

**HOW GENDER AFFECTS THE BUYING-DECISION  
PROCESS AMONG CONSUMERS OF LUXURY GOODS**

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CONSUMERS OF LUXURY GOODS

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## RESUMO

Ao longo das últimas décadas, muitos estudos focaram-se na compra e consumo de marcas de luxo, analisando as motivações de compra de marcas de luxo. No entanto, o papel do género neste contexto tem sido negligenciado. Recentemente, influência do género na compra de produtos de luxo tem sido estudada. No entanto, este tema não está totalmente explorado e o efeito de alguns dos fatores motivacionais ainda não está bem desenvolvido.

Esta dissertação baseia-se em estudos anteriores sobre valores de luxo, comportamento do consumidor e diferenças comportamentais de género. Este estudo tem como objetivo analisar se as mulheres e os homens compram bens de luxo por diferentes razões, através das seguintes perguntas de investigação: Será que o género tem algum efeito da compra de produtos de luxo? E como é que o género afeta o processo de tomada de decisão de compra entre consumidores de luxo?

Para responder a estas questões, fez-se uma análise da literatura existente, bem como um questionário presencial a mulheres e homens portugueses que tivessem comprado, no último ano, acessórios e/ou pronto-a-vestir de luxo.

Os resultados mostram que motivações diferentes são atribuídas a cada género. Ou seja, mulheres e homens compram produtos de luxo por diferentes razões. Foi determinado que as mulheres possuem uma maior intenção de compra que os homens e que respondem mais favoravelmente à atividade promocional das marcas de luxo. Além disso, os homens mostraram ser mais motivados pelo valor material, status e valor conspícuo, sendo mais leais às marcas. Porém, o género não mostrou qualquer efeito no valor hedónico, conformidade para com o grupo e valor de exclusividade.

**Palavras-chave:** Marcas de luxo; Género; Intenção de compra; Motivações do consumidor.

### **JEL Classification System:**

M10 – Business Administration: General

M30 – Marketing and Advertising: General

## **ABSTRACT**

Over the decades, many studies focused on luxury brand consumption and explored the customer perception and motives for purchasing luxury brands. Nevertheless, the role of gender in this context has been neglected. Recently, some researchers have been studying the influence of gender on luxury purchases. However, the subject is not fully explored and the effect of some motivations are still lacking on the studies.

The present dissertation is based on previous researches about luxury values, consumer behaviour and gender behavioural differences. The study aimed to contribute to the analysis of whether men and women buy luxury for different reasons, from which the following research questions arise: Does gender have an effect on the purchase of luxury goods? And how does gender affect the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods?

In order to answer these questions, a documentary analysis was conducted, as well as a face-to-face questionnaire to Portuguese women and men that buy ready-to-wear and/or luxury accessories.

Results revealed that different motivations are attributed to each gender; in other words, women and men buy luxury products for different reasons. It was established that women have a higher purchase intention than men and respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity. Furthermore, men showed to be motivated by materialistic value, status value and conspicuous value, responding more positively to luxury brands loyalty programs than females. Nevertheless, gender did not show an effect on hedonic value, susceptibility to normative influence and uniqueness value.

**Keywords:** Luxury brands; Gender; Purchase intention; Consumer motivations.

### **JEL Classification System:**

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## Sumário Executivo

Não existe uma única definição para a palavra “luxo”, sendo que a sua interpretação difere de acordo com a cultura ou o espaço temporal em que se está. Luxo tanto pode ser um modo de vida, que inclui um conjunto de atividade supérfluas e de ostentação, como um bem ou atividade que, não sendo estritamente necessário, gera conforto ou prazer. A noção de luxo está também associada à história da marca, às características de qualidade e às percepção que o consumidor possui da exclusividade do produto ou do serviço.

O luxo está presente na vida do Homem e na sociedade desde os primórdios do tempo, emergindo como resposta à necessidades emocionais e intelectuais dos consumidores. Expressa-se através de bens/serviços de qualidade e exclusividade e está relacionado com o poder económico-social.

O desenvolvimento da sociedade ocidental permitiu à mulher deter poder de compra, impulsionando-a para o consumo de luxo. Isto, associado com a existência de fatores socioculturais e diferenças comportamentais de género, faz com que as marcas de luxo tenham que comunicar de maneira diferente para mulheres e homens.

Em qualquer área de negócio, perceber o comportamento do consumidor é essencial para prosperar no mercado. O mercado de bens de luxo não é exceção, sendo que, o envolvimento do consumidor com os produtos e com a compra é ainda maior. A literatura existente sobre o comportamento do consumidor no sector do luxo inclui vários conceitos, como valores, motivações e fatores extrínsecos. Esta dissertação faz uma ligação entre o estudo de Wiedmann, Hennings and Siebels (2009) que define a existência de quatro dimensões de valor do luxo, o Brand Luxury Index desenvolvido por Vigneron and Johnson (2004) e a classificação das motivações de luxo de Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015).

Os investigadores de marketing focaram-se na compra e consumo de marcas de luxo, analisando as motivações de compra de marcas de luxo. No entanto, o papel do género neste contexto tem sido negligenciado e existem poucos estudos que relacionem o género com o mercado de luxo. Sendo assim, será que o género tem algum efeito da compra de produtos de luxo? E como é que o género afeta o processo

de tomada de decisão de compra entre consumidores de luxo? As motivações de compra para os homens e mulheres são diferentes? O objetivo desta será responder a estas questões, identificar e traçar o perfil dos dois segmentos de consumidores do mercado de luxo (homens e mulheres) e verificar se as marcas têm que ter em consideração o fator género na sua estratégia de comunicação e de retenção de clientes. Assim, o presente estudo visa contribuir para o desenvolvimento desta área de pesquisa, através da realização de um questionário presencial junto de 144 consumidores de luxo portugueses (nas categorias de acessórios e pronto-a-vestir).

Os resultados demonstraram que existem diferenças nos homens e mulheres no que toca ao processo de tomada de decisão de compra de bens de luxo, sendo que diferentes motivações são atribuídas a cada género. Determinou-se que as mulheres possuem uma maior intenção de compra que os homens e que respondem mais favoravelmente à atividade promocional das marcas de luxo. Além disso, os homens mostraram ser mais motivados pelo valor material, status e valor conspícuo, sendo mais leais às marcas. No entanto, o género não mostrou qualquer efeito no valor hedónico, conformidade para com o grupo e valor de exclusividade.

Assim, aconselha-se às marcas de luxo que diferenciem as estratégias de marketing para mulheres e homens, sendo que estes valorizam diferentes aspetos e são motivados por valores distintos. Além disso, quando comunicarem para homens, as marcas devem mandar uma mensagem que dê ênfase ao status e à ostentação. Por outro lado, recomenda-se que as marcas comuniquem para as mulheres através de relações públicas, celebridades e anúncios com informação detalhada e visual. As marcas devem também criar programas de fidelização específicos para cada género.

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1. Introduction to the topic**

The connotation of luxury differs in time and space and is a subject of many interpretations (Nwankwo *et al.*, 2014). Although used in the consumers' everyday life, it takes multiple definitions for different people and is correlated to the experience of the consumer itself. For example, to Kapferer (1997: 253) the word luxury "defines beauty; it is art applied to functional items." On the other hand, luxury can be defined as an indulgence or convenience beyond what is indispensable. According to Berry (1994), necessities are utilitarian items that relieve an unpleasant state of discomfort, whereas luxury goods enable consumers to satisfy, not only functional needs, but also psychological needs.

Luxury goods are called, in economics, Veblen goods. These are types of material commodities for which the demand increases as the price increases, due to its exclusive nature and appeal as a status symbol (Elvis Picardo, 2010). Veblen goods are types of luxury goods such as expensive wines, jewelry, fashion-designer clothes and accessories, luxury cars, among others.

Within the luxury offer, there is a great offer of luxury categories. There are four principal categories of luxury goods: fashion (couture, ready-to-wear and accessories), perfumes and cosmetics, wines and spirits and watches and jewellery (Jackson, 2004). The categories of luxury automobiles, hotels, tourism, private banking, home furnishing and airlines have also been added, more recently (Chevalier and Mazzalovo, 2008).

Luxury brands are often referred to as high quality, expensive, non-essential products and services that are perceived by consumers as exclusive, prestigious, and authentic offerings with high levels of symbolic and emotional value (Tynan *et al.*, 2010). Similar to Berry (1994), Vigneron and Johnson (1999) state that luxury brands are usually better in delivering subjective intangible benefits to consumers beyond their functional benefits than non-luxury brands.

According to Keller and Lehmann (2006) branding has emerged as a top management priority in the last decade due to the growing realization that brands are one of the most valuable intangible assets that firms have. Hence, brands serve numerous valuable functions. At their most simple level, brands serve as markers for the offerings of a firm. For customers, brands can simplify choice, promise a particular quality level, which is extremely important in the particular case of luxury brands; reduce risk and generate trust.

Similar to what happens in utilitarian items, there is also a buying decision process when it comes to luxury items. Engel, Blackweel and Kollat (1968) developed a five-step model of consumer buying decision process: problem and need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives to meet their needs, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour. This dissertation is mainly focused on the first step, problem and need recognition that happens when there is a gap between the consumer's current situation and the ideal or desired one.

It is also important to analyse gender behavioural differences as this study focus on the different motivations that led women and men into buying luxury products. Women and men are, by nature, different. Evolutionary theories predicted that sexual selection pressures have shaped the way both genders react to different situations, communications and other stimuli. Women often define their identity in accordance with their environment and through interaction with other individuals, while men generally show an individualistic character of autonomy and independence (Prakash, 1992).

Different life orientations of men and women influence their consumer behaviour. These dissimilarities can be seen, not only in every-day life, but also in the consumer buying decision process. For example, men consume conspicuously and use luxury brands to visually portray economic achievement and accomplishment (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004).

## **1.2. Research Objectives**

Society development in western cultures enabled women to have the same rights than men and, ultimately, gain purchasing power. For this reason brands have to learn how to communicate and differentiate their approach to both genders. Understanding what are the key drivers to luxury consumption and what women and men value when purchasing this kind of products is essential to thrive in the market.

While some studies focused on luxury brand consumption, the role of gender in this context has been neglected. For this reason, this dissertation will provide new insights about the behavioural differences between genders in luxury goods consumers and what are the market promotional differentiations to attract and retain both women and men.

In conclusion, the main objectives of this thesis are to examine which are the drivers of purchasing luxury goods for each gender, to identify and profile two consumer segments in the luxury market: women and men and, ultimately, to provide tools and knowledge to managers and marketing experts, in order to communicate effectively to both genders.

## **1.3. Structure of the dissertation**

This dissertation contains five chapters that comprise this study. A brief summary of each chapter is given below.

**Chapter 1:** The first chapter begins with the introduction to the topic to contextualize the reader about the concepts studied and researched throughout the dissertation. It starts with the definition of the concept luxury and the multiple characteristics of luxury brands. It also talks about branding and the function of the brand itself, as well as the buying decision process and all the stages that comprise it. Gender behavioural differences are also referred in this introduction, since the study focus on the different motivations that led men and women to buy luxury goods. The research objectives and the structure of the dissertation are also presented in this chapter.

**Chapter 2:** The literature review is divided in seven parts/sections. The first part is about the luxury word itself and all the definitions of the word. The second part

encompasses the types of luxury consumers and the determinants of consumers' luxury value perceptions in all financial, functional, individual and social dimensions. The third section discusses what a brand is and its purpose; brand identity and brand image; symbolic meaning and, brand personality. The fourth part talks about luxury brands, which are the key fashion brand characteristics and luxury branding. The fifth part is about consumer behaviour and the different approaches to this topic. The theory of planned behaviour, established by Ajzen (1991) is also presented in this section. The sixth part discusses the buying decision process and the EKB model (problem/need recognition; information search; evaluation of alternatives; purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour) as well as the different types of purchase. Finally, the seventh and last section describes gender behavioural differences, such as responses to promotional activity, customer loyalty and lastly, how luxury and gender relate in terms of the existing differences in the buying process.

**Chapter 3:** The methodology chapter is dedicated to the research design and sampling methodology employed to study men and women's motives, purchase intentions, promotional activity opinions and loyalty programs of luxury fashion brands. It includes the research objectives, conceptual model, research hypotheses, research design, data collection (primary and secondary), questionnaire design, sample design and, finally, data treatment.

**Chapter 4:** The results chapter comprises the analysis of all the data gathered previously, including the sample profile, reliability analysis, descriptive statistics and hypothesis test results.

**Chapter 5:** The last chapter includes the discussion, the conclusions of this dissertation, the management implications, limitations of the study and the future research.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1. Definitions of luxury**

There is little agreement when it comes to define the word “luxury”. The meaning of luxury differs in time and space, and is a subject of multiple interpretations (Nwankwo *et al.*, 2014). Cornell (2002) states that “luxury is particularly slippery to define” and that key components are “a strong element of human involvement, very limited supply and recognition of value by others”. On the other hand, there is an agreement in literature to define “luxury goods”. These items, besides having a functional utility, seem to bring other kinds of value to the owner. In other words, luxury products allow consumers to satisfy psychological and functional needs, and it seems that these benefits are the key factor distinguishing them from non-luxury products (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000).

Luxury brands are “those whose ratio of functionality to price is low, while the ratio of intangible and situational utility to price is high” (Nueno and Quelch, 1998). Buying luxury brands serve various consumer needs and motives, aside from the functional utility, such as the desire to portray a social class, communicate a desired self-image and provide self-concept reinforcement (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000).

The luxury fashion industry was born and developed in France in the nineteenth century (Crane, 1997). The term “conspicuous consumption” was introduced by Veblen (1899) to represent the elite segment of the society who consumed luxury goods and possessed higher status in the society.

Nowadays, luxury is seen as an area of interest to both academicians and marketers due to remarkable growth witnessed in the sector. This market has developed exponentially from US\$ 20 billion in 1985 to US\$240 billion in 2014 (Okonkwo, 2009; and Bain and Company, 2014). This growth was mainly possible due to the globalization, digitalization and changes in socio-cultural, economic and political conditions of the emerging economies. In response to significant consumer interest and demand, the suppliers of luxury fashion goods have developed business strategies that seek to serve consumer demand by increasing availability through the opening of dedicated points of sale in several geographic locations (Twitchell, 2002; Vickers and Renaud, 2003). Stimulating and supporting the expansion of the luxury

market has increased media interest in luxury goods consumption and the development of luxury brand awareness as an integral element of consumer culture (Brooke, 2004).

### **2.1.1. Types of luxury**

Mazzalovo (2008) defends that luxury is divided in different sectors of activities:

**Exclusive ready-to-wear category for women and men:** includes all the selective fashion brands such as Chanel, Valentino, Prada, Burberry, Versace, Celine, among others. It also includes brands such as Hugo Boss and Lacoste, because they are selective in their distribution and product approach, despite their lower price.

**Luxury jewellery and watches:** These brands have their own stores, or are sold through a limited number of selective jewellers. Cartier and Rolex are examples of this type of brands.

**Perfumes and Cosmetics:** Can be luxury products when sold only through selective distribution channel. For example, Chanel, Burberry and Prada.

**Fashion accessories brands:** This category includes handbags, leather goods, shoes, glasses, belts and other elements that are included in the total look. Louboutin and Furla are good examples of this category.

**Wines and spirits:** it refers to products with high level of sophistication. They are very expensive, consumed in special occasions and are often gift items and part of brand identity constructions. Macallan and Domaine are two brands of luxury whiskey and wine, respectively.

**Luxury automobiles:** sophisticated products, with strong brands and a selective system of distribution and aftersales service. Some luxury automobiles brands are, for example, Rolls Royce, Bentley, Maserati, Porsche, Ferrari and some Mercedes, BMW or Audi models.

**Luxury hotels:** service, in which guests expect an outstanding treatment and a very special experience. Here, a brand, for example Ritz – Four Seasons Hotel, is only a part of an important mix that includes atmosphere, quality and design.

**Luxury Tourism:** it refers to cruise activities or luxury resort retreats. For example, Crystal Cruises is one of the best in the luxury cruise industry and is known for both its discerning service and interesting itineraries.

**Private Banking:** can also be considered a luxury activity because of its selectivity, quality of service and branding. A good example is ABN AMRO Private Banking.

**Gadgets - a new segment:** Luxury usually refers to images of watches, fine jewellery or designer apparel but as electronic products become "wearable", consumers have started to choose more status-enhancing gadgets (Ap, 2016). For example, British company Goldgenie is offering 24 carat gold-plating services on the iPhone 6 to shoppers around the world. Goldgenie spokesman Frank Fernando said: *"Electronics never really had a brand other than Bang and Olufsen that people covet and value but electronic devices are almost wearable now, aren't they? The way you show off a Gucci handbag or any branded handbag or Jimmy Choo shoes, now the phone adds to that status."*

## 2.2. Luxury Consumers

Luxury takes different forms for different people. What may be luxury to some may not be to others. There are different types of luxury consumers according to the dimensions that influence their perceptions of value and consumption. Vigneron & Johnson (2004) developed the Brand Luxury Index (BLI), presented in Figure 1, to measure consumers' perceptions of the luxury of specific brands or products, proposing that the luxury seeking consumer's decision-making process is explained by five main factors. The authors propose the existence of three luxury dimensions reflecting non-personal-oriented perceptions: perceived conspicuousness, perceived uniqueness and perceived quality. They also state two personal-oriented perceptions: perceived extended self and perceived hedonism. These five dimensions will be listed and briefly explained below:

### Non-personal-oriented perceptions

- Perceived Conspicuousness: consumption of luxury brands is important to individuals that seek social representation and position.
- Perceived Uniqueness: scarcity or limited supply of products enhances

consumers' preferences for a brand (Lynn, 1991).

- Perceived Quality: it is expected that luxury brands offer superior product quality and performance compared with non-luxury brands.

### Personal-oriented perceptions

- Perceived extended self: use of possessions as part of consumers' identity (Belk, 1998), in other words, integrating the brand symbolic meaning into them owns self.
- Perceived Hedonism: the individual acquires emotional benefits and fulfillment through the consumption of luxury goods.

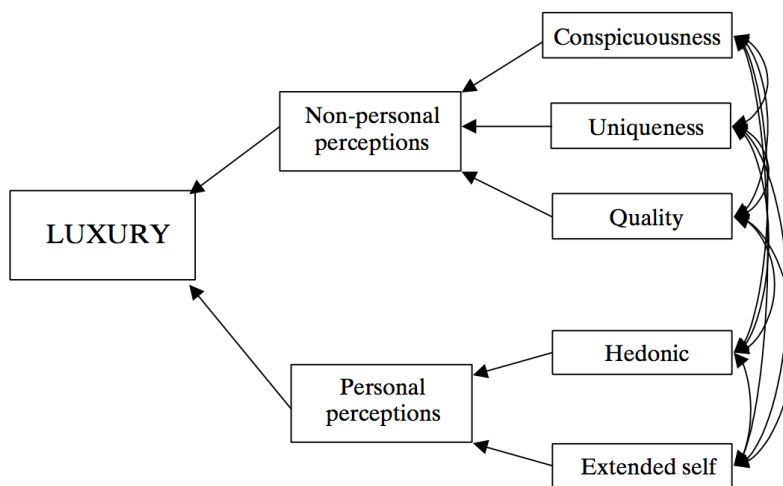


Figure 1: Brand Luxury Index

Source: Vigneron & Johnson (2004)

### 2.2.1. Determinants of Consumers' Luxury Value Perceptions

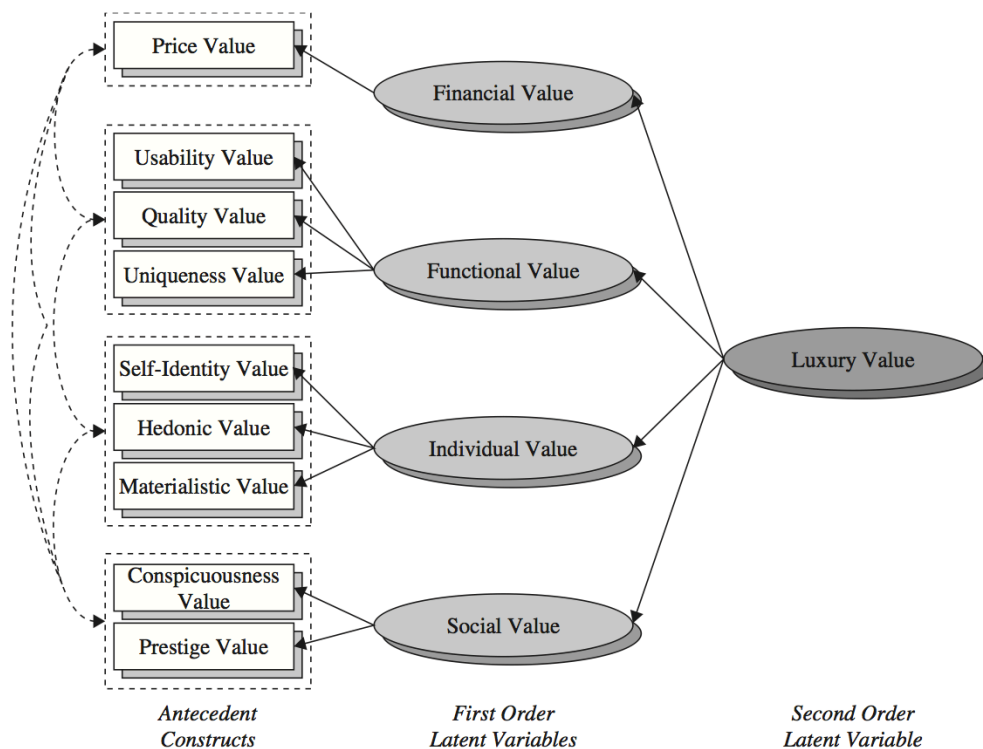
Wiedmann *et al.* (2009) argues that a personally oriented type of consumption as well as functional and financial aspects should also be considered in the marketing management of luxury brands. The authors developed a multidimensional concept that comprises financial, functional, individual, and social components, to identify different types of luxury consumers according to the dimensions that affect their perceptions of value and consumption.

**Financial dimension of luxury value** – refers to monetary aspects such as price and discount, and refers to the value of the product expressed in euros, for example.

**Functional dimension of luxury value** – addresses the core product benefits and basic utilities as quality, uniqueness, usability, reliability, and durability (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991).

**Individual dimension of luxury value** – refers to the customer's personal orientation toward luxury consumption and addresses personal values like materialism, self-identity and hedonism.

**Social dimension of luxury value** – discusses the perceived utility individuals gain with products or services well known within their own social groups.



**Figure 2: Luxury Value Dimensions**

**Source:** Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels (2009)

It is possible to observe in Figure 2 that there are multiple variables that influence and relate with the four key dimensions described above (first order latent variables). Wiedman *et al.* (2009) analyses the selected variables for possible links to the four dimensions as well as the influences on individuals' overall perceptions.

**Price Value** - The price of a good is frequently used to determine its quality. Furthermore, consumers also tend to use a price cue as an indicator of prestige - a high price suggests high quality and status.

**Usability Value** - Takes into account the product's basic usage so consumers expect the item they buy to work right, look good, last a long time, and perform as promised (e.g., Fennel, 1978). These expectations increase with luxury products.

**Quality Value** - One reason why consumers buy luxury brands is because of the superior quality reflected in the brand name (Gentry *et al.*, 2001). High quality is seen as a fundamental characteristic of a luxury product and it is one of the reasons why consumers buy them.

**Uniqueness Value** - Uniqueness is based on the assumption that the perceived exclusivity of the product enhances a consumer desire or preference for it (Lynn, 1991). This value is also associated with consumers' desire for differentiation and exclusivity.

**Self-Identity Value** - It refers to the consumers' private aspect regarding their self-perception. Consumers can use luxury items to integrate symbolic meaning into their own identity or use luxury brands to develop and maintain that identity (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004).

**Hedonic Value** - Products and services carry an emotional value in addition to their functional utility. Studies have shown that luxury products are more likely to provide intangible benefits than others (Dubois & Laurent, 1994). Thus, hedonism describes the pleasure and self-satisfaction acquired when purchasing a luxury product.

**Materialism** – This concept can be described as the degree to which individuals mainly find that possessions play a central role in their lives (Chang & Arkin, 2002). Hence, “*The more materialistic consumers are, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes related to acquisition and to assign a high priority to material possessions.*” (Wiedmann *et al.*, 2009: 632).

**Conspicuousness Value** - Conspicuous consumption is related to reference groups' influence, social representation and status. Therefore, consumption of luxury items is

important to individuals that seek social representation and position.

**Prestige Value in Social Networks** – It is important for individuals to communicate their possessions and social relationships in order to display their status (Dittmar, 1994). People also tend to go along with the majority opinion of their membership groups when generating attitudes (Festinger, 1954). As luxury brands and products often involve prestigious values, individuals tend to use them to increase their sense of belonging and, ultimately, their social status.

In this study the authors clustered groups according to their primary perceived luxury brand values. This indicated distinct market segments to which different sets of luxury products appeal or for which advertising strategies could be implemented. The resulting segments are the following:

- **Materialists:** these consumers showed the highest ratings for the materialistic and usability value of luxury goods;
- **Rational Functionalists:** Members of this cluster displayed the highest mean ratings of all groups for quality value, followed by uniqueness and self-identity value;
- **Extravagant Prestige-Seekers:** consumers that are more likely to take social value aspects of luxury consumption into account;
- **Introvert Hedonists:** For this group, the hedonic value aspects of self-directed pleasure and life enrichment are the most important when it comes to their perception of luxury value.

### **2.2.2. Motivation for luxury consumption**

Motivation is a force that prompts action (Pinder, 1998) and relates to conscious or unconscious decision involving how, when and why to allocate effort to a task or activity (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985). Buying luxury brands serve various consumer needs and motives such as a desire to portray a specific social class, communicate a desired self-image, provide self-concept reinforcement or be a visible proof that the consumer can afford higher-priced products (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000). Due to the rapid growth of the worldwide luxury market, understanding the reasons behind consumer's purchase of luxury (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009) has become very crucial for both luxury researchers and managers.

Focusing on luxury values, Vigneron and Johnson (2004) recommended a “brand luxury index” which included “personal perception” and “non-personal perception” as key aspects related to luxury value perception. Wiedmann, Hennings and Siebels (2009) conceptualized four dimensions: “social value; individual value; functional value and financial value”.

Literature identifies two key reasons behind consumption of luxury goods: internal motivations (personal value) and external motivations (social value). For that reason, Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) classified motives behind consumers’ luxury goods consumption as “intrinsic” (personal) factors and “extrinsic” (social) factors. The theoretical foundation of this study is based upon the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991).

Intrinsic factors refer to purchase of luxury goods purely for inner satisfaction. Extrinsic factors refer to the purchase of luxury goods primarily to flaunt money and status to others (O’Cass and Frost, 2002). Table 1 displays both intrinsic (personal) and extrinsic (social) factors, values and motivations behind luxury goods consumption.

Factors	Luxury Customer Value	Motivations
<b>Intrinsic (Personal)</b>	Hedonic value	Self-directed pleasure
	Quality value	Superior performance
	Materialistic value	Acquisition of worldly possessions
	Self-identity value	Self-actualization
<b>Extrinsic (Social)</b>	Status value	Signal power & position
	Conspicuous value	Buying to impress others
	Susceptibility to normative influence	Group-conformity
	Uniqueness value	Non-conformity

**Table 1: Factors, values and motivations behind luxury goods consumption**

**Source: Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015)**

### **Susceptibility to normative influence**

All the values were presented before, except the susceptibility to normative influence. Bourne (1957) coined the “theory of reference group”, which became the basis of decision-making process for luxury items. In 1980s, various studies were built based on the findings of Bourne (1957), which emphasized the impact of reference groups on use of luxury brand (Mason, 1992; Bearden and Etzel, 1982). Social environment and interpersonal interactions have deep impact on development of consumers’ buying behaviour (Bearden *et al.*, 1989). Consumers who stressed on interpersonal relationships positively responded to status-oriented products, whereas consumers who were not socially oriented emphasized more on the utilitarian value of the products (Czellar, 2003).

### **2.3. Brand**

According to Kapferer (2008), brands are possibly one of the major symbols of postmodern societies and economies. Present in our everyday life, they penetrate and influence several of its spheres: economic, social, and cultural, among others.

There are multiple definitions for what a brand is. According to Kotler (2011), a brand can be a name, term, sign, symbol, design or a combination of them with the purpose to identify goods and services of a seller or group of sellers, and to differentiate them from competitors. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines brand as “A name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller’s good or service as distinct from those of other sellers. The legal term for brand is trademark. A brand may identify one item, a family of items, or all items of that seller.”

Although there are several definitions, everyone agrees that building a strong brand is decisive for an organization to thrive in the market. Therefore, a brand is an essential element to identify and differentiate products or services as well as an instrument to communicate with existing and potential customers, a legal protection of unique features and, ultimately, a valuable intangible asset that increases earnings and the financial value of firms.

As a luxury brand, it is very important to communicate to consumers all the brand aspects and symbolic properties, because consumers tend to express and enhance their identity and ideal personality by purchasing and consuming them.

### **2.3.1. Types of brand**

When it comes to the brand, the company has to choose the type of brand that it is more coherent with their global strategy. According to Lindon *et al.* (2011), there are three main brand categories: the corporate or institutional brand, the product brand and umbrella brand.

**Corporate or institutional branding:** Attempt to attach higher credibility to a new product by associating it with a well-established company name. Corporate branding can be used for every product marked by a company. Aaker (2004) states that: “The corporate brand defines the firm that will deliver and stand behind the offering that the customer will buy and use.”

**Product brands:** Every product has a different positioning and a specific brand. Commodities become branded products when they have awareness in the marketplace and the product has compelling characteristics that make it different than others in the product category.

**Umbrella branding:** is a marketing practice involving the use of a single brand name for the sale of two or more related products. Umbrella branding is mainly used by companies with positive brand equity. All products use the same means of identification and lack additional brand names or symbols.

Besides these three major categories there are other types of brands, such as personal brands, service brands, public brands, place brands, investor brands, NGO (Non Governmental Organization) or Non Profit brands, global brands, generic brands and luxury brands, among others (Somma, 2015). A brand can also function across a number of several roles simultaneously – which makes it a hybrid brand.

### **2.3.2. Brand Identity and Brand Image**

An organization's brand identity is how that business wants to be perceived by consumers. All the components of the brand, such as the name, logo, tone and others, are created by the business to reflect their value to their customers.

According to Aaker (1996) brand identity can be defined as a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. These represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers.

Brand identity is not the same as brand image, which is how consumers really perceive the brand. It can be defined as the impression in the consumer's mind of a brand's personality. According to Maurya and Mirsha (2012) brand image refers to the ideas, feeling and attitudes that consumers create about a brand as an outcome of their interpretation of a brand's identity.

### **2.3.3. Symbolic meaning, brand personality and luxury**

A symbol is an entity that represents and stands for another entity (Dittmar, 1992). The symbolic properties of brands and products are essential to the expression of a person's identity and to understand the personalities of others (Solomon, 1983).

The symbolic meaning that a brand acquires is frequently called brand personality, which is described as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997). A brand's personality is an essential constituent of the brand's equity and is associated to the value a consumer assigns to the brand (Keller, 1993). This concept is extremely important to luxury brand management because it helps researchers and brand managers to understand consumers who express themselves through acquiring and consuming luxury brands and goods. One of the most important characteristics of a luxury brand is its symbolic function (Fionda & Moore, 2009). The primary utility of a luxury brand good is understood to be its symbolic role in gratifying the consumer craving for status or self-esteem. As stated before, luxury brands allow consumers to acquire psychological values and to identify and enhance their social status (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004).

## **2.4. Luxury Brands**

Conceptualizations of luxury are usually derived from a consumption perspective (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; Gutsatz, 1996; Dubois, Laurent and Czellar, 2001; Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000). There has emerged strong literature that pursues to explain luxury consumption, specifically in terms of having a symbolic function that operates at the individual and collective level. Therefore, luxury is identified in terms of its psychological value (Vickers and Renaud, 2003), its function as a status symbol (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000; Danziger, 2005; Chadha and Husband, 2006) and as a highly involved consumption experience that is strongly consistent to a person's self-concept (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999). According to Jackson and Haid (2002), luxury brands are desired not only for their functionality but also because they provide to the consumer a status perception (derived from the feeling of scarcity).

From a product perspective, luxury brands are frequently defined in terms of their excellent quality, high transaction value, distinctiveness, exclusivity and craftsmanship (Jackson, 2001; Nueno and Quelch, 1998; Kapferer, 2008; Radon, 2002). Jackson (2004: 158) proposes the following as the core characteristics of the luxury product: "... exclusivity, premium prices, image and status which combine to make them more desirable for reasons other than function".

Great attention has been given to the dimensions of the luxury brand. Nueno and Quelch (1998) highlight the importance of product excellence to the development of a credible luxury brand, in addition to the significance of controlled distribution. Wetlaufer (2004) interviews Bernard Arnault, the chief executive officer of LVMH, who emphasises the significance of corporate identity, culture and spirit, and indicates the importance of creative excellence in luxury brand development. Phau and Prendergast (2000) highlight four key luxury attributes: well-known brand identity, quality of the product and design, exclusivity and lastly, brand awareness. Alleres (2003) suggested six characteristics of a luxury fashion brand derived from the influence of the French luxury brands, which are the brand name, recognition of the product symbols, creations, creators, locations and the history of the brand.

Okonkwo (2007) provides one of the more recent models, in which the author identifies ten core characteristics of a successful fashion brand: distinct brand

identity; global reputation; emotional appeal; innovative, creative, appealing and unique products; consistent delivery of premium quality; heritage of craftsmanship; premium price; exclusivity in goods production; high visibility and, lastly, tightly controlled distribution.

#### **2.4.1. Luxury Brands vs. Mass-Market Brands**

Luxury brands differentiate themselves due to their quality, uniqueness and exclusivity. On the other hand, mass production brands have the purpose to meet the consumer demand, being purchased on a regular basis. These types of brands have a considerable and diversified distribution channel with a lot of points of sale, contrary to what happens in luxury brands. Zara, H&M and Adidas are examples of mass production brands.

Mass production can be defined by the production of large amounts of standardized products on assembly lines. For this reason, the brands originated by this type of production are not related with status or exclusivity. According to Nueno and Quelch (1998) mass production brands are evaluated by their favorable ratio of price versus functionality, while luxury brands are desired for its high ratio of intangible utility and situational price. Their consumers know that, in order to have low priced items, the quality and performance will not be elevated.

Table 2 presents the main differences between these two types of brands, according to Jackson and Haid (2002).

<b>Associations with Luxury Brands</b>	<b>Associations with Mass Production Brands</b>
Exclusivity	Mass Production
Scarcity	Abundance
Unique	Common
High Quality	Average/low Quality

**Table 2: Differences between luxury and mass production brands**

**Source: Jackson and Hadid (2002)**

#### **2.4.2. Key luxury fashion brand characteristics**

As stated before, there are multiple identified dimension/key attributes within the existing literature. Within the luxury concept the brand name and identity are considered crucial (Okonkwo, 2007; Jackson, 2004; Alleres, 2003; Dubois and Laurent, 1994). Moore and Birtwistle (2005) state that the luxury brand requires a relevant, clear and defined marketing strategy. The strategy is formed to assist in developing the global reputation and presence of the brand, and to leverage the brand status and awareness.

Several other attributes are considered crucial for creating a luxury brand, including product and design attributes of quality, craftsmanship, and innovative, creative and unique products (Okonkwo, 2007; Nueno and Quelch, 1998). Also, Bruce and Kratz (2007) highlight the fact that the iconic coveted products are central to the luxury product offer. These iconic products are characterised by authenticity, quality and exclusive characteristics that are aspirational. These key products often epitomise the brand signature or “brand DNA”, as they can assist in portraying the personality and values of the creators. The appointment of the high-profile fashion designer enhances the appeal of the products (Jackson, 2004; Bruce and Kratz, 2007) and consequently increases their relevance in the current market. When it comes to the price, there is an agreement in the literature that luxury goods typically have a premium price when compared with other products of the same category.

The components of rarity and exclusivity are considered a significant trait of luxury brands (Dubois and Paternault, 1995; Dubois and Duguesne, 1993), as well as the aura of scarcity that adds to the appeal and desire for luxury brands (Hanna, 2004). Marketing managers can sustain the exclusivity of the brand by endorsing, controlling distribution and price, as well as producing limited edition lines.

The environment and service provided by luxury brands are also crucial attributes in the luxury proposition. Luxury stores are considered shopping cathedrals (Zola, 1863) that use architecture to convey a sense of splendor and define the shopping experience for customers.

Customer service is another vital component in the luxury consumption experience. Within fashion, branding has become as much about branding the experience as the product (Moore, 2003). Along with the control of the consumer experience, Moore and Birtwistle (2005) and Okonkwo (2007) state the importance of controlling the manufacturer, particularly with license agreements to ensure that the brand positioning is not compromised.

Brand heritage is considered prevalent in several models. Many luxury brands have a long history, which adds to the authenticity of the brand (Jackson, 2001), and is considered one of the hallmarks of a luxury brand. The preservation of heritage has the ability to create nostalgia and credibility for a brand (Naughton and Vlasic, 1998), and is often correlated to the heritage of the country of origin.

Powerful marketing communications are considered fundamental to building the luxury brand image (Okonkwo, 2007). Advertising can provide support in establishing the brand image, which consequently assists in creating identity and attraction, generating awareness.

Lastly, the company spirit is also considered key to luxury fashion brand success. The investment in the spirit or culture of a firm gives the necessary support for a brand to extend to an internal commitment to the brand (Tosti and Stotz, 2001). Internal branding assists the employees in understanding desire, and encourages them to deliver on the brand promise (Lynch and Chernatony, 2004).

### **2.4.3. Luxury Branding**

According to Kotler and Keller (2012), branding is providing products and services with the power of a brand, which means inducing the consumer to create a mental image of the product in his head, in order to create confidence and trust.

Branding can also be described as the activity responsible for creating all the intangible benefits, which is crucial when it comes to luxury goods. As it was said before, purchasing luxury brands attend multiple consumer needs, besides the functional utility of the good itself. This requires an extremely strong branding that conveys all the intangible benefits of the product or service.

Luxury branding is even more demanding and well thought than other products and service brands. From the performance and advertising to the location of the stores, every detail is crucial to the construction of the brand's image. According to Arora (2013) there are some key points in luxury branding:

- Product excellence by itself is not enough - The luxury brand must perform at an experiential level as well;
- As luxury consumers evolve, not only does product quality act as a point of differentiation, but also as a mean to justify a premium value and pricing;
- It is crucial to generate on-going relevance and enthusiasm through advertising, public relationships and public-figures that represent the brand;
- Luxury brands must continue to maintain a certain degree of exclusivity and status with the scarcity and placement factors.

Concluding, it is reasonable to affirm that branding and brand management are clearly important management priorities for luxury companies and all types of organizations.

## **2.5. Consumer Behaviour**

Consumer behaviour refers to understanding why and how individuals and groups engage in consumer activities and how they affect them. Consumer buyer behaviour is considered to be an inseparable part of marketing and Kotler and Keller (2012) state that consumer buying behaviour is the study of the ways of buying and disposing of goods, ideas, services or experiences by individuals, groups or organizations in order to satisfy their needs and wants. In turn, buyer behaviour has been defined as “a process, which through inputs and their use through process and actions leads to satisfaction of needs and wants” (Enis, 1974: 228). Consumer buyer behaviour “refers to the buying behaviour of final consumers, both individuals and households, who buy goods and services for personal consumption” (Kumar, 2010: 218).

Multiple definitions have been proposed for the term of consumer buyer behaviour. For example, Solomon *et al* (1995) describes consumer buying behaviour as a process of choosing, purchasing, using and disposing of products or services by the

individuals and groups in order to satisfy their needs and wants. Similar definition of consumer buying behaviour is offered by Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) in which they describe it as behaviour that consumers express when they select and purchase the products or services using their available resources in order to satisfy their needs and desires. Stallworth (2008) defines it as a set of activities that involve the purchase and use of goods and services, which resulted from the customers' emotional and mental needs and behavioural responses. Gabbot and Hogg (1998) also stated that the process may contain different activities and stages.

Although the definitions given above are various, they all lead to the common view that consumer buying behaviour is a process of selecting, purchasing and disposing of goods and services according to the needs and wants of the consumers.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2003) describe two different kinds of consuming entities: the personal consumers and the organizational consumer. The personal consumer buys goods and services for his or her own use, for the use of the household or as a gift. In each of these contexts, the products are purchased for final use by individuals who are referred to as end users. On the other hand, the organizational consumers include profit and not profit businesses, government agencies and institutions, all of which must acquire products, equipment and services in order to run their organizations.

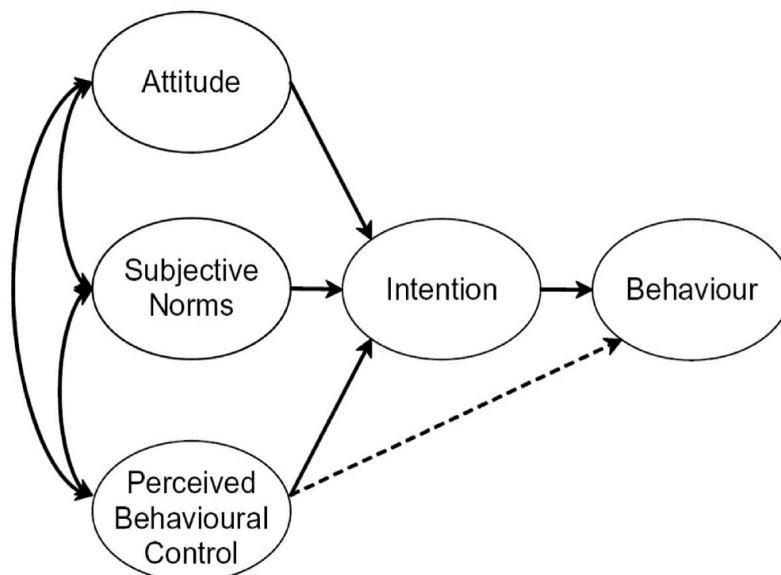
The importance to study the consumer buying behaviour has intensified due to the fast pace of globalization, which has been consistently changing the way consumers are shopping. According to Nargundkar (2008), globalization has changed the way the businesses operate and target their customers. As more retailers operate in more than one country, it is imperative to pay close attention to the difference in culture, lifestyle, taste, expectations and many other factors that determine the differing buying behaviour of customers from various countries. In conclusion, consumer behaviour differs across varied cultures - the marketing strategies, which were found to be successful in context of western culture, may not work efficiently in eastern cultures (Wong and Ahuvia, 1998). It is vital for marketers "to understand who their customers are, where to find them and the key factors that drives their behaviour" (Okonkwo, 2007: 70).

Consumers need products because they satisfy their needs. Maslow (1954) states that products involve emotion, therefore they have to communicate the physical, functional and, ultimately, the emotional significance of their needs. The involvement of a consumer with a purchase is not only with the product/service itself, but also with all the processes related to it.

According to Bruwer & Li (2007), consumers can be defined as heterogeneous individuals who demonstrate similarities that enable them to be aggregated in homogeneous groups regarding marketing products. They go through decision-making processes of needs recognition; selection, negotiating, risk perception and purchase to use a good or service that meet their needs (Kotler, 2011). All this stages influence and determines if a consumer acquires or not a product. Hence, consumer behaviour relates to all the decision-making processes, activities and values involved in product acquisition.

### 2.5.1. Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour is based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). TRA states that behaviour is affected by behavioural intention, which, in turn, is affected by attitude and subjective norms.



**Figure 3: Theory of planned behaviour**

Source: Ajzen (1991), p. 182

Figure 3 shows the conceptual framework based on the theory of planned behaviour. It portrays that a person's behaviour is related to his/her behavioural intention to conduct that behaviour. Behavioural intention, in turn, is affected by 3 factors:

- A person's attitude towards the behaviour;
- Subjective norms;
- Perceived behavioural control.

**Attitude** towards the behaviour is determined by the intrinsic (personal) factors. It is determined by the beliefs about the consequences of performing the behaviour and the evaluation of these consequences. **Subjective norms** are determined by extrinsic (social) factors. They reflect social influences and are the person's perception of the social pressure put on him/her to perform or not the behaviour in question. The different referents involved in the subjective norms may be family, friends, colleagues or others. **Perceived behavioural control** is determined by the resources (income) possessed by an individual. This concept can be defined as, "*an individual's perception of the ease or difficulty in performing the behaviour of interest, given the presence or absence of requisite resources and opportunities*" (Ajzen, 1991).

### 2.5.2. Theory of planned behaviour and luxury

The theory of planned behaviour, established by Ajzen (1991), can explain the factors affecting consumers' purchase intention for luxury goods since it considers the impact of personal and social factors on consumer purchasing behaviour.

Attitude towards luxury brands has a significant impact on consumers' purchase intentions for these brands (Bian and Forsythe, 2012). Summers *et al.* (2006) stated that luxurious female consumers' favorable attitude towards buying apparel made with American alligator leather is positively related to their purchase intention.

Social pressure plays a significant role in luxury purchase decisions. Summers *et al.* (2006) concluded that subjective norm is positively related to wealthy female's intention to purchase a luxury product. In another study, Bellman, Teich and Clark (2009) applied theory of reasoned action model and found that young females' purchase intention for fashion accessories is positively associated with their subjective norm in relation to buying fashion accessories. Ling (2009), also revealed

that subjective norm is a significant forecaster of Chinese consumers' purchase intention regarding luxury brands.

Many studies have broadly accepted positive correlation of income with consumption of luxury goods. Studies have revealed that the basic characteristics of luxury fashion brands are exclusivity and premium prices (Nueno and Quelch, 1998). Consequently, it can be said that only people with vast resources can afford to buy these highly priced luxury goods. This argument is supported by various empirical studies, which have revealed that consumers' readiness to pay higher prices is an indicator of behavioural intention (O Cass and Choy, 2008; Miller and Mills, 2012). Furthermore, Ling (2009) concluded that perceived behavioural control is significantly related to Chinese consumers' purchase intention regarding luxury fashion goods.

## **2.6. Buying Decision Process**

To understand the market it is important to study how the consumer behaves. Knowing how people make decisions about what they want, need or buy regarding a product, service or company is crucial to understand how potential customers will respond to a new service or product.

Product acquisition relates to three different phases: purchase, consumption and disposal. The acquisition begins in the mind of the consumer when he recognizes a need. This leads to alternatives assessment between products with an examination of each one's advantages, disadvantages, risks and benefits. The next step is the decision to buy or not the good/service. After the purchase, an evaluation is made according to the value and benefits derived from the good (Payne & Frow, 2005). It is also important to state that the consumer behaviour towards commodities is much simpler, as it is a routine procedure. When it comes to unfamiliar purchases or/and with a superior capital expense, the process is a lot more complex. (Kotler, 2011).

According to Bettman (1979), the consumer is central to a host of information processing activities. He receives a large amount of information externally from the market, competitors and the environment. He also develops a store of information that he builds over time from his learning, experiences, and social influences, among others. According to this author, consumers have a limited capacity for processing

information. To make their decisions, the customer uses simplifying strategies to process information, that Bettman calls Heuristics. The main components of this model are processing capacity, motivation, attention, information acquisition and evaluation, decision process, consumption and learning processes. Bettman focuses mostly on information processing and critics argue that the model is difficult to implement practically. It starts with the motivation to search for information; the attentiveness to information; acquisition and evaluation of information and decision-making.

Engel, Blackweel and Kollat (1968), developed another model of consumer buying decision process. A key feature of the EKB model is the differences between high and low involvement as part of the buying process: high involvement is present in the high-risk purchases, like luxury goods and low involvement is present in the low risk purchase. The model also claims that a person's purchase decision is often influenced by more than one individual. According to this model, the consumer buying decision process is divided in five different steps:

- **Problem/need recognition:** This recognition happens when there is a gap between the consumer's actual situation and the ideal and desired one;
- **Information search:** seeking information about possible solutions to the problem;
- **Evaluation of alternatives:** assess the different alternatives that were offered to the consumer, evaluate the most suitable to his needs and choose the one he considers it is best for him;
- **Purchase decision:** choose the product or brand that seems most appropriate to his needs and proceed to the actual purchase;
- **Post-purchase behaviour:** evaluate the conformance with his original needs (the ones who caused the initial buying behaviour).

### 2.6.1. Buyer Roles

According to Chand (2013), when an individual consumer makes a purchase, he decides what he would purchase and how. However, groups like households also make purchases and, in such buying processes, members of the group influence the purchase decision in many ways, and at different stages in the buying process. Members assume specific roles and interact actively to make the purchase decision.

For this reason, there are several buyer roles:

- 1. Initiator:** The person who starts the process of considering a purchase is the initiator, since he feels the need for the product. He may also initiate the search for information about the purchase decision on his own, or by involving others.
- 2. Influencer:** The influencers attempt to persuade others in the decision-making process to influence the outcome of the decision-making process. Influencers gather information and attempt to impose their choice criteria on the decision. These influencers may be requested by the initiator, or may supply relevant information on their own. Influencers may be a part of the reference group of the initiator, experts in the particular categories, retailers or other individuals.
- 3. Payer:** The payer is the individual with the power or/and financial authority to purchase the product. The payer is usually presumed to have a large influencing power on the product purchase.
- 4. Decider:** The decider is the person who makes the ultimate choice regarding which product to buy. This may be the initiator, the payer or the user, depending on the dynamics of the decision-making process.
- 5. Buyer:** The buyer conducts the transaction. He visits stores, makes payments and effects delivery. Usually, the buyer is the only player that is involved in the decision-making process.
- 6. User:** He is the actual user or consumer of the product. The user may or may not be the initiator. The product can be used by an individual or by a group.

### **2.6.2. Types of purchase**

Consumers make purchase decisions when they buy many types of items: small, like a chocolate bar or larger ones, such as a car. After recognizing their need, the search for products/services begins and the evaluation of the options is made from the pricing to a brand's reputation. There are four types of purchases:

- **Impulse Purchases**

An impulse purchase consists in an unplanned decision to buy a product or service, made just before a purchase. The consumer makes a purchase with little or no planning involved. This mostly happens with low-priced items.

An example of this type of purchase is the candy displayed in the supermarket checkout aisles.

- **Routine Purchase**

Those are purchases where consumer is used to purchasing every day, once a week or monthly. These can vary from a cup of coffee to buying eggs, yogurt and fruit from the supermarket. Customers spend a small amount of time deciding whether or not to purchase the item and don't need to read reviews or consulting with friends.

- **Limited Decision Making**

When customers engage in purchases that require limited decision-making, they seek advice or a suggestion from family or friends. In this case the consumer researches a few options, but his search is not as thorough, or as time consuming, as with a higher priced item.

- **Extensive Decision Making**

Purchases for high priced electronics or large purchases such as a home or car require consumers to use extensive decision-making. Consumers' spend considerable amounts of time researching a high number of potential options before they buy. They speak with friends, family and sales professionals. The decision-making process lasts longer, because the consumer is investing a substantial amount of money.

Besides the purchases described above, they can also be experiential and material. Experiential purchases are defined as intangible events that provide new experiences to the consumer. On the other hand, material ones are tangible objects/products bought when the consumers main purpose it to gain a physical possession (Van Boven, 2005). When a person has the main intention of getting a life experience they make experiential purchases. These are more intrinsically motivated and produce more favourable outcomes, such as happiness and wellbeing.

Luxury purchases should encompass both types of purchase. At a product level, it must satisfy the functional and utilitarian characteristic, as well as deliver on its practical physical attributes. Furthermore, a luxury brand must also perform at an experiential level, which means that the buy has to integrate the emotional value of the brand - beyond what the products is to what it represents (Arora, 2008).

## **2.7. Gender behavioural differences**

Research in personality psychology has found a “gender effect”: men tend to be more assertive and risk taking than women, while women are generally higher than men in anxiety and tender-mindedness (Brody & Hall, 2000). The effects of these sex differences lead to predictable differences in men’s and women’s leisure behaviours, occupational preferences, and health-related outcomes (Lippa, 2005). Sex dissimilarities in personality traits, however, are not uniform across the globe. At times, sex differences can be much larger in some cultures than in others. One finding has been that sex differences in personality traits are often greater in successful, healthy, and democratic cultures in which women have more opportunities equal with men, meaning that western nations with individualistic values exhibit greater sex differences in personality traits than do collectivistic cultures (Costa *et al*, 2001).

There are multiple explanations to why men and women have different personality traits. There are three main theoretical approaches to the study of gender: Socio-cultural theories; evolutionary, and hormone and brain science approaches (Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2014).

Social–cultural theories state that differences in the genders' inherent physical capacities, such as the size, strength and child-bearing capability, impelled males and females to adopt different roles, and this in turn gave rise to congenial cultural beliefs and orientations that have perpetuated over time.

The evolutionary explanations state that sex-related differences arise, in part, from innate dispositional differences between the Genders (Geary, 1998). In this view, the sexes are thought to psychologically differ only in domains in which they have faced different adaptive problems throughout evolutionary history. As a consequence, much of the sex-related differences that appear in modern societies may be due to sexual selection pressures that shaped psychological sex differences in the evolutionary past (Buss & Kenrick, 1998) For example, sex differences in parenting levels are thought to have led to sexual selection pressures causing men (the ones that had fewer responsibilities when it comes to raising their children) to be more prone to take risks and to seek social dominance while women had to be more cautious and

nurturing. While men follow life goals directed toward task-oriented thinking and performance-motivated acting, women more strongly life goals directed toward social and emotional relationships with others (e.g., Meyers-Levy, 1988; Prakash, 1992).

Besides evolutionary explanations, there are artifact explanations. Costa *et al.* (2001) argues that the environment and culture explain some personality traits and states that in individualist cultures, an act of kindness by a woman may be noticed as an act of free choice that reflects her personality. The same act by a woman in a collectivist culture might be seen as mere obedience with sex role norms. Eventually all of these different approaches can complement each other when explaining personality sex differences across and within cultures. A study conducted by Schmitt (2008), showed that more modern and progressive cultures tend to have larger sex differences in personality than do more traditional cultures. Like morphological and physiological features, gender differences in personality are vulnerable to environmental pressures. As society becomes more prosperous and more egalitarian, dissimilarities between men and women have more space to develop and the gap that exists between men and women in their personality traits becomes broader (Ridley, 2003).

All of this information supports the fact that women and men have different drivers and personality traits, to which brands have to pay attention.

#### **2.7.1. Gender differences in responses to promotional activity**

Genders differ in responding to promotional materials. For example, Putrevu (2004) found that males responded more favourably to ads that were simple, focused on attributes and included relatively aggressive comparative ad claims.

Chang (2007) found that while exposure to a more attention-getting comparative versus non-comparative ad increased males' ad involvement and thus their attitudes toward the target brand, females' attitudes were less favourable to a comparative ad as it prompted them to ponder the ad more deeply and infer that it aimed to manipulate consumers. Furthermore, consistent with the selectivity hypothesis contention that females are more sensitive to detailed information than males, Berney-Reddish and Areni (2006) found that only females were less accepting of ad claims containing qualifying subtle details, such as hedge (such as “probably”) and

pledge (“definitely” and “absolutely”) words.

Fisher and Dubé (2005) found that the genders react differently to ads that relay alternative types of emotions. Because sex roles dictate that males should exhibit agency (capacity of individuals to act independently and to make their own free choices) and do so especially when same-sex individuals are present, these investigators stated that dissimilar to females, males' responses to emotional ads should vary depending on both the agency of the emotion evoked and whether same or opposite-sex persons are present.

Males rated ads as less pleasant and viewed them less positively when the ads invoked low-agentic emotions (such as anxiety or tenderness) and were viewed with another male. In contrast, males' responses were unaffected when they viewed those ads in private or when ads with high-agentic emotions (like anger or joy) were viewed either alone or in another male's presence. Yet, females' responses were stable regardless of the ad emotion type and social context.

On the other hand, a study conducted by Noseworthy, Cotte, and Lee (2011) proposed that females' relative superiority at visual-spatial elaboration - noticing new objects added to a visual display and seeing cohesions among them, might influence how genders interpret promotions with visual ads for multiple products.

The researchers suggested that when presented with a display of visual ads where one contains an extreme visual incongruity, females' visual-spatial elaboration should enable them alone to make sense of and favourably evaluate the incongruent product, but only in a competing ad context.

These studies come to support that men and women think and act different when it comes to evaluating ads and buying products. For this reason, it is crucial for companies to know who their target is, understand it and, ultimately, approaching it correctly when marketing their products.

### **2.7.2. Gender differences in customer loyalty**

Gender differences can also affect customer loyalty. Noble, Griffith, and Adjei (2006) found that males' loyalty to local sellers was motivated by convenience and information attainment, but females' was driven by desire for browsing, assortment,

uniqueness and social interaction opportunity. Furthermore, loyalty programs that incorporate alternative features are likely to strengthen relationships with male versus female customers. Melnyk and van Osselaer (2012) suggested that males should respond more positively to features that signal power and status, while females who emphasize personal relationships should place greater value on features that highlight one's individual preferences. Several studies supported that males favored loyalty programs that magnified status when it was salient to others, while females favored programs that highlighted personalization that was not publically visible.

### **2.7.3. Gender and luxury goods**

Companies market their products differently to males and females. Meyers-Levy and Loken (2014: 130) state that *“They might position a convenience meal to working moms rather than dads, develop luxury brand relationships online for men but employ more personal messages for women, or develop child-targeted advertising that focuses on different benefits for girls versus boys.”*

As stated before, men and women have different behavioural characteristics. For this reason, marketers should use uniqueness claims in their advertising copy and differentiate their product designs between male and female target groups, and the luxury market is no exception.

In a majority of markets and product categories, the price for female luxury brands is significantly higher compared to their male counterparts, which could be explained by the stronger social orientation of women. Stokburger-Sauer and Teichman (2013) found that, generally, women have a more positive attitude and a higher purchase intention of luxury brands versus non-luxury brands than men. On the other hand, men are more likely to engage in conspicuous consumption than women to show economic achievement and eventually attract a potential mate, (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004).

Consumers often buy products for their symbolic benefits; nevertheless research indicates that the genders differ in the value they assign to such benefits. Overall, females display higher levels of brand sensitivity and brand consciousness (Workman & Lee, 2013) and regard luxury brands more favorably (Stokburger-Sauer &

Teichmann, 2013), while males demonstrate more materialistic values and conspicuous product consumption (Segal & Podoshen, 2012).

Research has examined why people seek luxury products, finding that such products can boost self-esteem, express one's identity, and signal status (Belk 1985). Some studies examining men's conspicuous consumption have found that men's exhibitions of luxury goods act as a "sexual signaling system" to attract women (Sundie *et al.* 2011). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that women might also use luxury goods and brands as an important role in their relationships. A study conducted by Wang and Griskevicius (2014) provided evidence that women's luxury products function as a signaling system directed at other women who pose threats to their romantic relationships. When others endangered women's romantic relationships, women obtained more expensive designer handbags and shoes with more prominent luxury brand logos.

It is possible to verify, from these studies and discoveries, that women and men consume luxury goods for distinctive reasons, and the market should be prepared for their different needs and drivers.

This dissertation comes to address a much-studied topic, the luxury market, but analysing it in a gender perspective. Few researchers and studies focused in this particular dichotomy.

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

This chapter is dedicated to the research design and sampling methodology employed to study behavioural differences between genders in luxury goods consumers, namely if consumer's values, perceptions and attitudes towards buying luxury goods are dissimilar between males and females. Consequently, this chapter contains the research objectives, conceptual model, research hypotheses, research design, data collection, questionnaire design, target population and sampling and data treatment.

### **3.1. Research Objectives**

The main purpose of this study is to examine the drivers and motivations of purchasing luxury goods for both genders. These drivers arise from the BLI developed by Vigneron and Johnson (2004) and from the value dimensions proposed by Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels (2009). The specific aim of the dissertation is to identify and profile two consumer segments in the luxury market: women and men.

The final purpose of the study is to provide tools and knowledge to managers and marketing experts for them to communicate effectively to both genders. The goal is that these findings will help, in the future, luxury brands to adapt their approach and communicate more effectively to all customers.

### **3.2. Conceptual Model and Research Hypotheses**

During the literature review chapter, gender differences were studied and literature stated that men and women have different behavioural characteristics. These differences also exist when women and men buy luxury products. Wiedmann *et al.* (2009) reported that women value a multitude of aspects when purchasing luxury brands. More specifically, female consumers dominate segments that represent quality, uniqueness and social value as primary drivers for luxury brand consumption. As women are more responsive to different kinds of values, they should have a more positive attitude toward luxury brands than men. For this reason, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H1:** Women have a higher purchase intention of luxury brands than men.

Focusing on luxury values, Vigneron and Johnson (2004) recommended the BLI – brand luxury index, which included personal perceptions and non-personal perceptions as key aspects related to luxury value perception. Wiedmann, Hennings and Siebels (2007) conceptualized four dimensions: social, individual, functional and financial value.

As stated before, literature identifies two major reasons behind consumption of luxury goods: internal motivations and external motivations. Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) studied the different values and aspects of luxury developed by other authors and classified the motives behind consumers' luxury goods consumption as intrinsic or personal factors and extrinsic or social factors. Within intrinsic factors there are the hedonic value (self-directed pleasure); quality value (superior performance); materialistic value (acquisition of worldly possessions) and self-identity value (self-actualization). Within this subject, the subsequent hypothesis is proposed:

**H2:** When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as hedonic value (H2a), quality value (H2b), materialistic value (H2c) and self-identity value (H2d), than men.

The extrinsic factors are the status value (signal power and position), conspicuous value (buying to impress others), susceptibility to normative influence (group-conformity) and uniqueness value (non-conformity). Thus:

**H3:** When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as status value (H3a); conspicuous value (H3b); susceptibility to normative influence (H3c) and uniqueness value (H3d), than women.

Literature also states that genders differ in responding to promotional materials. For example, Fisher and Dubé (2005) found that the genders react differently to ads that relay alternative types of emotions. Furthermore, Putrevu (2004) found that males responded more favourably to ads that were simple:

**H4:** Women respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity than men.

Gender differences can affect customer loyalty. As presented before, several studies

support that males favor loyalty programs that magnified status when it was salient to others, while females favor programs that highlight personalization that is not publically visible:

**H5:** Men are more loyal and respond more favourably to luxury brand loyalty programs than women.

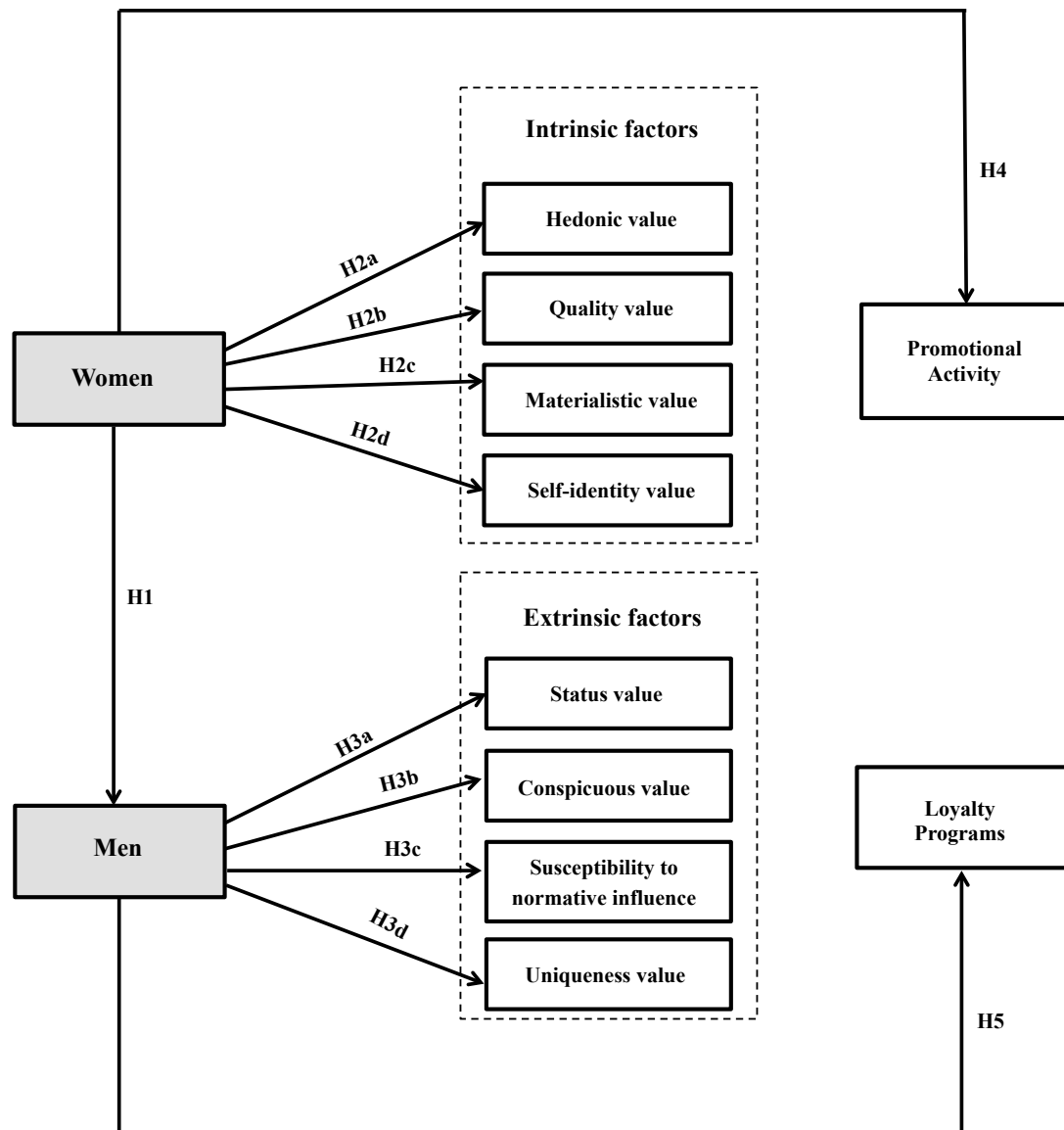


Figure 4: Proposed conceptual framework

Source: Own elaboration

### 3.3. Research Design

A conclusive research design was adopted since the goal of this investigation was to perform a formal and structured research to test particular hypotheses and

relationships based on clear information (Malhotra, 2007). Additionally, the conclusions of this paper were expected to provide information to be taken into consideration in, and useful to, the managerial decision making process (Malhotra, 2007).

A deductive approach was considered appropriate for the study because it was based on multiple existing theories and studies that were tested in a particular situation (Wilson, 2010). Therefore, a “top-down” approach (theory, hypothesis, observation and confirmation) was adopted, since the analysis will evolve from generic topics to specific ones, where conclusions will follow logical premises (Beiske, 2007; Snieder and Larner, 2009)

### **3.4. Data collection**

#### **3.4.1. Primary Data**

To ensure more precise information, two methods were used:

1. Primary data;
2. Secondary data.

The primary data method consisted in a quantitative approach, where a survey was made to luxury consumers. The **quantitative study** consisted in a face-to-face questionnaire, which objective was to collect information of a wide range of luxury ready-to-wear consumers (women and men), about their attitudes and motivations to buy those products. Survey questionnaires are the main methods of collecting quantitative primary data in marketing research (Malhotra, 2006).

#### **3.4.2. Secondary data**

The first step in preparing and writing a dissertation is the revision of the previous research done on the topic. This allows the researcher to know what are the key issues being addressed.

Secondary data are classified according to their source as internal and external secondary data. In the documentary analysis external sources have been used, such as academic journals from marketing, management, consumer research and psychology

areas; books and other topic related articles and dissertations. All of this research had the purpose to understand the luxury market environment, consumer behaviour, gender behavioural differences and all the players surrounding the current study.

Regarding the luxury market, many authors have recognized the importance of understanding the reasons why consumers buy luxury products, what they consider luxury is and how their perception of luxury value affects their buying behaviour (Wiedmann, Hennings and Siebels, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) classified motives behind consumers' luxury goods consumption as "intrinsic" (personal) factors and "extrinsic" (social) factors, presenting the values and motivations behind luxury goods consumption.

Consumer behaviour is also an important topic in this study, as for understanding the market, it is important to study how the consumer behaves. Knowing how people make decisions about what they want or need regarding a product, service or company is crucial to understand how potential customers will respond to a new service or product. Engel, Blackweel and Kollat (1968), developed a model of consumer buying decision process, which consists in five steps: problem/need recognition; information search; evaluation of alternatives; purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.

Additionally, the study focuses on gender behavioural differences by presenting theoretical approaches to the study of gender, gender differences in promotional activity and customer loyalty. Lastly, some insights about previous studies on gender and luxury goods are provided.

### **3.5. Questionnaire Design**

As mentioned previously, this analysis follows the study made by Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) and the values of Wiedmann, Hennings and Siebels (2009).

The questionnaire items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree; 2 - disagree; 3 - neither agree or disagree; 4 – agree; 5 - strongly agree). More precisely, the questionnaire was split into five parts, being each of them related to different variables (see appendix 1.1.):

1. In the first part, the respondent had three distinct demographic questions: age,

gender and educational background.

2. In the second part, the respondents were asked to answer four questions concerning their purchase intention towards luxury.
3. In the third part, respondents were asked to answer thirty-two questions concerning intrinsic factors (hedonic value, quality value, materialistic value and self-identity value) and extrinsic factors (status value, conspicuousness, susceptibility to normative influence and uniqueness value).
4. The fourth part comprised four questions regarding luxury brands promotional activity.
5. Finally, the fifth segment contained five different questions about luxury brands loyalty programs, to understand if these type of programs influence luxury consumers in their buying-decision process.

### **3.6. Target Population and Sampling**

The target population of this study includes male and female Portuguese adult individuals who had bought, in Portugal, throughout last year, any luxury ready-to-wear goods. In order to achieve the target population, the questionnaires were conducted in strategic places such as Avenida da Liberdade and Rua do Castilho. There are numerous luxury stores concentrated in this particular places, which means that the number of potential luxury consumers is higher.

Due to the purpose of the study there was a need to select the sample, the **purposive sample** method was applied. In order to select each sample element, it was questioned if the individual had bought any accessories and/or ready-to-wear luxury products in Portugal during the past year.

Thereby, a convenience sample of 142 respondents was gathered. The questionnaire was conducted during the months of May and June of 2016 in different hours of the day, in order to find consumers of different ages and genders.

### **3.7. Data Treatment**

All data collected was analysed utilising the statistical tool SPSS Statistics 23. Initially, all the variables were examined through the items that comprise them: purchase intention, hedonic value, quality value, materialistic value, self-identity

value, status value/prestige, conspicuousness value, susceptibility to normative influence, uniqueness value, luxury brands promotional activity and, lastly, brand loyalty. In this analysis, descriptive statistical calculations were conducted, and distributions and medians were estimated. Additionally, the internal consistency reliability of each scale was measured through the Cronbach's alpha reliability (Cronbach, 1951), which is one of the most widely used measures of reliability in the social and organizational sciences. Internal reliability tests whether every item on the scale is measuring the same idea therefore, an important analysis for studies with multiple-item scales, such as the current one. Cronbach's Alpha varies between 0 and 1, and is measured according to the criteria presented in table 3.

<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Internal consistency</b>
Above 0,9	Excellent
Between 0,9 and 0,8	Good
Between 0,8 and 0,7	Acceptable
Between 0,7 and 0,6	Questionable
Between 0,6 and 0,5	Poor
Below 0,5	Unacceptable

**Table 3: Levels of the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient**

**Source: George and Mallery (2003)**

## Chapter 4: Data analysis and results

In chapter 4, the data previously gathered is studied and the results are presented. Here, the sample is characterized, as well as an analysis of the reliability of the measurement scales. Furthermore, the descriptive statistics and the results of the hypothesis tests are presented in order to confirm the veracity of the hypothesis formulated.

### 4.1. Sample Profile

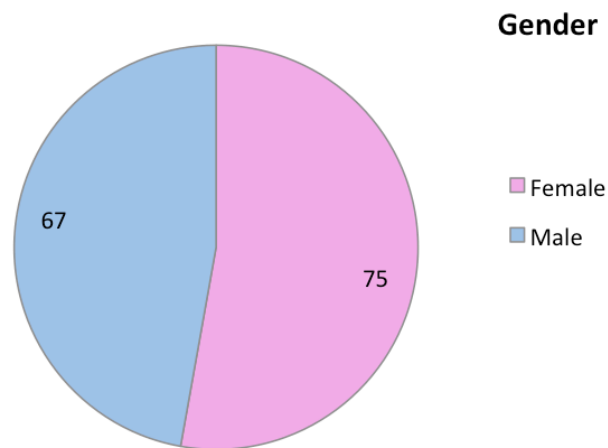


Figure 5: Gender of the respondents

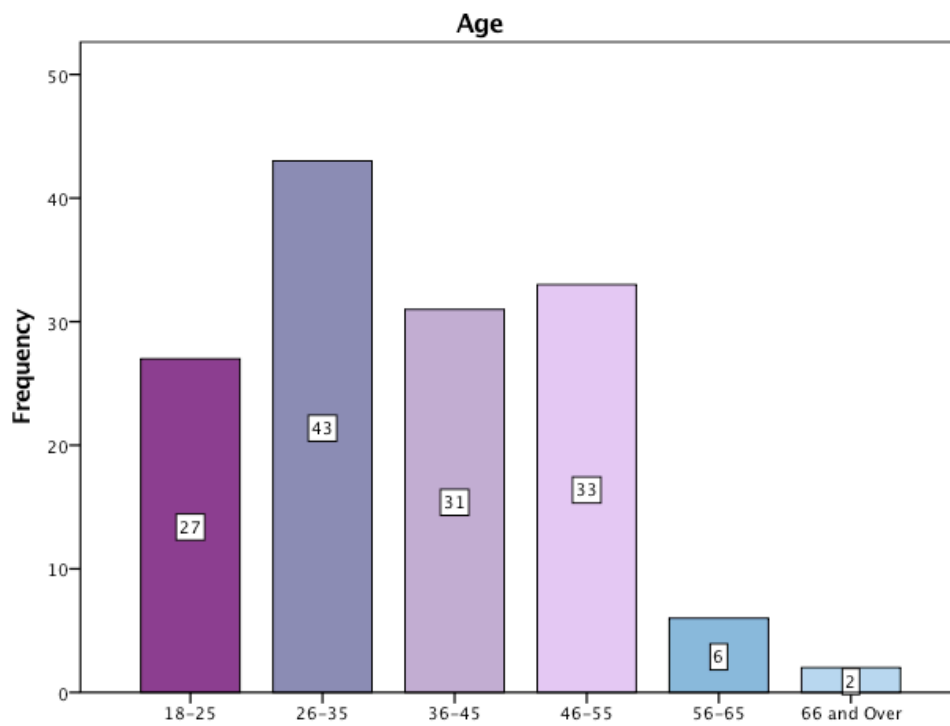
Source: Own elaboration

The sample is composed by 75 are females that account for 52,8% of the total sample, and 67 males, which account for 47,2% of the sample, as the figure 5 shows.

When it comes to the age of the respondents, the majority of the answers are from individuals aged between 26 and 35 (30,3%). Furthermore, the average of the sample is of 38 years old (see figure 6).

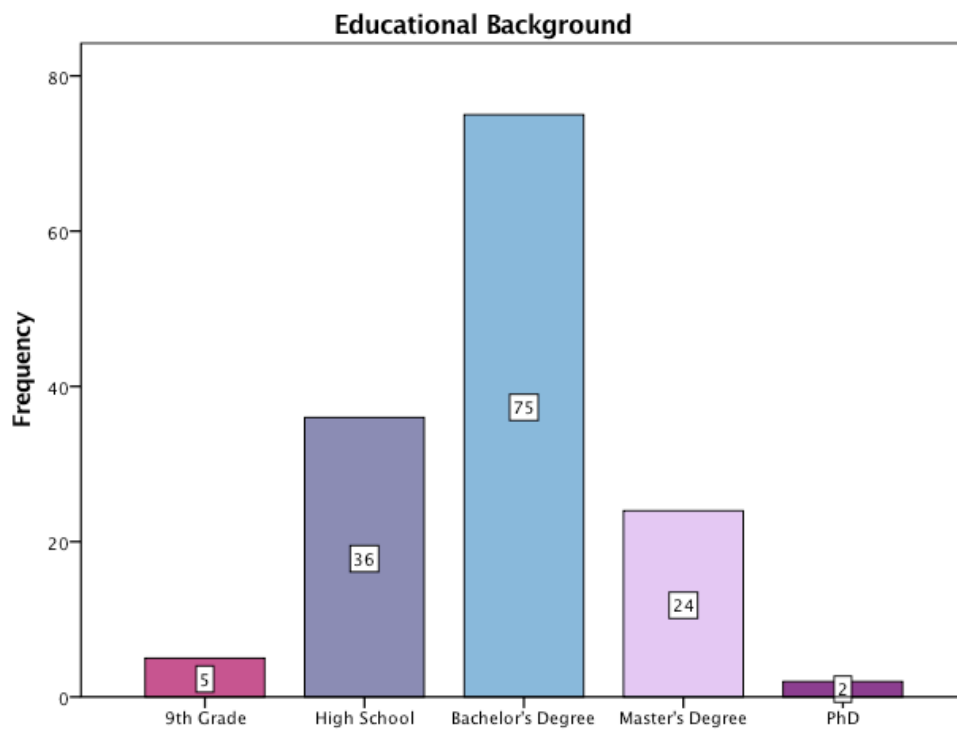
Finally, in terms of the educational background of the sample (see figure 7) it was considered the respondent last finished academic level. The majority of the sample has a bachelor's degree (52,8%), 36 respondents have a high school degree (25,4%), 24 obtain a master's degree (16,9%), 5 respondents finished 9<sup>th</sup> grade (3,5%) and 2 have a PhD (1,4%).

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**Figure 6: Age of the respondents**

Source: Own elaboration



**Figure 7: Educational Background**

Source: Own elaboration

## 4.2. Reliability Analysis

Reliability means that a measure should consistently reflect the construct that it is measuring (Field, 2009). In statistical terms, the usual way to look at reliability is based on the idea that individual items should produce results consistent with the overall questionnaire. This reliability can be evaluated by the Cronbach's Alpha.

The composition of each scale proposed and its level of internal consistency can be observed in table 4 (see appendix 2).

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Purchase Intention	5	0,829
Hedonic Value	4	0,773
Quality Value	3	<b>0,490</b>
Materialistic Value	4	0,825
Self-Identity Value	3	<b>0,401</b>
Status Value/Prestige	4	0,931
Conspicuousness Value	5	0,855
Susceptibility to normative influence	4	0,788
Uniqueness Value	5	0,562
Promotional Activity	4	0,884
Brand Loyalty	4	0,576

**Table 4: Internal reliability of the scales**

**Source: Own elaboration**

Commonly, a value of 0,7 to 0,8 is an acceptable value for Cronbach's  $\alpha$  and values substantially lower indicate an unreliable scale. Kline (1999) notes that when dealing with psychological constructs, such as the current study, values below 0,7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

Furthermore, Cortina (1993) notes that general guidelines need to be used with caution because the value of  $\alpha$  also depends on the number of items on the scale - as the number of items on the scale increases,  $\alpha$  will increase. Carmines and Zeller (1979) also states that increasing the number of items on a scale can improve the scale's reliability.

It is possible to observe, in table 4, that Uniqueness Value and Brand Loyalty have values inferior to 0,6. However, as the number of items is small and this is a psychological construct, in which emotions' respondents have an impact in their answers, these measures will still be used in the analysis (even if the values are considered to have a poor internal consistency). On the other hand, Quality Value and Self-Identity Value have an unacceptable internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha values below 0,5. These situations were not possible to correct by the elimination of any of the items of the scale (see appendix 2.3. and 2.5.). As consequence, these measures were not used in further analysis.

### **4.3. Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics is the term given to the analysis of data that helps describe, show and summarize data in a significant way such that, for instance, patterns might emerge from the data (Statistics.laerd.com, 2016).

Likert items and scales generate ordinal data, in other words, data that can be ranked. However, the psychological distance between "strongly agree" and "agree" is not the same as between "agree" and "neither agree or disagree" (Koustoulas, 2013). This indicates that ordinal data can't produce mean values.

As this study explores Likert scale data, the most appropriate measure is the median. Additionally, histograms are a very helpful tool to examine the data because they are graphical representations of the distribution of responses.

#### **4.3.1. Sample distribution**

A histogram is a plot that shows the frequency distribution (shape) of a set of continuous data. This allows the examination of data for its underlying distribution outliers, skewness, among others (Statistics.laerd.com, 2016).

The study sample does not have a normal distribution. To show this fact, some histograms are presented below, as well as the result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the status variable. The variable **Status** was tested for normality for each level of the independent variable **Gender**.

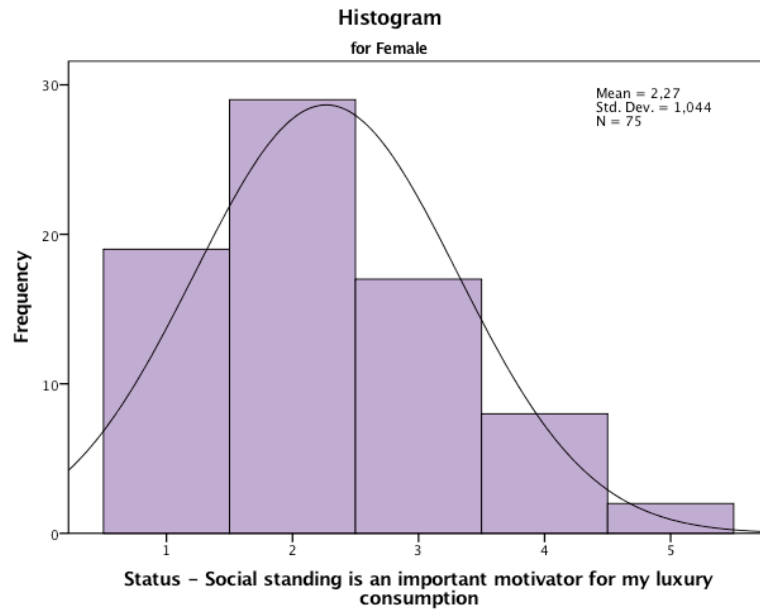


Figure 8 - Histogram (Female)

Source: Own elaboration

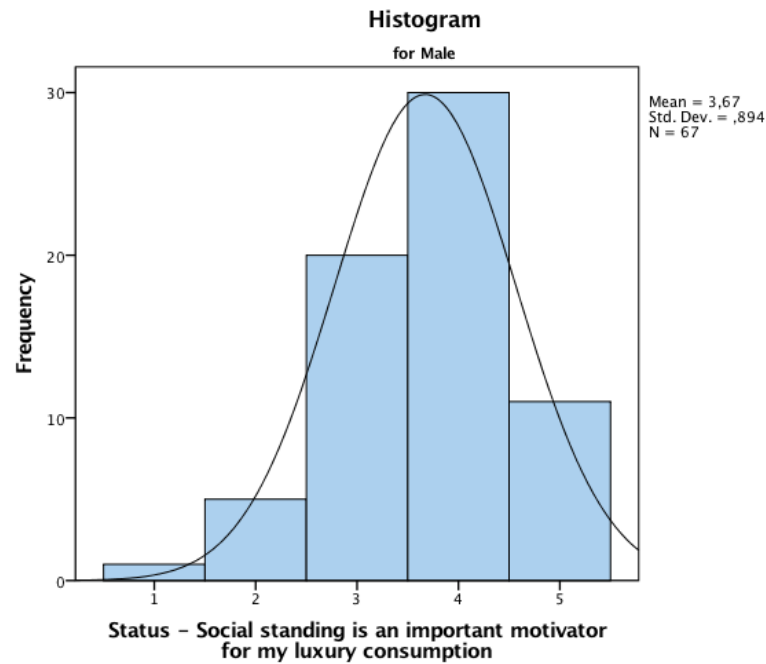


Figure 9 - Histogram (male)

Source: Own elaboration

Figure 8 shows that the distribution of the sample in the variable status for females is a right-skewed distribution, which means that female respondents answered in the lowest side of the scale.

On the other hand, figure 9 shows that the distribution of the sample in the variable status for males is left-skewed, which means that the majority of male respondents answered in the most positive side of the scale.

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
<b>Status</b> - Social standing is an important motivator for my luxury consumption	Female	0,241	75	0,000
	Male	0,255	67	0,000

**Table 5: Kolmogorov-Smirnov**

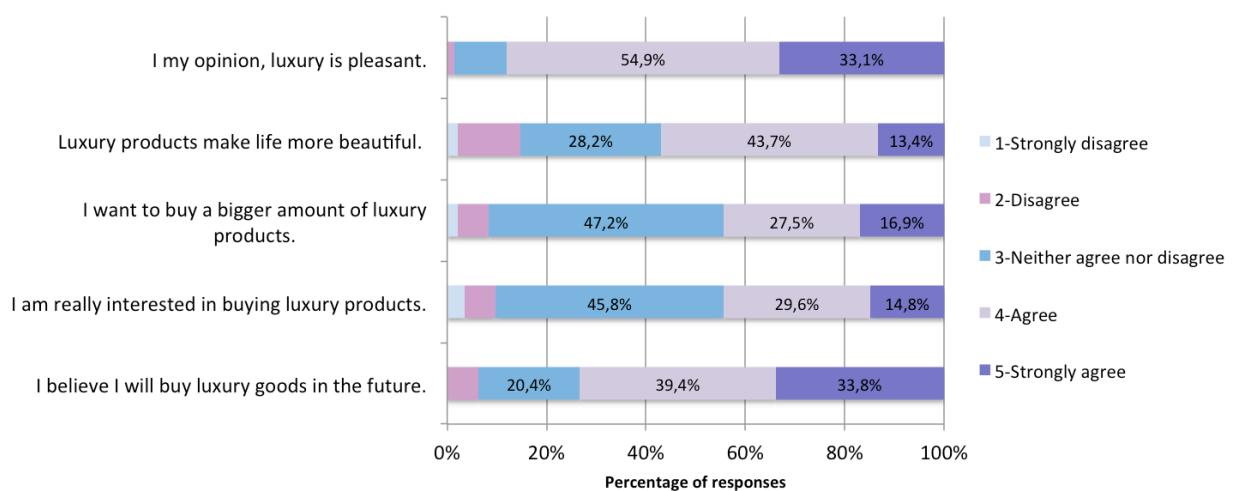
**Source: Own elaboration**

Alongside with the histograms, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted. It can be observed in table 5 that the values in the Sig. column are less than 0,005. This means that the data cannot be considered normally distributed. An assessment of the normality of data is a prerequisite for many statistical tests because normal data is a fundamental assumption in parametric testing. For this reason, all of this information allows concluding that the distribution of the sample is not normal and that parametric tests cannot be used in further analysis.

#### **4.3.2. Central tendency**

The mean, median and mode are all valid measures of central tendency, but under different conditions, some measures of central tendency become more appropriate to use than others. As stated before and because of the type of data, the mean is not appropriate to describe and summarize the sample. For that reason, only the medians and modes are presented. The median is the middle score for a set of data that has been arranged in order of magnitude, and the mode is the most frequent score in the data set. The graphics presented below represent the percentage of responses for each item, according to the scale (Likert scale) used in the questionnaire. Furthermore, each figure corresponds to one variable.

According to the reliability test, two of the variables were not suitable for the analysis. For that reason, Quality Value and Self-Identity Value are not represented in the descriptive statistics. The other variables such as purchase intention (figure 10), hedonic value (figure 11), materialistic value (figure 12), status value (figure 13), conspicuousness value (figure 14), susceptibility to normative influence (figure 15), uniqueness value (figure 16), promotional activity (figure 17) and brand loyalty (figure 18) are all characterized below, in this order.

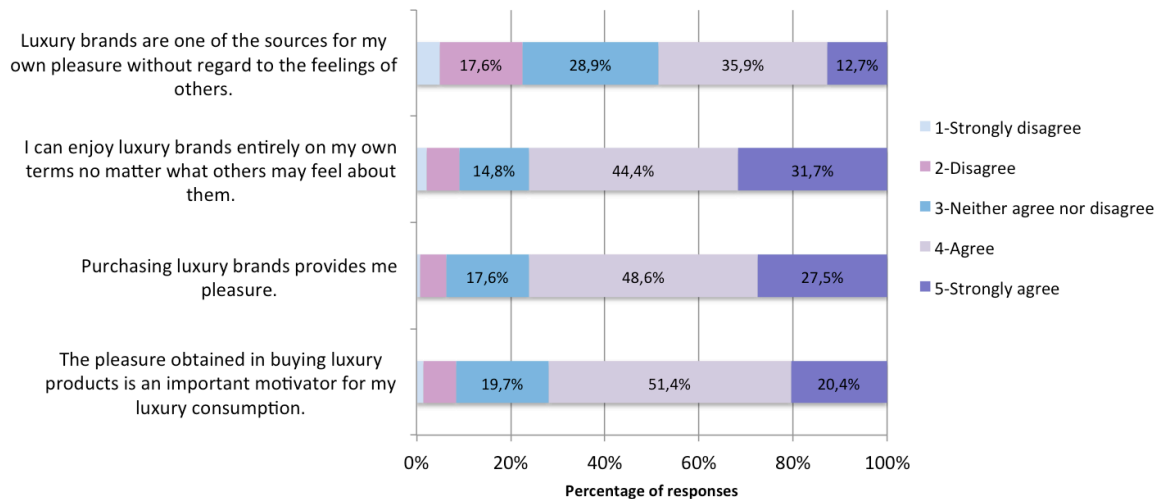


**Figure 10: Purchase Intention**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Purchase intention (figure 10) has five items. The median of the items is 3 for two items and 4 for the other ones. The mode, which is the most frequent score in the data set, also varies between 3 (neither agree or disagree) and 4 (agree). In this variable, 4 was the most frequent score for the first, second and fifth items, whereas 3 was the most frequent score for third and fourth items. This means that the majority of the participants responded in the positive side of the scale.

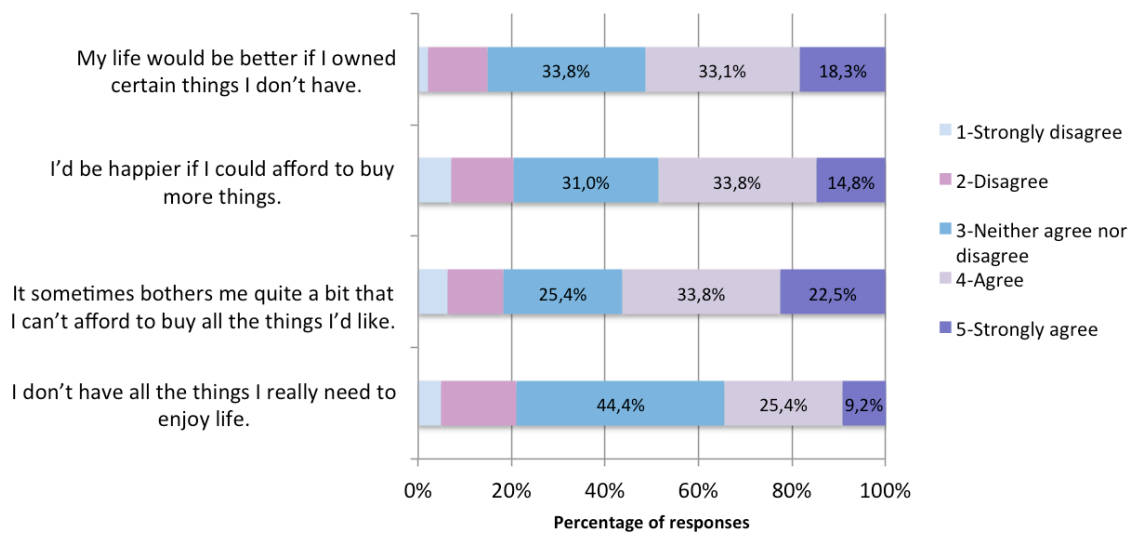
## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods



**Figure 11: Hedonic Value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

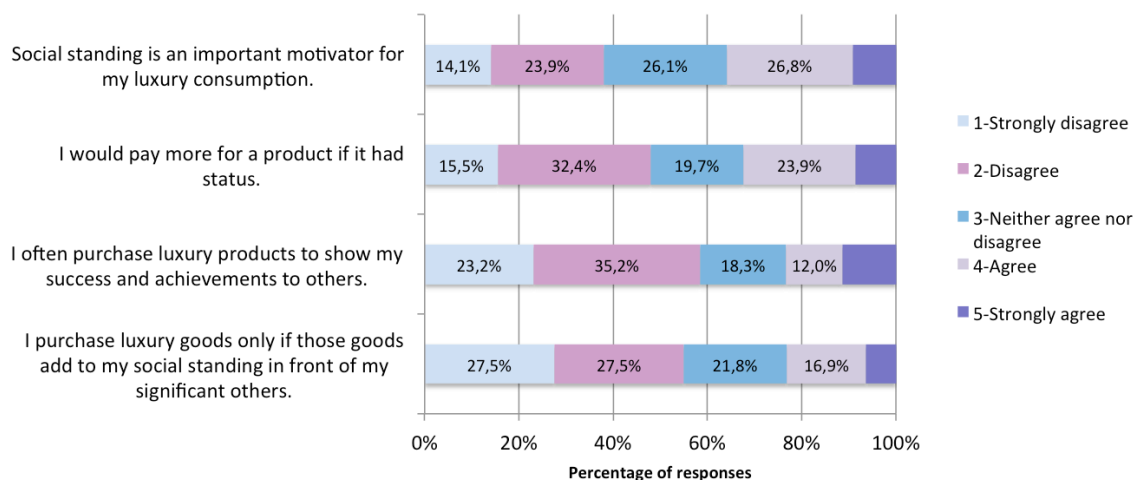
The variable Hedonic value (figure 11) has four items. The median of the items is 3 for the first item and 4 for the other ones. The mode, which is the most frequent score in the data set, is 4 (agree) for all items. This means that, in the variable hedonic value, 4 was the most frequent score in all the elements. Once again, the majority of the participants responded in the positive side of the scale.



**Figure 12: Materialistic Value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Materialistic value (figure 12) has also four items. The median of the items is 4 for the first and third item and 3 for the other items. The mode is 3 (neither agree or disagree) for the first item, with 33,8% of the responses attributed to this value in the scale. The fourth item has also a mode of 3, with 44,4% of respondents evaluating this item as “3”. In the second and third item, the mode is 4 (agree), with 33,8% of the respondents choosing the value “4” on both of them. This means that the majority of the participants responded in the middle and higher side of the scale.

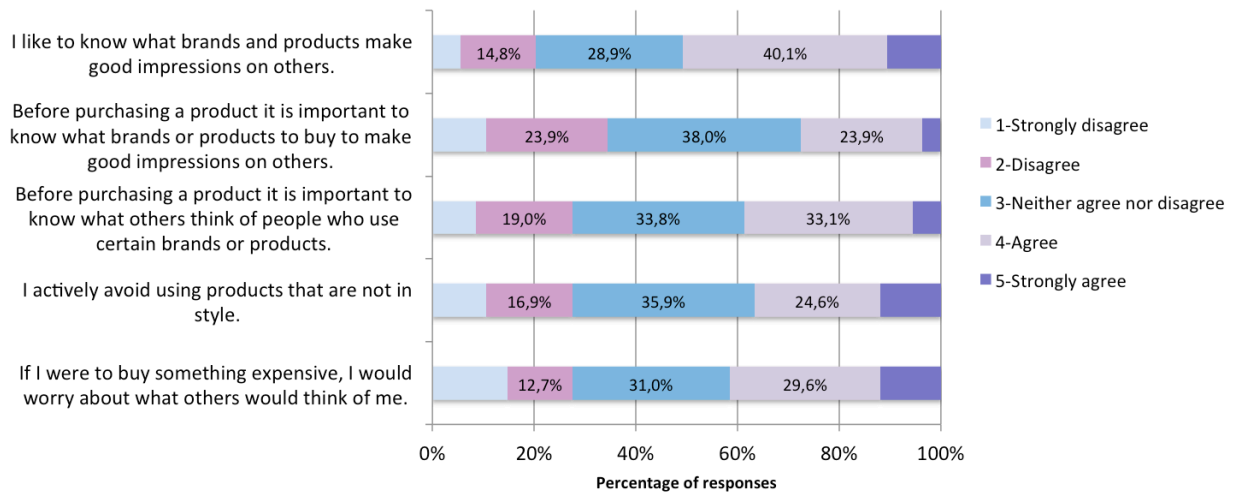


**Figure 13: Status value/Prestige**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Status value/Prestige (figure 13) has four items. The median of the items is 3 for the first two and 2 for the third and fourth. The mode is 4 (agree) for the first item, with 26,8% of responses. The second item has a mode of 2 with 32,4% of responses. The item “I often purchase luxury products to show my success and achievements to others.” has a mode of 2, with 35,2% of responses. Lastly, the item “I purchase luxury goods only if those goods add to my social standing in front of my significant others.” has 27,5% of responses for both strongly agree and disagree. This means that 1 and 2 are the two modes for this variable. Contrary to the other variables, the majority of the participants responded in the lowest side of the scale.

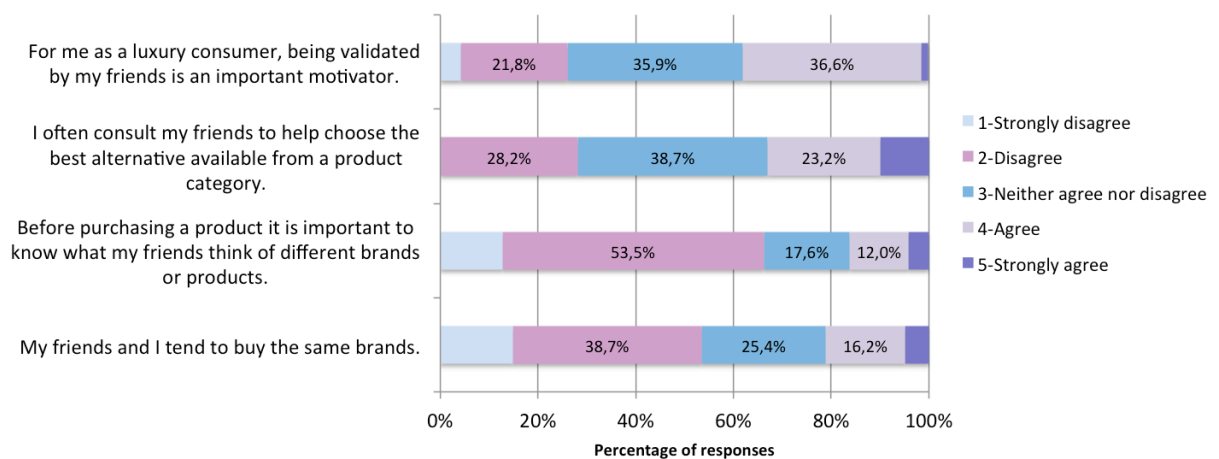
## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods



**Figure 14: Conspicuousness value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

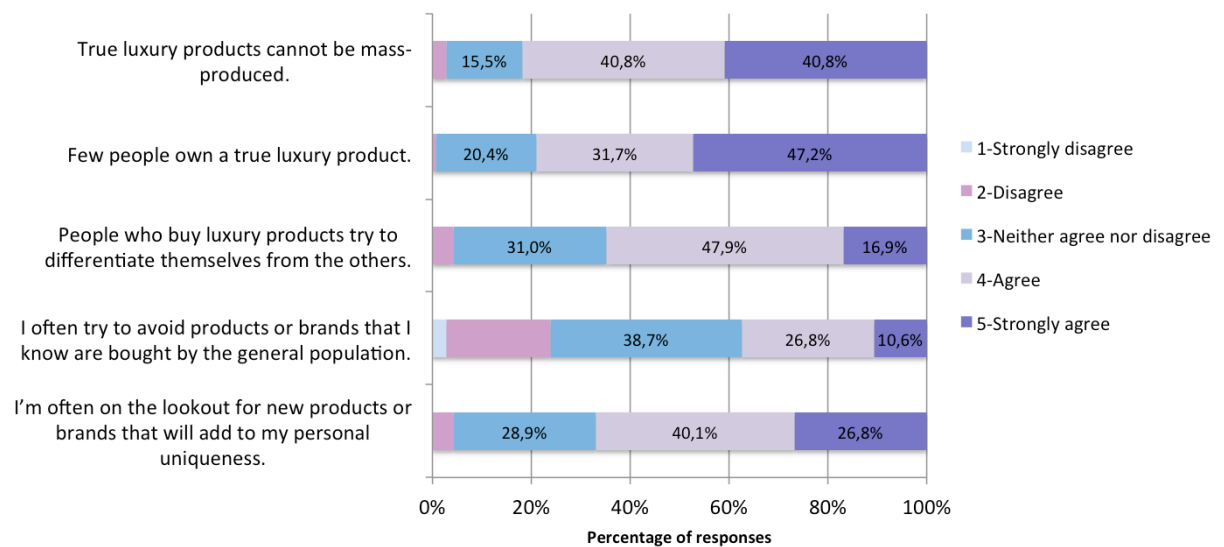
The variable Conspicuousness value (figure 14) has five items. The median of the items is 4 for the first item and 3 for the remaining ones. The mode is 4 (agree) for the first item, with 40,1% of responses. The second item has a mode of 3 with 38% of responses. The item “Before purchasing a product it is important to know what others think of people who use certain brands or products.” has a mode of 3, with 33,8% of responses. The item “I actively avoid using products that are not in style.” has a mode of 3 with 35,9% of responses attributed to this value of the Likert scale. The fifth and last item has a mode of 3 with 31% of responses. In this particular variable, the majority of the participants responded in the middle and positive side of the scale.



**Figure 15: Susceptibility to normative influence**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Susceptibility to normative influence figure 15) has four items. The median of the items is 3 for the first and second item and 2 for the third and fourth. The mode is 4 (agree) for the first item, with 36,6% of responses attributed to this value of the Likert scale. The second item has a mode of 3 with 38,7% of responses. The third item has a mode of 2, with 53,5% of responses. The last item has a mode of 2 with 38,7% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. In this variable, the participants responded both in the negative, neutral and positive sides of the scale.

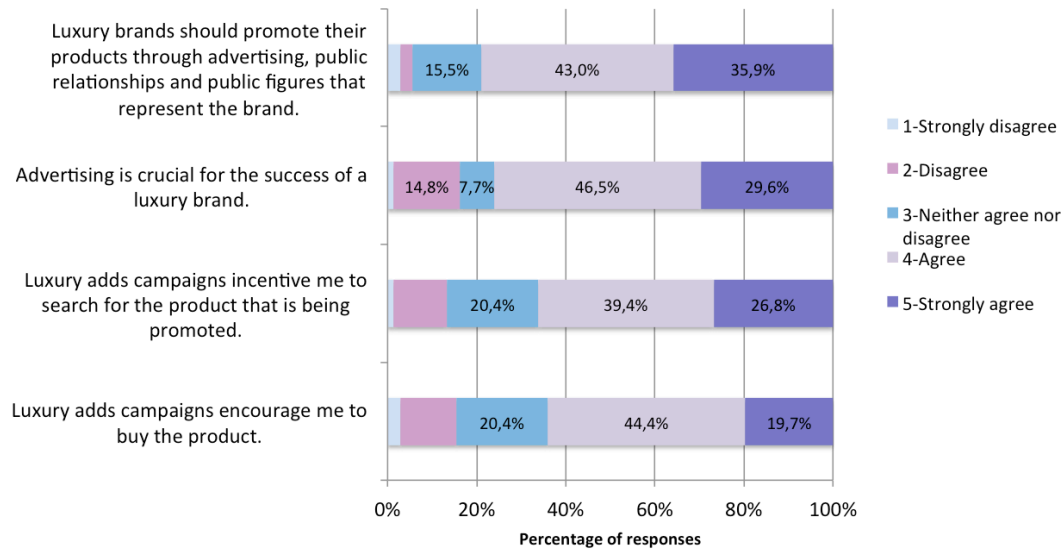


**Figure 16: Uniqueness value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Uniqueness value (figure 16) has five items. The median of the items is 4 for the first, second, third and fifth item and 3 for the fourth. The mode is both 4 and 5 for the first item, with 40,8% of responses attributed to these values of the scale. The second item has a mode of 5 with 47,2% of responses. The third item has a mode of 4, with 47,9% of the responses. The fourth item has a mode of 3 with 38,7% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. Finally, the fifth item has a mode of 4 with 40,1% of the responses. In this variable, the participants clearly responded in the positive side of the scale.

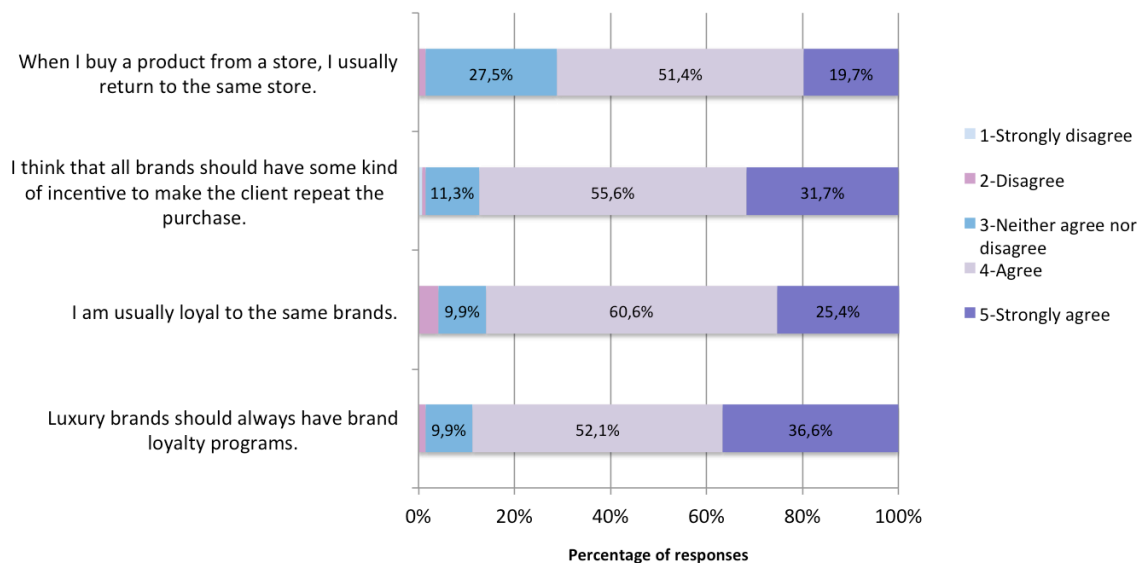
## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods



**Figure 17: Promotional activity**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Promotional activity (figure 17) has four items. The median of the items is 4 for all of them. The mode is 4 for the first item with 43% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. The second item has a mode of 4 with 46,5% of responses. The third item has a mode of 4 with 39,4% of the responses. The fourth item has a mode of 4 with 44,4% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. In this variable, most of the participants clearly responded the value 4 (agree) of the Likert scale, which means that the majority answered in the positive side of the scale.



**Figure 18: Brand loyalty**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The variable Brand loyalty (figure 18) has four items. The median of the items is 4 for all of them. The mode is 4 for the first item with 51,4% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. The second item has a mode of 4 with 55,6% of responses. The third item has a mode of 4, with 60,6% of the responses. The fourth item has a mode of 4 with 52,1% of responses attributed to this value of the scale. In this variable, most of the participants clearly responded the value 4 (agree) of the Likert scale, which means that the majority answered in the positive side of the scale.

#### 4.4. Hypothesis Test

Hypothesis testing is a method of statistical inference intended to contest (or not) a certain hypothesis related with parameters of a population, based on estimators obtained in a collected sample (Marôco, 2011).

As it was stated before, parametric tests cannot be applied. For this reason, the most suitable test is the **Mann-Whitney U test**. This particular test is used to compare differences between two independent groups when the dependent variable is either ordinal or continuous, but not normally distributed (such as what occurs in this case). In this study the dependent variables are all the motivations studied and the independent variable is Gender, since the purpose is to understand if gender as an effect in each of the selected motivations. It was used an interval of confidence of 95%, thus a p-value lower than 0,05 will, automatically, reject the null. In order to test the first hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted using purchase intention as the dependent variable and gender as the independent one.

**H1:** Women have a higher purchase intention of luxury brands than men.

The Mann-Whitney test works by looking at differences in the ranked positions of scores in different groups. Therefore, the first summarizes the data after it has been ranked. The Mann-Whitney test relies on scores being ranked from lowest to highest; therefore, the group with the lowest mean rank is the group with the greatest number of lower scores in it. Likewise, the group with the highest mean rank should have the greater number of high scores within it. Consequently, the first output table can be used to establish which group had the highest and lowest scores (Field, 2009). In table 6, we can conclude that women responded in the more positive side of the scale in all the items, while men responded in the more negative side of the scale.

<b>Ranks - Purchase Intention</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
In my opinion, luxury is pleasant.	Female	75	<b>85,77</b>	6432,5
	Male	67	<b>55,53</b>	3720,5
	Total	142		
Luxury products make life more beautiful.	Female	75	<b>79,87</b>	5990,5
	Male	67	<b>62,13</b>	4162,5
	Total	142		
I want to buy a bigger amount of luxury products.	Female	75	<b>83,85</b>	6288,5
	Male	67	<b>57,68</b>	3864,5
	Total	142		
I am really interested in buying luxury products.	Female	75	<b>83,27</b>	6245,5
	Male	67	<b>58,32</b>	3907,5
	Total	142		
I believe I will buy luxury goods in the future.	Female	75	<b>89,13</b>	6685
	Male	67	<b>51,76</b>	3468
	Total	142		

**Table 6: Ranks Purchase Intention**

**Source: Own elaboration**

<b>Test Statistics</b>					
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.	I5
Mann-Whitney U	1442,5	1884,5	1586,5	1629,5	1190
Wilcoxon W	3720,5	4162,5	3864,5	3907,5	3468
Z	-4,898	-2,72	-4,059	-3,858	-5,724
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,007	0,000	0,000	0,000
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,003</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,000</b>

**Table 7: Tests statistics Mann-Whitney test (Purchase Intention)**

**Source: Own elaboration**

The Mann-Whitney test works by looking at differences in the ranked positions of scores in different groups. Therefore, the first summarizes the data after it has been ranked. The Mann-Whitney test relies on scores being ranked from lowest to highest; therefore, the group with the lowest mean rank is the group with the greatest number of lower scores in it. Likewise, the group with the highest mean rank should have the greater number of high scores within it. Consequently, the first output table can be used to establish which group had the highest and lowest scores (Field, 2009). In table 6, we can conclude that women responded in the more positive side of the scale in all the items, while men responded in the more negative side of the scale.

The second table provides the actual test statistics for the Mann-Whitney test. The important part of the table is the significance value of the test. It is required to look at the exact significance of the one-tailed (table 7), because a prediction has been made (women have a higher purchase intention of luxury brands than men). If no prediction had been made about which group will differ from which, the two-tailed probability would be used (Field, 2009). Furthermore, hypothesis 1 consists in a directional prediction, since it predicts the nature of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

If the p value is below the alpha risk of 5%, the null hypothesis is rejected and, at least, one significant difference can be assumed. For these data, the Mann-Whitney test results are significant ( $p < 0,05$ ) for all five items (I1, I2, I3, I4 and I5) and the **null can be rejected**. The value of the mean rankings indicates that the **women group has a significantly higher purchase intention of luxury brands than men**.

**H2:** When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as hedonic value (H2a), quality value (H2b), materialistic value (H2c) and self-identity value (H2d), than men.

**H2a:** When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as hedonic value, than men.

<b>Ranks - Hedonic Value</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
I1. Luxury brands are one of the sources for my own pleasure without regard to the feelings of others.	Female	75	<b>74,37</b>	5578
	Male	67	<b>68,28</b>	4575
	Total	142		
I2. I can enjoy luxury brands entirely on my own terms no matter what others may feel about them.	Female	75	<b>75,17</b>	5638
	Male	67	<b>67,39</b>	4515
	Total	142		
I3. Purchasing luxury brands provides me pleasure.	Female	75	<b>76,85</b>	5763,5
	Male	67	<b>65,51</b>	4389,5
	Total	142		
I4. The pleasure obtained in buying luxury products is an important motivator for my luxury consumption.	Female	75	<b>75,81</b>	5686
	Male	67	<b>66,67</b>	4467
	Total	142		

**Table 8: Ranks Hedonic Value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

In table 8, which refers to hedonic value, we can conclude that women responded in the more positive side of the scale in all the items, while men responded in the more negative side of the scale.

Test Statistics				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	2297	2237	2111,5	2189
Wilcoxon W	4575	4515	4389,5	4467
Z	-0,917	-1,202	-1,768	-1,436
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,359	0,229	0,077	0,151
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,180</b>	<b>0,115</b>	<b>0,039</b>	<b>0,075</b>

Table 9: Test statistics Mann-Whitney test (Hedonic value)

Source: Own elaboration

However, and looking at the exact significance of the one-tailed (table 9), it is possible to conclude that the Mann-Whitney test results are not significant since the p-value is higher than the significance level ( $p\text{-value}_{I1} = 0,180 > 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I2} = 0,115 > 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I4} = 0,075 > 0,05$ ). Only item 3 (purchasing luxury brands provides me pleasure) has a p-value lower than the significance level ( $p\text{-value}_{I3} = 0,039 < 0,05$ ). It is possible to conclude that women, when buying luxury goods, are not more driven by hedonic value than men, with the exception of item 3, that shows that women obtain more pleasure purchasing luxury brands than men.

As stated before, Quality Value and Self-Identity Value have an unacceptable internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha values below 0,5. For this reason, H2b and H2d will not be tested.

**H2c:** When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as materialistic value, than men.

In table 10, we can conclude that men responded in the more positive side of the scale in all the items, while women responded in the more negative side of the scale.

<b>Ranks - Materialistic Value</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
I1. My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.	Female	75	<b>65,01</b>	4876
	Male	67	<b>78,76</b>	5277
	Total	142		
I2. I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.	Female	75	<b>59,88</b>	4491
	Male	67	<b>84,51</b>	5662
	Total	142		
I3. It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.	Female	75	<b>66,89</b>	5016,5
	Male	67	<b>76,66</b>	5136,5
	Total	142		
I4. I don't have all the things I really need to enjoy life.	Female	75	<b>64,23</b>	4817,5
	Male	67	<b>79,63</b>	5335,5
	Total	142		

**Table 10: Ranks Materialistic Value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

<b>Test Statistics</b>				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	2026	1641	2166,5	1967,5
Wilcoxon W	4876	4491	5016,5	4817,5
Z	-2,076	-3,702	-1,465	-2,359
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,038	0,000	0,143	0,018
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,019</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,071</b>	<b>0,009</b>

**Table 11: Tests statistics Mann-Whitney test (Materialistic value)**

**Source: Own elaboration**

Looking at the exact significance of the one-tailed (table 11), it is possible to conclude that the Mann-Whitney test results are significant for 3 items ( $p\text{-value}_{I1}=0,019 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I2}=0,000 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I4}=0,009 < 0,05$ ). This means that **men, when buying luxury products, are more driven by materialistic value** than women, with the exception of item 3, which results are not significant since the p-value is higher than the significance level ( $p\text{-value}_{I3}=0,071 > 0,05$ ).

**H3:** When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as status value (H3a); conspicuous value (H3b); susceptibility to normative influence (H3c) and uniqueness value (H3d), than women.

**H3a:** When buying luxury products men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as status value, than women.

Ranks - Status Value	Gender:	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I1. Social standing is an important motivator for my luxury consumption.	Female	75	<b>49,12</b>	3684
	Male	67	<b>96,55</b>	6469
	Total	142		
I2. I would pay more for a product if it had status.	Female	75	<b>49,77</b>	3732,5
	Male	67	<b>95,83</b>	6420,5
	Total	142		
I3. I often purchase luxury products to show my success and achievements to others.	Female	75	<b>45,91</b>	3443
	Male	67	<b>100,15</b>	6710
	Total	142		
I4. I purchase luxury goods only if those goods add to my social standing in front of my significant others.	Female	75	<b>45,38</b>	3403,5
	Male	67	<b>100,74</b>	6749,5
	Total	142		

**Table 12: Ranks Status value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

In table 12, it is possible to conclude that men responded much more favourably (higher scores) in all items, while women responded in the more negative side of the scale (lower scores).

Test Statistics				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	834,00	882,5	593,00	553,50
Wilcoxon W	3684,00	3732,5	3443,00	3403,50
Z	-7,05	-6,87	-8,11	-8,24
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,000</b>

**Table 13: Tests statistics Mann-Whitney test (Status value)**

**Source: Own elaboration**

For these data the Mann-Whitney test results are significant (p-value  $_{I1, I2, I3, I4} = 0,000 < 0,05$ ) for all four items. The value of the mean rankings indicates that the **men group is significantly more driven by status value than women.**

**H3b:** When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as conspicuous value, than women.

<b>Ranks – Conspicuous Value</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
I1. I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.	Female	75	<b>66,21</b>	4965,5
	Male	67	<b>77,43</b>	5187,5
	Total	142		
I2. Before purchasing a product it is important to know what brands or products to buy to make good impressions on others.	Female	75	<b>60,19</b>	4514,5
	Male	67	<b>84,16</b>	5638,5
	Total	142		
I3. Before purchasing a product it is important to know what others think of people who use certain brands or products.	Female	75	<b>63,35</b>	4751
	Male	67	<b>80,63</b>	5402
	Total	142		
I4. I actively avoid using products that are not in style.	Female	75	<b>70,43</b>	5282
	Male	67	<b>72,7</b>	4871
	Total	142		
I5. If I were to buy something expensive, I would worry about what others would think of me.	Female	75	<b>66,11</b>	4958
	Male	67	<b>77,54</b>	5195
	Total	142		

**Table 14: Ranks Conspicuous value**

**Source: Own elaboration**

In table 14, similarly to what happened in status value, men responded much more favourably (higher scores) in all items, while women responded in the more negative side of the scale (lower scores).

<b>Test Statistics</b>					
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.	I5.
Mann-Whitney U	2115,5	1664,5	1901	2432	2108
Wilcoxon W	4965,5	4514,5	4751	5282	4958
Z	-1,704	-3,62	-2,609	-0,341	-1,707
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,088	0,000	0,009	0,733	0,088
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,044</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,005</b>	<b>0,367</b>	<b>0,044</b>

**Table 15: Test statistics Mann-Whitney test (conspicuous value)**

**Source: Own elaboration**

Observing the exact significance in table 15, the Mann-Whitney test results are significant for four items ( $p\text{-value}_{I1}=0,044 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I2}=0,000 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I3}=0,005 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I5}=0,044 < 0,05$ ). This means that **men, when buying luxury** products, are more driven by conspicuous value than women, with the exception of item 4, which results are not significant since the p-value is higher than the significance level ( $p\text{-value}_{I4}= 0,367 > 0,05$ ).

**H3c:** When buying luxury products men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as susceptibility to normative influence, than women.

<b>Ranks – Susceptibility to normative influence</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
I1. For me as a luxury consumer, being validated by my friends is an important motivator.	Female	75	<b>64,91</b>	4868
	Male	67	<b>78,88</b>	5285
	Total	142		
I2. I often consult my friends to help choose the best alternative available from a product category.	Female	75	<b>80,05</b>	6003,5
	Male	67	<b>61,93</b>	4149,5
	Total	142		
I3. Before purchasing a product it is important to know what my friends think of different brands or products.	Female	75	<b>72,84</b>	5463
	Male	67	<b>70</b>	4690
	Total	142		
I4. My friends and I tend to buy the same brands.	Female	75	<b>66,34</b>	4975,5
	Male	67	<b>77,28</b>	5177,5
	Total	142		

**Table 16: Ranks Susceptibility to normative influence**

**Source: Own elaboration**

In table 16, men responded more positively in items one and four, while women responded more favourably in items two and three.

<b>Test Statistics</b>				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	2018	1871,5	2412	2125,5
Wilcoxon W	4868	4149,5	4690	4975,5
Z	-2,137	-2,752	-0,449	-1,651
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,033	0,006	0,654	0,099
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,016</b>	<b>0,003</b>	<b>0,328</b>	<b>0,05</b>

**Table 17: Test statistics (Susceptibility to normative influence)**

**Source: Own elaboration**

Looking at the exact significance in table 17, test results are significant for items one and two ( $p\text{-value}_{I1} = 0,016 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I2} = 0,003 < 0,05$ ). However, women responded more positively than men in items two and three. This means that **it is not possible to validate the hypothesis** that men, when buying luxury products, are more susceptible to normative influence than women. Only item one followed the two necessary conditions to validate the hypothesis: having an exact sig. level under 0,005 and male having a higher mean rank in the item, and this is not sufficient to confirm H3c.

**H3d:** When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as uniqueness value, than women.

Ranks - Uniqueness Value	Gender:	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I1. True luxury products cannot be mass-produced.	Female	75	<b>75,82</b>	5686,5
	Male	67	<b>66,66</b>	4466,5
	Total	142		
I2. True luxury products cannot be mass-produced.	Female	75	<b>70,49</b>	5287
	Male	67	<b>72,63</b>	4866
	Total	142		
I3. People who buy luxury products try to differentiate themselves from the others.	Female	75	<b>68,47</b>	5135,5
	Male	67	<b>74,89</b>	5017,5
	Total	142		
I4. I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.	Female	75	<b>74,57</b>	5592,5
	Male	67	<b>68,07</b>	4560,5
	Total	142		
I5. I'm often on the lookout for new products or brands that will add to my personal uniqueness.	Female	75	<b>63,66</b>	4774,5
	Male	67	<b>80,28</b>	5378,5
	Total	142		

**Table 18: Ranks Uniqueness value**

Source: Own elaboration

Test Statistics					
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.	I5.
Mann-Whitney U	2188,5	2437	2285,5	2282,5	1924,5
Wilcoxon W	4466,5	5287	5135,5	4560,5	4774,5
Z	-1,428	-0,334	-1,003	-0,984	-2,544
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,153	0,739	0,316	0,325	0,011
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,078</b>	<b>0,369</b>	<b>0,16</b>	<b>0,163</b>	<b>0,005</b>

**Table 19: Test statistics Mann-Whitney (Uniqueness value)**

Source: Own elaboration

In table 18, men responded much more positively in items two, three and five, while women responded more favourably in items one and four.

Looking at the exact significance in table 19, test results are not significant for all of the items. This means that **the hypothesis is not confirmed and that men, when buying luxury products, are not more driven by uniqueness value than women.**

**H4:** Women respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity than men.

Ranks - Promotional Activity	Gender:	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I1. Luxury brands should promote their products through advertising, public relationships and public figures that represent the brand.	Female	75	83,82	6286,5
	Male	67	57,71	3866,5
	Total	142		
I2. Advertising is crucial for the success of a luxury brand.	Female	75	87,46	6559,5
	Male	67	53,63	3593,5
	Total	142		
I3. Luxury adds campaigns incentive me to search for the product that is being promoted.	Female	75	91,12	6834
	Male	67	49,54	3319
	Total	142		
I4. Luxury adds campaigns encourage me to buy the product.	Female	75	90,01	6751
	Male	67	50,78	3402
	Total	142		

**Table 20: Ranks Promotional Activity**

Source: Own elaboration

In table 20, we can conclude that **women responded in the more positive side of the scale (highest values) in all the items**, while men responded in the lowest side of the scale.

Test Statistics				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	1588,5	1315,5	1041,0	1124,0
Wilcoxon W	3866,5	3593,5	3319,0	3402,0
Z	-4,0	-5,2	-6,3	-6,0
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000

**Table 21: Test Statistics Mann-Whitney (Promotional Activity)**

Source: Own elaboration

For these data, the Mann-Whitney test results are significant ( $p < 0,05$ ) for all four items ( $p\text{-value}_{I1, I2, I3, I4} = 0,000 < 0,05$ ). This, alongside with the values of the mean rankings indicates that **women respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity than men, validating H4.**

**H5:** Men are more loyal and respond more favourably to luxury brand loyalty programs than women.

<b>Ranks - Brand Loyalty</b>	<b>Gender:</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>	<b>Sum of Ranks</b>
I1. When I buy a product from a store, I usually return to the same store.	Female	75	<b>65,05</b>	4878,5
	Male	67	<b>78,72</b>	5274,5
	Total	142		
I2. I think that all brands should have some kind of incentive to make the client repeat the purchase.	Female	75	<b>64,79</b>	4859,5
	Male	67	<b>79,01</b>	5293,5
	Total	142		
I3. I am usually loyal to the same brands.	Female	75	<b>59,93</b>	4494,5
	Male	67	<b>84,46</b>	5658,5
	Total	142		
I4. Luxury brands should always have brand loyalty programs.	Female	75	<b>70,61</b>	5295,5
	Male	67	<b>72,5</b>	4857,5
	Total	142		

Table 22: Brand Loyalty

Source: Own elaboration

<b>Test Statistics</b>				
	I1.	I2.	I3.	I4.
Mann-Whitney U	2028,5	2009,5	1644,5	2445,5
Wilcoxon W	4878,5	4859,5	4494,5	5295,5
Z	-2,163	-2,306	-4,067	-0,305
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,031	0,021	0,000	0,761
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	<b>0,016</b>	<b>0,011</b>	<b>0,000</b>	<b>0,381</b>

Table 23: Test Statistics Mann-Whitney (Brand Loyalty)

Source: Own elaboration

In table 22 it can be seen, due to the mean ranks, that **men responded in the more positive side of the scale (highest values) in all the items**, while women responded with lower values. The Mann-Whitney test results (table 23) are significant ( $p < 0,05$ ) for the first three items (( $p\text{-value}_{I1} = 0,016 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I2} = 0,011 < 0,05$ ;  $p\text{-value}_{I3} = 0,000 < 0,05$ ). This, alongside with the values of the mean rankings indicates that **men are more loyal and respond more favourably to luxury brands loyalty programs than women**, with the exception of item 4, which results are not significant ( $p\text{-value}_{I4} = 0,381 > 0,05$ ).

<b>Hypothesis</b>		<b>Result</b>
<b>H1</b>	Women have a higher purchase intention of luxury brands than men.	<b>Validated</b>
<b>H2a</b>	When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as hedonic value, than men.	Not validated
<b>H2c</b>	When buying luxury products, women are more driven by intrinsic factors, such as materialistic value, than men.	Not validated
<b>H3a</b>	When buying luxury products men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as status value, than women.	<b>Validated</b>
<b>H3b</b>	When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as conspicuous value, than women.	<b>Validated</b>
<b>H3c</b>	When buying luxury products men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as susceptibility to normative influence, than women.	Not validated
<b>H3d</b>	When buying luxury products, men are more driven by extrinsic factors, such as uniqueness value, than women.	Not validated
<b>H4</b>	Women respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity than men.	<b>Validated</b>
<b>H5</b>	Men are more loyal and respond more favourably to luxury brand loyalty programs than women.	<b>Validated</b>

Table 24: Summary of the hypothesis analysed

Source: Own elaboration

## Chapter 5 – Discussion, Conclusions, Limitations and Future Research

### 5.1. Discussion

This study was conceptualized in order to understand which are the drivers and motivations to purchase luxury goods by each gender, identify and profile two consumer segments in the luxury market (women and men) and ultimately, provide knowledge to brands for them to communicate more effectively to both genders.

The drivers behind this study resulted from the BLI developed by Vigneron and Johnson (2004) and the value dimensions proposed by Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels (2009). The study also followed the classification of motives behind consumers' luxury goods consumption of Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) that divides them between “intrinsic” factors and “extrinsic” factors. As a result it was studied,

through a face-to-face questionnaire, the purchase intention, hedonic value, materialistic value, status value, conspicuous value, susceptibility to normative influence, uniqueness value, promotional activity and brand loyalty. The questionnaire was made to individuals that had bought, in Portugal, during last year, luxury ready-to-wear goods. The proportion of females and males proved to be very good for this study, since they were very similar (52,8% of the sample were women and 47,2% men).

In this analysis, hypotheses were developed relating women and men with all of the factors/drivers in order to comprehend how gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods. A reliability analysis was performed and quality value and self-identity value hypothesis, having unacceptable internal consistencies, were eliminated from the report.

When analysing the sample and the scale used, medians and modes were presented in the descriptive statistics for each variable and item. When using a Likert-scale, different patterns of responses to Likert items might occur in those of different cultures. For example, members of some cultures might be less willing to select extreme responses (Lee *et al.*, 2002). A study conducted by Roster, Albaum and Rogers (2006) showed that the US and the Philippines samples were more likely to use extreme scale end points than China or Ireland samples. Another analysis made by Harzig (2006) indicates that Latin American countries show higher ERS (extreme response style) and high acquiescence (the act of giving consensus), while East Asian (Japanese & Chinese) respondents show a relatively high level of MRS (middle response style). In Southern Europe, Spain and Portugal proved to have a high acquiescence and high MRS. In this study, **the descriptive statistics revealed that the items' modes varied between 3 and 4 (middle responses style)**, which corresponds to the results of the study conducted by Harzig (2006).

When examining the sample distribution, it became clear that it did not followed a normal distribution, which not allowed the use of parametric tests. This prompted the application of Mann-Whitney tests to analyse the hypotheses, with motivations as dependent variables and gender as the independent one.

Analysing the purchase intention (H1), it became evident that **women have a**

**significantly higher purchase intention than men.** This is in accordance with a study made by Stockburger-Sauer and Teichman (2013) that found women to have a more positive attitude and a higher purchase intention of luxury brands versus non-luxury brands than men.

Jain, Khan and Mishra (2015) classified motives behind consumers' luxury goods consumption as "intrinsic" (personal) factors and "extrinsic" (social) factors. Intrinsic factors refer to the acquisition of luxury goods mainly for inner satisfaction and extrinsic factors refers to the purchase of those products for social representation, to show their possessions and status. The second hypothesis is related with the intrinsic factors, such as hedonic value (H2a) and materialistic value (H2c). H2b and H2d were not tested due to lack of internal consistency. According to the test results, it was possible to conclude that **women were not more driven by hedonic value than men**, even if they responded slightly more positively in these items than men. This appears to contradict previous research, which suggests that women are more responsive to the uniqueness and hedonic value of luxury brands (Stockburger-Sauer and Teichman, 2013). However, results also show that **women obtain more pleasure purchasing luxury brands than men**. These results can be explained by the fact that in western cultures, gender roles are becoming increasingly blurred. More precisely, research on the dynamics of sex shows that women possess more male traits and that it is more accepted for men to adopt female traits than the contrary (Lueptow, Garovich-Szabo, & Lueptow, 2001). Twenge (1997) also shows that maintaining the degree of masculinity in Western cultures constant, the degree of femininity has increased over the years.

Additionally, it needed to be ascertained if women, when buying luxury products, were more driven by materialistic value than men. Materialism involves placing possessions and their acquisition at the centre of life with a belief that obtaining more possessions leads to happiness (Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012). Results indicated that **men, when buying luxury products, are more driven by materialistic value than women**. This is consistent with previous research by Eastman *et al.* (1997), Browne and Kaldenberg (1997) and Kamineni (2005) that have all suggested that men may be more materialistic than women. Tse *et al.* (1989) found that men are more materialistic and have a stronger orientation towards

external validation, shown through visually portraying accomplishment and prestige by means of material goods. Besides, a study conducted by Segal and Podoshen (2012) determined that males demonstrate more materialistic value and conspicuous product consumption.

The third hypothesis is related with the extrinsic factors, such as status value, conspicuous value, susceptibility to normative influence and uniqueness value, than women. Test results indicate that **men are more driven by status value than women**, agreeing with the study made by O'Cass & McEwen (2004), that discovered that status consumption and conspicuous consumption are positively correlated and that females are not more status conscious than males. Also, in a mating context, men are more concerned with the visual portrayal of economic achievement than women (Griskevicius *et al.*, 2007).

Research says that conspicuous consumption is pursued in order to enhance one's prestige in society and can be achieved through public demonstration. Conspicuous consumption also includes expenditures made for the purpose of increasing the ego (Veblen, 1934) coupled with the ostentatious display of wealth (Mason, 1981). The tests reveal that **men, when buying luxury products, are more driven by conspicuousness than women**. This is in line with O'Cass & McEwen (2004) that argue that men are more likely to engage in conspicuous consumption than women to show economic achievement and attract a potential mate. Besides, Segal and Podoshen (2012) say that men demonstrate more conspicuous consumption than women.

**The results did not show any effect of gender on susceptibility to normative influence**, thus the hypothesis that men are more susceptible to normative influence was not validated. However, literature says that social environment and interpersonal interactions have a deep impact on development of consumers' buying behaviour (Bearden *et al.*, 1989) and that women are generally described as more interdependent and more concerned with the opinion of others than men (Meyers-Levy, 1988), following communal goals, that are, life goals directed toward social and emotional relationships with others (Meyers-Levy, 1988; Prakash, 1992).

**This study also concluded that there is no effect of gender on uniqueness value.** For this reason, the hypothesis (H3d) was not validated and men are not more driven

by uniqueness value than women. These findings match with the research conducted by Tian, Bearden and Hunter (2001) that found that neither gender nor education had an impact on consumers' need for uniqueness. Nevertheless, Wiedmann *et al.* (2009) report that women value a multitude of aspects when purchasing luxury brands. More specifically, female consumers dominate segments that represent quality, uniqueness and social value as primary drivers for luxury brand consumption. The contrast between existing literatures might result from the continuous blur of gender roles and the increasing perceived symbolic and social value of luxury brands by men, which have traditionally been more important for women.

Results also show that, in H2 and H3, **the division between factors as intrinsic (personal) or extrinsic (social) does not create an effect on how gender relates to each variable**. In other words, both women and man can relate or not to the variables, regardless their type.

Genders respond differently to promotional activity. Consequently, marketers use different techniques to create a need or want for a product that is being targeted towards women and men. When it comes to the fashion and accessories luxury market, **women respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity than man, which validates the fourth hypothesis**. However, it is important to mention that in the context of fashion clothing, women have been shown to be significantly more involved in the conspicuous consumption of this product than men and that women use apparel more than men to communicate to others their identity (O'Cass, 2001). This may be the reason why test results showed that women respond more positively to luxury ready-to-wear brands' promotional activity.

In the fifth and final hypothesis, results show that **men are more loyal and respond more positively to luxury brands loyalty programs than women**. If a consumer identifies with a brand, this identification manifests in his or her loyalty toward the brand (Stockburger-Sauer and Teichman, 2013). When it comes to gender and brand loyalty studies, results are contradictory, depending on several factors and changing according to the product category. Douglas (2000) says that women are very loyal to cosmetics and skin products due to the pressure made by the cosmetic industry, marketing agencies and salesmen. Scott and Vitaska (1996) found that women were significantly more likely than men to answer affirmatively that they stick to well

known brands when shopping for products. However, Segal and Podoshen (2012) do not support the hypothesis that American women are more brand loyal than men. In addition, Podoshen (2008) suggests that the lines dividing various demographic sections and variables, such as brand loyalty, in the US, are not as strong as they once were. With that said, these results can be a consequence from the product category and the Portuguese culture. Furthermore, the existence of many luxury products, the continuous need to be on trend and unique can decrease women's loyalty towards luxury brands.

## **5.2. Conclusions**

The main purpose of this study is to examine if gender has an effect on the buying-decision process of luxury products, which are the drivers and motivations of purchasing luxury goods for both genders, as well as profile two consumer segments in the luxury market: women and men. The study resorted to nine main constructs (purchase intention, hedonic value, materialistic value, status value, conspicuousness value, susceptibility to normative influence, uniqueness value, promotional activity and brand loyalty) to explore this possible effect.

The research question – Does gender have an effect on the purchase of luxury goods? – was validated, and the question - How does gender affect the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods? – was answered by relating different buying motivations to men and women. It was verified that women have a higher purchase intention than men and respond more favourably to luxury brands promotional activity. On the other hand, males are more driven by materialistic value, status value and conspicuous value, responding more positively to luxury brands loyalty programs than females. Besides, gender did not show an effect on hedonic value, susceptibility to normative influence and uniqueness value.

Lastly, this research attributed different motivations to each gender, showing that women differ from men in their response and attitude towards luxury brands.

### **5.3. Management Implications**

There are several practical implications of these findings. As gender roles are becoming more equal in modern life, managers of luxury brands should be aware of the market changes and what drives each gender to purchase luxury goods. Nevertheless, brands should be aware that women and men value different aspects and are driven to the purchase by distinctive factors.

Marketers should base their strategies on the values different consumer segments seek from luxury brand consumption in order to increase purchase value. When advertising and communicating to male customers, brands should send a message that emphasizes the ego, display wealth or portray status. They should also create specific loyalty programs directed to men. On the other hand, when communicating to female consumers, the brands should engage in different types of promotional activity that avoid comparative messages and focus on detailed and visual information.

Regardless the gender, retailers should constantly work on creating a good relationship with its customers and a positive shopping experience. They should attend the needs of each particular market and formulate effective strategies to market their products and services that were designed to suit male and female customers' preferences. Marketers also need to be aware that the product category is of vital importance for a consumer's brand response and for her/his purchase intention.

### **5.4. Limitations of the study**

As all researches show some type of limitations, this study is no exception. For this reason, there are some constrictions that need to be mentioned.

A face-to-face relatively long questionnaire caused some respondents time constrains. Alongside with the need to ensure participant cooperation, the questionnaire was responded with rush and lack of analysis, which meant that the answers might not be accurate.

The second limitation concerns the type of sample. Purposive samples, irrespective of the type of purposive sampling used, can be highly disposed to researcher bias.

The small size of the sample, because of the nature of the difficulty to find people that buy luxury products, can also be a restriction to the validity of results. Furthermore, it only includes people living in Lisbon, which may not be representative of the entire Portuguese population. Value systems and consumer lifestyles may be different in other parts of the country. Moreover, luxury values were examined in the context of Portugal only. It is crucial that the reader understands the results cannot carry over to consumers of other countries.

The third limitation is that this study only concerns two product categories: ready-to-wear and accessories. The results may be different when studying other type of products.

The fourth constraint concerns the understanding of the marketing aspects and items presented in the questionnaire, meaning that some of the items may not be clear to all respondents, giving some unsubstantiated answers.

### **5.5. Future research**

Further research on the topic should include a bigger sample and involve additional product categories such as consumer electronics or luxury brand services. It should also be tested in other countries, since Portugal is a small country with little impact in the luxury market.

Using focus groups in future studies could also be helpful on obtaining consumers thoughts about which makes them purchase luxury products. This would also be very helpful to relate promotional activity and gender, since showing visual adds and examples would gather more conscious and well-informed responses about what attracts each gender to the purchase.

It would also be relevant to further study the impact of age, instead of gender, on the buying-decision process of luxury products. Selecting age categories and, analysing what drives each of them to the purchase, would provide interesting insides for the luxury market.

Finally, this study only focused on offline purchases. Future research could also examine gender's role in shopping motivation and acquisition decisions online, to see which differences and similarities are found between the two types of purchase.

## Chapter 6 – REFERENCES

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## Chapter 7 – APPENDICES

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## 1. Data collection

### 1.1. Questionnaire

#### **Quais as Motivações de compra, no Mercado de Produtos de Luxo, das Mulheres e Homens portugueses – Tese de Mestrado**

Este questionário foi desenvolvido no âmbito de uma Tese de Mestrado de Gestão do ISCTE-IUL, tendo com tema as motivações de compra de bens de luxo, mais precisamente pronto-a-vestir e acessórios, das mulheres e dos homens portugueses. Pretende-se caracterizar os consumidores de marcas de luxo de moda e estudar as motivações de compra de cada um dos géneros, em Portugal.

Exemplos de marcas de luxo são Armani, Burberry, Cartier, Chanel, Chloé, Céline, Dior, Escada, Givenchy, Gucci, Guerlain, Hugo Boss, Loewe, Longchamp, Louis Vuitton, Marc Jacobs, Max Mara, Miu Miu, Moschino, Prada, Ralph Lauren, Rolex, Tissot, Valentino, Versace, entre outras.

Este questionário foi elaborado exclusivamente para fins académicos e os dados recolhidos serão tratados de forma confidencial. Agradeço-lhe desde já a sua participação.

#### **Informação Pessoal:**

**Idade:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Género:**

Feminino	
Masculino	

**Escolaridade:**

9º ano	
12º ano	
Licenciatura	
Mestrado	
Doutoramento	

Intenção de compra					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. O luxo é agradável.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Os produtos de luxo tornam a vida mais bonita.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Quero comprar uma maior quantidade de produtos de luxo.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Estou muito interessado(a) em comprar produtos de luxo.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Acredito que irei comprar bens de luxo no futuro.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

<b>Valor Hedónico</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Marcas de luxo são/poderão vir a ser uma das minha fontes de prazer pessoal, sem considerar os sentimentos dos outros.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Consigo desfrutar de marcas de luxo sem me preocupar com o que os outros pensam delas.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Comprar produtos de luxo dá-me prazer pessoal.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Quando adquiro um bem de luxo, sentir-me realizado após a compra é um fator motivacional para a mesma.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Qualidade</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Quando avalio uma marca de luxo, olho para os atributos dos produtos e a sua performance, em vez de ouvir a opinião dos outros.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Nunca considerarei a compra de uma marca de luxo de preferência de outros mas que não se enquadra nos meus parâmetros de qualidade.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Compro uma marca de luxo para satisfazer as minhas necessidades pessoais mas sem tentar impressionar outros.	1	2	3	4	5

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

<b>Valor Material</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. A minha vida seria melhor se possuísse certos bens que não tenho.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Seria mais feliz se pudesse comprar mais coisas.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Às vezes incomoda-me não poder comprar todas as coisas que gosto.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Não tenho tudo o que preciso para apreciar a vida.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Identidade</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Nunca comprarei uma marca de luxo que não vá de encontro com as características com as quais me identifico.	1	2	3	4	5
2. As marcas de luxo que comprarei no futuro terão de estar de acordo com quem sou.	1	2	3	4	5
3. A minha escolha em relação a marcas de luxo depende do facto destas retratarem como me vejo mas não como os outros me vêem.	1	2	3	4	5

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

<b>Status</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Para mim, status/posição social é um motivador importante para o consumo de bens de luxo.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Pagaria mais por um produto se este me desse um nível desejado de status.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Muita vezes compro bens de luxo para mostrar o meu sucesso a outros.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Só compro produtos de luxo se estes aumentarem o meu status junto das pessoas de quem gosto.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Consumo conspícuo</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Gosto de saber que marcas e produtos causam uma boa impressão nos outros.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Antes de comprar um produto é importante saber o que causa uma boa impressão nos outros.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Antes de comprar um produto é importante saber que género de pessoas é que o compram.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Evito usar bens de luxo que não seguem as tendências.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Se fosse comprar algo dispendioso, preocupar-me-ia com o que os outros iriam pensar de mim.	1	2	3	4	5

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

<b>Grupo</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Como consumidor, obter validação dos amigos é um fator motivacional importante.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Muitas vezes consulto os meus amigos para me ajudarem a escolher a melhor alternativa possível numa categoria específica de produtos.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Antes de comprar um produto é importante saber o que os meus amigos pensam das diferentes marcas e produtos.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eu e os meus amigos costumamos comprar as mesmas marcas.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Raridade</b>					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Os produtos de luxo não podem ser produzidos em massa.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Poucas pessoas possuem verdadeiros produtos de luxo.	1	2	3	4	5
3. As pessoas que compram bens de luxo tentam destacar--se das outras.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tento evitar produtos ou marcas que são utilizadas pela população em geral.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Estou, muitas vezes, à procura de produtos ou marcas que venham de encontro ao meu estilo único.	1	2	3	4	5

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

Atividade Promocional					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. As marcas de luxo devem promover os seus produtos através de publicidade, relações públicas e celebridades que representem a marca.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. A publicidade é muito importante para o sucesso de uma marca de luxo.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. As campanhas publicitárias das marcas de luxo incentivam-me a procurar/pesquisar o produto que está a ser apresentado.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. As campanhas publicitárias das marcas de luxo incentivam-me a comprar o produto.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Lealdade					
Assinale com um “X” as seguintes afirmações dizendo se (1) discorda totalmente, (2) discorda, (3) não concorda nem discorda, (4) concorda ou (5) concorda totalmente.					
1. Quando compro um produto de uma loja, normalmente regresso à mesma.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Acho que todas as marcas deviam ter algum tipo de incentivo para fazer com que o cliente repita a compra.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Normalmente sou leal às mesmas marcas.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. As marcas de luxo deveriam ter sempre programas de fidelização para clientes.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 2. Reliability Analysis

### 2.1. Purchase Intention

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,829	,825	5

### 2.2. Hedonic Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,773	4

## 2.3. Quality Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,490	3

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Qualidade-1. Quando avalio uma marca de luxo, olho para os atributos dos produtos e a sua performance, em vez de ouvir a opinião dos outros.	8,75	1,251	,444	,136
Qualidade-2. Nunca considerarei a compra de uma marca de luxo de preferência de outros, mas que não se enquadra nos meus parâmetros de qualidade.	8,61	1,574	,248	,491
Qualidade-3. Compro uma marca de luxo para satisfazer as minhas necessidades pessoais, mas sem tentar impressionar outros.	8,67	1,613	,246	,490

## 2.4. Materialistic Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,825	4

## 2.5. Self-Identity Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,401	3

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Identidade-1. Nunca comprarei uma marca de luxo que não vá de encontro com as características com as quais me identifico.	9,03	1,106	,092	,579

## How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

Identidade-2. As marcas de luxo que comprarei no futuro terão de estar de acordo com quem sou.	8,83	,936	,454	-,035
Identidade-3. A minha escolha, em relação a marcas de luxo, depende do facto destas retratarem como me vejo mas não como os outros me vêem.	9,13	,877	,228	,333

### 2.6. Status Value/Prestige

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,931	4

### 2.7. Conspicuousness Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,855	5

## 2.8. Susceptibility to normative influence

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,788	4

## 2.9. Uniqueness Value

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,562	5

## 2.10. Promotional Activity

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

How gender affects the buying-decision process among consumers of luxury goods

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,884	4

### 2.11. Brand Loyalty Programs

#### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	142	100,0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	142	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,576	4