Repositório ISCTE-IUL

DRESS WITH FINESSE: WHY PEOPLE WEAR CLOTHES WITH LOGOS

CAROLINA COCO[1], PAULO RITA[1], RICARDO RAMOS[2], NUNO FORTES[3]

1 NOVA INFORMATION MANAGEMENT SCHOOL (NOVA IMS), UNIVERSIDADE NOVA DE LISBOA, PORTUGAL

2 ISCTE-IUL & INSTITUTO POLITÉCNICO DE COIMBRA, LISBOA, PORTUGAL

3 INSTITUTO POLITÉCNICO DE COIMBRA, LISBOA, PORTUGAL

ABSTRACT

Logos are part of a brand's identity, responsible for its recognizability and what it stands for. Research showed that buying products easily recognizable by others is associated with status and/or conspicuous consumption. This research aimed to determine the reasons behind consumers wearing logo clothes. Building on existing literature, it investigated how status, conspicuousness, self-monitors, self-esteem, materialism, brand loyalty, opinion seekers and leaders, and gender influenced wearing visually branded clothing. A conceptual model was developed combining these constructs. An online questionnaire was conducted amongst 206 individuals, and the model was tested using PLS-SEM. Results indicated that materialism, conspicuous consumers, and brand loyalty affected the decision to wear logo clothes, whereas status consumers, self-monitors, self-esteem, and opinion seekers and leaders were not significant in explaining the dependent variable. Future research could expand the research to different countries and age groups.

KEYWORDS

Status, Logo, Brand Conspicuousness, Consumer Behavior, Fashion

1. INTRODUCTION

The corporate environment is increasingly visually oriented (Foroudi et al., 2014), and a visual symbol representing a company, a logo, can play an essential part in a consumer's decision. Although a brand is more than a logo, the latter is considered one of the most critical elements (Piko et al., 2017) as it can boost brand equity, improve brand attitude, and facilitate brand recognition (Luffarelli et al., 2019). A logo refers to all marks that represent a brand and its products. It gathers the logotype and the logomark. The logotype invokes the company's name or initials, while the logomark is a company's symbolic image or icon (Berger & Ward, 2010; Pathak et al., 2019). A company's logo is crucial for brand recognition and to be on the consumers' top-of-mind (Sharma & Sharma, 2015). Companies acknowledge its importance through investment in its creation (LogoCreative, 2021).

While the logo is the most complex element of corporate identity since it stands for its mission, power, goals, and culture (Piko et al., 2017), the logo is most present in clothing in the consumer world. Additionally, clothes are status symbols highly suggestive of an individual's status (Oh et al., 2020). Multiple types of motivations might be behind wearing clothes with logos. For example, conspicuous consumers may wear them to communicate a distinctive self-image to others. In turn, a status consumer might use them if he/she values status and self-esteem (Amatulli et al., 2018). The use of clothes with logos might also be motivated by the individual's self-monitoring since the consumer uses products and brands for prestige and appearance (Cui et al., 2021). Loyal consumers of a brand might also be motivated to wear a piece of clothing with the logo of their favorite brand (Cuesta-Valiño et al., 2021), while materialistic consumers are influenced to use products that portray their image orientation (Lang & Joyner Armstrong, 2018).

The impact of logos on consumer behavior was of interest to academia in the past. For instance, Pyone (2021), who researched how positive affect influenced the perceived value of status goods through visible brand logos, found that positive affect decreased the pursuit of extrinsic consumption benefits. Lee et al. (2015) suggested that luxury versus non-luxury self-display influences status and social interactions. Han et al. (2010) introduced the brand prominence construct that reflects the conspicuousness of a brand's logo on a product. While multiple studies focused mainly on explaining why people purchase goods for their visual effect on others and the relationship between status and

conspicuous consumerism, little research has been done on the specific traits of consumers who wear clothes with logos.

Facing the identified gap in the literature, this study aimed to analyze the factors influencing wearing clothes with logos. Using a white t-shirt with a renowned brand logo, this study combined six variables (conspicuous consumer, status consumer, self-monitor, self-esteem, brand loyalty, materialism), two mediators (opinion seeker and opinion leader), and one moderator (gender) to achieve the proposed aim. Understanding the consumer's characteristics that lead to wearing this clothing enables marketers to develop effective strategies and gain superior positions in the market (Stankevich, 2017).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Conspicuous consumption is commonly defined in terms of status consumption. These two terms are often used interchangeably. Eastman and Liu (2012) and Eastman and Eastman (2015) defined status consumption as purchasing conspicuous items to acquire status. However, O'Cass and McEwen (2004) separated these two terms, stating that status consumers focus on purchasing status symbols to acquire prestige, and conspicuous consumers concentrate on buying status symbols to be viewed by others.

In addition, O'Cass and McEwen (2004) demonstrated how self-monitors, people who adjust their persona to fit in a specific social environment, are directly correlated with conspicuous consumers. O'Cass (2001) also stated the influence materialism and gender can have on status and conspicuous consumers.

Flynn et al. (1996) and Goldsmith et al. (1996) did remarkable and pioneer work linking opinion leadership and opinion seeking to clothes consumption. Goldsmith et al. (1996) showed how status and conspicuous consumers were more likely to care about others' opinions. Flynn et al. (1996) developed a scale that measured if an individual was an opinion leader or opinion seeker in the context of fashion consumption.

Podoshen and Andrzejewski (2012) further relate materialism, self-esteem, and brand loyalty to conspicuous consumption. The authors conclude that goods are purchased for social status reasons in society; they are directly linked to materialism and conspicuous consumers, and brand loyalty plays a reinforcing role in repeat materialistic purchases

(i.e., status symbols). In addition, the authors relate low self-esteem with increased consumption of status symbols.

Later, the construct of self-esteem is essential to this context when Truong and McColl (2011) state that self-esteem acts as an essential motivator for purchasing status symbols. This construct was also a target of research by Rosenberg (1965), who developed one of the most widely used self-report scales for evaluating an individual's level of self-esteem. This research considered the critical antecedents to examine the factors underlying the decision to use status symbols. As the literature shows, this decision is influenced by the consumer being conspicuous, a status consumer, or both, by the level of self-monitoring tendencies, self-esteem, brand loyalty, materialism, how much an individual cares about others' opinions, and how gender affects all of these.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.1.1 Status Consumers and Conspicuous Consumers

Clothing with a logo worn as a status symbol is one of the most effective ways of signaling an individual's wealth and social hierarchy to others (Goldsmith et al., 1996). Therefore, wearing this type of apparel is a sort of conspicuous consumption.

Eastman et al. (1999) define status consumption as a process of improving one's social standing via conspicuous consumption of status symbols. Here, status consumption is defined in terms of conspicuous consumption.

O'Cass and McEwen (2004) argued that literature treats these two concepts interchangeably as if they overlap, but they later separated them. Whereas conspicuous consumers buy to be visually recognized by others, status consumers purchase to elevate their esteem. This means that consumers purchase status symbols because they can be status consumers, conspicuous consumers, or both (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004).

Since logos influence perceptions and affections and represent symbolic connotations (Machado et al., 2021), researchers assume that conspicuous and status consumers wear clothing with a logo to reinforce their influence and perception of others (Johnson & Chattaraman, 2019).

Following this rationale, we propose the following:

H1: Conspicuous consumers will significantly positively affect the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

H2: Status consumers will significantly positively affect the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

2.1.2 The Mediating Role of Society's Opinions

Social relationships play a big part in the status-seeking world. Two types of individuals arise from society's consumption: opinion leaders and opinion seekers. Opinion leaders influence others' behavior in specific product fields, while opinion seekers seek advice when deciding what to do (Zhao et al., 2018).

Consumers who are concerned about the influence that their clothes have on their social status will ensure that their position is maintained by either worrying about the opinion of others (Goldsmith et al., 1996) – opinion seekers - or by engaging in the purchase of status symbols to make sure their influence and advice are heard (Schaefers, 2014) – opinion leaders.

Status originates from the opinions other members of the society make on an individual's position; for this position to be established, there needs to be a display of wealth (Trigg, 2001). It can be said that consumers of the conspicuous and/or status type, i.e., purchase items to be viewed by others or to acquire prestige, will display their status symbols to society. Consequently, their peers will generate opinions on said symbols, and the goal of acquiring prestige and being noticed will be met.

Being an opinion seeker or leader mediates between these consumers and those wearing branded apparel. On the one hand, Goldsmith and Clark (2008) argue that consumers who are opinion seekers place more emphasis on the opinions of others because of the social importance of fashionable clothing. On the other hand, Schaefers (2014) states that opinion leaders purchase status symbols to maintain their social position.

Naturally, it is not possible to ignore society's opinions' influence on consumers. Hence:

H3a*: Opinion leaders mediate the relationship between conspicuous consumers and the decision to wear clothing with a logo.*

H3b: Opinion seekers mediate the relationship between conspicuous consumers and the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

H4a: Opinion leaders mediate the relationship between status consumers and the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

H4b: Opinion seekers mediate the relationship between status consumers and the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

2.1.3 Self-Monitoring

The concept of self-monitoring relates to adapting self-presentations in response to social environments. It is about controlling and adjusting one's self-presentation and attitudes to different social situations to maintain a front (Cui et al., 2021). High-level self-monitors will display higher norm-behavior consistency than lower-level self-monitors, acting consistently independently of the social environment (Goldsmith & Clark, 2008).

Consequently, high-level self-monitor individuals will pay more attention to the social environment as a reference for making product selections and state that they are more conscious of what others think of their purchases and usage of products. Self-monitors use conspicuous products (such as clothes with logos) to convey an image of themselves to those around them (Goldsmith & Clark, 2008; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004).

High-level self-monitors emphasize their conspicuous apparel so that others notice them, disapprove, or approve, and, consequently, fit in. Adjusting one's clothing to the social environment demonstrates that conspicuousness is essential for self-monitors who want to be accepted by others and become part of their reference group (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004). Logos may play a relevant part in adjusting to the environment as they represent symbolic connotations and judgments (Jiang et al., 2016; Machado et al., 2021). We assume that consumers will wear logos in response to a social environment.

We hypothesize that:

H5: *Self-monitors will significantly positively affect the decision to wear clothing with a logo.*

2.1.4 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem can be defined as the value an individual gives to their worth (Oh, 2021). According to Banister and Hogg (2004), an essential motivator for purchasing status symbols is the improvement of self-esteem. However, the level of self-esteem of an individual will affect consumerism. Consumers with low self-esteem will increase the consumption of status symbols as compensatory (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012; Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). In turn, individuals with high self-esteem are confident about being conspicuous consumers and should not be related negatively to using a logo clothing (Chaudhuri et al., 2011). A logo influences increasing self-esteem (Song et al., 2017). Lee and Shrum (2012) suggested that when individuals are ignored, they wear products with more prominent brand logos.

Following this rationale, we hypothesize that:

H6: The level of an individual's self-esteem will have a significant impact on the decision to wear clothing with a logo

2.1.5 Brand Loyalty

Podoshen and Andrzejewski (2012) state that consumers will choose the brand they consider to be a prestige and status brand when deciding on status symbols. In addition, the status and conspicuous consumer will choose the brand they know is well-known to minimize the risk of their behavior not being accepted. Consumers' trust in a brand supports positive perceptions and opinions toward the brand's products (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). This risk-minimizing behavior is consistent with the concept of brand loyalty.

Brand loyalty signifies a preference in the consumer buying decision for a particular brand, but it also means that a consumer's behavior toward the brand consists of repeat purchases (Coelho et al., 2018; Phau & Cheong, 2009). We can state that an individual who wears the logo apparel of a brand due to its conspicuous or status nature is loyal to that brand – it is regarded and trusted by the individual's peers, bringing prestige, status, and notice. This is consistent with O'Cass and Frost (2002), arguing that brands can be seen as status symbols. We can suppose that a brand's products are a status symbol and

an individual wears these due to being a status or conspicuous consumer. Then, brand loyalty will arise from these decisions.

H7: *Brand loyalty will significantly positively affect the decision to wear clothing with a logo.*

2.1.6 Materialism

Like self-monitors, materialists are consumers who attempt to portray an image of status and prestige using material possessions, such as fashion clothing (Cass, 2001). Materialism favors using these possessions to ensure that their identity is met. Therefore, possessions play a central part in a materialist life. Cass (2001) also argues that the importance of having materials relies on the ability to convey status, success, and prestige.

This concept might be related to wearing visually branded clothing. When materialists try to portray their identity to others, they often use apparel as the most efficient way to convey their status, success, and prestige (Goldsmith et al., 1996). A materialistic individual is recognized to adopt compulsive buyer behavior, insecurity, social anxiety, and low self-esteem. A logo on a piece of clothing might increase self-esteem by creating a personality (Beldona & Wysong, 2007; Song et al., 2017) and diminish social anxiety and insecurity (Jiang & Ngien, 2020).

According to Podoshen and Andrzejewski (2012), understanding materialism is vital in the era of consumption, where the desired life is based on the display of status symbols.

We hypothesize:

H8: *Materialism will significantly positively affect the decision to wear clothing with a logo.*

2.1.7 The Moderating Role of Gender

Evidence shows that men are more concerned about status and are more likely to engage in "show-off" displays than women (Cass, 2001). Status, conspicuous consumption, and materialism have been proven to be correlated with gender (Podoshen & Andrzejewski,

2012), where men have a higher probability of being status, conspicuous consumers, and materialists than women. However, studies like Hogue et al. (2013) distinguish between product fields – women are more prone to status symbols regarding clothes, and men are more prone to durable goods (e.g., cars). Moreover, women will give more importance to status symbols because of their self-expression.

When it comes to self-monitors, men show higher self-monitoring tendencies than women. They are likelier to fake specific characteristics to fit in with others and maintain a front (Kling et al., 1999; Pallier, 2003). Therefore, one can predict that men are more likely to wear clothing with logos than women.

Gender differences have been stated to exist in terms of self-confidence, where men exhibit stronger confidence than women (Gentina & Kratzer, 2020). Thus, we predict that men have higher self-esteem than women and are likelier to wear visually branded logo clothing.

Women appear to be more likely than men to care about brand loyalty. Women are significantly more involved in hedonic products and emotionally attached to a brand than men (Rocereto & Mosca, 2011), suggesting that women have more brand loyalty than men and are more likely to wear logo clothing from the brand they are loyal to. These assumptions are confirmed by the evolutionary psychology theory (Otterbring et al., 2020) and the social role theory (Furtado et al., 2022). These theories reinforce the argument that there are gender differences in human behavior and that women play different societal roles, suggesting that there might be different ways of behavior regarding logos.

These assumptions suggest that:

H9: *Gender moderates status consumerism in wearing logo clothing.*

H10: *Gender moderates conspicuous consumerism by wearing clothing with a logo, where men will be more likely to be conspicuous consumers than women.*

H11: *Gender moderates self-monitors in wearing clothing with a logo, where men will be more likely to be self-monitors than women.*

H12: *Gender moderates self-esteem on wearing clothing with a logo, where men will be more likely to have higher self-esteem than women.*

H13: *Gender moderates brand loyalty by wearing logo clothing, where women will be more brand loyal.*

H14: *Gender moderates materialism on wearing clothing with a logo, where women will be more brand loyal.*

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model for choosing clothing with a logo.

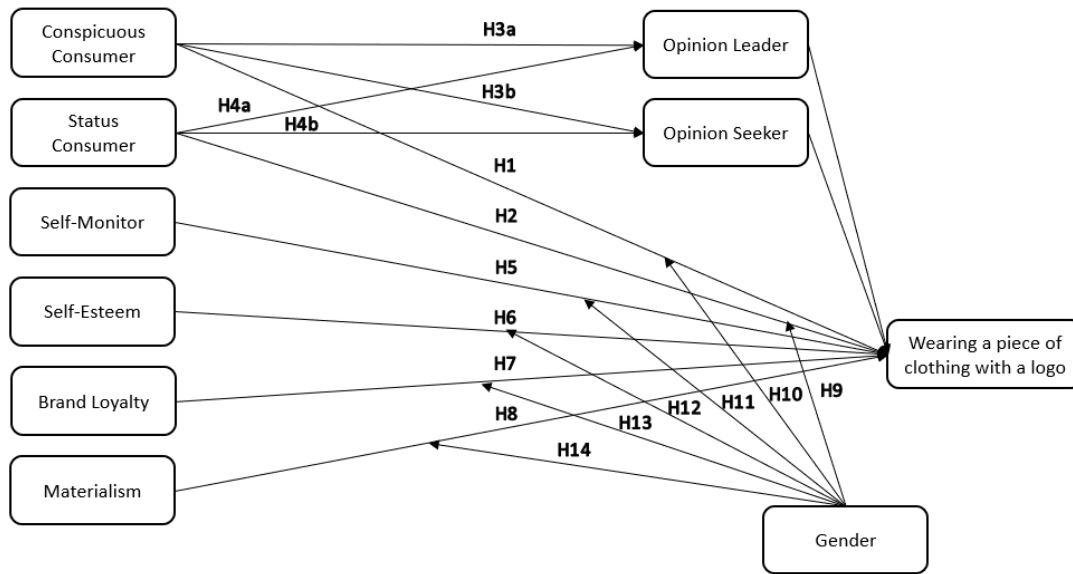

Fig. 1. – Conceptual Model

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Population and Sample

This study aims to uncover the factors behind wearing apparel with logos. We define the population as people who currently own at least one item of clothing with a logo.

The sample followed a non-probabilistic convenience sampling method and comprised a subset of the target population. The research was carried out amongst individuals, ensuring age, demographics, and background differences.

3.2 Data Collection

Procedure and Questionnaire

To collect data, a modified self-administered online questionnaire was used. The online questionnaire provides a common touchpoint for all respondents and an easy-complete-and-return questionnaire (O'Cass & Fenech, 2003). The study was conducted in Portugal, and the respondents lived in Lisbon. We chose respondents based on a non-probabilistic convenience sampling method to obtain as many responses as possible. The snowball sampling approach was used, in which we selected a handful of respondents who belonged to the target population and asked them for assistance in seeking similar subjects to form a considerably good sample size.

The data collection procedure was based on three phases: a scenario-based questionnaire to test H1 and H2 followed by self-report questions to test H3 and H4 and H5, H6, H7, and H8, respectively. The constructs and items used can be found in Table 1. All items were measured using a seven-point range scale in each item, ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). The summary of the questionnaire's path can be found in Figure 2.

| Indicator	Construct	Reference
Conspicous (CON)		
CON_1	This brand is a symbol of prestige.	Truong et al. (2008)
CON_2	This brand attracts attention.	
CON_3	This brand can be used to impress other people.	
Status (STAT)		
STAT_1	This brand indicates a person's social status.	Truong et al. (2008)
STAT_2	This brand a symbol of achievement.	
STAT_3	This brand is a symbol of wealth.	
Opinion Leader (OPL)		
OPL_1	My opinions influence what types of clothing other people buy.	Flynn et al. (1996)
OPL_2	When choosing what to wear, other people turn to me for advice.	
OPL_3	What I say about clothing often changes other people's minds.	
OPL_4	I often persuade other people to buy the clothing that I like.	
Opinion Seaker (OPS)		
OPS_1	When I consider buying clothes I ask other people for advice.	Flynn et al. (1996)
OPS_2	I would not choose what to wear without consulting someone else.	
OPS_3	I like to get others' opinions before I buy a piece of clothing.	
OPS_4	When choosing what to wear, other people's opinions are important to me.	
Self-monitoring (SM)		
SM_1	In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behaviour depending on the impression I wish to give them.	O'Cass (2000)
SM_2	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	
SM_3	I have found that I can adjust my behaviour to meet the requirements of any situation in which I find myself.	
SM_4	Once I know what a situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	
Selfesteem (SE)		
SE_1	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	Rosenberg (1965)
SE_2	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	
SE_3	I feel I have much to be proud of.	
SE_4	I feel that I'm a person of worth.	
SE_5	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	
Materialism (MAT)		
MAT_1	I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success.	Richins and Dawson (1992)
MAT_2	I don't pay much attention to the material objects other people own	
MAT_3	I usually buy only the things I need.	
MAT_4	I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned.	
MAT_5	Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.	
MAT_6	I have all the things I really need to enjoy life.	
MAT_7	I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.	
Brand Loyalty (BL)		
BL_1	My favourite clothing brand is:	Ailawadi et al. (2001)
BL_2	I prefer this brand of most products I buy.	
BL_3	I am willing to make an effort to search for my favourite brand.	
BL_4	Usually, I care a lot about which particular brand I buy.	

Table 1 - Questionnaire Summary
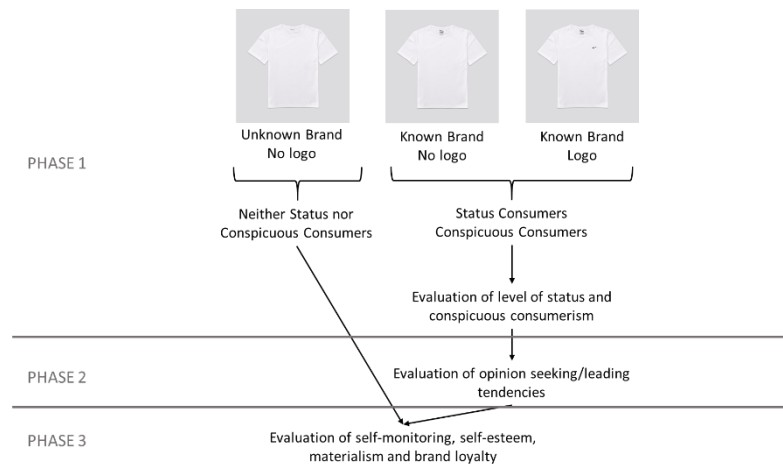
Fig. 2. - Summary of Experiment Paths

The participants were told their memory would be tested after reading a short story to minimize potential suspicions of the questionnaire's aim. As some time had to pass between the reading and the questions – for memory decay – participants would work on the other phases of the questionnaire. The pre-test feedback showed no suspicion.

Much like Griskevicius et al. (2009)'s work, the study had two motive conditions: (1) Status and Conspicuous (treatment) and (2) Control. Participants were randomly assigned to each group and were asked to read a short story that would either activate these motives or not. According to Griskevicius et al. (2010), activating a motive for status will influence choices between products that enhance one's reputation and others that do not. Introducing the short stories aimed to ensure the questionnaire collected the target variable. The treatment group story has successfully elicited these motives in previous research (Griskevicius et al., 2009) and asks participants to imagine graduating from college, looking for a job, and working for a large company because it offers the greatest chance of moving up. The control group participants read about losing a set of keys before leaving the house to run errands and searching for them throughout the house. Both stories were supplied by Griskevicius et al. (2010) and are available in Appendix 1.

Stage 1: Pre-testing

The self-administered online questionnaire was developed using Qualtrics' online survey tools. It was administered to 21 individuals belonging to the target population to determine the level of difficulty of both the questions interpreted by the target population

and the answers given by them, the formation and sequence of the questions, the time spent to answer them, and the analysis of the data (Malhotra, 2019). Consequently, three modifications were made to the questionnaire regarding wording, question order, and brand used.

Stage 2: Main study

Three hundred sixty-two responses were collected. After cleaning the data set and handling all missing values, 206 responses were retrieved. The sample size aligns with similar studies (Brandão & Barbedo, 2022; Koay, 2018).

3.3. DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of our results was composed of two stages.

We first conducted descriptive statistics using the SAS software to overview our sample and performed a chi-squared test to check significant differences between the control and treatment groups. We tested a significant correlation between the short story each individual read and the decision was taken when prompted to choose between two t-shirts – one with a logotype from a well-known sports brand and the second without any logotypes.

Secondly, the hypotheses were tested. The reflective and structural models were assessed with the SMARTPLS3 software using PLS-SEM (Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling). PLS-SEM is based on the OLS regression, which estimates cause-effect relationships using latent variables. The standard PLS-SEM procedure cannot be applied when we have categorical data, like the target variable in this study, as OLS does not apply to discrete data. Despite this, authors like Lohmöller (1989) have proposed an extended PLS-SEM approach that uses discrete categorical data from experiments. Hair et al. (2020) prove that an appropriate and reliable approach to this data type involves using the standard PLS-SEM algorithm with a few extra steps. These steps are: using Boolean variables, indicators of the variable must not be correlated, estimation with the PLS-SEM algorithm, and rescaling and interpretation. Moreover, PLS-SEM does not require distributional assumptions, effectively explores highly complex models with

multiple constructs, structural paths, and indicators, and can be applied to small samples (Hair et al., 2019; Huang, 2019).

Three criteria were used when analyzing the reflective model: indicator reliability, composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Collinearity, R squared, and predictive relevance (Q squared) were evaluated when assessing the structural model.

Lastly, to analyze the mediation and moderation effects, we evaluate each construct's path coefficients and indirect effects and the differences in path coefficients using a multigroup analysis. These results originate from a bootstrapping technique (Hair et al., 2017) with 5000 iterations of re-sampling, and each bootstrap sample is constituted by the number of observations (206 observations).

4. RESULTS

This study was designed to identify the factors that explain why individuals wear status symbols and propose new strategies for clothing brands to target their customers better, i.e., better understand which customers are worth targeting in their marketing efforts.

4.1. Sample Overview

After cleaning the data set and handling all missing values, 206 responses were retrieved. Starting by analyzing descriptive statistics, the sample comprises 65.5% (n_f=135) female individuals and 34.5% (n_m=71) male individuals. Ages vary between 17 and 62 years old. Twenty-two years old is the most common age.

We performed a chi-square to test if the short story presented was significantly associated with the decision to wear a t-shirt with a logo. The results showed no association between the two groups and the decision to wear clothing with a logo ($\chi2_{(1)}$= 1.123; p=0.290). This shows that the short stories Griskevicius et al. (2010) provided did not activate a status and conspicuous motive in the consumers (Table 2). Nonetheless, we can state that even though the two groups did not have significant differences regarding the t-shirt

choice, option B was chosen the most out of the two options, which reassures us in terms of having conspicuous consumers on the sample.

Table of Group by T-shirt_Choice			
Group	T-shirt_Choice		
	A (no logo)	B (logo)	Total
CONTROL	45	60	105
TREATMENT	36	65	101
Total	81	125	206

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	1	1.123	0.289

Table 2 – Chi-square test between Group and T-shirt choice

4.2.Reflective Model Analysis

According to Hair et al. (2017), in exploratory research, the loadings of each indicator are considered acceptable when between 0.6 and 0.9. We excluded nine indicators (BL_1, SE_4, SE_5, SM_3, SM_4, MAT_3, MAT_4, MAT_6) that did not meet this criterion to get an optimal solution to reach indicator reliability. We kept, however, two indicators that are just above the 0.9 criteria (SE_3 and SM_2) for acceptable loadings, as shown in Table 3, following the outer loading relevance test that is based on the impact of the deletion of the indicator on the AVE (Hair et al., 2017). This made sense, both theoretically and practically, to maintain, suggesting sufficient levels of composite reliability. All the values exceed the threshold of 0.7, indicating composite reliability (Hair et al., 2017). All constructs must be above 0.5 for convergent validity to be considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2017).

Latent Variable	Indicator	Outer Loading	Outer Weight	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
BL	BL_2	0.827	0.280	0.899	0.749
	BL_3	0.902	0.388		
	BL_4	0.866	0.483		
CON	CON_1	0.805	0.489	0.863	0.678
	CON_2	0.879	0.412		
	CON_3	0.783	0.311		
MAT	MAT_1	0.788	0.374	0.811	0.521
	MAT_2	0.817	0.445		
	MAT_5	0.627	0.307		
	MAT_7	0.634	0.234		
OPL	OPL_1	0.808	0.230	0.900	0.692
	OPL_2	0.836	0.165		
	OPL_3	0.884	0.203		
	OPL_4	0.796	0.207		
OPS	OPS_1	0.851	0.186	0.909	0.769
	OPS_2	0.903	0.195		
	OPS_3	0.876	0.270		
SE	SE_1	0.804	0.200	0.908	0.768
	SE_2	0.889	0.378		
	SE_3	0.931	0.540		
SM	SM_1	0.856	0.428	0.896	0.812
	SM_2	0.944	0.671		
STAT	STAT_1	0.84	0.411	0.905	0.761
	STAT_2	0.889	0.361		
	STAT_3	0.889	0.376		

Table 3 - Reflective Measurement Model Analysis

Finally, when it came to discriminant validity, and according to the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of the AVE of each construct should be higher than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in the model (Hair et al., 2017). This is the case of our model; therefore, we have discriminant validity (Table 4). The results guarantee that the measures used in this research are reliable and valid.

	BL	CON	LOGO	MAT	OPL	OPS	SE	SM	STAT
BL	0.865								
CON	0.388	0.823							
LOGO	0.304	0.359	1.000						
MAT	0.399	0.324	0.361	0.722					
OPL	0.412	0.334	0.138	0.483	0.832				
OPS	0.199	0.310	0.213	0.340	0.298	0.877			
SE	0.139	0.156	0.087	-0.013	0.029	-0.008	0.876		
SM	0.170	0.357	0.087	0.313	0.268	0.183	0.120	0.901	
STAT	0.270	0.579	0.264	0.439	0.307	0.296	0.021	0.278	0.873

Table 4 - Fornell and Larcker Criteria

4.3. Structural Model Analysis

Collinearity among the predictor constructs is not critical in the structural model, as all VIF values are below 5. Additionally, according to Hair et al. (2017), the R-squared in the context of consumer behavior is acceptable when above 0.2. As we can see, our target variable has 23.5% of its variance explained. Finally, the values for Q Squared above 0 mean that the model has a good predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017). As shown in Table 5, we have a predictive relevance of 0.176.

	VIF	R SQUARED	Q SQUARED
BL	1.403		
CON	1.821		
MAT	1.655		
OPL	1.475	0.131	0.082
OPS	1.216	0.117	0.079
SE	1.059		
SM	1.231		
STAT	1.705		
TSHIRT_wLOGO		0.235	0.176

Table 5 - Structural Model Analysis

The hypotheses were tested based on the level of significance in the path coefficient using the bootstrapping technique (Hair et al., 2017) with 5000 iterations of re-sampling, and each bootstrap sample was constituted by the number of observations (206 observations).

As shown in Table 6, this test showed that three hypotheses involving direct effects were supported out of six path coefficients, while the other three failed to be confirmed.

	Path Coefficients	T Statistics	P Values
BL	0.139	2.009	0.045
CON	0.271	3.434	0.001
MAT	0.305	4.319	0.000
SE	0.047	0.641	0.522
SM	-0.104	1.551	0.121
STAT	-0.010	0.133	0.894

Table 6 – Path Coefficients Significances (Direct Effects)

Previous studies suggest that status and reputation are assured when individuals acquire conspicuous goods (Trigg, 2001). In addition, many psychological factors can affect the purchasing of status symbols, such as self-esteem, self-monitoring, materialism, and brand loyalty. Conspicuous consumers, materialism, and brand loyalty were three factors that significantly affected the decision to wear a piece of clothing with a logo, confirming hypotheses H1 (β=0.271; p value=0.001), H7 (β=0.130; p value=0.045), and H8 (β=0.305; p value=0.000).

When looking at the significance levels for the mediation paths, we see that all path coefficients are significant for a 95% confidence level except for STAT->OPL, which is only significant for a 90% confidence level (Table 7). Regarding the indirect effects, none are significant, as all p-values are above 0.1. Our findings do not provide empirical support for the mediating role of opinion seekers and leaders in deciding to wear a piece of clothing with a logo. It can be stated that there is a direct only effect between all the constructs. Thus, our study rejects the H3a (β=-0.034; p value=0.114), H3b (β=0.013; p value=0.395), H4a (β=-0.025; p value=0.192), and H4b (β=0.011; p value=0.400).

	Path Coefficient	Indirect Effects	T Statistics	P Values
CON -> OPL ->TSHIRT_wLOGO		-0.034	1.579	0.114
STAT -> OPL ->TSHIRT_wLOGO		-0.025	1.305	0.192
CON -> OPS ->TSHIRT_wLOGO		0.013	0.850	0.395
STAT -> OPS ->TSHIRT_wLOGO		0.011	0.842	0.400
CON -> OPL	0.235		2.987	0.003
CON -> OPS	0.209		2.459	0.014
STAT -> OPL	0.171		1.927	0.054
STAT -> OPS	0.175		1.983	0.047

Table 7 - Mediation Analysis

By performing a multigroup analysis, based on the differences of the path coefficients, gender showed a moderating effect on one construct – self-esteem (p-value < 0,05), as seen in Table 8. Looking at the signal of the differences, our findings prove that females have a lower level of self-esteem than males in our sample.

The moderating effect of self-esteem on the decision to wear clothes with a logo proved significant even if self-esteem did not. It can be stated that women are more likely to have lower levels of self-esteem, in line with the works of Podoshen and Andrzejewski (2012).

	Path Coefficients-diff (Female - Male)	p-Value new (Female vs Male)
BL	-0.098	0.522
CON	0.015	0.929
MAT	0.070	0.650
SE	-0.343	0.046
SM	-0.028	0.853
STAT	-0.115	0.513

Table 8 - Moderation Analysis

As such, the H9 (β=-0.115; p value=0.513), H10 (β=0.015; p value=0.929), H11 (β=-0.028; p value=0.853), H13 (β=-0.098; p value=0.522), and H14 (β=0.070; p value=0.650) were not confirmed.

Our study globally validates the proposed research model, which explains 23.5% of the target variable, meaning that conspicuous consumers, materialism, and brand loyalty significantly explain the variance in the decision to wear clothing with a logo.

5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study aimed to test a model to delineate relationships between materialism, conspicuous and status consumers, brand loyalty, self-monitor, self-esteem, and the decision to wear clothing with a logo. The results of our exploration of theoretical relationships contribute by expanding the applicability of the evolutionary psychology theory (Otterbring et al., 2020) and the social role theory (Furtado et al., 2022). These theories suggest that there are gender differences in consumer behavior. However, our results suggest that wearing a piece of clothing with a logo is not influenced by gender. Additionally, the reasons behind the use of logos are explored, providing new insights into consumer decision-making, particularly by offering empirical evidence that materialists, conspicuous, and loyal consumers influence the use of logos.

Our structural model showed that conspicuous consumers search for clothes with a logo signaling wealth and belonging to a higher status group (Johnson et al., 2018), confirming the results for H1. The clothing logo is a vehicle to display information regarding the owner. To this end, knowing that consumers nowadays value their possessions and buy more apparel than they need (Joung, 2013), brand managers need to take advantage of this market opportunity and focus on targeting their logo clothing, especially those of premium brands, to gain leverage. Placing the brands' logo in a prominent place might be a good strategy to capture the attention of conspicuous consumers. Additionally, using clothes with neutral colors to contrast with the logo colors, selecting the right colors to highlight the logo, considering increasing the logo's size, or using resistant material to embroider the logo on the garment might be good solutions to increase the logo's visibility that, in turn, will capture the interest of conspicuous consumers. Acknowledging that logos represent the brand and what it stands for (Piko et al., 2017), having clothing with a conspicuous symbol will ensure that the consumers' peers recognize the brand and gain prestige and status from it. Individuals who aim to be related to a specific identity are prone to engage in activities or wear material objects with a symbolism that represents and strengthens such identity (Johnson & Chattaraman, 2019). Our study informs that clothing is not only a utility product and that individuals aim to inform others about their wealth or social power, confirming previous studies (Bronner & de Hoog, 2019; Johnson et al., 2018). We stress that a logo from a well-known brand represents social status to others, and it is worn. For this reason, consumers thrive on climbing the social ladder and utilizing their image to acquire this. Additionally, using a random logo will not fulfill a

consumer's need to be recognized by others. The logos come hand in hand with their brand. We can state that these consumers care about the specific logo used due to their loyalty to the brand (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012).

In turn, H2, H5, and H6 were rejected. Contrary to previous studies (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Pino et al., 2019), this study suggests that clothes with a logo do not influence status consumers to elevate their esteem. This result might have to do with the fact that, although status consumers prefer status brands, they do not feel the need to show the brands to others. It implies that their need is only intrinsic. Additionally, the result suggests that clothing with a logo is not fundamental regardless of the social environment. Self-monitors wear conspicuous products (Goldsmith & Clark, 2008), and these consumers have only intrinsic needs, suggesting no need to convey an image of themselves to those around them, no matter the context. The result also contradicts previous studies (Banister & Hogg, 2004; Jaehoon Lee & Shrum, 2012), suggesting that the clothing logo alone is insufficient to compensate for the lack of compensatory consumption developed by low self-esteem consumers.

The result for H7 aligns with Podoshen and Andrzejewski's (2012) findings. The authors suggest that consumers avoid changing a brand to minimize the risk of not being accepted by their peers. Moreover, specific brands might be associated with self-worth and status, suggesting that consumers develop loyalty to a brand and will not accept other substitutes (Phau & Cheong, 2009). As loyalty is essential for a brand to thrive and succeed, brands should place a more prominent logo on their clothes to be easily identified by the clients' peers. Brand managers should also promote relationships with their customers to develop brand loyalty. Many marketing activities to promote brand loyalty are being developed on social media, mainly social media engagement (Yoshida et al., 2018). Additionally, brand managers should use strategies to incentivize loyalty to the brand's target, which may include offering gifts, discounts, and promotions, creating loyalty programs to reward the most loyal customers, or creating unique experiences to create positive memories. Establishing positive relations might increase the intention to buy branded goods in the future (Loureiro, 2020). A company that cares about its consumers and meets their expectations positively affects consumer attitudes (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). This strategy might capture the attention of others and promote the clients' social position. Eventually, it might attract other conspicuous consumers (Romão et al., 2019). However, it is essential to note that an already loyal consumer will go out of their way to

purchase products from the brand they are loyal to, so having a symbol representing the brand in the clothes is vital to ensure these consumers are approached in the marketing moves. Accordingly, brands should promote their strength to be recognized by the general audience since others can influence the clients' purchases (Chetioui et al., 2020). This might influence the purchase intention of opinion leaders and seekers.

The result of H8 is consistent with previous studies (Lang & Joyner Armstrong, 2018; Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). Materialists are consumers who aim to illustrate an image of prestige and status (Cass, 2001). One way to portray such an image is through material possessions, such as visually branded clothing. Materialism has been associated with consumer behavior, including social motivation, compulsive buying, insecurity, social anxiety, and self-esteem. An individual with such characteristics is prone to acquire clothes with a logo to influence the perception that others have about him (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). Those who use logos to portray an image of status will have high levels of materialism since materialists rely on their possessions to fulfill their sense of identity (Cass, 2001). There is hardly a better way of delivering this than clothes representing a premium brand symbol. Wearing status symbols will trigger free advertising for the company as others notice the apparel and repeat purchase behavior in successful cases (Phau & Cheong, 2009). For brand managers, creating advertising campaigns that highlight the qualities and benefits of the product, offering quality services to turn customers loyal, establishing partnerships with other companies of the segment to increase visibility, or using digital influencers to promote the brand are some actionable suggestions to capture the attention of materialists. At the center of every strategy, it is suggested that the logo should be highlighted to take full advantage of its influence on materialists.

Research hypotheses H3a, H3b, H4a, and H4b were not confirmed. This result suggests that opinion leaders and seekers do not mediate the relationship between conspicuous or status consumers and the decision to wear clothing with a logo, contradicting the studies of Goldsmith et al. (1996) and Schaefers (2014). This implies that consumers who are concerned about the opinions of others do not search for clothes with logos to ensure that their position is maintained. The same happens with those who wear status symbols to maintain their influence above others. Considering the contradicting results, brand managers can use arguments that might influence the use of clothes with logos to influence others' opinions – opinion leaders (Goldsmith et al., 1996) and those who are

worried about the opinion of others – opinion seekers (Schaefers, 2014). Actionable suggestions such as reinforcing the communication that a logo is an effective way to transmit elements of an individual's personality or that it is a visually attractive element that can capture the attention of their peers might change the opinion of conspicuous and status consumers.

While opinion seekers and leaders do not have a full mediating effect, they have a direct-only effect with status and conspicuous consumers, pointing to the importance of other people's opinions. Consumers who care about prestige, status, and attracting attention will naturally care about the image they portray and the clothes they wear (Goldsmith et al., 1996), independent of that being a leadership position or the following position, i.e., opinion leaders or seekers. Meaning that the opinions of others will always play a part in being a consumer who focuses on prestige and attention, even if that does not relate to clothing with a logo. These findings are consistent with Flynn et al. (2000), who state that consumers influence consumers based on their opinions. Following this, companies should consider that their products' purchases will always depend on consumers' opinions, whose opinions might even be dependent on the opinions of their peers. Therefore, brands should not look at their consumers as one person who will purchase their products but as a group of people who can influence each other and recommend products. Word-of-mouth is one of the most powerful tools brands can use and knowing that consumers influence each other is the first step to successful marketing actions.

The hypotheses H9, H10, H11, H13, and H14 were not confirmed. Therefore, wearing the clothing logo is not influenced by gender from the perspective of conspicuous and status consumer, self-monitor, brand loyalty, and materialism, contradicting the evolutionary psychology theory (Otterbring et al., 2020), which suggests gender differences in human behavior, and the social role theory (Furtado et al., 2022; Semaan et al., 2019), which suggests that women play different roles in society. The culture and the community into which the individual is assimilated may have influenced the outcome (Naumova et al., 2019). For instance, in the oriental culture, individuals aim to promote what is best for their community (Svoray et al., 2022). In turn, in the occidental culture, individuals have an emotional distancing of the collective perceptions and consider their objectives a priority (Aliyev & Wagner, 2018). These facts may influence the choice of the pieces of clothing to wear.

In turn, H12 was confirmed. This result confirms previous studies (Gentina & Kratzer, 2020) highlighting that men exhibit stronger self-esteem than women. Our results suggest that men are more prone to use garments with a logo to be integrated into diverse groups or bridge different groups. Expensive and exclusive brand logos can be associated as a symbol of status and power (Ko et al., 2019), and men might use them to highlight such symbols (Carli, 1999). Additionally, men might use logos to reveal their success, personality, or style. Distinct brands have iconic logos that become synonyms of a way of life, and men might use those logos to express their personalities and interests (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2018).

Table 9 summarizes the results of all hypotheses tested.

HYPOTHESIS	HYPOTHESIS STATEMENT	Path Coefficient (p value)	CONCLUSION	HYPOTHESIS	HYPOTHESIS STATEMENT	Path Coefficient (p value)	CONCLUSION
H1	*Conspicuous Consumers will have a significant positive effect on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*0.271 (0.001)*	*H1 supported*	H7	*Brand loyalty will have a significant positive effect on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*0.130 (0.045)*	*H7 supported*
H2	*Status Consumers will have a significant positive effect on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*-0.010 (0.894)*	*H2 not supported*	H8	*Materialism will have a significant positive effect on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*0.305 (0.000)*	*H8 supported*
H3a	*Opinion leaders mediate the relationship between conspicuous consumers and the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*-0.034 (0.114)*	*H3a not supported*	H9	*Gender moderates status consumerism on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*-0.115 (0.513)*	*H9 not supported*
H3b	*Opinion seekers mediate the relationship between conspicuous consumers and the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*0.013 (0.395)*	*H3b not supported*	H10	*Gender moderates conspicuous consumerism on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing, where men will be more likely to be conspicuous consumers than women.*	*0.015 (0.929)*	*H10 not supported*
H4a	*Opinion leaders mediate the relationship between status consumers and the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*-0.025 (0.192)*	*H4a not supported*	H11	*Gender moderates self-monitors on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing, where men will be more likely to be self-monitors than women.*	*-0.028 (0.853)*	*H11 not supported*
H4b	*Opinion seekers mediate the relationship between status consumers and the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*0.011 (0.400)*	*H4b not supported*	H12	*Gender moderates self-esteem on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing, where men will be more likely to have higher self-esteem than women.*	*-0.343 (0.046)*	*H12 supported*
H5	*Self-monitors will have a significant positive effect on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing.*	*-0.104 (0.121)*	*H5 not supported*	H13	*Gender moderates brand loyalty on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing, where women will be more brand loyal.*	*-0.098 (0.522)*	*H13 not supported*
H6	*The level of an individual's self-esteem will have a significant impact on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing*	*0.047 (0.522)*	*H6 not supported*	H14	*Gender moderates materialism on the decision of wearing a logotyped piece of clothing, where women will be more brand loyal.*	*0.070 (0.650)*	*H14 not supported*

Table 9 -Structural relationship test results

5.1. Limitations and Future Research

We must acknowledge some limitations. This research used a non-probabilistic convenience sampling method. This means that the results drawn cannot be generalized to the entire population due to the sample not being representative. Future research should address this limitation and confirm the results with a more significant, more varied sample that will allow managers to understand better the differences in gender for each latent variable and better grasp why different types of consumers wear pieces of clothing with a logo. In addition, the study was conducted in a single country (Portugal), which is also a constraint on generalizing our findings. Future works should analyze data from different countries to combine different sample cultures. Moreover, the sample's age range is wide. Although it was not a focal issue in this study, understanding if there are statistical differences between generations would be relevant for future research. In addition, some measures of social norms, especially when deciding to wear conspicuous clothing, might also be considered in subsequent studies.

6. CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to determine the reasons behind consumers wearing logo clothes. Results indicate that materialism, conspicuous consumers, and brand loyalty affect the decision to wear logo clothes, whereas status consumers, self-monitors, self-esteem, and opinion seekers and leaders are not significant in explaining the dependent variable. These outcomes offer brand managers actionable suggestions regarding how to influence customers by meeting their expectations, such as placing the brand's logo in a prominent place to influence conspicuous consumers, creating unique experiences to develop loyalty, and creating advertising campaigns to highlight the qualities and benefits of the product.

REFERENCES

Aliyev, F., & Wagner, R. (2018). Cultural Influence on Luxury Value Perceptions: Collectivist vs. Individualist Luxury Perceptions. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *30*(3), 158–172.

https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2017.1381872

Amatulli, C., De Angelis, M., Korschun, D., & Romani, S. (2018). Consumers' perceptions of luxury brands' CSR initiatives: An investigation of the role of status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *194*, 277–287. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.05.111

Banister, E. N., & Hogg, M. K. (2004). Negative symbolic consumption and consumers' drive for self-esteem. *European Journal of Marketing*, *38*(7), 850–868. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560410539285

Beldona, S., & Wysong, S. (2007). Putting the "brand" back into store brands: an exploratory examination of store brands and brand personality. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *16*(4), 226–235. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420710763912

Berger, J., & Ward, M. (2010). Subtle Signals of Inconspicuous Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(4), 555–569. https://doi.org/10.1086/655445

Brandão, A., & Barbedo, H. (2022). Going (in)conspicuous: antecedents and moderators of luxury consumption. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41270-022-00157-8

Bronner, F., & de Hoog, R. (2019). Comparing conspicuous consumption across different experiential products: Culture and leisure. *International Journal of Market Research*, *61*(4), 430–446. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470785318799898

Carli, L. L. (1999). Gender, Interpersonal Power, and Social Influence. *Journal of Social Issues*, *55*(1), 81–99. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00106

Cass, A. O. (2001). Consumer Self-Monitoring, Materialism and Involvement in Fashion Clothing. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, *9*(1), 46–60. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3582(01)70166-8

Chaudhuri, H., Mazumdar, S., & Ghoshal, A. (2011). Conspicuous consumption orientation: Conceptualisation, scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *10*(4), 216–224. https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.364

Chetioui, Y., Benlafqih, H., & Lebdaoui, H. (2020). How fashion influencers contribute

to consumers' purchase intention. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, *24*(3), 361–380. https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-08-2019-0157

Coelho, P. S., Rita, P., & Santos, Z. R. (2018). On the relationship between consumer-brand identification, brand community, and brand loyalty. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *43*, 101–110. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.03.011

Cuesta-Valiño, P., Gutiérrez-Rodríguez, P., & Núñez-Barriopedro, E. (2021). The role of consumer happiness in brand loyalty: a model of the satisfaction and brand image in fashion. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, *ahead-of-p*(ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/CG-03-2021-0099

Cui, J., Zhang, M., Yin, C., Li, L., & Zhong, J. (2021). The more envious the consumer, the more impulsive? The moderating role of self-monitoring and product type. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *ahead-of-p*(ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-06-2021-0399

Eastman, J. K., & Eastman, K. L. (2015). Conceptualizing A Model of Status Consumption Theory: An Exploration of the Antecedents and Consequences of the Motivation to Consume for Status. *Marketing Management Journal*, *25*(1), 1–15.

Eastman, Jacqueline K., Goldsmith, R. E., & Flynn, L. R. (1999). Status Consumption in Consumer Behavior: Scale Development and Validation. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *7*(3), 41–52. https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.1999.11501839

Eastman, Jacqueline K., & Liu, J. (2012). The impact of generational cohorts on status consumption: an exploratory look at generational cohort and demographics on status consumption. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *29*(2), 93–102. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761211206348

Flynn, L. R., Goldsmith, R. E., & Eastman, J. K. (1996). Opinion Leaders and Opinion Seekers: Two New Measurement Scales. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *24*(2), 137–147. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070396242004

Foroudi, P., Melewar, T. C., & Gupta, S. (2014). Linking corporate logo, corporate image, and reputation: An examination of consumer perceptions in the financial

setting. *Journal of Business Research*, *67*(11), 2269–2281.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.06.015

Furtado, A., Ramos, R. F., Maia, B., & Costa, J. M. (2022). Predictors of Hotel Clients'
Satisfaction in the Cape Verde Islands. *Sustainability*, *14*(5), 2677.
https://doi.org/10.3390/su14052677

Gentina, E., & Kratzer, J. (2020). An integrative model of the influence of self-esteem
on adolescents' consumer innovativeness: the mediating role of social network
position and need for uniqueness. *Industry and Innovation*, *27*(10), 1110–1132.
https://doi.org/10.1080/13662716.2020.1743649

Goldsmith, & Clark, R. A. (2008). An analysis of factors affecting fashion opinion
leadership and fashion opinion seeking. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and
Management: An International Journal*, *12*(3), 308–322.
https://doi.org/10.1108/13612020810889272

Goldsmith, R., Flynn, L., & Eastman, J. (1996). Status consumption and fashion
behavior: An exploratory study. *Association of Marketing Theory and Practice
Proceedings*, *5*, 309–316.

Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J. M., Gangestad, S. W., Perea, E. F., Shapiro, J. R., &
Kenrick, D. T. (2009). Aggress to impress: Hostility as an evolved context-
dependent strategy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *96*(5), 980–994.
https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013907

Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J. M., & Van den Bergh, B. (2010). Going green to be seen:
Status, reputation, and conspicuous conservation. *Journal of Personality and
Social Psychology*, *98*(3), 392–404. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017346

Hair, Howard, M. C., & Nitzl, C. (2020). Assessing measurement model quality in PLS-
SEM using confirmatory composite analysis. *Journal of Business Research*,
109(December 2019), 101–110.

Hair, Hult, G., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A primer on partial least squares
structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Hair, J., Risher, J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. (2019). When to use and how to report the

results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, *31*(1), 2–24.

Han, Y. J., Nunes, J. C., & Drèze, X. (2010). Signaling Status with Luxury Goods: The Role of Brand Prominence. *Journal of Marketing*, *74*(4), 15–30. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.74.4.015

Hogue, M., Levashina, J., & Hang, H. (2013). Will I Fake It? The Interplay of Gender, Machiavellianism, and Self-monitoring on Strategies for Honesty in Job Interviews. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *117*(2), 399–411. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1525-x

Huang, T.-L. (2019). Psychological mechanisms of brand love and information technology identity in virtual retail environments. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *47*, 251–264. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.11.016

Jiang, & Ngien, A. (2020). The Effects of Instagram Use, Social Comparison, and Self-Esteem on Social Anxiety: A Survey Study in Singapore. *Social Media + Society*, *6*(2), 205630512091248. https://doi.org/10.1177/2056305120912488

Jiang, Y., Gorn, G. J., Galli, M., & Chattopadhyay, A. (2016). Does Your Company Have the Right Logo? How and Why Circular- and Angular-Logo Shapes Influence Brand Attribute Judgments. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *42*(5), 709–726. https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucv049

Johnson, C. M., Tariq, A., & Baker, T. L. (2018). From Gucci to Green bags: Conspicuous consumption as a signal for pro-social behavior. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *26*(4), 339–356. https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2018.1487769

Johnson, & Chattaraman, V. (2019). Conceptualization and measurement of millennial's social signaling and self-signaling for socially responsible consumption. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *18*(1), 32–42. https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.1742

Joung, H.-M. (2013). Materialism and clothing post-purchase behaviors. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *30*(6), 530–537. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-08-2013-0666

Kauppinen-Räisänen, H., Björk, P., Lönnström, A., & Jauffret, M.-N. (2018). How

consumers' need for uniqueness, self-monitoring, and social identity affect their choices when luxury brands visually shout versus whisper. *Journal of Business Research*, *84*, 72–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.11.012

Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. (1999). Gender differences in self-esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *125*(4), 470–500. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.4.470

Ko, E., Costello, J. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2019). What is a luxury brand? A new definition and review of the literature. *Journal of Business Research*, *99*, 405–413. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.08.023

Koay, K. Y. (2018). Understanding consumers' purchase intention towards counterfeit luxury goods. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *30*(2), 495–516. https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-05-2017-0100

Lang, C., & Joyner Armstrong, C. M. (2018). Collaborative consumption: The influence of fashion leadership, need for uniqueness, and materialism on female consumers' adoption of clothing renting and swapping. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, *13*, 37–47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2017.11.005

Lee, Jaehoon, & Shrum, L. J. (2012). Conspicuous Consumption versus Charitable Behavior in Response to Social Exclusion: A Differential Needs Explanation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(3), 530–544. https://doi.org/10.1086/664039

Lee, Jieun, Ko, E., & Megehee, C. M. (2015). Social benefits of brand logos in presentation of self in cross and same gender influence contexts. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(6), 1341–1349. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.12.004

LogoCreative. (2021). *Most expensive Logos in the World*. The Logo Creative. https://www.thelogocreative.co.uk/most-expensive-logos-in-the-world/

Lohmöller, J.-B. (1989). *Latent Variable Path Modeling with Partial Least Squares*. Physica-Verlag HD. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-52512-4

Loureiro, S. M. C. (2020). Exploring drivers and outcomes of brand centrality experience: the role of partner quality as moderator. *International Journal of*

Fashion Design, Technology and Education, *13*(2), 150–164. https://doi.org/10.1080/17543266.2020.1758799

Luffarelli, J., Mukesh, M., & Mahmood, A. (2019). Let the Logo Do the Talking: The Influence of Logo Descriptiveness on Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *56*(5), 862–878. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022243719845000

Machado, J., Fonseca, B., & Martins, C. (2021). Brand logo and brand gender: examining the effects of natural logo designs and color on brand gender perceptions and affect. *Journal of Brand Management*, *28*(2), 152–170. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41262-020-00216-4

Malhotra, N. K. (2019). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation* (7th Ed.). Pearson.

Naumova, O., Bilan, S., & Naumova, M. (2019). Luxury consumers' behavior: a cross-cultural aspect. *Innovative Marketing*, *15*(4), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.21511/im.15(4).2019.01

O'Cass, A., & Fenech, T. (2003). Web retailing adoption: exploring the nature of internet users Web retailing behaviour. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *10*(2), 81–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-6989(02)00004-8

O'Cass, A., & Frost, H. (2002). Status brands: examining the effects of non-product-related brand associations on status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *11*(2), 67–88. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420210423455

O'Cass, A., & McEwen, H. (2004). Exploring consumer status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *4*(1), 25–39. https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.155

Oh. (2021). Social class, social self-esteem, and conspicuous consumption. *Heliyon*, *7*(2), e06318. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06318

Oh, D., Shafir, E., & Todorov, A. (2020). Economic status cues from clothes affect perceived competence from faces. *Nature Human Behaviour*, *4*(3), 287–293. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-019-0782-4

Otterbring, T., Sundie, J., Jessica Li, Y., & Hill, S. (2020). Evolutionary psychological consumer research: Bold, bright, but better with behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, *120*, 473–484. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.07.010

Pallier, G. (2003). Gender Differences in the Self-Assessment of Accuracy on Cognitive Tasks. *Sex Roles*, *48*, 265–276. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022877405718

Pathak, A., Velasco, C., & Calvert, G. A. (2019). Identifying counterfeit brand logos: on the importance of the first and last letters of a logotype. *European Journal of Marketing*, *53*(10), 2109–2125. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-09-2017-0586

Phau, I., & Cheong, E. (2009). How Young Adult Consumers Evaluate Diffusion Brands: Effects of Brand Loyalty and Status Consumption. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *21*(2), 109–123. https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530802153185

Piko, M., Toros, J., & Stankovič Elesini, U. (2017). Use of conjoint analysis to determine the impact of logotype colour, and the type, duration and price of a street performance on consumer purchase decisions. *Journal of Graphic Engineering and Design*, *8*(2), 27–34. https://doi.org/10.24867/JGED-2017-2-027

Pino, G., Amatulli, C., Peluso, A. M., Nataraajan, R., & Guido, G. (2019). Brand prominence and social status in luxury consumption: A comparison of emerging and mature markets. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *46*, 163–172. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.11.006

Podoshen, J. S., & Andrzejewski, S. A. (2012). An Examination of the Relationships Between Materialism, Conspicuous Consumption, Impulse Buying, and Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *20*(3), 319–334. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679200306

Pyone, J. S. (2021). Dampening the warm glow of a visible brand logo: how positive affect influences the perceived value of status goods. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2021.1871939

Reinecke Flynn, L., Goldsmith, R. E., & Kim, W. (2000). A cross-cultural validation of three new marketing scales for fashion research: Involvement, opinion seeking and knowledge. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International*

Journal, *4*(2), 110–120. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022583

Rocereto, J. F., & Mosca, J. B. (2011). Self-Concept, Gender, And Product Type: An Investigation Of Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, *10*(1), 25. https://doi.org/10.19030/jber.v10i1.6731

Romão, M. T., Moro, S., Rita, P., & Ramos, P. (2019). Leveraging a luxury fashion brand through social media. *European Research on Management and Business Economics*, *25*(1), 15–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iedeen.2018.10.002

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Princeton University Press. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781400876136

Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). Desire to Acquire: Powerlessness and Compensatory Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*(2), 257–267. https://doi.org/10.1086/588569

Schaefers, T. (2014). Standing out from the crowd: niche product choice as a form of conspicuous consumption. *European Journal of Marketing*, *48*(9/10), 1805–1827. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-03-2013-0121

Semaan, R. W., Lindsay, V., Williams, P., & Ashill, N. (2019). The influence of gender roles in the drivers of luxury consumption for women: Insights from the gulf region. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *51*, 165–175. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.06.006

Sharma, R., & Sharma, D. (2015). An empirical research on influence of viral marketing on consumers buying decisions. *International Journal of Financial Services Management*, *4*, 171–186.

Song, X., Huang, F., & Li, X. (2017). The effect of embarrassment on preferences for brand conspicuousness: The roles of self-esteem and self-brand connection. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *27*(1), 69–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2016.05.001

Stankevich, A. (2017). Explaining the Consumer Decision-Making Process: Critical Literature Review. *Journal of International Business Research and Marketing*, *2*(6), 7–14. https://doi.org/10.18775/jibrm.1849-8558.2015.26.3001

Svoray, T., Dorman, M., Abu-Kaf, S., Shahar, G., & Gifford, R. (2022). Nature and happiness in an individualist and a collectivist culture. *Scientific Reports*, *12*(1), 7701. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-11619-5

Trigg, A. B. (2001). Veblen, Bourdieu, and Conspicuous Consumption. *Journal of Economic Issues*, *35*(1), 99–115. https://doi.org/10.1080/00213624.2001.11506342

Truong, Y., & McColl, R. (2011). Intrinsic motivations, self-esteem, and luxury goods consumption. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *18*(6), 555–561. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2011.08.004

Yoshida, M., Gordon, B. S., Nakazawa, M., Shibuya, S., & Fujiwara, N. (2018). Bridging the gap between social media and behavioral brand loyalty. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *28*, 208–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.elerap.2018.02.005

Zhao, Y., Kou, G., Peng, Y., & Chen, Y. (2018). Understanding influence power of opinion leaders in e-commerce networks: An opinion dynamics theory perspective. *Information Sciences*, *426*, 131–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2017.10.031