Jeg er veldig utålmodig.		
106	Jeg er alenemor 5 av 7 dager i uken. Jeg er veldig urutinert. Jeg er glad i å strikke. Jeg er holder på å slanke meg. Jeg er over gjennomsnittet glad i sjokolade.	5/33	
107	Eg er vegetarianer og opptatt av supermat. Eg støtter dyrevern. Eg les mykje interiørblader. Eg synes det er praktisk med enkle og stilreine barneklede som kan brukast av begge kjønn. Eg elsker handarbeid.	5/33	
108	Jeg er veldig opptatt av at barna mine ikke skal bli bortskjemte Jeg er veldig opptatt av at de skal ha mest mulig ro rundt seg Jeg er mer enn gjennomsnittet opptatt av at barna hentes tidlig i barnehagen Jeg er mer enn vanlig opptatt av at de spiser grønnsaker hver dag Jeg er mer enn vanlig opptatt av at jeg selv lever et rolig liv	5/66	
109	Jeg er flink til å lage mat Jeg er glad i å være utendørs med barna Jeg er kreativ Jeg er tålmodig Jeg er veldig glad i familien	5/28	
112	Jeg har et bevisst forhold til hvordan jeg forvalter familiens økonomi. Jeg kjøper gjerne pent brukte klær til alle i familien. Jeg har et ønske om å kunne produsere egne grønnsaker ol (som en aktivitet sammen med barna, vi bor på gård). Jeg liker god, sunn og kortreist mat.	4/49	
118	Jeg er veldig tålmodig. Jeg synes alt er dyrt. Jeg handler for det meste på tilbud. Jeg er i overkant fornuftig. Jeg er veldig omsorgsfull.	5/25	
129	Jeg er tålmodig. Jeg synes det er viktig å være ute sammen med barna hver dag. Jeg synes der er veldig viktig med klare regler og grenser. Det er viktig med mye humor i hverdagen. Jeg er generøs.;	5/38	
132	Jeg er veldig opptatt av å spare penger fordi jeg er student. Jeg har et bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold. Jeg bruker lite penger på meg selv. Jeg er ikke interessert i interiør og møbler. Jeg er veldig arbeidsom.	5/40	
133	Jeg anser meg som svært normal. God omsorgsevne, ser menneskene rundt meg og ønsker at de skal ha det bra.	2/20	
137	kjører el-bil. bor uten naboer. Prøver å lage mest mulig mat fra grunnen av, da jeg er kokk. avhengig av facebook :P veldig rolig og avslappet som person. (Har svart kun Svært uenig (1) eller verken uenig eller enig (4) på alle spm).	5/28	Yes Extreme answers, only 1 or 4.

140	Jeg er opptatt av at mitt barn skal ha det aller beste jeg kan tilby. Jeg er overfølsom. Jeg er opptatt av mat og matlaging. Jeg elsker å lese. Jeg bruker svært lite tid på meg selv.	5/37	
143	Jeg er veldig ryddig, liker å ha orden. Kontrollfreak. Sparsom, men impulsiv. Opptatt av alle andre rundt meg, og setter dem før meg selv. Stolt mamma.	3/26	
145	Eg er opptatt av at barna skal klare mest mulig sjølv og ta vare på dei ressursane vi har. Tøybleiebrukar, bæremamma og gjenbruksmamma.	2/23	
147	Jeg er opptatt av gjenbruk, og til tross for at dette er mitt første barn og man ofte vil kjøpe nytt så har jeg valgt å heller arve og kjøpe brukt. Jeg er rolig og trygg, stresser sjelden. Er avslappet ifht kosthold, men prøver å lage middag fra bunn	3/49	
150	Jeg er ernerigisk. Jeg liker å tilegne meg ny kompetanse. Jeg er interessert i teknologi. Jeg er glad i å gå fjellturer. Jeg liker god mat.	5/26	
151	tolmodig og vil bruke ting til dei er ødelagt	1/9	Yes Less than 15 words
153	Bryr meg mer om andre enn meg selv. Omsorg for alle rundt meg. Opptatt av interiør og dyr	3/18	
155	Jeg er ganske normal vil jeg si, liker å være ute. Lett å være sammen med	2/16	
156	Opptatt av grensesetting, lek å moro med barna. Interessert i interiør å mote.	2/13	Yes Less than 15 words
164	Jeg er opptatt av aktivitet og friluftsliv. Jeg er opptatt av at ting skal være gjennomførbart og ikke for ambisiøst. Jeg er opptatt av håndarbeid/ bruksskunst, og liker å lage ting selv.	3/32	
166	Jeg er målbevisst. Jeg er veldig interessert i interiør og sy. Jeg er kreativ. Glad i god mat og reise.	3/20	
167	Jeg er ganske tålmodig. Jeg er mindre opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut enn andre jeg kjenner. Jeg er under gjennomsnittet opptatt av interiør og møbler. Jeg er veldig interessert i gjenbruk. Jeg har et veldig bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold. Jeg er opptatt av miljøvern.	5/47	
169	Veldig rolig og lett person å snakke med, er lik med alle og glad i de nære venner og familie i livet mitt	1/23	
171	Jeg er nok over gjennomsnittet interessert i barneinteriør og barneklær (mest handlet fra nett)Liker å kombinere gammelt og nytt:)	2/20	
172	Jeg er veldig interessert i barneklær og utstyr. Jeg har et bevisst forhold til trening og kosthold.	2/17	
173	Jeg la på meg en del etter fødsel, så er opptatt av trening som jeg og min søster gjør mye samme . Jeg er veldig tålmodig, men kan også ikke være det. Jeg bryr meg om hvordan jeg ser ut så derfor	3/52	

	skaffet jeg meg personlig trener og startet på hudpleier skolen.		
174	Jeg har en veldig høy arbeidsmoral,jeg er alltid opptatt med et eller annet, jeg er veldig positiv på jobben,jeg vasker veldig mye hjemme og er opptatt av å holde det ryddig (uten å ha støv på hjernen)	4/37	
175	Familie betyr mest for meg, i tillegg til at jeg trives utrolig godt i jobben min.	1/16	
178	Jeg er opptatt av kosthold og fysisk aktivitet.	1/8	Yes Less than 15 words
181	jeg er ikke så opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut, jeg er veldig glad i "gamle " ting, jeg er opptatt av gjenbruk !	3/24	
183	Jeg er opptatt av gjenbruk. Jeg er opptatt av og ikke putte barna inn i " kjønnsbokaer"(jenter må ha søte rosa klær, gutter må være tøffe). Er opptatt av å gi barna hjemmelaget mat, ikke ekle ferdig grøter å boks/glass mat.	3/42	
185	Jeg er opptatt av å leve ett sunt liv med sunt kosthold og trening. Jeg lager all mat til min sønn fra bunnen av, både grøt og middagsretter. Jeg er opptatt av å ha det fint og ryddig rundt meg til en hver tid.	3/44	
186	jeg har barn i fukos, jeg tilbringer dagen med barna og ikke fest, jeg er tolmødig,	3/16	
187	Bryr meg lite om kva andre meiner. Gjer ting slik eg sjølv vil. Tåmodig. Interessert i å gjere gode kjøp.	4/20	
188	Kjærlighet er det viktigste til dine barn. At jeg har god økonomi gjør bare at jeg kan gi mitt barn det som det trenger	2/20	
189	Over gjennomsnittet opptatt av interiør og møbler.Ikke interesser i gjenbruk,så fremt det ikke er "skatter" som har vært i familien lenge.Utadvent person.	3/22	
190	Klær skal være behagelig å ha på..	1/7	Yes Less than 15 words
191	Jeg har et bevisst forhold til miljøen og mat. Og er veldig interessert i gjenbruk.	2/15	
193	Jeg har et bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold! Ikke for mye sukker og e-stoffer til vara mine! Bruker helst ferske varer uten tilsetningsstoffer! Bruker nesten bare ull på barna!	4/30	
194	jeg er tålmodig, diplomatisk og omtenkssom. effektiv handwoman. opptatt av stil både til barn og voksne!	3/16	
197	Jeg er en jente som vil alle vel, og gjør nok mye for at alle rundt meg skal ha det godt. Har litt liten tid til egenpleie, men elsker	8/120	

	tiden med barna rundt meg. Hjemmet vårt står åpent for alle, og ofte har vi 5-8 ekstra barn i hus. Dette gir meg god energi. Så huset vårt bærer preg av åpenhet. Når det gjelder matlaging, er jeg vokst opp på gård, der alt skal lages fra bunnen og bruke alle ressursene.. Desverre klarer jeg ikke å oppnå disse ferdighetene med kokkeleringene..men glad i mat er vi. Felles måltider, det frokost klokken seks med stearinlys på bordet er vi samlet, samt middag og kvelds. Frisk frukt står alltid innbydende på kjøkkenbenken.		
199	Jeg er rolig, men utadvendt. Liker godt å være oppdatert på klær, interiør og møbler. Men det aller kjekkeste er å kjøpe klær til sønnen min.	3/26	
201	Jeg er ekstremt økonomisk bevisst.	1/5	Yes Less than 15 words
202	Jeg er opptatt av hus og hjem og interiør. Men merker er ikke viktig. Det samme gjelder klær. Jeg er mer opptatt av at det ikke skal koste for mye, samtidig som det skal være god kvalitet.	3/37	
203	Bevisst ved bruk av penger på mat og klær. Kjøper eller får brukt tøy. Kjøper mye mat som holder på å gå ut på dato, legger i frys og lager meste parten av maten fra bunnen, sammen med barna.	3/39	
206	Jeg kjøper eller tar i mot brukte klær	1/8	Yes Less than 15 words
207	Jeg er litt i overkant økonomisk, og opptatt av hva andre mener om meg og min familie.	1/17	
208	Jeg er mer opptatt av merker, kvalitet når det kommer til klær, hus, interiør, bil og mat enn min familie. Jeg er mer opptatt av kosthold enn min familie.	2/28	
209	Jeg er tolmodig, og interesserer meg veldig for science fiction, fantasy og dataspill.	1/13	Yes Less than 15 words
215	Er bevisst på pris på klær og utstyr til både voksne og barn.	1/13	Yes Less than 15 words
216	Generelt lite opptatt av mote, interiør. Lever vel mer i nuet enn de fleste jeg kjenner! Ellers ganske så "normal"	3/20	
218	Jeg er interessert i gjennbruk.	1/5	Yes Less than 15 words
221	Jeg er opptatt av at meg og barnet mitt ser bra ut og har skikkelige klær.	1/16	
223	Jeg er tålmodig, kan til tider være veldig sta, men er også nokså sjenert. Jeg ler mye, og er opptatt av å ha det gøy. Jeg er opptatt	3/36	

	av politikk og velferd, og også sosiale relasjoner		
224	Jeg er ikke så opptatt av siste mote, klær må heller vær praktiske og anvendelige til flere anledninger. Har et bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold.	2/26	
225	Jeg er glad i å pusse opp og blir ferdig med prosjekter veldig fort. Omsorgsfull og glad i å hjelpe andre	2/21	
226	Jeg er utålmodig på noen områder og tålmodig på andre. Jeg sliter med å bestemme meg om ting, selv den minste lille ting. Jeg er ganske vimsete. Jeg elsker å være mamma og ville helst vært hjemme med de små til de er 2,5 år. Jeg elsker dyr og natur.	5/50	
228	Jeg er veldig tålmodig	1/4	Yes Less than 15 words
229	Bevist forhold til kosthold, opptatt av kvalitetsklær til gutten min, utålmodig, omsorgsperson	3/12	Yes Less than 15 words
231	Jeg er veldig uinteressert i ting som møbler, interioer, gardiner, biler, osv. De fleste ting som oppfattes som statussymboler finner jeg ulidelig kjedelige. Jeg liker intense diskusjoner som krever at man vet hva man snakker om, har lest mer enn VG og pensum paa BI. Jeg er forsker, baade av yrke og legning. Jeg trives best i felt. Lange ekspedisjoner sammen med gode kolleger og venner. Jeg er uforstaaende for folks behov for monogami og eierskap, som om mennesker og ting var noe de kunne klamre seg til, eie. Jeg avskyr folk som mener et papir gir dem rett til aa eie det andre har jobbet for, andre har skapt, fordi deres tid er mer verdifull fordi de gaar i dress og er flinkere til aa sno seg. Holder det?	8/130	
232	Jeg er tålmodig, ryddig, organisert og mer pratsom enn se fleste.	1/11	Yes Less than 15 words
234	Jeg synes det er viktig å gi barnet alt de vil ha når de er veldig små. aldri skrike i søvn osv. mener barna får trygghet av det. jeg gir ikke vaksine enda. venter til ho blir større. opptatt av at hun ikke skal få sukker i mat, lager mye mer selv. gode matvaner. og opptatt av at hun skal ha et godt forhold til dyr og være mye ute. ikke så fryktlig nøye med meg selv. kler meg så si alltid i jogge tøy. viktig å være i form, jeg er dyregal, komfor for alle penga, men synes det er gøy å sjokkere. stiller meg skikkelig til fest.	9/109	
235	Jeg er veldig sta. Jeg har mange baller i luften samtidig. Jeg har alltid tid til mine venner og bekjente.	3/20	
236	Jeg er opptatt av vgjenbruk , da va både klær og møbler og kan v el si at jeg er over gjennomsnittet interessert i interiør. Vertfal sammenlignet med familie. Ellers er jeg en rolig og sosial person	3/37	

238	.	0/0	Yes Less than 15 words
239	Veldig opptatt av mine barn, setter nok de før min egen "skjønnhet".	1/12	Yes Less than 15 words Low SC
240	Har vanskelig for å kaste/gi bort ting for eg tenker at eg kanskje kan få bruk for det ein gong. God tolmodighet Glad i gamlemøbler, spesielt visst dei er heimelaga	3/30	
245	Tålmodig. Ikke mer opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut enn andre jeg kjenner. Ikke over snittet interessert i interiør og møbler. Er interessert i gjenbruk. Har bevisst forhold til mat og kosthold, men ikke alltid like flink til å gjennomføre dette.	5/41	
247	Jeg er veldig tålmodig!	1/4	Yes Less than 15 words
248	Jeg er liberal og ikke styrt av penger. Lykke er viktig og lite stress.	2/13	Yes Less than 15 words
249	Jeg har mye empati. Jeg avskyr bedrevitere. Jeg orker ikke sitte hjemme mer enn jeg må. Jeg er flink til å organisere og ordne penger øremerket til ferie.	4/28	
250	Veldig opptatt av å holde det ryddig og reint rundt meg.	1/11	Yes Less than 15 words
251	Eg er stille og rolig, men bestemt person. Har stor innterresse innenfor rock n roll !!	2/16	
256	Lite tålmodig. Nysgjerrig. Liker å ha kontroll over det meste.	3/10	Yes Less than 15 words
257	Veldig tålmodig, og hjelpsom.	1/4	Yes Less than 15 words
262	jeg er opptatt av kvalitet og gjenbruk. kjøper mye brukt. spiser lite ferdigmat og lager mat fra bunnen av. sikkert veldig i tiden, så er vel ikke så annerledes enn mange andre sånn sett.	4/34	
263	Jeg er veldig tålmodig.	1/4	Yes Less than 15 words
264	..	0/0	Yes Less than 15 words
266	Jeg er tålmodig, og ser det positive i det meste. Man kommer langt med et smil!	3/29	

	Jeg elsker interiør, og å finne gode løsninger med en 1-åring i hus!		
269	Jeg er veldig dårlig til å lage mat, men elsker å spise. Jeg er veldig opptatt av barneklær, men kjøper sjelden noe til meg selv. Jeg elsker å strikke og å spille playstation. Jeg er ikke så interessert i sport	4/40	
273	Jeg er opptatt av kvalitet. Over middels interessert i klær til barna mine. Er travel småbarnsmor som jobber heltid utenom. Liker godt å reise. Shopping er min største lidenskap..	5/29	
274	Jeg er stille og rolig. Liker å spille håndball og være med min familie:)	2/14	Yes Less than 15 words
278	Stille og gjør ikke så mye ut av meg.	1/9	Yes Less than 15 words
281	jeg er opptatt av å leke med barnet.	1/8	Yes Less than 15 words
282	Jeg er opptatt av at det skal være rent og ryddig rundt meg, at barna skal være høflig og veloppdragne.	1/20	
287	Eg er opptatt av og gi god omsorg, mykje kjærleik og sette tydelige grenser	1/14	Yes Less than 15 words
290	Opptatt av interiør og farger, hus, liker å pusse opp gammelt til nytt og mikse dette med nye møbler. Jeg har liten viljestyrke, men veldig sterke meninger	2/27	
292	Jeg er veldig opptatt av å ha det fint rundt meg. At jeg selv og mitt barn ser bra ut, men samtidig ikke bruke mye penger. Så liker salg og brukte ting. Det er viktig for meg å gi barnet mitt en god og trygg oppvekst og gode verdier. Er alenemor.	5/51	

Table 24 Translation of responses removed due to content

ID	Norwegian	English
5	Jeg er mindre opptatt av hvordan jeg ser ut enn andre jeg kjenner.	I'm less concerned with how I look than other people I know.
38	jeg bryr meg lite om hvordan jeg ser ut forskjll til mange av mine venner.	I care little about how I look, compared to many of my friends.
56	Jeg er lite selvopptatt når det gjelder klær til meg selv...	I'm not very self-conscious when it comes to clothing for myself...
75	Jeg bryr meg lite om andres meninger	I care little about other people's opinions
90	Og jeg tror ikke jeg er særlig annerledes enn mine venner og familie	And I don't think I'm very different from my friends and family

Table 25 Removed Low self-consciousness group responses – movie question

ID	Text	Why?
10	Varg veum – kaldde hjerter trur jeg den heter. 2012.	Extra info
11	Angelina Jolie SALT	Extra info
16	En måned siden, februar 2013.	Answered wrong question, has not read the question properly.
20	“brudepikene”	Extra info
31	Karsten og Petra.	Extra info
58	Reisen til julestjernen, med de to eldste barna	Extra info
62	Intouchables (2011)	Extra info
105	Jenta som lekte med ilden (?)	Extra info
120	“Karsten og Petra blir bestevenner”	Extra info
121	Reisen til julestjernen, desember 2012	Extra info
149	Mannen har bygget kinorom i kjelleren, så vi så den nyeste James bond der fo litt siden. Ellers så var det nok luftslottet som sprengdes jeg så på ordentlig kino.	Extra info

In total, 46 cases were removed, 27 due to length considerations, seven due to low self-conscious responses in the high self-consciousness condition, and eleven due to high self-conscious responses in the high self-consciousness condition.

Attachment F – Manipulation check

Table 26 Group means Low and High SC

Group Statistics					
	DELUTVALG	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SELFCON10	1	92	5.2261	.88515	.09228
	2	153	4.9137	.99201	.08020

Table 27 Independent samples T-test Low and High SC

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.724	.190	2.483	243	.014	.31236	.12578	.06460	.56012
Equal variances not assumed			2.555	208.994	.011	.31236	.12226	.07134	.55339

Results indicate significant differences in Self-consciousness scores between Group 1 (High Self-consciousness) and Group 2 (Low Self-consciousness). This means that the manipulation has worked in the way it was meant to.

($M_{\text{Low Self-consciousness group}} = 4.914$) vs. ($M_{\text{High self-consciousness group}} = 5.226$), $F_{(1,243)} = 1.724$, $p < 0.01$.

Attachment G – Descriptive statistics

Table 28 Descriptive statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
STUDY	246	1.00	2.00	1.4797	.50061	.082	-2.010
SEX	246	1	2	1.02	.141	6.840	45.158
NUMBER_CHILD	246	2	5	2.70	.822	1.008	.326
BIRTH_YEAR	246	2000	2013	2010.96	1.790	-2.266	7.725
SC_GROUP	246	1	2	1.63	.483	-.560	-1.700
SC1	246	2	7	5.26	1.110	-.881	.758
SC2	246	2	7	5.50	.997	-1.134	2.004
SC3	246	2	7	5.18	1.141	-.814	.426
SC4	246	1	7	4.22	1.523	-.334	-.764
SC5	246	1	7	4.37	1.804	-.391	-1.002
SC6	246	1	7	4.78	1.385	-.650	-.024
SC7	246	2	7	5.41	1.109	-.658	.400
VAN1	246	1	7	4.32	1.468	-.546	-.564
VAN2	246	1	7	3.81	1.465	-.214	-1.028
VAN3	246	1	7	3.00	1.440	.480	-.558
VAN4	246	1	7	3.26	1.407	.157	-.773
VAN5	246	1	6	2.98	1.382	.269	-.969
VAN6	246	1	6	3.33	1.252	-.208	-.782
VAN7	246	1	6	3.33	1.150	-.305	-.568
VAN8	246	1	6	2.74	1.238	.207	-.960
VAN9	246	1	6	3.19	1.208	-.210	-.894
VAN10	246	1	6	3.09	1.283	-.137	-1.030
VAN11	246	1	6	2.80	1.298	.164	-1.144
VAN12	246	1	7	3.17	1.643	.385	-.906
VAN13	246	1	7	3.61	1.722	.008	-1.291
VAN14	246	1	7	2.97	1.620	.587	-.616
VAN15	246	1	7	2.44	1.438	.916	-.081
VAN16	246	1	7	4.00	1.752	-.367	-1.137
VAN17	246	1	6	3.44	1.403	-.120	-.959
VAN18	246	1	7	3.41	1.420	-.020	-.917
VAN19	246	1	7	4.19	1.446	-.436	-.504
VAN20	246	1	7	3.05	1.400	.184	-.866
VAN21	246	1	6	2.69	1.344	.355	-.836
EMP1	246	1	7	5.31	1.285	-1.106	.993
EMP2_	246	2	7	5.68	1.184	-1.031	.780
EMP3_	246	1	7	6.57	.804	-2.787	11.393
EMP4_	246	2	7	5.66	1.464	-.973	-.179
EMP5_	246	2	7	5.27	1.545	-.471	-1.013
EMP6_	246	2	7	6.33	1.104	-1.883	3.169

EMP7	246	1	7	5.46	1.497	-1.305	1.554
EMP8_	246	1	7	4.34	1.540	.149	-.964
EMP9_	246	1	7	4.58	1.588	-.067	-1.133
EMP10	246	1	7	5.93	.983	-1.439	4.283
EMP11_	246	1	7	4.89	1.722	-.412	-.843
EMP12	246	1	7	6.22	1.063	-2.267	7.131
EMP13_	246	1	7	4.59	1.847	-.348	-.979
AGE_PARENT	246	2	4	2.91	.609	.049	-.323
Education	246	1	7	3.39	1.480	.365	-.859
Housing_type	246	2	7	5.01	2.070	-.409	-1.477
Housing_own	246	1	2	1.20	.400	1.516	.299
SES_ladder	246	1	7	4.31	.859	-.496	1.014
INCOME_SCALE	234	1.00	6.00	3.9530	1.29456	-.295	-.634
Marital_status	246	1	5	3.20	.699	-1.096	2.732
Valid N (listwise)	234						

Table 29 Mean scores of indexed variables

Construct	Mean	Median
Socioeconomic status	3.884	4.00
Self-consciousness	5.080	5.25
Vanity – Physical view	3.043	3.25
Vanity – Achievement concern	3.049	2.75
Parental empathy	5.554	5.60
Number of luxury items selected	1.996	2.00

Attachment H - Convergent validity

Self-consciousness

Table 30 Factor Matrix SC before removing items

	Factor	
	1	2
SC3	.821	.329
SC6	.695	-.539
SC1	.669	.280
SC2	.666	.236
SC4	.582	-.289
SC5	.578	-.011
SC7	.064	.191

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 2 factors extracted. 24 iterations required.

After removing items SC7 and SC4, all items loaded on one factor. This demonstrates good convergent validity for Self-consciousness as a construct.

Table 31 Factor matrix SC after removing items

	Factor	
	1	
SC3	.866	
SC1	.735	
SC2	.709	
SC5	.551	
SC6	.476	

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 4 iterations required.

Table 32 Goodness-of-fit Test SC

Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
14.338	5	.014

Table 33 KMO and Bartlett's Test SC

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.800
Approx. Chi-Square	389.744
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df
	10
	Sig.
	.000

Vanity - Physical view

Table 34 Factor Matrix Physical view

	Factor
	1
VAN2	.812
VAN4	.797
VAN1	.758
VAN5	.745
VAN3	.739

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 5 iterations required.

Table 35 Goodness-of-fit Test Physical view

Chi-Square	df	Sig.
81.897	5	.000

Table 36 KMO and Bartlett's Test Physical view

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.817
Approx. Chi-Square		664.225
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Results demonstrate satisfactory convergent validity for *Vanity - Physical view*.

Vanity - Physical concern

Table 37 Factor Matrix Physical Concern

	Factor
	1
VAN7	.883
VAN9	.849
VAN8	.802
VAN6	.768
VAN10	.705
VAN11	.695

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 5 iterations required.

Table 38 Goodness-of-fit Test Physical Concern

Chi-Square	df	Sig.
122.287	9	.000

Table 39 KMO and Bartlett's Test Physical concern

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.851
Approx. Chi-Square		981.630
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Results demonstrate satisfactory convergent validity for Vanity - *Physical concern*.

Vanity - Achievement view

Table 40 Factor Matrix Achievement View

	Factor
	1
VAN14	.894
VAN13	.829
VAN15	.770
VAN12	.741
VAN16	.613

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 4 iterations required.

Table 41 Goodness-of-fit Test Achievement View

Chi-Square	df	Sig.
30.624	5	.000

Table 42 KMO and Bartlett's Test Achievement View

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.843
Approx. Chi-Square		658.569
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Results demonstrate satisfactory convergent validity for Vanity – *Achievement view*.

Vanity – Achievement concern

Table 43 Factor Matrix Achievement Concern

	Factor
	1
VAN20	.879
VAN21	.800
VAN18	.796
VAN17	.782
VAN19	.677

Table 44 Goodness-of-fit Test Achievement Concern

Chi-Square	df	Sig.
54.047	5	.000

Table 45 KMO and Bartlett's Test Achievement concern

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.822
Approx. Chi-Square		715.955
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Empathy

Table 46 Factor Matrix Parental empathy

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
EMP5_	.999			
EMP8_	.337	.334		
EMP6_	.320			
EMP9_		.483	.387	
EMP2_		.470		
EMP12		.382		.345
EMP13_		.352		
EMP10		.323		
EMP1		.312		
EMP3_		.466	-.475	
EMP4_		.334	-.365	
EMP11_				-.480
EMP7				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 4 factors extracted. 14 iterations required.

Table 47 Factor Matrix Parental empathy

	Factor
	1
EMP3_	.645
EMP4_	.549
EMP2_	.542
EMP5_	.408
EMP13_	.404

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 4 iterations required.

Table 48 Goodness-of-fit Test Parental empathy

Chi-Square	df	Sig.
7.618	5	.179

Table 49 KMO and Bartlett's Test Parental empathy

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.713
Approx. Chi-Square		133.909
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Socioeconomic Status

Table 50 Factor Matrix Socioeconomic status

	Factor
	1
INCOME_SCALE	.667
SES_ladder	.666
Education	.539

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. 1 factors extracted. 3 iterations required.

Table 51 KMO and Bartlett's Test Socioeconomic status

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.650
Approx. Chi-Square		96.364
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Attachment I – Discriminant validity

Table 52 Pattern Matrix Before

	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
VAN10	.973							
VAN11	.622				-.302			
VAN3		.773						
VAN4		.739						
VAN5		.632						
SC5		.353						-.300
VAN20		.205	.833					
VAN17			.736	-.245			-.253	
VAN21			.662	-.216				
VAN18			.660	-.280				
VAN19			.641					
SES_ladder			.496					
INCOME_SCALE			.340					-.210
Housing_type								
VAN14				-.893				
VAN13				-.796				
VAN12				-.727			-.214	
VAN15				-.725				
VAN16				-.576				
VAN7					-.805			
VAN8					-.755			
VAN6					-.682			
VAN9	.266				-.672			
EMP3_						.569		
EMP4_						.555		
EMP2_						.520		
EMP13_						.427		
EMP5_						.397		
VAN2		.345					-.652	-.233
VAN1		.248					-.523	-.323
Education							.234	
SC3								-.689
SC2						.204		-.651
SC1								-.628
SC6		.240						-.373

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 32 iterations.

Table 53 Structure Matrix Before

	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
VAN10	.982				-.517			
VAN11	.743				-.534			
VAN4		.817		-.291	-.259		-.362	-.339
VAN3		.770			-.241		-.305	-.275
VAN5		.750		-.276	-.303		-.353	-.291
SC5		.531		-.222			-.291	-.425
VAN20	.311		.841	-.383				
VAN17	.216		.784	-.409				
VAN18	.278		.718	-.481	-.260			
VAN21	.297		.713	-.463	-.267			
VAN19			.665	-.275				
SES_ladder			.522					-.248
INCOME_SCALE			.394					-.253
Education	.212		.351				.337	
Housing_type								
VAN14		.276	.248	-.900				
VAN13		.228	.319	-.823				
VAN15		.240	.253	-.761				
VAN12		.291		-.743			-.226	
VAN16			.352	-.613				-.205
VAN7	.485	.294			-.866		-.235	
VAN9	.541				-.791		-.229	
VAN8	.446		.222	-.233	-.787			
VAN6	.403	.346			-.755		-.265	
EMP3_						.597		
EMP4_						.562		
EMP2_						.539		
EMP13_						.422		
EMP5_						.392		
VAN2		.627			-.298		-.771	-.463
VAN1		.568			-.305		-.676	-.483
SC3		.415					-.209	-.757
SC1	.240	.393			-.200		-.344	-.691
SC2		.297		-.208		.252		-.675
SC6		.393		-.220				-.438

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 54 Pattern Matrix After

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
VAN14	.918				
VAN13	.803				
VAN12	.751				
VAN15	.718				
VAN9		.872			
VAN7		.860			
VAN8		.758			
VAN10		.669			
SC3			.869		
SC1			.711		
SC2			.648		
SC5			.551		
INCOME_SCALE				.655	
SES_ladder				.631	
Education				.611	
EMP3_					.635
EMP2_					.597
EMP4_					.530
EMP5_					.430
EMP13_					.375

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 55 Structure Matrix After

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
VAN14	.915				
VAN13	.806				
VAN15	.758				
VAN12	.757				
VAN7		.866			
VAN9		.859			
VAN8		.780			
VAN10		.679			
SC3			.868		
SC1		.246	.720		
SC2			.690		.238
SC5	.230		.555		
INCOME_SCALE				.642	
SES_ladder				.637	
Education				.621	
EMP3_					.647
EMP2_					.578
EMP4_					.552
EMP5_					.410
EMP13_					.410

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Attachment J – Reliability analysis

Self-consciousness SC1, SC2, SC3, SC5

Table 56 Reliability Statistics Self-consciousness

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.776	4

Test of Cronbach's alpha indicates satisfactory results for reliability.

Vanity – Physical view: VAN7, VAN8, VAN9, VAN10

Table 57 Reliability Statistics Vanity – Physical view

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.875	4

Test of Cronbach's alpha indicates satisfactory results for reliability.

Vanity – Achievement concern: VAN12, VAN13, VAN14, VAN15

Table 58 Reliability Statistics Vanity - Achievement concern

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.881	4

Test of Cronbach's alpha indicates satisfactory results for reliability.

Parental Empathy: EMP2, EMP3, EMP4, EMP5, EMP13

Table 59 Reliability Statistics Parental empathy

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.621	5

Test of Cronbach's alpha indicates questionably satisfactory results for reliability.

Status: INCOME_SCALE, EDUCATION, SES_LADDER

Table 60 Reliability Statistics SES

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.626	3

Test of Cronbach's alpha indicates questionably satisfactory results for reliability.

Attachment K – Assumptions of ANOVA

Assumption of normality

As Table XX demonstrates, none of the variables show signs of skewness or kurtosis, except marital status, which indicates both skewness and kurtosis. This is due to overrepresentation of parents with high marital status. Variables Self-consciousness, Vanity – Physical view and Vanity – Achievement concern show variance greater than 1, which is acceptable. This indicates that these variables are normally distributed, satisfying the assumption of normality. However, variables Empathy, SES Status and Marital status have variance below 1, which is a violation of the assumption.

Table 61 Descriptive statistics Indexed variables

		SELFCO N	VAN_PH YSV	VAN_ACHC ONC	EMPATHY	SES_STAT US	MARSTAT_S CALE
N	Valid	246	246	246	246	246	246
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		5.0803	3.0843	3.0488	5.5545	3.8848	4.1382
Median		5.2500	3.2500	2.7500	5.6000	4.0000	4.0000
Variance		.984	1.084	1.907	.763	.882	.756
Skewness		-.626	-.294	.437	-.494	-.080	-2.111
Std. Error of Skewness		.155	.155	.155	.155	.155	.155
Kurtosis		.197	-.695	-.527	.302	-.294	5.966
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.309	.309	.309	.309	.309	.309

Assumption of homogeneity of variances

Self-consciousness

Table 62 Test of Homogeneity of Variances SC

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.677	1	244	.197

Table 63 ANOVA SC

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.616	1	3.616	1.739	.189
Within Groups	507.380	244	2.079		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for Self-consciousness show an insignificant Levene's test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

Vanity – Physical view

Table 64 Test of Homogeneity of Variances Physical View

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.035	1	244	.852

Table 65 ANOVA Physical View

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.982	1	8.982	4.366	.038
Within Groups	502.014	244	2.057		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for Vanity – Physical view show an insignificant Levene’s test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

Vanity – Achievement concern

Table 66 Test of Homogeneity of Variances Achievement Concern

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.965	1	244	.327

Table 67 ANOVA Achievement Concern

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.914	1	.914	.437	.509
Within Groups	510.082	244	2.091		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for Vanity – Achievement concern show an insignificant Levene’s test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

Empathy

Table 68 Test of Homogeneity of Variances Parental empathy

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.001	1	244	.979

Table 69 ANOVA Parental empathy

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.159	1	2.159	1.035	.310
Within Groups	508.837	244	2.085		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for Empathy show an insignificant Levene's test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

SES Status

Table 70 Test of Homogeneity of Variances SES

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.023	1	244	.880

Table 71 ANOVA SES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.501	1	.501	.240	.625
Within Groups	510.494	244	2.092		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for SES Status show an insignificant Levene's test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

SES Ladder

Table 72 Test of Homogeneity of Variances SES Ladder

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.093	1	244	.761

Table 73 ANOVA SES Ladder

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.103	1	5.103	2.461	.118
Within Groups	505.893	244	2.073		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for SES Status show an insignificant Levene's test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance

Marital status

Table 74 Test of Homogeneity of Variances Marital status

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.009	1	244	.925

Table 75 ANOVA Marital status

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.656	1	6.656	3.220	.074
Within Groups	504.340	244	2.067		
Total	510.996	245			

The results for Marital Status show an insignificant Levene's test, which meets the requirement for homogeneity of variance.

Overall results of assumptions are fulfilled. Since Marital status proved to be non-normally distributed this is considered as a limitation of the study, and will be discussed in Chapter 6.3. Limitations.

Attachment L - Hypothesis testing - Main effects

H1: Status

Table 76 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects SES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5.103 ^a	1	5.103	2.461	.118
Intercept	945.266	1	945.266	455.916	.000
SES_LADDER_HL	5.103	1	5.103	2.461	.118
Error	505.893	244	2.073		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .010 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

Table 77 SES Means

SES_LADDER_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.122	.122	1.882	2.363
2.00	1.832	.139	1.558	2.106

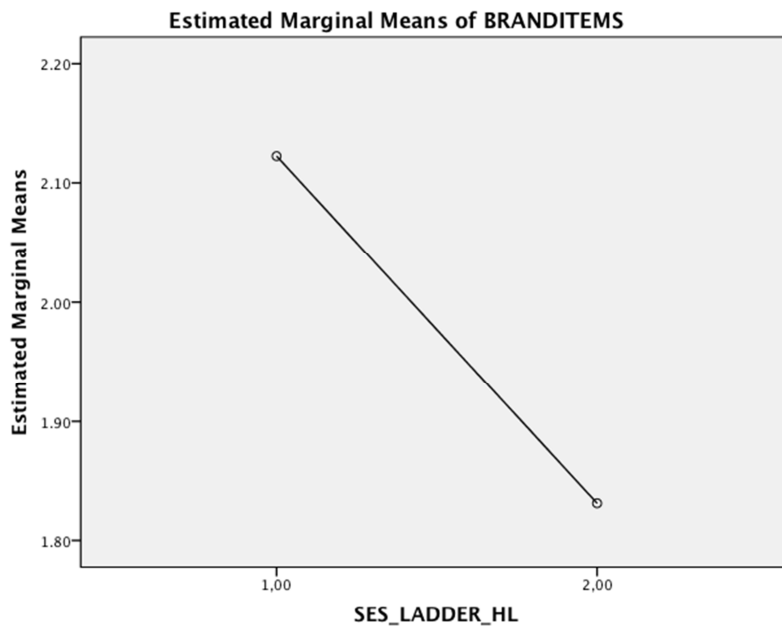


Figure 18 Main effect SE

H2a Self-consciousness

Table 78 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Self-consciousness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3.616 ^a	1	3.616	1.739	.189
Intercept	940.494	1	940.494	452.285	.000
SC_GROUP	3.616	1	3.616	1.739	.189
Error	507.380	244	2.079		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)

Table 79 Self-consciousness Means

SC_MAN	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.904	.115	1.676	2.131
2.00	2.156	.152	1.856	2.455

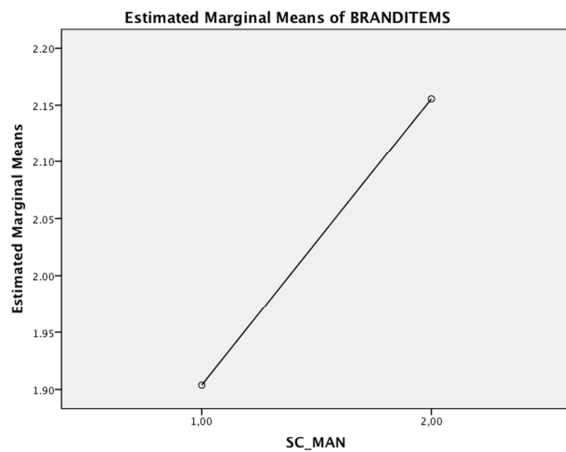


Figure 19 Main effect SC

H3a Vanity – Physical view

Table 80 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Physical View

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.982 ^a	1	8.982	4.366	.038
Intercept	986.836	1	986.836	479.644	.000
VAN_PHYSV_HL	8.982	1	8.982	4.366	.038
Error	502.014	244	2.057		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = .014)

Table 81 Physical View Means

VAN_PHYSV_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.197	.133	1.935	2.458
2.00	1.814	.126	1.565	2.063

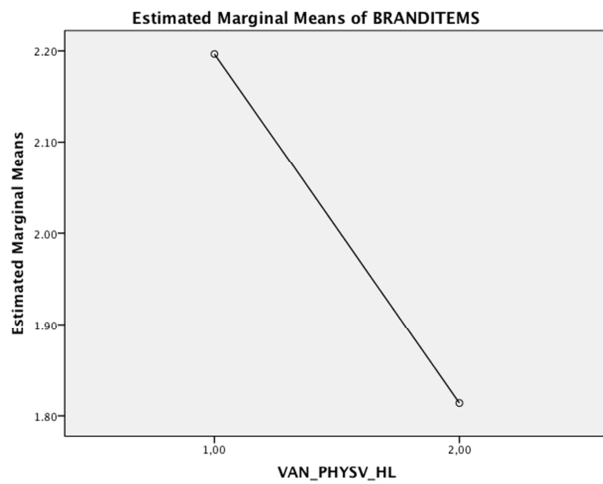


Figure 20 Main effect Physical view

H4a Vanity – Achievement concern

Table 82 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Achievement Concern

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.914 ^a	1	.914	.437	.509
Intercept	980.426	1	980.426	468.991	.000
VAN_AC_HL	.914	1	.914	.437	.509
Error	510.082	244	2.091		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

Table 83 Achievement Concern Means

VAN_AC_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.935	.130	1.680	2.191
2.00	2.057	.131	1.800	2.315

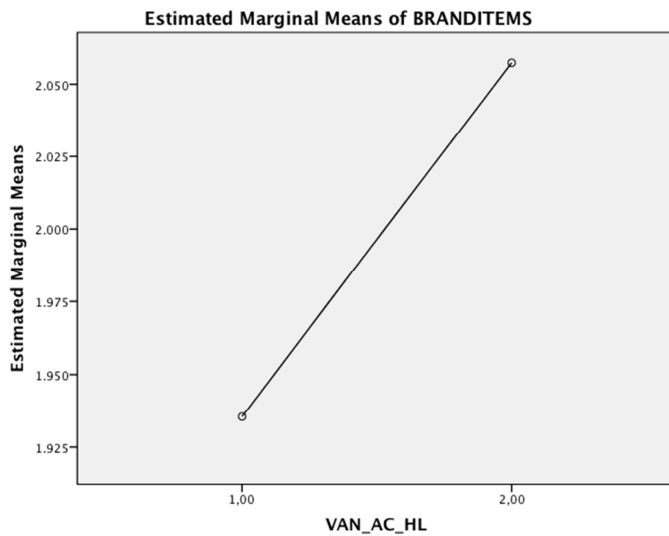


Figure 21 Main effect Achievement concern

H5a Empathy

Table 84 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Parental Empathy

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.159 ^a	1	2.159	1.035	.310
Intercept	975.980	1	975.980	468.007	.000
EMP_HL	2.159	1	2.159	1.035	.310
Error	508.837	244	2.085		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .004 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

Table 85 Parental Empathy Means

EMP_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.087	.128	1.834	2.339
2.00	1.899	.132	1.638	2.160

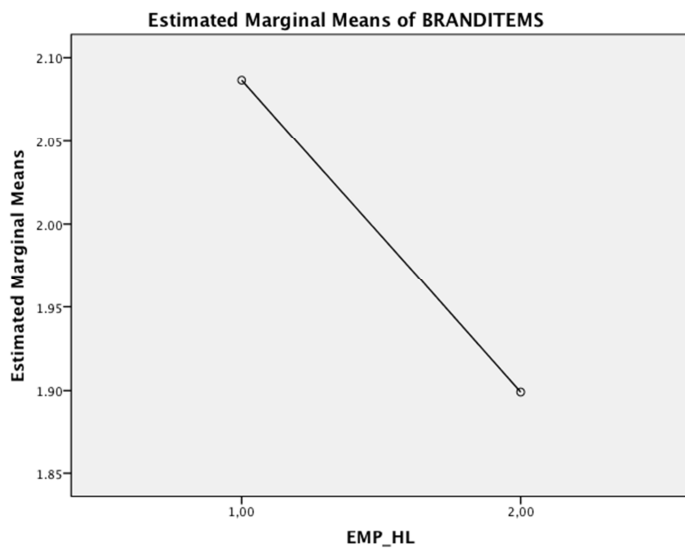


Figure 22 Main effect Empathy

H6a Marital status

Table 86 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Marital status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	6.656 ^a	1	6.656	3.220	.074
Intercept	266.168	1	266.168	128.772	.000
MARSTAT_CODE	6.656	1	6.656	3.220	.074
Error	504.340	244	2.067		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)

Table 87 Marital status Means

MARSTAT_CODE	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.692	.399	1.907	3.478
2.00	1.957	.094	1.772	2.143

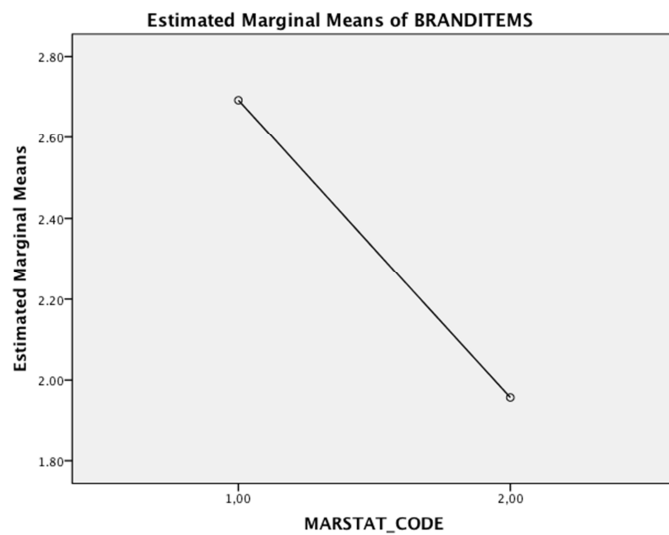


Figure 23 Main effect Marital status

Attachment M – Interaction effects

H2b: Self-consciousness (Manipulation) x SES Status

Table 88 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects SC x SES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16.867 ^a	3	5.622	2.753	.043
Intercept	905.310	1	905.310	443.376	.000
SES_STATUS_HL	3.029	1	3.029	1.483	.224
SC_MAN	7.877	1	7.877	3.858	.051
SES_STATUS_HL * SC_MAN	12.668	1	12.668	6.204	.013
Error	494.129	242	2.042		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

Table 89 Means SC and SES

SES_STATUS_HL	SC_MAN	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.00	2.000	.146	1.713	2.287
	2.00	1.897	.188	1.527	2.266
2.00	1.00	1.750	.184	1.387	2.113
	2.00	2.625	.253	2.127	3.123

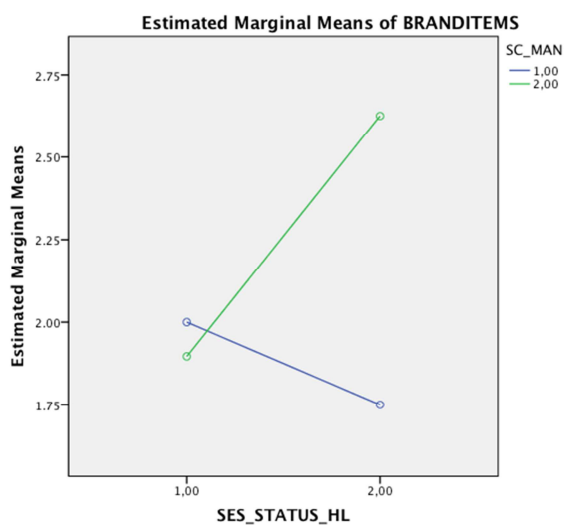


Figure 24 Interaction effect SC x SES

H3d Self-consciousness x Vanity – Physical view

Table 90 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects SC x Physical view

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	15.131 ^a	3	5.044	2.462	.063
Intercept	927.884	1	927.884	452.841	.000
SC_MAN	5.999	1	5.999	2.928	.088
VAN_PHYSV_HL	11.430	1	11.430	5.578	.019
SC_MAN * VAN_PHYSV_HL	.513	1	.513	.251	.617
Error	495.864	242	2.049		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = .018)

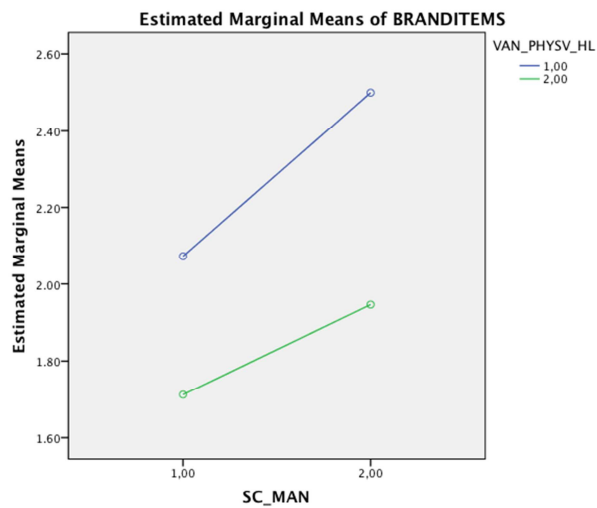


Figure 25 Interaction effect SC x Physical view

H4c Vanity - Achievement concern x Status

Table 91 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Achievement View x SES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	6.632 ^a	3	2.211	1.061	.366
Intercept	924.955	1	924.955	443.805	.000
VAN_AC_HL	2.210	1	2.210	1.060	.304
SES_STATUS_HL	.459	1	.459	.220	.639
VAN_AC_HL *	5.248	1	5.248	2.518	.114
SES_STATUS_HL					
Error	504.364	242	2.084		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = .001)

Table 92 Means Achievement View and SES

VAN_AC_HL	SES_STATUS_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.00	2.013	.162	1.693	2.333
	2.00	1.800	.215	1.376	2.224
2.00	1.00	1.907	.167	1.578	2.235
	2.00	2.298	.211	1.883	2.713

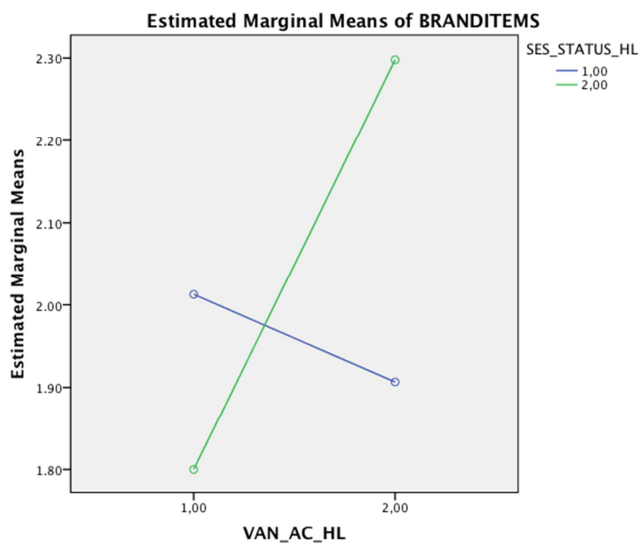


Figure 26 Interaction effect Achievement concern x SES

H4e Vanity – Achievement concern x Self-consciousness

Table 93 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Achievement Concern x SC

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	10.535 ^a	3	3.512	1.698	.168
Intercept	922.156	1	922.156	445.912	.000
SC_MAN	4.075	1	4.075	1.970	.162
VAN_AC_HL	.038	1	.038	.019	.892
SC_MAN * VAN_AC_HL	6.592	1	6.592	3.188	.075
Error	500.461	242	2.068		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .021 (Adjusted R Squared = .008)

Table 94 Means Achievement Concern and SES

VAN_AC_HL	SC_MAN	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.00	1.769	.151	1.472	2.066
	2.00	2.394	.250	1.901	2.887
2.00	1.00	2.092	.178	1.741	2.444
	2.00	2.018	.190	1.642	2.393

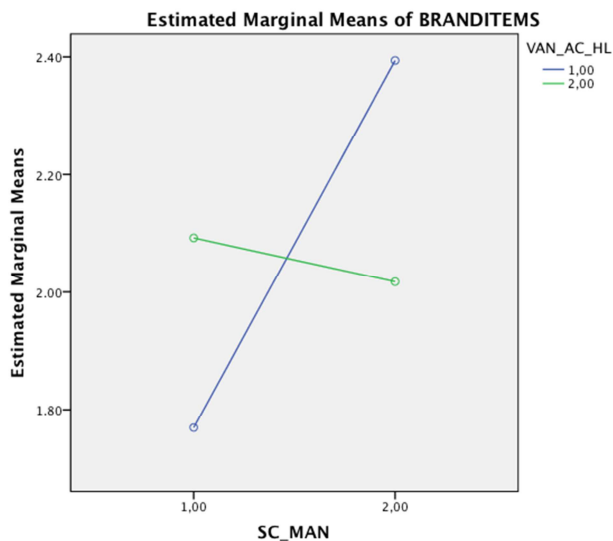


Figure 27 Interaction effect Achievement concern x SC

H5b Empathy x Vanity – Achievement concern

Table 95 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Empathy x Achievement Concern

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	7.436 ^a	3	2.479	1.191	.314
Intercept	980.592	1	980.592	471.251	.000
VAN_AC_HL	.913	1	.913	.439	.508
EMP_HL	1.960	1	1.960	.942	.333
VAN_AC_HL * EMP_HL	4.494	1	4.494	2.160	.143
Error	503.560	242	2.081		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .015 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)

Table 96 Means Achievement Concern and Empathy

VAN_AC_HL	EMP_HL	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	1.00	2.164	.185	1.800	2.528
	2.00	1.714	.182	1.356	2.072
2.00	1.00	2.015	.178	1.665	2.365
	2.00	2.107	.193	1.727	2.487

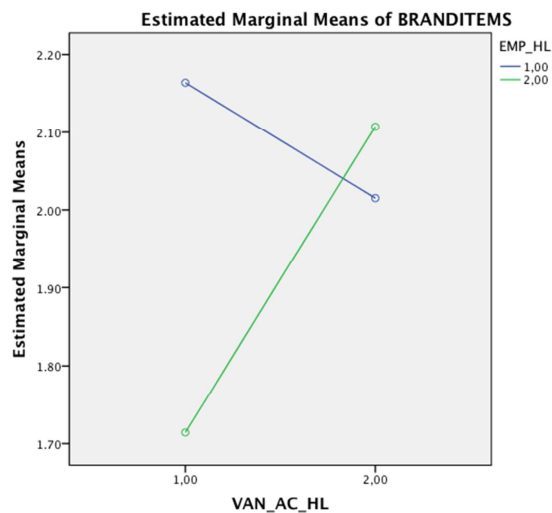


Figure 28 Interaction effect Achievement concern x Empathy

H6b Marital status x Status

Table 97 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Marital Status x SES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.094 ^a	2	4.047	1.956	.144
Intercept	361.919	1	361.919	174.878	.000
MARSTAT_CODE	7.593	1	7.593	3.669	.057
SES_STATUS_HL	1.438	1	1.438	.695	.405
MARSTAT_CODE * SES_STATUS_HL	.000	0	.	.	.
Error	502.902	243	2.070		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .016 (Adjusted R Squared = .008)

H6d Marital status x Vanity – Physical view

Table 98 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Marital Status x Physical View

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	15.861 ^a	3	5.287	2.584	.054
Intercept	268.165	1	268.165	131.067	.000
VAN_PHYSV_HL	2.738	1	2.738	1.338	.248
MARSTAT_CODE	6.856	1	6.856	3.351	.068
VAN_PHYSV_HL * MARSTAT_CODE	.119	1	.119	.058	.810
Error	495.135	242	2.046		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .031 (Adjusted R Squared = .019)

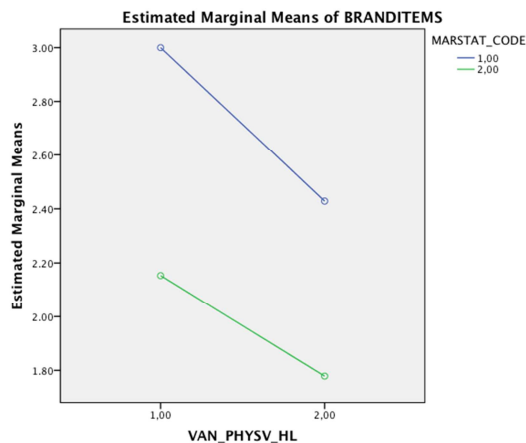


Figure 29 Interaction effect Physical view x Marital status

Attachment N – MANCOVA

Table 99 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	97.425 ^a	40	2.436	1.207	.201
Intercept	75.916	1	75.916	37.630	.000
SEX_CHILD	4.470	1	4.470	2.216	.138
SES_STATUS_HL	4.365	1	4.365	2.164	.143
SC_MAN	7.312	1	7.312	3.624	.058
VAN_PHYSV_HL	6.943	1	6.943	3.441	.065
VAN_AC_HL	.762	1	.762	.378	.540
EMP_HL	3.127	1	3.127	1.550	.215
MARSTAT_CODE	9.990	1	9.990	4.952	.027
Error	413.571	205	2.017		
Total	1491.000	246			
Corrected Total	510.996	245			

a. R Squared = .191 (Adjusted R Squared = .033)

Results of MANCOVA indicate that the overall model is not severely influenced by introducing gender of child as a control variable. However, investigating this variable may be an idea for further studies, as it is weakly significant: $F(1,205) = 2.216$, $p < 0.10$.