

VILNIUS UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
STUDY PROGRAMME MARKETING AND INTEGRATED COMMUNICATION

Narmin Mammadova
MASTER THESIS

STATUSO VARTOJIMAS, SIEKIS SOCIALINIO PRIPAŽINIMO IR POLINKIS DALYTIS ASMENINE INFORMACIJA SOCIALINĖJE ŽINIASKLAIDOJE	STATUS CONSUMPTION, DESIRE FOR SOCIAL RECOGNITION, AND DISPOSITION TO SHARE PERSONAL INFORMATION ON SOCIAL MEDIA
--	---

Supervisor Doc., Dr. Mindaugas Degutis

Vilnius, 2026

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	6
1. STATUS CONSUMPTION	10
1.1. Definition and significance of status consumption	10
1.2. Status consumption as a synonym for luxury goods	12
1.3. Status consumption in marketing	13
2. SOCIAL CAPITAL THEORY AND ITS RELEVANCE	16
2.1. General overview of Capital Theory	16
2.2. Symbolic Capital	19
2.3. Brand trust as a mediator of symbolic influence	21
3. DISPOSITION TO SHARE PERSONAL INFORMATION ON SOCIAL MEDIA	24
3.1. Motivations for sharing personal information on SNS	24
3.2. Social media as an environment for status display	26
4. SOCIAL RECOGNITION	28
4.1. Perceived change in social recognition	28
4.2. Peer approval	29
4.3. Comparison with others	31
5. RELEVANCE OF OTHER THEORIES	35
5.1. The relevance of the theory of Reasoned action and status-seeking in social media	35
5.2. The theory of Planned Behavior and Perceived Control in online status display	36
6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	38
6.1. Purpose of the research, model, and hypotheses	38
6.2. Data collection methods and research instruments	48
6.3. Selection of respondents	55
6.4. The scope of research	57
7. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH	59
7.1. Demographic characteristics of the survey respondents	59
7.2. Reliability of scales and tests for normality	62
7.3. Testing of research hypotheses	65
7.3.1 Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on intention to purchase (H1)	65
7.3.2. Brand trust as a mediator between symbolic capital and intention to purchase (H2)	65
7.3.3. Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on perceived symbolic capital (H3)	67
7.3.4 Impact of perceived symbolic capital on seeking social recognition (H4)	67
7.3.5 Impact of seeking social recognition on intention to purchase (H5)	68
7.3.6 Impact of self-disclosure on seeking social recognition (H6)	69
7.3.7 Impact of self-disclosure on intention to purchase (H7)	70
7.3.8 Moderating role of self-disclosure (H8)	70
7.3.9 Moderating role of social comparison (H9)	71

7.3.10 Moderating role of peer approval (H10)	72
7.3.11 Impact of comparison with others on seeking social recognition (H11)	73
7.4. Discussion	75
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	82
LIST OF REFERENCES AND SOURCES	88
SUMMARY	108
SANTRAUKA	110
ANNEXES	112
Annex 1. Questionnaire	112
Annex 2. Gender distribution pie chart.....	117
Annex 3. Country of residence (detailed)	117
Annex 4. Reliability analysis of Comparison with others	118
Annex 5. Reliability analysis of Peer approval.....	118
Annex 6. Reliability analysis of Level of disclosure on social media	119
Annex 7. Reliability analysis of Brand Trust.....	120
Annex 9. Reliability analysis of Social recognition.....	121
Annex 10. Reliability analysis of Intention to purchase	122
Annex 11. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on intention to purchase	122
Annex 12. Mediation analysis: Mediating role of brand trust	122
Annex 13. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on perceived symbolic capital	124
Annex 14. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived symbolic capital on seeking social recognition	124
Annex 15. Regression Analysis: Impact of seeking social recognition on intention to purchase	125
Annex 16. Regression Analysis: Impact of self-disclosure on seeking social recognition	125
Annex 17. Regression Analysis: Impact of self-disclosure on intention to purchase.....	126
Annex 18. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of self-disclosure.....	126
Annex 19. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of social comparison	128
Annex 20. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of peer approval	129
Annex 21. Regression Analysis: Impact of comparison with others on seeking social recognition	131
Annex 22. Multiple regression.....	131

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Questionnaire constructs	52
Table 2 Comparable Research sampling method	55
Table 3 Respondents' distribution of gender	59
Table 4 Respondents' distribution by age categories	59
Table 5 Respondents' level of education	60
Table 6 Country of residence of respondents	60
Table 7 Social media platforms used by respondents	61
Table 8 Reliability analysis	62
Table 9 Descriptive statistics of constructs	63
Table 10 Coefficients (H1)	65
Table 11 Mediation analysis (H2)	66
Table 12 Coefficients (H3)	67
Table 13 Coefficients (H4)	68
Table 14 Coefficients (H5)	68
Table 15 Coefficients (H6)	69
Table 16 Coefficients (H7)	70
Table 17 Moderation analysis (H8)	71
Table 18 Moderation analysis (H9)	72
Table 19 Moderation analysis (H10)	73
Table 20 Coefficients (H11)	74
Table 21 Summary of statistical findings	75

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Forms of capital	16
Figure 2 Conceptual model	40

INTRODUCTION

According to a study conducted by the Kepios team at the beginning of October 2024, there were 5.22 billion social media users worldwide at that time, which represents 63.8 percent of the world's population (DataReportal, 2024). The top social media platforms globally as of April 2024, based on monthly active users, include Facebook (3,065), YouTube (2,504), Instagram (2000), WhatsApp (2000), TikTok 1,582, and more (Statista, 2024). GWI reports that the average social media user presently allocates 2 hours and 23 minutes each day to social networks (DataReportal, 2024). While social media's emergence has significantly transformed how people consume and dispose of themselves, making social networking services (SNS), essential for social interaction and self-presentation (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Wilson, Gosling & Graham, 2012). As cited by Danziger (2024), Boston Consulting Group in 2024 found that 70% of Millennials place a high value on presenting the ideal image and status through luxury products, demonstrating that social perception and status are important factors in their shopping decisions, particularly when shared on social media. Thus, 25% of customers between the ages of 18 and 39 have directly purchased luxury goods on social media, frequently driven by the urge to follow influencers and demonstrate their status through conspicuous expenditure (Sabanoglu, 2024.). Purchasing and presenting products and experiences to indicate affluence, prestige, or status consumption has become a key trend within these platforms as a means of gaining social recognition (Siepmann, Holthoff & Kowalczyk, 2022).

Numerous scholars, including Bradley, Roberts and Bradley (2019) and Bazi, Filieri and Gorton (2020), and Lyu (2016), have examined the connection between luxury consumption, social media self-presentation, and status signalling. They emphasized how digital platforms allow people to display luxury as a way to acquire symbolic capital and social recognition (Bradley, 2019 et al., Bazi et al., 2020; Lyu, 2016). Consequently, platforms allow users to turn private luxury experiences into public status displays, and their symbolic worth is increased by metrics like likes and comments (Lyu, 2016; Sedera, Atapattu & Gretzel, 2017). Siepmann et al. (2022) analysed that luxury experiences in the perspective of gender, particularly for women, increasingly seen as status markers, influenced by characteristics like materialism and self-actualization, even while luxury items continue to play a significant role in status signalling. On the other side, Bazi et al. (2020) have highlighted the importance of influencer-driven involvement in building social and symbolic capital. When it comes to "luxury goods," hospitality services, including upscale hotels, restaurants, and cruises, have been the primary focus of research on luxury experiences (Hwang and Hyun, 2013; Kim & Law, 2015). They emphasize how digital platforms allow people to display luxury as a way to acquire symbolic

capital and social recognition. Though these studies (e.g., Bazi et al., 2020; Kim and Jang, 2014; Holthoff and Scheiben, 2019) discuss luxury consumption and social media engagement in general and different contexts, little research explicitly examines the relationship between status consumption and the need for social recognition and self-disclosure behaviours. This aspect of the topic is frequently missed in studies that solely concentrate on status consumption in influencer marketing or brand engagement (e.g., Schivinski and Dabrowski, 2016; Siepmann et al., 2022).

In this context, Bourdieu's (1986) idea of symbolic capital is especially applicable since it frames the development of social capital through actions that raise one's perception of status and self-esteem (Bourdieu, 1986; Belk, 2013). Researchers like Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe (2007) and Vogel, Rose, Roberts & Eckles (2014) found in their studies that social media provide the perfect setting for these behaviours by allowing people to create idealized versions of themselves and get feedback from likes, comments, and shares, all of which increase a user's social capital and sense of self-esteem and status in the result. Thus, the intersection of status consumption, social recognition, and self-disclosure is not only theoretically significant but also practically influential, especially in the realm of influencer marketers – who are potential people who position themselves online, where they share personal information and get more credibility from users (Jacovi, Guy, Kremer-Davidson, Porat & Aizenbud-Reshef, 2014; Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017).

Previous studies on social media habits have generally focused on three major areas: self-disclosure practices, the significance of social capital in online interactions, and status-consuming patterns in various contexts. Research on self-disclosure has looked at user characteristics and how relational capitals like trust and commitment impact their readiness to reveal personal information online (Chen & Sharma, 2011; Varnali and Toker, 2015; Greene, Derlega, Mathews, 2006). Thus, researchers have also examined consumer awareness and comprehension of self-disclosure, emphasizing how consumers handle privacy issues and personal boundaries online (Zhang & Fu, 2018; Degutis, Urbonavicius, Zimaitis, Skare & Laurutyte, 2023; Walrave & Heirman, 2012; Li, 2014; Robinson, 2017). Social capital theories have been used to comprehend reputation-building and the formation of both social and symbolic capital through online interaction (Bourdieu, 1986; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Putnam, 1995). In this regard, research has revealed that social media platforms allow the co-creation of value and personal branding, boosting users' social status (Mangold & Faulds, 2009; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Tynan, McKechnie & Chhuon, 2010). At the same time, status consumption has been researched, focusing on motivational and other elements that impact customers' decisions to showcase luxury products or experiences to symbolize affluence and social

standing (Eastman, Goldsmith & Flynn, 1999; Eastman, Goldsmith, & Flynn, 2013; Shukla, 2010; Siepmann et al., 2022; Sahin and Nasir, 2022). Other scientists have also analysed cultural differences in status consumption throughout diverse markets, taking into account factors such as perceived luxury limits and brand equity (Kapferer and Laurent, 2016; Nabi, O’Cass & Siahtiri, 2019; Husain, Ahmad & Khan, 2022). These studies collectively suggest that social media serves as a platform for users to enhance their symbolic capital through self-disclosure and conspicuous consumption.

Despite significant research, it is still unclear how symbolic capital expectations impact self-disclosure and status consumption (luxury goods) patterns on social media. Some academics have focused on psychological incentives for self-disclosure, such as emotional expressiveness and social approval (Varnali & Toker, 2015; Chen & Sharma, 2011; Luo & Hancock, 2020; Bazarova and Choi, 2014), meanwhile, another study has emphasized relationship aspects without fully addressing how symbolic capital aspirations may affect these actions in status-driven environments (Greene et al., 2006). Privacy management studies reveal that different methods of self-disclosure may have diverse implications on users’ willingness to provide personal information, although they frequently disregard how consumers influenced by status growth discuss these issues (Zhang and Fu, 2018; Degutis et al., 2023; Walrave and Heirman, 2012; Li, 2014; Robinson, 2017; Xu, Dinev, Smith & Hart, 2008). In addition, while social capital theories emphasize reputation-building, they do not adequately investigate the trade-offs people make between privacy and visibility while wanting to improve symbolic capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Jacovi et al., 2014; Sedera et al., 2017). The majority of status consumption research has concentrated on materialistic presentations and offline settings, creating a significant gap in understanding how online self-disclosure (disposition to share personal information) relates to symbolic capital development (Eastman et al., 1999; Kastanakis and Balabanis, 2012). Studies on conspicuous consumption and luxury experiences demonstrated impacts on perceived status but frequently disregarded the interaction with self-disclosure behaviours on social media (Siepmann et al., 2022; Yang and Mattila, 2013). Consequently, it remains unclear in which cases and how symbolic capital expectations affect self-disclosure and intent to status consumption on social media, indicating a need for further research in this area.

Problem statement: How does the expectation of change in symbolic capital influence the intention to purchase high-status products in the context of self-disclosure on social media?

The aim of this study is to determine how expectations of changes in symbolic capital influence individuals' intention to purchase high-status products, particularly within the context of self-disclosure on social media platforms.

Objectives:

1. To explore the concept of status consumption and the factors influencing individuals' intentions to achieve higher status;
2. To analyse the concept of symbolic capital and its significance in social media contexts;
3. To examine the role of personal information-sharing on social media and its relationship with symbolic capital accumulation;
4. To theoretically substantiate the interplay between expectations of symbolic capital change, personal information-sharing practices, and intentions to get a higher status;
5. To develop and draw a research model illustrating the relationships among symbolic capital expectations, personal information-sharing practices, and the intention to get higher status on social media;
6. To formulate research hypotheses based on the theoretical framework and the proposed research model;
7. To select an appropriate research methodology to analyse how expectations of changes in symbolic capital influence the intention to get a higher status through personal information sharing on social media;
8. To collect and analyse data to determine the impact of symbolic capital expectations on individuals' intentions to get higher status in the context of personal information-sharing on social media;
9. To provide conclusions, insights and acknowledge limitations based on the findings.

1. STATUS CONSUMPTION

1.1. Definition and significance of status consumption

The desire to seek out products, services, or experiences that communicate social prestige is commonly referred to as status consumption (Eastman, Goldsmith, & Flynn, 1999). The manner of acquiring reputation or prestige in society through the purchase and consumption of items that individuals and their significant others believe to be high in status is what O’Cass and Frost (2002) define as status consumption. Scholars have used phrases like “status consumption” (Kilsheimer, 1993) and “conspicuous consumption” (Veblen, 1899) to characterize how people frequently take advantage of their noticeable possession of goods linked to distinguished status for gaining gratitude, esteem, or affection from strangers. Mason (1984) defines conspicuous consumption of luxury items as when the buyer derives fulfilment not from the item’s intrinsic worth but instead from how other people respond to the affluence on demonstrating. As explained by Husic and Cicic (2009) an example of it in daily life could be wearing well-known designer labels or buying limited-edition brand merchandise that might give the impression that a person doing it is rich or has an exquisite and unique taste.

The concept of status consumption was further extended by scientists, who demonstrated it may result from both internal and external factors (O’Cass & McEwen, 2004; Eastman & Eastman, 2015). While internal motivations centre on self-esteem or personal fulfilment, external motivations entail expressing one’s significance to others (Truong, McColl, & Kitchen, 2008). Interestingly many people might think that status consumption and conspicuous consumption are the same due to the similarities, however, many academics already distinguish between status consumption - the desire to achieve social prestige, which can be either private or public, whereas conspicuous consumption - which is the strictly visible, outward display of financial situation and the wealth (O’Cass & McEwen, 2004; Truong et al., 2008). Consequently, knowing all these reasons makes it simpler to understand why some people would purchase limited edition goods, luxurious trips, and designer goods that deliver a meaning of success or accomplishment in the eyes of people.

Researchers like Han, Nunes, & Dreze (2010) and Truong et al., (2008) further explain many motivational reasons behind status consumption which are not solely related to economic reasons such as showing one’s wealth, or economic situation. For example, an individual may buy a limited edition, pricy watch but avoid showing it publicly to everyone, thereby their reason for buying only consists of getting a sense of fulfilment by buying the desired object or a product (Han et al., 2010). Similarly, Truong et al., (2008) in their scientific work show that status consumption may be driven

by different factors such as internal (e.g., self-worth or self-fulfilment) and external (e.g., peer validation or approval, envy, admiration) factors. Therefore Shukla (2010) explained that status consumption is “irrational” if it is only analysed from the economic perspective due to the reason that people spend a large amount of money not just to acquire an object because of its great functionality in life but also because it’s meaningless to analyse it in comparison with less expensive alternatives where people get psychological advantage by buying and feel uniqueness.

Furthermore, different scholars explained these motivations for status consumption as external and internal motivations which are encouraging more individuals to intention to buy status goods in other words luxury goods (O’Cass and McEwen, 2004; Truong et al., 2008; Eastman and Eastman, 2015). In scientific literature, scholars mostly use Veblen’s (1899) concept of conspicuous consumption to explain it from **external domain** motivations. According to O’Cass and McEwen (2004), obtaining peer recognition is one of the concepts that individuals utilize to strive to obtain high status or money by looking forward to getting it from other people. Thus, a product being expensive can increase its appeal and value because it highlights the owner’s ability to buy something that other people cannot afford, whereas some studies call this a “Veblen effect” (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009). This notion is further supported by the so-called “bandwagon effect” which suggests that people could buy particular products just because a lot of other people, particularly recognized, well-reputed peers, already own them, showing that they want to blend in rather than stick out (Amatulli & Guido, 2012; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012).

From the **internal domain**, many scholars have discovered hedonic elements, in which people are aiming to get luxury or high-status items for their multipurpose enjoyment, emotional rewards, and aesthetic fulfilment (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982; Vigneron & Johnson, 1999; Tsai, 2005). In addition, perfectionism can also be considered as one of the internal motivations that consumers may become obsessed with long-lasting usefulness or excellent quality and standard of goods (Dubois & Laurent, 1994; Kapferer & Bastien, 2009). From this side, aiming to get high-quality material, product quality, or genuine manufacturing of a good is much more vital than getting approval from others (Amatulli & Guido, 2012). According to Truong et al. (2008) and O’Cass & McEwen (2004), self-reward motives also emphasize personal enjoyment, where a person feels justified in purchasing a pricey item or a luxury weekend trip as a reward for their hard work. To differentiate it from solely influential activities, this may happen even in the absence of visible demonstration (Han et al., 2010).

Whereas others argue that in real life, status consumption often mixes with these internal and external domains and drivers (Shukla, 2010). For example, a buyer may become emotionally involved in limited-edition shoes for aesthetic reasons alone, but they may also enjoy the social status that

comes with being someone who collects (Husic & Cicic, 2009). Whereas other people might put a strong emphasis on external social comparisons to provoke a response from observers in person (offline) or on social media (SNS) (Kim & Jang, 2014). However, the concept that a product makes an individual's status stand out, either socially, individually, or both, is central to all these reasons (Kapferer, 1998; Weidmann, Hennigs, & Siebels, 2009). The basic attraction of the product is the feeling that it improves one's status, whether in the eyes of others (externally) or for personal (internally) emotional fulfilment varies regardless of buyers who keep their purchases to themselves or make them public (Eastman et al., 1999; O'Cass & Frost, 2002).

1.2. Status consumption as a synonym for luxury goods

Many academics use the terms status consumption and luxury consumption almost interchangeably (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004). For instance, products labelled as "luxury" usually include characteristics like outstanding quality, uniqueness, visual extravagance, or symbolic status (Dubois, Czellar, & Laurent, 2005; Shukla, 2011). Following a comparable manner, status consumption refers to the use of goods that are often thought to indicate superior social position or individual distinctiveness (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). Both interpretations emphasize the belief that a buyer perceives additional value beyond simple use, even if not all luxury purchases are driven by exterior demonstration (Park, Reisinger, & Noh, 2009). Since a certain level of prestige is frequently the real reason for paying an extra cost, the distinction between "luxury goods" and "status goods" can become blurry in studies about marketing (Christodoulides, Michaelidou, & Ching Hsing, 2009). Therefore, a product's classification as "luxury" is dependent on how customers see its exclusivity, production, or ability to provide symbolic capital, according to several scholars (Heine, 2010; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012). According to Leibenstein (1950), luxury goods might satisfy external incentives like "conspicuousness" or "bandwagon acceptance" by being lavishly designed or hardly available. Meanwhile, identical products can fulfil natural desires for intangible joys, such as hedonic pleasure or self-gratification (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009).

Weidmann et al., (2009) analyse in their work how buyers maintain the feeling of enhanced status by interpreting some product attributes as symbols of luxury, such as heritage brands, expensive materials, or well-known stores. According to Vigneron and Johnson (2004), luxury goods have added value because of their perceived distinctiveness and brand power, which influences how owners view themselves and how other people perceive them. According to certain academics who favour the phrase "high-status goods," the items need to be recognized as conveying more social value within the framework of culture (Dubois & Laurent, 1994; Christodoulides et al., 2009). Thus, this view

supports the way Vigneron and Johnson (2004) explained luxury goods usage to different perceptions of people.

Kapferer (1988) and Shukla (2001) in their works also analysed it from the consumer identity side which even makes the intersection between these ideas of status, luxury, and high-status goods much clearer for a reader. Where many people are drawn to “luxury” for the sake of showing off or presenting themselves, which is similar to the external reasons that were previously mentioned (O’Cass & McEwen, 2004). Many people regard “luxury” as a sense of entitlement that promotes personal fulfilment and validates one’s dignity and self (Truong et al., 2008). In any case, the symbolic aspect of the product is crucial here, it is not only about improved materials or sophisticated functioning of a product but also about intangible value that is valued in a cultural or social context (Hudders, 2012). Because of these similarities, academics frequently use the terms “status consumption” and “luxury consumption” interchangeably (Han et al., 2010; Eastman & Eastman, 2015). While “status consumption” could mean fewer common products like handmade craft objects or unique encounters, it is true that “luxury” occasionally suggests particular types of goods, such as particular designer clothing or excellent, special wines (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009).

In principle, both of them centre on the intangible advantages of exclusivity and respect, highlighting the notion that “luxury consumption” successfully describes the same fundamental incentives and social signals connected to “status consumption” (Shukla, 2010; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012). The variety of products that customers view as prestigious but within their means is expanded by new luxury or inexpensive luxury markets (Silverstein and Fiske, 2003). In the past, luxury may have meant goods that were exclusively available to the rich, but the current environment permits a wider range of consumers to enjoy little pleasures with acknowledged status symbols (Park et al., 2010). The fundamental reasoning remains the same whether these products are referred to as “mid-level luxury” or “contemporary high-status brands” the consumer perceives them as offering a degree of social or personal fulfilment above and beyond normal goods (Amatulli & Guido, 2012; Eastman & Eastman, 2015).

1.3. Status consumption in marketing

When talking about status consumption and the usage of luxury goods it is essential to highlight its role in marketing particularly in the context of digital marketing and SNS. Conventional methods may emphasize premium price, intricate packaging, or restricted availability to convey “specialness” (Phau & Cheong, 2009). However, in the words of Eastman and Eastman (2015), customers’ motivations go beyond just showcasing themselves. Instead, marketing techniques in today’s world frequently

cover a range of methods as creating messages that highlight internal fulfilment or, on the other hand, appeal to recognition from others.

One tactic is to separate prospective purchasers according to their preference for either open or hidden shows of affluence (Han et al., 2010). For instance, campaigns using vivid imagery, trademarked logos, and endorsements from famous people may appeal to customers who like popular opinion (Bazi et al., 2020). On the other hand, some people could look for private gatherings or membership plans that quietly suggest that they are part of a selected population, which by default shows them as someone seeking status (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009). For example, to appeal to consumers who appreciate fine quality, watchmakers might create “stealth wealth” versions that reduce brand logos discussed by Han et al., (2010) which is a good example of promotion appealing to status consumption notion.

Influencer marketing. Another yet very successful approach to showcasing luxurious goods is through influencer marketing (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017). Where Djafarova and Rushworth (2017) found in their research that individuals want to live the lifestyles of certain celebrities and that’s how they may imitate influencers’ preferences such as restaurants, vacation spots, their cosmetics and fashion looks, or the kinds of postings they make. In their daily routines influencers promote high-tech gadgets, premium travel plans, and pricey clothing as entry points to a shining lifestyle (Kim & Jang, 2014). According to Eastman and Eastman (2015), depending on the consumer’s orientation, this type of peer-driven advertising successfully capitalizes on the need to fit in or stand out for individuals following these people.

Jaakonmäki, Müller, vom Brocke (2017) and Sudha and Sheena (2017) highlight that social media influencers have unexpectedly become a significant marketing instrument for various businesses looking to connect with customers and audiences. Sudha and Sheena (2017) highlight in their work that consumers follow celebrities on social media channels such as Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter to gain insight into product demands where blogs are used to gather product information and improve communication before purchasing. Readers utilize blogs to justify their purchasing selections by obtaining feedback and opinions from bloggers and fellow readers. Thus, according to the research by Sudha and Sheena (2017), blogs have a major impact on young women’s purchasing behaviour after reading positive comments.

According to various scholars, Lee and Watkins (2016) and Ghaffar et al. (2017), this influencer-driven strategy significantly impacts people’s purchasing decisions. Tan et al. (2013) pointed out in their research that influencer recommendations can enhance buyers’ favourable opinions of luxury goods, just as celebrity endorsements do. Instead of providing only one-way

endorsements, influencers foster a sense of community, engage with followers' comments, and share behind-the-scenes images, which distinguishes them from movie stars or sports legends (Jaakonmäki et al., 2017). This participatory environment allows potential customers to view the influencer's brand decisions as more trustworthy and engaging, creating a sense of connection to the influencer (Sudha and Sheena, 2017).

Scholars like Sivanathan and Pettit (2010) found that influencer posts can promote the perception that owning specific fashion items displayed on SNS (e.g., handbags, footwear, or different products), shows increased social standing – a status. Consequently, the followers of an influencer who actively follow the influencer's life and way of living, like fine dining, luxury travel, and high-end fashion items usage, may want to project a similar social image and thus seek to gain the same products. In a collectivist country like China as explained in research by Wang and Qiao (2020) socially influenced consumers may be particularly likely to follow or comply with “opinion leaders,” seeking approval within peer networks (Wang & Qiao, 2020).

Digital marketing. As explained by Voorveld (2019) by enabling real-time interaction, such as likes, shares, and comments, the digital marketing context amplifies these impacts and promotes public awareness of status items. Furthermore, influencer partnerships might include Q&A sessions on style advice, unpacking sessions that showcase high-end packaging, or behind-the-scenes looks at exclusive brand events (Zhou, Barnes, McCormick, & Blazquez Cano, 2021). This is particularly interesting for individuals who are fans of certain brands and enthusiastically follow and want to know everything about the brand. Thus, this is how influencers are becoming a bridge between fans and a brand that promotes and seeks social validation from the fans. Therefore, it is how customers consequently get more detailed information about the product's intangible worth, which strengthens favourable brand impressions and buy intentions (Sudha & Sheena, 2017). Influencers have the power to encourage aspirational purchasing of luxury items by bridging the gap between peer recommendations and celebrity endorsements. This impact gets stronger when fans actively interact with the influencer's material on digital platforms (Voorveld, 2019; Wang & Qiao, 2020). By normalizing or glamorizing extravagant lives, this social proof may speed up brand acceptance among younger consumers and foster broader interest in luxury products that were previously protected (Lee & Watkins, 2016).

2. SOCIAL CAPITAL THEORY AND ITS RELEVANCE

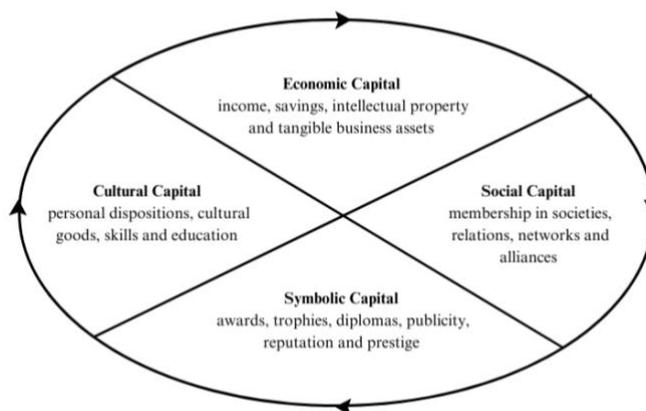
2.1. General overview of Capital Theory

The capacity of social capital theory (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993) to explain how trust, shared standards, and social links may influence both individual and group results has attracted constant enthusiasm from a variety of academic fields (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). In the scientific literature, many scholars have demonstrated how individuals use their networks and social connections to get important resources, improve collaboration, and achieve improved socioeconomic opportunities (Coleman, 1988; Dika & Singh, 2002; Ferlander, 2007).

Scholars and the early scientists who mentioned social capital in their works, such as Bourdieu (1986) and Putnam (1993), have shown that social capital has a substantial impact on participation, group efficiency, and overall growth in a variety of situations, including various industries where people work as education, public health, business. Recent works by scientists Chu & Kim (2011), Kim and Kim (2023), and Gvili and Levy (2018) emphasize the transformative effect of digital media on social capital by highlighting how online interactions expand network breadth, facilitate new forms of collaboration, and potentially alter trust dynamics which are the most related scientific works for this topic.

Figure 1

Forms of capital (compiled by the author)



Source: based on Bourdieu, 1986; Pret et al., 2016

At its core, social capital is the total accumulation of resources that people or organizations may obtain via persistent relationships of reciprocal acknowledgement (Bourdieu, 1986). According to research on early thinkers, social capital develops inside social institutions because reciprocity rules

and trust allow individuals to work together to achieve shared goals (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993). Social capital is closely related to other types of capital, such as cultural or economic resources, and may change its shape when group members acknowledge or validate it, according to scholars who follow Bourdieu's (1986) viewpoint. Pret et al (2016) in the work highlighted the differences between these capitals in the relationship of Bourdieu's (1986) ideas in the context of entrepreneurship which are explained in Figure 1 as **economic, social, cultural, and symbolic**. Whereas, in this scientific project the author is going to analyse social capital's symbolic capital perspective in the context of status consumption, desire for social recognition, and disposition to share personal information on social media.

At the same time, Coleman (1988) claims that social capital represents those elements of a social organization that promote collaborative action by lowering the cost of transactions or promoting social control, such as obligations, communication intermediaries, and consequences. Through a series of empirical investigations, scholars like Dika and Singh (2002) show how this viewpoint makes educational processes clearer because strong cross-generational networks, as well as common principles, may improve learning outcomes by increasing peer support and involvement from parents. Additionally, Bhandari and Yasunobu (2009) highlight how these concepts are consistent across rural development, economic policy, and other fields, coming to the conclusion that communities with greater levels of social capital typically have stronger senses of collective involvement as well as stronger administration at the local level.

Numerous academics point out that social capital has 3 components such as relational, structural, and cognitive components, all of which have an impact on the development and use of social ties (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Putnam, 1995; Chiu et al., 2006). According to Larson (1992), Ring & Van De Ven (1994), and Nahapiet & Ghoshal (1998), the **structural dimension** usually includes the size, density, and structure of a person's social group, emphasizing how people are connected or engage when exchanging resources. The **relational dimension** focuses on the aspects of relationships that allow partners to work together successfully, such as reciprocity, trust, and shared standards (Coleman, 1988; Ring & Van De Ven, 1994; Kramer & Tyler, 1996). Scholarly research shows that when people regularly carry out their responsibilities and communicate important knowledge, trust and reciprocity grow stronger over time (Reuber & Fischer, 2005; Chiu et al., 2006). Shared language, codes, or narratives that facilitate communication and enhance understanding between parties exemplify the **cognitive dimension** (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Chiu et al., 2006). Bourdieu (1980) asserts that internalizing community-specific standards or desires fosters stable collaboration by helping to align individual motivations with group objectives. A key conclusion is

that these factors interact to affect the type and amount of social capital present in various online and offline networks (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Poder, 2011).

Bonding, bridging, and connecting relationships are distinguished by another popular paradigm for assessing social capital (Szreter & Woolcock, 2004; Ferlander, 2007). Strong, emotionally intimate relationships between individuals who frequently come from similar social backgrounds which can be family, close friends, or close communities are referred to as bonding social capital (Granovetter, 1973). According to them these types of relationships normally promote a sense of unity and connection. A good example of this can be Dika and Singh's (2002) research, where students who get high bonding social capital from their parents, friends, and instructors frequently benefit from more emotional support and more dependable academic help. According to Kim and Kim (2023), studies that bridging ties can connect people to novel information and resources, broadening perspectives and supporting social mobility.

Social Capital online. The growth of SNS has sparked curiosity about how online engagements impact social capital formation and use (Chu & Kim, 2011; Gvili & Levy, 2018; Kim & Kim, 2023). Numerous internet networks broaden regional distribution and help people connect across a range of groups with those who are close to them (Chu & Kim, 2011; Gan & Li, 2018; Nadeem et al., 2020). For example, platforms such as Instagram or Twitter, enable people to develop bridge relationships that may not have been feasible otherwise, exposing them to new information, career prospects, or cultural expressions (Gvili and Levy, 2018). The growth of SNS has sparked curiosity about how online engagements impact social capital formation and use (Chu & Kim, 2011; Gvili & Levy, 2018; Kim & Kim, 2023). Numerous internet networks broaden regional distribution and help people connect across a range of groups with those who are close to them (Chu & Kim, 2011; Gan & Li, 2018; Nadeem et al., 2020). For example, platforms such as Instagram or Twitter enable people to develop bridge relationships that may not have been feasible otherwise, exposing them to new information, career prospects, or cultural expressions (Gvili and Levy, 2018). In a comparable manner, Kim and Kim (2023) emphasize that people who utilize social media to get informational or social satisfaction frequently build wide connections that improve bridging social capital. However, research also shows that digital environments may strengthen bonds by facilitating more frequent contact between friends, relatives, or like-minded enthusiasts, which builds emotional support and trust (Chu & Kim, 2011; Ferlander, 2007). Consequently, SNS and the internet are two-edged weapons, as they may help people quickly grow their networks, but they can also increase self-promotional behaviour or produce negative feedback (Gvili & Levy, 2018).

Relation with status consumption. To attract attention and gain acceptance, people may leverage their social connections to enhance the visibility of luxury products or experiences (Reuber & Fischer, 2005; Nadeem et al., 2020). Ongoing arguments from researchers Chu and Kim (2011), and Gan and Li (2018) underline the connection between social capital and conspicuous spending, showing that norms of reciprocity and community trust drive individuals to justify their expressions of social status. According to Kim & Kim (2023), those with better bridge links may disseminate material to a larger audience, attracting more sympathy and improving their perceived status in society. Whereas, according to Nadeem et al. (2020), a strong bonding network can provide personal support from peers, which may strengthen brand loyalty or status-based buying habits. On the other side, social standing affects the perceived advantages and disadvantages when it comes to disclosing personal information; users may be more likely to share personal information if they think that doing so could end in considerable social incentives as (chances to connect with others, devotion, or admiration, daily life news or large purchases) (Chu & Kim, 2011; Chia, Hsu, Lin, & Tseng, 2021). However, users may be hesitant to provide potentially private data if trust is poor or if social standards restrict conspicuous displays (Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Coleman, 1988).

The desire for social recognition and social capital. The search for recognition by others in online as well as offline contexts is an essential component of social capital (Dika & Singh, 2002). Thus, people consciously create and use their social circles to obtain recognition, either by interacting with persons with high status or organizations, based on research in various fields such as marketing, sociological studies, and the psychology of consumers (Reuber & Fischer, 2005; Chia et al., 2021). Accordingly, social capital turns into a tool for enhancing a person's qualifications, standing, or assets in the eyes of others (Bourdieu, 1986; Pret et al., 2016). An example of this can be SNS, which allows users to turn private luxury experiences into public status displays, and their symbolic value is increased by likes and comments (Lyu, 2016; Sedera, Atapattu & Gretzel, 2017). As a result, social capital creates an atmosphere in which someone's social standing may be improved by intentional self-expression that can increase their desire to share personal information and consume status (Ferlander, 2007; Gan & Li, 2018).

2.2. Symbolic Capital

In modern consumer and organizational contexts, symbolic capital has become a key concept for understanding how prestige, status, and reputational value accrue to people, groups, and goods (Bourdieu, 1986). Although this idea has its roots in sociology, a rising amount of study has looked

at how it applies to industries including digital marketing, hospitality, entrepreneurship, and luxury branding (Sahin & Nasir, 2021; Pret et al., 2016; Bazi, Filieri, & Gorton, 2020; Kim & Bae, 2023). In comparison with financial or cultural assets, symbolic capital is critically dependent on recognition from appropriate audiences who emphasize indicators of distinction, which can be understood from the work of Bourdieu, 1986. Whereas according to scholars like Sahin and Nasir (2021), consumer incentives like status consumption and self-expression on SNS can be fueled by this recognition and can involve feelings of exclusiveness, authenticity, or accomplishment. In addition, according to Terjesen and Elam (2009), an individual having a higher position, respect, and a good reputation are directly linked to symbolic capital (Terjesen and Elam, 2009).

The idea that luxury goods function as status symbols, representing symbolic capital for their holders, has been thoroughly examined by scholars of luxury consumption (Han et al., 2010; Bazi et al., 2020). Although material qualities like design, production, and custom have significance in many luxury industries, the prestige effect is frequently a term that supports high prices and loyalty to brands (Kapferer & Valette-Florence, 2016; Tynan et al., 2010). For example, Bazi et al. (2020) conducted research on high-end fashion businesses and discovered that not only functional aspects of the products are important in purchasing, but also buyers' desire to communicate with these brands on SNS was mainly driven by the need for symbolic acknowledgement, which can be defined in simple terms as "praise".

Furthermore, Sahin and Nasir (2021) discovered that symbolic capital interacts with conspicuous and status-driven motivations, in which buyers purchase luxury goods not just to feel good about themselves but also to change how other people see their way of life. In the survey conducted by Sahin and Nasir (2021), they found a very interesting result that an individual's perceived symbolic status of the **self** (the way people assume others perceive them whenever they use a certain brand) could be greater than the actual symbolic status they think a brand delivers to others.

The widespread adoption of SNS by people has boosted the process of acquiring symbolic capital, especially when it comes to revealing oneself or an example can be an influencer lifestyle, and status-seeking behaviours (Kim & Bae, 2023). According to Sahin and Nasir (2021), people use e-platforms to showcase elements of their lives, such as spending on luxury, expensive vacations, or endorsements of goods, to attract attention from close surroundings or strangers (Sahin & Nasir, 2021). According to studies on influencer marketing, content makers can find success if they can persuade a certain size of audience that their suggestions represent both expertise and authenticity (Bazi et al., 2020). These two concepts expertise and authenticity – can be referred to as cultural capital, whereas authenticity can be referred to as symbolic capital (Bazi et al., 2020). Those content

creators who do not have enough follower numbers or strong engagement rates and verified status face difficulties in converting their content into symbolic capital which shows that audience approval is the key to symbolic recognition (Kim & Bae, 2023).

Entrepreneurship and symbolic capital. Symbolic capital is also analysed in the framework of entrepreneurship and organizational strategy (Pret et al., 2016). According to research by Pret et al. (2016), symbolic capital frequently supplements material resources in entrepreneurial funding, therefore, a start-up's recognized prestige may make up for a lack of experience. As an example, a business that receives a respectable innovation award acquires credibility, which makes it possible for it to get collaborations or investments that would not otherwise be available (Fuller & Tian, 2006).

This idea is also covered in research on the hospitality and tourism industries where Kim and Bae (2023) offer perspectives on the destinations themselves, indicating that they operate similarly to brands seeking to get more tourists, corporate investment, and favourable WOM. These indicators boost the destination's brand equity because potential tourists see them as proof of exceptional cultural or experience value (Kim & Bae, 2023).

To summarize, symbolic capital is a significant form of social capital which is analysed in many fields such as luxury good consumption, influencer marketing, brand equity, tourism and hospitality, and digital contexts on sharing information on the internet to get status. Nevertheless, there is still a gap in the literature that should be analysed in terms of status consumption on SNS not only by influencers but also by usual users. Additionally, this paper is going to look at various motivations that are going to drive people to share their personal data/information in the realm of social media. Thus, this is going to be discussed in the next section.

2.3.Brand trust as a mediator of symbolic influence

This section will talk about the various research that shows how brand trust functions as a mediating variable, which transforms symbolic meaning into behavioural outcomes, such as purchase intention and loyalty in many areas of consumption.

In the tourism area, analyzed by Sobaih et al. (2025) symbolic cues are very strong. Thus, a destination's image, its emotional, cultural, and visual symbolism that might foster prestige, adventure, or nostalgia, according to them. Sobaih et al. (2025) looked at 1,405 visitors to Tozeur, Tunisia, and found that both the image of the destination and social influence made tourists more likely to return. Brand trust in the destination was found to be a partial mediator, whereas the direct link between destination image and loyalty stayed strong, but its influence on size got smaller when

trust was added, showing a partial mediation effect. This indicated a high influence of trust in brand in the tourism are and the places of the destination for travellers.

In their study, Sahin, Zehir, and Kitapçı (2011) investigated the role of symbols in brand experience. They examined it among 258 car owners and found that sensory, emotive, intellectual, and behavioral components significantly increased satisfaction and trust, which anticipated loyalty. Their methodology highlighted trust as a key mediator between brand experience and loyalty. Symbolic brand experiences, such as a brand's visual identity or narrative style, trigger emotions that establish trust, encouraging loyalty-enhancing behavior like good word-of-mouth or repurchase (Sahin et al., 2011).

Furthermore, a research of 412 South Korean smartphone users by Shin et al. (2019) found that brand trust predicted brand commitment, which in turn promoted brand loyalty. Thus, the study discovered that brand commitment completely mediated the trust-loyalty link, implying that trust's influence on loyalty is indirect in this area. Furthermore, Sahin et al. (2019) found that when brand reputation was strong, the trust-commitment relationship was enhanced, emphasizing the function of trust as a symbolic processor.

Moreover, Husain et al. (2022) investigated brand trust in the context of Indian urban consumers and discovered that purchase intention was favourably impacted by both brand equity and status consumption. Although brand trust was found to be a partial mediator, especially in the link between intention and status reasons (Husain et al., 2022). This suggests that consumers still want trust-based validation before acting on symbolic appeals, even in luxury purchases, where social signalling is critical.

Hanaysha (2022) looked at brand trust in the UAE fast food industry and found that brand posts that were interactive, informative, and entertaining had a big impact on what people bought because they trusted the brand. In this work, informativeness had the most effect, and entertainment also built trust when it was perceived as interesting (Hanaysha, 2022). The results show that in the digital world, these reasons can have a large symbolic effect, as long as they are used in ways that help people build trust (Hanaysha, 2022).

A consistent pattern is observed in all these studies in different areas, indicating that symbolic cues enhance brand trust, which in turn mediates behavioral outcomes such as loyalty, commitment, or purchase intention. Thus, this can be applied in the case of this research since brand trust is a direct mediator between the perceived symbolic capital of the brand and the intention to purchase a brand signaling about status. Consequently, this mediation converts into an outcome of purchasing a brand and consuming it.

3. DISPOSITION TO SHARE PERSONAL INFORMATION ON SOCIAL MEDIA

3.1. Motivations for sharing personal information on SNS

As SNSs become more popular, concerns about data privacy, trust, and status-seeking behaviour have grown along with people's motivations for sharing personal information (Cain, 2021; Varnali & Toker, 2015). On SNS, users frequently evaluate the dangers of sharing private information against the potential advantages of providing sensitive data, such as access to individualized services, self-expression, or mental assistance (Zhang & Fu, 2018; Walrave & Heirman, 2012). The prospect of improving one's social status or symbolic capital online can also frequently turn the scales toward the direction of disclosure of oneself (Noh, 2021; Sahin & Nasir, 2021).

Numerous scientific literature highlights that a mix of environmental, social, and psychological factors influence people's willingness to share personal information online (Chen & Sharma, 2011; Degutis et al., 2023). Scientists used different theoretical frameworks to explain it. For example, the dual calculus model of perceived advantages versus risks (Zhang & Fu, 2018) or the uses-and-gratifications approach (Cain, 2021) highlights the way how people try to balance intangible advantages. Those are brand recognition, emotional relief, and friendship management against privacy vulnerabilities (Cain, 2021). Another scientific literature looks to the motivations to share personal information from social exchange theory and social capital (Chen & Sharma, 2011; Noh, 2021), which indicates that trust, reciprocal advantages, and social standards for collaboration are crucial in encouraging individuals to share details of their private life.

Several scholars in their research found that users' decision to share personal information on SNS is mostly motivated by daily enjoyment or relationship maintenance (Cain, 2021; Ghaisani et al., 2017). Thus, this can be described as bonding, which was discussed earlier. For example, Cain (2021) in the research surveyed a group of young adults and discovered that those who used social media did it to get pleasure from maintaining close relationships or spent more time on social networks and indicated that these are essential. Similar findings were made by Ghaisani et al. (2017), who noted that users frequently posted informal or even sensational content, such as unexpected meetings or emotionally charged updates, to leave a lasting impression and foster more interesting connections.

In addition to the above-mentioned motivational reasons, trust and reciprocity are also essential in self-disclosure activities. Whereas Chen and Sharma (2011) in their research, suggested that reciprocal interactions, trust, and a feeling of community identification, all collectively named

relational capitals, are a part of maintaining an active online network or community. According to this concept, people are willing to share personal information when they believe that others in the network communicate freely and honestly. Interestingly, this is consistent with social capital theory, which highlights that self-disclosure can strengthen connections between individuals (Coleman, 1988; Noh, 2021). According to Beldad et al. (2012), a favourable past experience, such as a transaction that was effective and free of conflicts, can increase trust in an online platform, reduce risks also promote recurrent disclosures. On the other hand, unfavourable experiences with data exploitation or inattentive audience criticism may destroy trust and make people more reserved to share information online (Robinson, 2017). According to Chen and Sharma (2011), trustworthy group settings lower the psychological cost of disclosing one's identity from the standpoint of symbolic capital. If the shared material is in line with the group's standards, principles, or artistic tastes, this encourages more engagements that boost a user's reputation inside the community (Noh, 2021). According to Chen and Sharma (2011), trustworthy group settings lower the emotional cost of disclosing one's identity from the standpoint of symbolic capital. If the shared material is in line with the group's standards, principles, or artistic tastes, this encourages more engagements that boost a user's reputation inside the community (Noh, 2021).

Emotional or psychological elements are the focus of another group of motivations to share personal information. In their research, Luo and Hancock (2020) analyse how self-disclosure might help meet basic requirements for social support, connectivity, or perceived genuineness, concerning young people or users who are lonely (Wong & McLellan, 2023). Bazarova and Choi (2014), who classify different self-disclosure purposes, such as self-expression or emotional release also support this notion. A feeling of belonging in society and self-worth might therefore be strengthened by such approval for self and in the community (Luo & Hancock, 2020). Varnali and Toker (2015) discovered that personality traits, such as public self-consciousness, might mediate this impact. This means that people who are especially sensitive to how others see them could reveal more to maximize their ideal self-image. However, another study highlights that if the user shares the negative disclosure as stress or sadness the audience can be inattentive or not approve, which can lead to negative results (Luo & Hancock, 2020).

Another reason to share personal information is basic - to avoid boredom, maintain an active feed, or stay active on SNS, most of the users just broadcast their updates (Stockdale & Coyne, 2020). According to Cain (2021), such routine or convenience-driven openness may represent a "least resistance" strategy just to pass the time or stay included in a group that demands regular updates.

3.2. Social media as an environment for status display

According to Bazarova and Choi (2014) and Kim and Bae (2023), SNSs which are distinguished by profile pages, network visibility, and public interaction metrics, have developed into powerful spaces where people may project and magnify a desired self-image. Real-time input from the audience with a sharing, liking, and commenting system allows the user to assess the effectiveness of their branding (Noh, 2021).

Establishing a well-known image or creating a sense of prestige in offline interactions may need several face-to-face meetings or the support of gatekeepers. On the other hand, if the content is compelling, each post or image on the internet may immediately reach hundreds or thousands of people, allowing symbolic capital to build up (Sahin & Nasir, 2021). A user's perceived social standing within their network might be measured and accomplished by collecting likes and affirming remarks when they properly showcase a luxury purchase or accomplishment (Kim & Bae, 2023). Whereas this acts as proof of gaining symbolic capital. When people see that a peer's expensive vacation images receive a lot of praise, they may want to imitate or even exceed that form of maintained self-exposure (Bazarova & Choi, 2014). Meanwhile, on the other hand, these comparisons may lead to feelings of jealousy or low self-esteem, but from the perspective of symbolic capital, they also encourage the creation of more status-symbolizing material (Luo & Hancock, 2020).

Sharing products or ways of living that indicate affluence or sophisticated taste is a fundamental way that people exhibit their status (Sahin & Nasir, 2021). The image being displayed may, therefore, be associated with an elite consumer persona. According to Ghaisani et al. (2017), a lot of individuals upload sensational or impression-focused content with the express purpose of influencing how other people view them. Therefore, if disclosing personal details like membership in exclusive clubs or invitations to secret events inspires appreciation or group acceptability, it may be seen as worth the private information sharing.

Another unique feature is that the audience's reciprocation frequently impacts the user's exposure and the growth of their digital capital which is discussed in the work of Chen and Sharma (2011). The interaction of reciprocity and trust in online communities encourages members to reply with means of likes, shares, direct messages, and comments, as Chen and Sharma (2011) point out. People who have favourable feedback regularly may eventually feel inspired to keep going or perhaps increase the intensity of their disclosures, going into more private discussions. These people may improve relationships by being more real, which might also increase the symbolic reward if the

community values authenticity (Noh, 2021). According to Ghaisani et al. (2017), users share to get impressions or become more recognized, which is in line with the form of capital: symbolic capital.

According to Wong and McLellan (2023), social media creates a networked public space for youths wherein social standards related to identity development, recognition, and inclusion are more powerful. Validation and meeting peer group expectations might be crucial for specific age groups, especially teenagers or young adults (Wong & McLellan, 2023). This also appeals to older populations, as social pressure to be perceived as successful or knowledgeable in the workplace can result in carefully maintained LinkedIn posts or Twitter conversations that highlight achievements (Kim & Bae, 2023). Furthermore, while users seeking status might establish standards for open disclosure such as sharing details of daily activities or expensive purchases new users may follow these standards to fit into the community or be accepted (Noh, 2021).

Why people deliberately take on privacy concerns to reveal personal information is still a frequently asked subject in the research. According to Zhang and Fu (2018), consumer anxiety and privacy management techniques moderate the process of disclosing oneself. They argue that when people are under a lot of stress, they may share more to gain social support, which may unintentionally result in a new kind of symbolic credit as empathy or moral backing, that turns to acceptance. According to Degutis et al. (2023), there is barely a consistent level of readiness to share, where some data categories, such as location or social networking profiles, are thought to be more sensitive than others. However, according to the aforementioned authors, if a user anticipates a significant reward in terms of image or social capital for revealing a particular fact, they could overcome privacy concerns.

4. SOCIAL RECOGNITION

4.1. Perceived change in social recognition

Millions of people post personal information about themselves on social media every day in the hopes of receiving some sort of approval or recognition from their online communities. Such positive reinforcement frequently takes the kind of likes, comments, follower numbers, and direct feedback for youth, and these factors interact to influence their sense of status and self-esteem (Sherman, Greenfield, Hernandez, & Dapretto, 2016; Chua & Chang, 2016; Cain, 2021). Researchers have looked at how these measures of peer support or involvement could influence young people's pursuit of social status, sense of self, and general well-being (Cain, 2021; Luo & Hancock, 2020). Hence, people are typically more motivated to keep revealing private information openly when they feel positive social recognition online (Sherman et al., 2016; Masur, Bazarova, & DiFranzo, 2023). On the other hand, the need for self-defence may lead to more stringent privacy settings when social recognition is absent or viewed as unsatisfactory (Robinson, 2017; Chua & Chang, 2016).

SNS enables present-time feedback from users' updates, indicating a rise or fall in an individual's online standing (Chua & Chang, 2016). A sudden increase in likes or followers might immediately elevate a user's status and support the notion that publishing in public gets recognized (Chen & Sharma, 2011). On the other hand, getting fewer likes or seeing your following stagnate might make a user that they are not as important as once a user saw them previously (Cain, 2021). Therefore, there are various ways of dealing that may be triggered by such changes in recognition. While some users choose to strengthen their privacy measures to prevent additional criticism, other people prefer to share more content in response to increasing trends, taking advantage of this fresh feeling of acceptability (Noh, 2021; Sherman et al., 2016). Notably, studies show that those who place a high value on peer approval are more emotionally affected by perceived gains or declines in recognition (Ghaisani et al., 2017). As an example, one great post may increase a user's following, but a subsequent post with little interaction may detract from that newly heightened sensation of acceptance, whereas this rapid feedback cycle might produce a setting where recognition is brittle and repetitive (Verduyn et al., 2020).

A lot of people feel more proud, excited, and confident in their social media presence when they understand that their online audience is expanding, but they also worry about disappointing their new followers (Chen & Sharma, 2011; Midgley et al., 2021; Sherman et al., 2016). According to Chua and Chang (2016), the uncertainty may encourage individuals to put more effort into the creation of

content that is close to perfection, eye-catching, or engaging (Chua & Chang, 2016). Research indicates that when faced with a desire to gain fast popularity, adults report feeling great pressure to keep up with their speed in producing content or exceed their previous success (Wong & McLellan, 2023; Verduyn et al., 2020). In line with this, an individual may perceive a change as peer rejection if they receive negative feedback, for instance, seeing that their follower count has decreased or fewer friends liking their posts (Cain, 2021; Pedalino & Camerini, 2022). Those users might be discouraged from sharing personal information, or even this can lead to users changing their privacy settings because of perceived societal feedback (Chua & Chang, 2016; Holthoff & Scheiben, 2019; Siepmann et al., 2022). As a result, they can use protective measures such as moving to a private account from a public one (Chua & Chang, 2016; Holthoff & Scheiben, 2019; Siepmann et al., 2022).

During adolescence according to Wong & McLellan (2023), when people are more sensitive to peer criticism, perceived shifts in social recognition are especially important. Online interactions become more emotionally charged for younger teenagers, who frequently interpret changes in likes or follows as strong signs of being accepted or rejected (Midgley et al., 2021). Despite their developed resilience and understanding of context by late adolescence or emerging adulthood, users are nevertheless sensitive to the shifting opinions of others (Arnett, 2000; Sherman et al., 2016). In summary, it seems that recognition dynamics develop during adolescence, with older adolescents still being influenced more by the popularity of their content but learning to manage these shifts with greater confidence.

4.2. Peer approval

The need to connect with peers and win their acceptance is the source of social media's social dimension (Noh, 2021; Luo & Hancock, 2020). Peer feedback has a crucial role in promoting what users post and how they share it, according to qualitative as well as quantitative research on teenagers conducted in the past ten years (Chua & Chang, 2016; Varnali & Toker, 2015). This subchapter is going to analyse how self-disclosure practices are influenced by the need for approval from peers.

Posts with a luxury theme frequently receive more likes and positive feedback from viewers (Siepmann et al., 2022). Beyond merely observing a luxury brand, peers may perceive this kind of display as a sign of achievement or exclusiveness, which encourages them to lavish the poster with likes or kind remarks. It also provides an advantage for people who want social acceptance: by mentioning valuable products or experiences throughout their feed, they may consistently get increases in endorsements, therefore meeting their general demand for peer approval (Siepmann

et al., 2022). The approach is not risk-free, though peers may interpret these luxurious postings as arrogant, which paradoxically causes certain followers to leave unfavourable comments or not like the post (Siepmann et al., 2022; Chua & Chang, 2016).

According to a large body of research, active engagement on social networking sites is significantly predicted by the need for acceptance, sometimes known as the need for social approval (Chen & Sharma, 2011). Many teenagers create content to conform to their peers' tastes and agreements by sharing their life adventures, relationship updates, or selfies (Chua & Chang, 2016). Consequently, this alignment can take the shape of humorous postings or pictures of carefully selected people's lives, all with the goal of gaining support in the form of likes as well as encouraging comments (Masur et al., 2023).

Those with a strong need for acceptance may feel nervous or excluded when there is little or no peer support, which may cause them to make a lesser number of disclosures in the future (Robinson, 2017). On the other hand, if users feel that their peers are always responding positively, users of SNS become more open or transparent. Particularly in situations where personal posts draw sizable audiences (Bazarova & Choi, 2014; Pedalino & Camerini, 2022).

The quantitative stimulus that SNS offers is an essential factor that affects adolescents' online self-disclosure (Cain, 2021). For example, Instagram shows various metrics, such as the number of likes a post has, the number of followers a person has, and the number of comments that are posted beneath a photo or video. According to scientific studies, these metrics influence people's perceptions of peer endorsement (Chang et al., 2019; Midgley et al., 2021). Adolescents are more likely to believe they are well-liked, approved, or popular if their posts have a high number of likes, which are seen as indications of support (Chua & Chang, 2016). According to Verduyn et al. (2020), this creates a quick feedback loop where the engagement results from the previous post are used to partially verify each next post. Another known metric used and discussed by authors on the research is followers. According to Pedalino & Camerini, (2022), having a good number of followers is associated with popularity or influencer potential, which increases a user's desire to stay public. According to another study, individuals who had hundreds of thousands of Instagram followers were more willing to establish more accounts openly, possibly due to their confidence in the appreciation of their peers (Masur et al., 2023). Conversely, those with fewer followers expressed more unfavourable sentiments and a hesitancy to continue sharing in public.

Acceptance by peers influences the kind and format of published information in addition to the level of disclosing oneself. For instance, teenage girls frequently apply filters or professional editing to approach beauty standards in their selfies to conform to what they consider peer norms

(Chua & Chang, 2016). Similar to this, adults in college might use humour, brand references, or particular lifestyle representations that reflect the tastes of their peer group (Siepmann et al., 2022). While deviating from the group's aesthetic and humorous preferences might result in negative comments or a decline in social interaction, blending in promotes acceptability.

All things taken into account, peer approval is a powerful motivator for self-disclosure. Using social media increases the significance of evaluations from others by placing digital measurements, such as likes or follower numbers, inside pre-existing offline buddy networks. Since they are already sensitive to approval from their peers, adolescents, and young adults discover that these measurable signs of approval either motivate them to share more or make them quit due to negative feedback.

4.3. Comparison with others

Comparisons give rise to the third important aspect of social recognition on social media: when individuals share their accomplishments, styles, and experiences, followers always compare themselves in relation (Midgley et al., 2021; Verduyn et al., 2020). When faced with the seemingly perfect lifestyles of peers, social comparisons, particularly upward contrasts, can generate feelings of guilt or jealousy (Chua & Chang, 2016). However, evaluating oneself as more fortunate or well-liked than others, a downward comparison can provide ease or pride.

There is broad agreement that users' subjective well-being is usually damaged by upward social comparisons, in which they see content from peers who are superior or more successful (Verduyn et al., 2020). According to Sherman et al. (2016), teenagers and young people frequently comment that they feel inadequate or incapable when they see their friends' luxurious images or impressive results in terms of metric, total number of likes. For those who are still forming their identities or who have poor self-esteem, this process of formation can be particularly damaging (Nesi & Prinstein, 2015; Chua & Chang, 2016). On the other hand, downward comparisons, or observing peers who appear to be in a worse situation, might a little increase one's sense of self-worth, but they also reinforce unfavourable opinions about peers who are less well-liked (Chua & Chang, 2016).

Despite these general trends, comparisons can become positive or negative due to cognitive and social processes such as contrast or assimilation (Verduyn et al., 2020). Meanwhile, emotional outcomes can be positive and result in positive changes when people choose an upward comparison goal (an example can be a person feeling inspired by a friend's accomplishment, believing that he or she can achieve it too. Contrasting with an upward aim, however, such as viewing a friend's achievement as impossible to attain, frequently results in feelings of jealousy, annoyance, or

dissatisfaction with an individual's position (Chua & Chang, 2016). Such contrast-based comparisons are common on social media sites, where every user's carefully chosen highlights are visible (Luo & Hancock, 2020). In reality, some teenagers intentionally limit their social media use or switch to private modes in order to avoid these detrimental effects, particularly when they believe they are unable to keep pace with certain well-known friends or influencers (Pedalino & Camerini, 2022; Masur et al., 2023).

The search for peer acceptance combines constantly with social comparison processes, which do not happen alone. For example, adolescents may become the object of jealousy for others after they acquire a significant number of followers (Chua & Chang, 2016). According to Verduyn et al. (2020), the final consequence is an environment where approval, comparison, and recognition reinforce one another, possibly leading to repetitive cycles of jealousy, strategic self-presentation, and emotions.

In conclusion, it is evident that the literature presented by studies on social recognition, which includes peer approval, perceived status changes, and social comparison, is not entirely consistent. According to the above-discussed research, getting "likes" or displaying luxury goods might increase the feeling of acceptance, while other studies point to possible drawbacks like increased jealousy or decreased self-worth.

Meanwhile, examining various perspectives, from SNS to the conspicuous purchase of luxury goods, allows readers to gain a deeper understanding of how peer relationships influence online sense of identity and belonging. It also emphasizes the necessity of more research to determine the specific ways in which these processes take place in various settings. There is still much to learn about the factors that are important, such as past experiences of online validation or an individual's tendency to compare oneself to others, and how these factors interact to create either positive or bad experiences. Researchers may improve the current models and help in determining where, why, and for whom social recognition is most important by looking at a range of scenarios and user profiles. Thus, especially there is still a considerable gap in scientific literature that analyses the social recognition, peer approval, comparison with others in the environment of SNS, and status consumption such as sharing luxury goods and personal information online to validate their symbolic capital.

4.4. Perceived reputation of the endorser

In this section, the author is going to discuss perceived reputation of endorser – a celebrity, influencer through studies of Jin et al. (2019), Chung and Cho (2017), Schouten et al. (2019), Belanche et al. (2021), and others, who together analyze how this reputation is shaped as a symbolic value that improves brand attitudes, credibility, and consumer purchase intentions. For instance, Jin, Muqaddam, and Ryu (2019) found in their study that Instagram influencers generated stronger trust and more positive brand attitudes due to their good social presence, where users saw them as more emotionally engaging, which made their endorsements more persuasive. Similarly, Schouten, Janssen, and Verspaget (2019) confirmed that with comparing influencers and celebrities. They found that consumers identified more with influencers than with celebrities and felt they were more trustworthy across various product types (Schouten et al., 2019). Thus, in these cases, the symbolic value given to the brand was all due to the reputation and a social image of an endorser. This symbolic connection is even more pronounced in the case of research by Chung and Cho (2017). They found that when celebrities disclosed personal details on social media, followers developed one-sided emotional bonds with them. These self-disclosure ties increased the perceived trustworthiness of the endorser, which then improved how credible the brand seemed and raised consumers' purchase intentions. So, it can be drawn that emotional closeness of the consumers was one of the factors in deciding to trust the endorser.

Another important factor is how well the influencer or celebrity matches both the product and the consumer. For example, Belanche, Casaló, Flavián, and Ibáñez-Sánchez (2021) showed that when people feel a strong match between an influencer and the product, and between the influencer and themselves, they also feel that the product fits them; this fit increases trust and leads to higher purchase and recommendation intentions. In their study, Calvo-Porrá, Rivaroli, and Orosa-González (2021) reached a similar conclusion in the food industry: congruence and endorser credibility increased both the intention to buy and the willingness to pay a premium. Hence, the important driver was symbolic alignment, not just product quality. Munnukka, Uusitalo, and Toivonen (2016) showed that endorser credibility is shaped by symbolic dimensions like similarity and attractiveness. The findings showed that when consumers see themselves in the endorser, they are more likely to trust the ad and the brand (Munnukka et al., 2016). When the consumer felt personally involved in the product category, this is even more intensified. In addition to these, Radon (2012) examined cases where celebrities or influencers used luxury brands without being officially paid to promote them. In the study Radon (2012), consumers still judged the brand based on how well the user's image matched the brand's image. If the match was good, the brand's image improved, even if the brand did not approve the

endorsement (Radon, 2012). This shows how powerful symbolic associations are in shaping perceived trust and brand perception. Carrillat, O'Rourke, and Plourde (2019) found that symbolic consistency mattered more than being universally liked - this challenges the idea that only "safe" or "pure" endorsers can generate trust; symbolic relevance is often more important. Ghaffar et al. (2019) confirmed that celebrity endorsements can both improve purchase intention and corporate image when the endorser is seen as credible. Hence, Advertising appeal partly explained this effect, but endorser reputation played a clear role in shaping how trustworthy the whole brand seemed (Ghaffar et al., 2019).

Across different studies and industries, it is clear how consumers view the endorser's reputation, which has a big impact on how much they trust the brand. This reputation is built through feelings, fit, and symbolic meaning. For example, social media connections, shared identity, or emotional storytelling, trust can grow when the endorser feels that the one.

5. RELEVANCE OF OTHER THEORIES

5.1. The relevance of the theory of Reasoned action and status-seeking in social media

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), persons create behavioral intentions by carefully balancing two conscious considerations: (1) their attitude toward the act and (2) the subjective norm - the anticipated expectations of important others (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Both criteria are frequently mentioned in luxury fashion studies. For example, Chinese customers who love internationally recognized names (brand consciousness) and compare themselves to trend pioneers have a favorable attitude about purchasing high-status items, translating into purchase intent (Zhang & Kim, 2013). In India, where public opinion is a powerful kind of social currency, Gen-Y consumers consistently prioritize friend and parent approval over personal taste when selecting whether to purchase a luxury brand (Jain and Khan, 2017). Luxury items serve as a mark of distinction, fashion leadership, and cosmopolitan belonging for these buyers. TRA's two pillars - attitude and norm are consistent with the motives researchers have recorded among status-seeking audiences from China to India: a perception that luxury indicates desirable personal attributes, as well as a sense that people would notice and approve of the status disposition intent (Zhang & Kim, 2013; Jain and Khan, 2017).

The second TRA component, subjective norm, is particularly effective in collectivist societies because public opinion is a valuable social currency, which is also shown in the next research. When it comes to luxury clothing, Indian customers say that friends' and relatives' approval is more important than personal preference (Jain & Khan, 2017). These finding reflects the core logic of symbolic capital: consumers seek out companies that breathe prestige because they assume valued audiences will notice and appreciate the performance. All in all, current TRA studies confirm two fundamental elements that are important to the topic: "Does expecting a boost in symbolic capital drive intentions to consume status brands after self-disclosure on social media?"

Attitude component: Previous research has shown that buyers choose luxury items because they represent social prestige, distinctiveness, and fashion leadership. In a digital world, showcasing such items through tailored posts adds another level of status signaling (Zhang & Kim 2013; Sihombing & Pramono 2021). **Normative component:** Research in India (Jain & Khan, 2017) and China (Zhang & Kim, 2013) shows that simply believing that "people like me" like luxury displays

is enough to motivate purchasing decisions. On SNS like Instagram and TikTok, likes and comments make that social endorsement visible and quick, potentially increasing the normative pressure.

TRA implies that behavior is entirely voluntary: if I want to upload a photo of my new designer bag, nothing stands in my way. However, two very real limits grow big in this study's scenario. Firstly, luxury things are expensive; not everyone who wishes for symbolic capital can immediately buy it. Secondly, producing appealing self-disclosure content (picture quality, style, and hashtags) requires digital proficiency and confidence. Empirical research in both India and Iran suggests similar constraints: despite strong attitudes and norms, many respondents were hesitant due to high pricing or doubts about their capacity to convey the desired lifestyle image (Jain & Khan, 2017). TRA cannot represent the "Can I really do it?" hesitation, demanding an approach that specifically takes into account perceived control, which will be discussed in next section. As evidence for subjective norm: According to Copeland and Zhao (2020), U.S. customers who read sustainable-fashion postings are considerably more likely to click "add to cart" if they see friends who have already endorsed the product.

5.2. The theory of Planned Behavior and Perceived Control in online status display

The Theory of Planned Behavior expands on TRA by including perceived behavioural control (PBC) - a person's evaluation of how easy or difficult it will be to behave (Ajzen, 1991). In India, a similar trend emerged: subjective norm was the primary motivator of intention, but PBC had the strongest direct relationship to actual purchase (Jain & Khan, 2017).

Two types of control mentioned in those studies match well with the self-disclosure and symbolic-capital setting of the current project: **1. Economic control:** "Do I have the money?" Jain and Khan (2017) observe that, despite strong social motivations, many Indian customers delay luxury purchases until income or credit availability improves; once they feel in control, their likelihood of buying increases. **2. Technical/self-presentation control:** "Can I show it off well?" Including PBC also helps to explain a notable TPB finding: the intention-behavior gap. Influencers and technologically skilled users have minimal cost and skill barriers; as a result, their perceived control is great, allowing them to move from desire to actual consumption and public display of status items. Sihombing and Pramono's (2021) Indonesian study of Generation-Z social-media users demonstrates that even in non-commercial political communication, youths publicise endorsements only when they feel adept at crafting visually persuasive posts.

Outside fashion serves as a parallel example. Iranian students' intentions to purchase organic food were examined using TPB by Yazdanpanah and Forouzani (2015). PBC and subjective norm did not predict intention, despite attitude dominating. This suggests that perceived control can either strengthen or weaken the transition from wanting to doing. Predictive power increased dramatically when TPB was expanded to include self-identity and moral norms, which is consistent with social media research showing that ethical positioning and self-image further influence public disclosure.

TRA explains why symbolic capital counts (attitudes) and whose favor consumers seek (norms), but TPB fills in the missing lens of "Can I carry it out?" Given the cost of status brands and the skill requirements of social-media self-presentation, perceived behavioral control is essential. As a result, this study uses the TPB as its primary explanatory model, with TRA component serving as a layered component inside it.

6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1. Purpose of the research, model, and hypotheses

This part of the scientific work focuses on the methodology of this research, which is based on previous scientific findings of other authors and theories such as (Social Capital- Symbolic Capital, TRA, TPB) that lay the foundation for a conceptual model. All of these were critically analyzed and outlined in the literature review section.

Previous studies has shown that social networks promote prominent presentation. Bradley et al. (2019), Bazi et al. (2020), and Lyu (2016), for example, all demonstrate that when users show off luxury, they get likes and follows, and these digital incentives drive even more high-status posting. Other research shows how measures like likes and comments boost the perceived symbolic worth of what is shared (Sedera et al., 2017). However, two critical relationships remain unexplored. First, there is a gap in understanding how a user's desire to obtain symbolic capital motivates them to share personal information online. Although status consumption and endorser (influencer) loyalty have been examined, the combined way of expecting recognition, disclosing oneself, and intending to consume a status-signaling brand has not been thoroughly modelled in scientific literature. The current research is aiming to fill this gap.

To provide a clear methodology, it's worth combining three theories to ground it. The motivation is provided by Bourdieu's (1986) symbolic-capital theory (symbolic capital): people want to transform private possession into public status. Likes, shares, and follower counts on social media make that conversion public, as shown in works by Ellison et al. (2007) and Vogel et al. (2014), serving as a form of social currency. TRA explains how motivations develop into intentions. In a luxury-sharing scenario, attitude refers to the consumer's passion for displaying status, while social acceptance is represented by peer "likes" or influencer signals. It is worth mentioning TRA as well. The traditional TRA was created for instances where the behavior is completely preference, but social media life adds an extra element - some SNS users openly discuss every aspect of their day, whereas others remain far more private. TPB expands on TRA by adding perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Defining control as a "disposition to self-disclose," users who are comfortable providing regular, personal updates find it simpler to integrate the need for recognition into a concrete strategy to purchase and publish a status product. On SNS, "control" frequently comes from a willingness to be open about oneself. Thus, active posters believe it is simple to publicize their new buy, answer inquiries, and handle criticism. Here, the level of self-disclosure is a proxy for control. If I am a

frequent sharer, I feel I can easily translate intention into public action, therefore, the desire-to-intention relationship should be bigger for me.

Building on these foundations, the conceptual model includes crucial factors. It starts with symbolic-capital expectations, which feed into a larger need to be socially recognized. That desire is expected to increase the intention to purchase a brand that signals status. Self-disclosure (from TPB) serves as a booster by giving users confidence that they can transform intention into action. Finally, two social-capital moderators – 1. the level of peer-approval concern, and 2. a tendency to compare oneself to others are displayed to strengthen the same direction. In easy terms, the model states that the more symbolic benefit I anticipate, the more I desire recognition; the more I want recognition, the more I want to purchase the status-signaling (luxurious) brand. Thus, this process is greatest when I freely communicate, value my friends' judgments, and constantly compare myself to others.

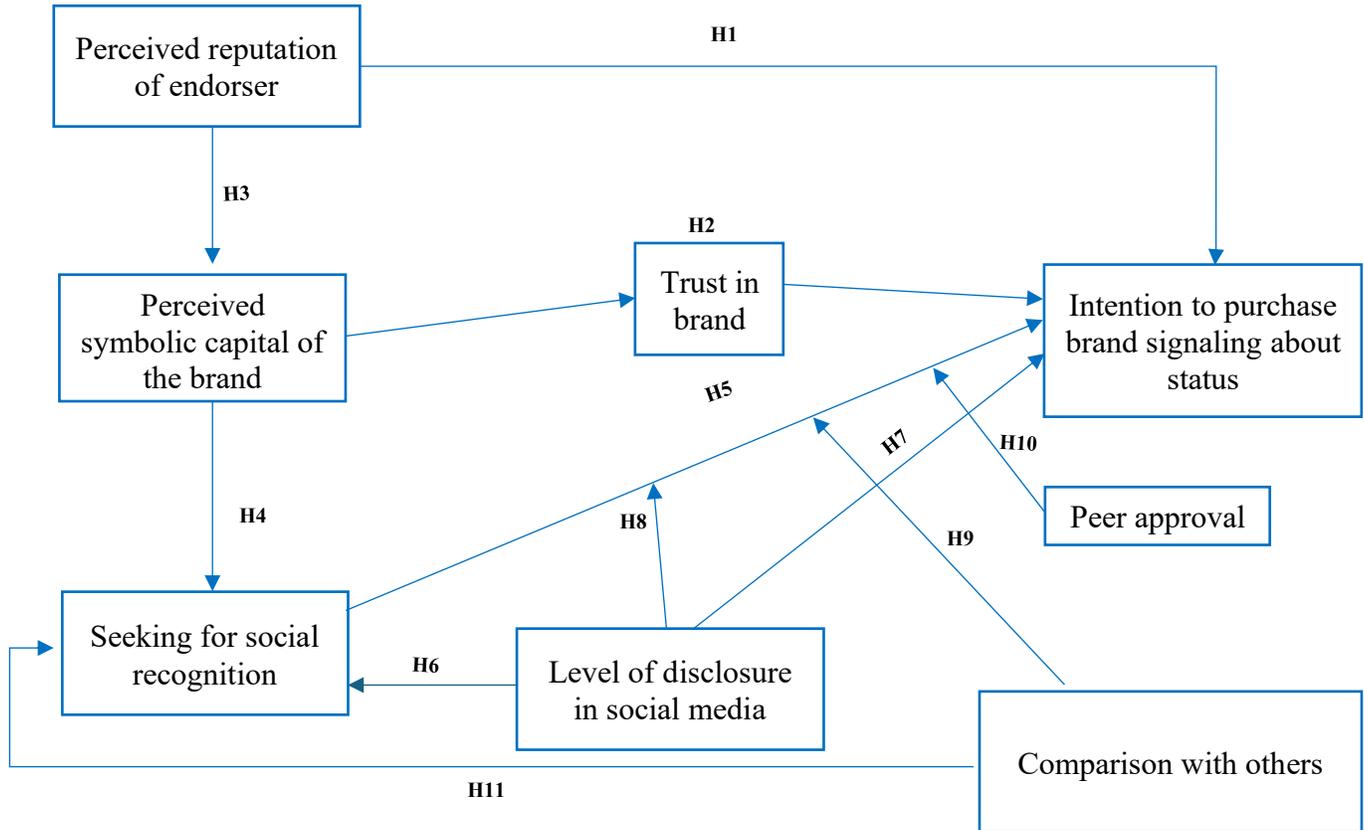
Problem of the research - How does expected symbolic change gained through self-disclosure on social media shape consumers' intention to purchase high-status products?

Aim of the research - To determine how expected symbolic-capital change influences the intention to purchase high-status products on social media and which moderators (self-disclosure level, peer approval, social comparison) intensify that link.

Research object - Social-media users' expected symbolic-capital gain from self-disclosure and its impact on their intention to purchase high-status products.

Figure 2

Conceptual model



Source: made by author based on literature research

Chung and Cho (2017) analyzed the brand endorser's influence on consumers. They revealed that social-media fans who assumed a K-pop star was trustworthy also rated the juice brand as more credible, whereas this credibility (status) then led directly to higher purchase intention. Thus, in this paper's case, this is an intention to consume, which can also be denoted as both if purchase is also consumed. The result of this research relates in a direction that endorsers' greater perceived reputation undoubtedly increases consumers' willingness to buy a product. Likewise, Jin, Muqaddam and Ryu (2019) explained in their research that consumers who are consuming Instagram celebrities' brand posts are trusting the source more and which directly shows a more positive attitude for a brand that was endorsed. Furthermore, Schouten, Janssen, and Verspaget (2020) conducted two controlled tests in which traditional celebrities faced off against Instagram influencers. Participants gave the influencers greater ratings for trustworthiness across all product categories they evaluated, and this increased trust resulted in higher purchase intentions. Meaning buyers are more likely to purchase as an endorser's perceived trustworthiness increases, reflecting a positive status of the endorser. Belanche, Casalo, Flavian & Ibanez-Sanchez (2021) show that an influencer works best when the

whole triangle lines up: the influencer fits the product and also resembles the follower. That double-fit makes followers feel the product is made for people like them, which immediately lifts their attitude and, ultimately, their willingness to buy and talk about it. All in all, there have been conducted various studies about endorsers and their influence on consuming a brand, whereas this hypothesis will further strengthen and fill the scientific gap in this field.

H1. The perceived reputation of the brand endorser/person positively influences a person's intention to purchase the brand.

Across five recent SEM-based studies spanning tourism, fast-food, smartphones, luxury fashion and e-commerce, researchers consistently position brand trust as the crucial psychological conduit that transforms symbolic or experiential cues into behavioral outcomes (Sobaih, Gharbi, Brini, & Aliane, 2025; Hanaysha, 2022; Shin, Amenuvor, Basilisco and Owusu-Antwi, 2023; Husain et al., 2022, Qalati, Vela, Li, Dakhan, Thuy, & Merani, 2021) Sobaih et al., (2025) surveyed 1,405 visitors to Tunisia's Tozeur oasis and showed that a favourable destination image and peer social influence heighten tourists' loyalty partly through heightened trust in the destination brand. Hanaysha (2022) showed this relationship in the UAE fast-food sector, finding that social-media interactivity and informativeness increase purchase decisions indirectly via brand trust, while purely entertaining content does not. Shin et al. (2023) showed in Korean smartphone marketplaces that trust is a necessary initial step in longer relational chains, since it must first develop into commitment before creating loyalty. Husain et al. (2022) did research where purchase intention was driven by Indian luxury consumers' need to demonstrate their status, while brand trust remained the most powerful direct motivator for purchases. Similarly, Qalati et al. (2021) showed the role of trust in lowering uncertainty in their findings. They showed that characteristics of online services, websites, and reputations only affect purchase intention through trust as a mediator. These studies make a conclusion that symbolic capital and associated signals have a significant impact on devotion or consumption intention when they are initially processed as brand trust, which supports brand trust's position as a mediator in the aforementioned model and hypothesis. Although the findings did not really analyze trust as a mediator in this relationship, which this hypothesis aims to do.

H2. Trust in the brand mediates the relationship between perceived symbolic capital and consumers' intention to purchase a status-signaling brand.

Consumers often make use of the reputation of the individual who is advertising a brand: his or her integrity, understanding, connection, or cultural standing as an alternative for determining what is brand's symbolic capital. The study, which compares influencers to traditional celebrities, reveals that increased perceived trust and connection with influencers leads to more positive ad and product sentiments (Schouten, Janssen, Verspaget, 2019). Followers of beauty and fashion channels instantly interpret an influencer's trustworthiness and para-social link into increased purchase intention (Sokolova & Kefi, 2020). Meanwhile, peer-endorser research demonstrates that the 4 credibility facets: trustworthiness, expertise, likeness, and attractiveness are boosting opinions about the ad and the brand (Munnukka, Uusitalo, Toivonen, 2016). Jin, Muqaddam, Ryu (2019) found that Instagram influencers outperform traditional celebrities in terms of source reliability, where this increased reputation and credibility foster social presence and brand perceptions. According to research in luxury, even unintentional endorsers can make it or break a brand's prestige image based on the reputational baggage they carry (Radon, 2012). According to food and fashion research, celebrity credibility and endorser-product congruence increase willingness to spend and brand attitude by adding status effects (Calvo-Porrall, Rivaroli, Orosa-Gonzalez, 2021; Carrillat, O'Rourke, Plourde, 2019). All in all, these results support H3: the stronger the endorser's perceived reputation, the greater the symbolic capital consumers attach to the brand.

H3. The perceived reputation of the endorser/person positively influences consumers' perceived symbolic capital of the brand.

Previous research consistently shows that when consumers attribute substantial symbolic value to a brand, they are more likely to utilize it as a social indicator and consequently strive for acknowledgment from others. Initial research indicates that buyers who are mindful of their social status tend to prefer brands with visuals that align with their desired self-image and prestige, increasing their desire to be seen wearing or using those brands (O'Cass & Frost 2002). Sahin and Nasir's (2021) research supports this concept, showing that desire towards status and conspicuous consumption improve perceptions of a brand's symbolic significance which leads to increased intentions to display it. A similar process occurs in service environments, Han, Nguyen, and Simkin (2016) explained that in the case of restaurant chains, the symbolic meanings associated with brands

improve brand affect and identification, which then encourages customers to visibly show their loyalty for social recognition. The effects are even more vivid in online settings within luxury-fashion communities, a strong sense of symbolic value fosters “brand love,” which provokes public advocacy for the brand to gain admiration from peers (Burnasheva, Suh & Villalobos-Moron 2019). Additionally, marketing strategies on social media that highlight exclusivity and trendiness increase perceived symbolic capital and encourage sharing behaviors driven by a desire for influence (Godey et al. 2016). All in all, these results support the idea that consumers are more motivated to use a brand’s symbolic capital when they associate it with social recognition, providing strong empirical backing to test H4.

H4. Perceived symbolic capital of the brand positively influences consumers’ desire to seek social recognition.

According to earlier research, individuals turn to brands that can convey status when they want social recognition or acceptance. For instance, even after taking brand equity and trust into consideration, Indian luxury consumers who place a high value on status-consumption reasons are more likely to purchase premium brands (Husain, Ahmad, and Khan, 2022). A similar finding is reached by Amatulli et al. (2018) in a different context, where luxury consumers who have strong status and conspicuous consumption attitudes respond most favorably to high-visibility CSR marketing since they are simple to display. Khan and Fazili (2019) found that the great desire to buy phony luxury timepieces as low-cost status symbols is expressed by budget-conscious buyers who yet want social recognition. Chinese consumers’ intention to purchase luxury fashion items increases with the amount of time they spend comparing themselves to their peers, according to Zhang and Kim (2012). Also important is brand design. Han et al., (2010) show that although customers who are less motivated by recognition choose softer marks, status-driven and rich consumers choose loud logos that explicitly express status. Meanwhile, according to Jin, Xu, and Wang (2018) explain this in terms of power - people who feel powerless around those with more status see status items as stronger signals and

therefore are more motivated to invest in them. All in all, these scientists provided a lot of useful insights, and this hypothesis will add more insights to it in an online setting, social media.

H5. Seeking social recognition positively influences consumers' intention to consume a status-signalling brand.

Previous research analyzed how consumers of social media publish online by self-disclosing about themselves, usually in the hopes of gaining social recognition in the form of metrics as likes, comments, or status from others, which in this case is called social recognition which will be presented below. Bazarova and Choi (2014) found that on Facebook, users change the detail and intimacy of their posts to achieve interpersonal aims, thereby getting approval or likability, which are their motivators for further self-disclosure (level of disclosure). A meta-analysis of 62 influencer studies reveals that posts with high “entertainment value”, which frequently means truthful, personal, behind-the-scenes information, generate the most audience interaction, indicating that increased openness consistently generates social feedback (Ao et al. 2023). Sahin and Nasir (2021) discovered that individuals are susceptible to what others think, therefore, they not only purchase status items but also discuss them more on social media. All these findings give a scientific context for the development of this hypothesis, and there's a clear need to test this.

H6. A higher level of self-disclosure on social media positively influences consumers' desire to seek social recognition.

Other academics provide various indicators linking open self-disclosure online to a greater desire to acquire status-indicating goods. According to Lou and Yuan (2019), when followers perceive an influencer's sponsored content to be informed and reliable, the trust they invest in the post increases the brand's visibility and purchase intentions. Husain et al. (2022) found that active social media activity around luxury brands increases respondents' desire to buy them with status consideration. Similarly, with user-generated reviews, including the information increases purchasing likelihood

more than friends' informal suggestions (Erkan & Evans, 2016). Sharing and interpreting status signals together: Persons who are most sensitive to others' opinions talk more about status items and consume more of them overall (Sahin & Nasir 2021). Combined, these findings show that higher degrees of self-disclosure encourage the level of engagement and trust required to take action on status messages, increasing their desire to purchase a brand that signals status. Thus, this hypothesis will fill the gap in the research about the intention to purchase in higher-level self-disclosure on social media, as most of the research has focused on purchase intentions.

H7. A higher level of self-disclosure on social media positively influences consumers' intention to purchase a status-signalling brand.

Different studies have found that people who openly disclose themselves on social media are concerned about how others react and, as a consequence, are more concerned with being perceived positively. Constant sharing users say they spend more time online because the SNS metrics as likes, comments, and other feedback, feel rewarding (Cain, 2021). Teenage females, for example, admit to editing and posting selfies primarily to gain peer acceptance in the form of followers and likes (Chua & Chang, 2016). Similarly, individuals share more private facts on platforms like Facebook in order to acquire interpersonal trust and approval (Bazarova & Choi, 2014). Parallel work on status buying found that the stronger a person's need to impress others, the more likely they are inclined to purchase highly visible, status-signaling brands (Sahin & Nasir, 2021; Zhang & Kim, 2012; Husain et al., 2022). These findings indicate a moderating impact. While individuals already reveal a lot about themselves online, the need for social recognition becomes a strong driver for selecting brands that indicate their status. As a result, the relationship between seeking recognition and the desire to consume status-signaling items should be significantly larger for people who disclose more online than for people who disclose themselves less. There's a gap in research when it comes to this moderation effect.

H8. The level of disclosure on social media positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.

Whenever people compare themselves to others, their need for social recognition leads to intentions to (purchase) consume in symbolic status consumption. The following studies support this idea. Teen females in Singapore said that earning likes and follows motivated them to choose products that would please their peers (Chua & Chang, 2016). In a poll of over 1,000 individuals, those who constantly compare their possessions to others were more interested in brands that demonstrated status (Sahin & Nasir, 2021). A different study discovered that buyers who felt powerless after witnessing higher-status peers were more likely to invest in status products to catch up (Jin et al., 2020). Chinese shoppers who observe what their friends wear have the highest intentions to acquire premium clothes (Zhang & Kim, 2012). These works prove that the more individuals compare themselves to others, the greater the relationship between the want for recognition and the intention to purchase status-signaling products, which moderates this relationship. However, previous studies did not directly analyze this moderation; therefore, additional research is needed.

H9. Comparison with others positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.

The effects are even more vivid in online settings within luxury-fashion communities, a strong sense of symbolic value fosters “brand love,” which provokes public advocacy for the brand to gain admiration from peers (Burnasheva et al., 2019). Similarly, Chua and Chang (2016) found that retouched selfies are published by users to get more likes and followers and great comments; thus they perceive these metrics as real verification that peers recognize and respect them. According to Sahin and Nasir’s (2021) research, consumers who are sensitive to social influence tend to prioritize status and conspicuous purchases. Thus, this suggests that peer acceptance enhances the impact of social-recognition standards. Khan and Fazili (2018) discovered a similar pattern that budget-friendly consumers with a strong demand for status went to counterfeit luxury watches mostly to impress their

circle, rather than to save money. On social media, likes and supportive comments serve as instant approval signals; teenage girls in Singapore said these cues pushed them to polish their selfies and chase peer praise (Chua & Chang, 2016). Likes and supportive feedback on social media are fast acceptance signals for adolescent females in Singapore, and they claimed that they motivated them to improve their selfies and seek peer appreciation (Chua & Chang, 2016). Lou and Yuan (2019) proved similar with their research in the influencers case, where followers' trust and appreciation of an influencer (a type of peer endorsement) foster their purchase intent for the endorsed brand. Finally, Guzmán Rincón et al. (2023) found that in different settings where football fans who seek approval from their peers display higher symbolic consumption and brand loyalty. These results lead the author to analyze the relationship when peer approval matters more, and it positively moderates and positively influences the relationship between "I want recognition" to "I want to purchase this brand," which was not analyzed previously by other authors.

H10. Peer approval positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.

When people constantly compare themselves to others, they develop a need to be seen and recognized, so they look for so-called "signals" that would allow them to acquire that recognition. In China, customers who compared themselves to other trendy peers had greater interest in luxury labels exactly because those products improved their social image (Zhang & Kim, 2012). A survey conducted in Turkiye associated sensitivity to others' opinions with higher status and more conspicuous purchasing, showing that "comparison with others" drives a need for symbolic status (Sahin & Nasir, 2021). Jin et al. (2018) found that when low-power consumers see higher-status individuals, they hurry to acquire status items to close the gap between them. These findings imply that they compare themselves with others in regard to social recognition. All in all, these studies showed that the more people compare themselves with others, the more they want to feel a need for social recognition by society and their circle. However, there's a scientific gap when it comes to the direct analysis of comparison with others and the desire to seek social recognition.

H11. Comparison with others positively influences consumers' desire to seek social recognition.

6.2. Data collection methods and research instruments

Previous studies that analyse status consumption, luxury-brand attitudes, self-disclosure, or influencer effects on social media overwhelmingly rely on online surveys (Chen & Sharma, 2011; Christodoulides et al., 2009; Husain, Ahmad & Khan, 2022; Nadeem et al., 2020; Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007; Ghaisani et al., 2017; Erkan & Evans, 2016). Only some of them adopted on-site field surveys (Truong et al., 2008; Kim & Jang, 2014) or laboratory / MTurk experiments (Jin et al., 2019). In addition to those, there are also some scientific studies that the qualitative type of research such as interviews. Those are in-depth interviews by Djafarova & Rushworth (2017), semi-structured interviews by Bazi et al. (2020), and in-depth interviews by Chua & Chang (2016).

Thus, relying on the comparable research data (shown in Table 2), this research will be conducted using a self-completion online questionnaire spread through different SNS channels and communities. Moreover, an online questionnaire will be created on Google Forms, which is relevant because it is easy to create multi-construct instruments with 7-point Likert items without interviewer bias. **The non-random probability convenience sampling** method will be used in this research due to its popularity among other researchers and studies. The various researchers in comparable fields also have employed the non-probability convenience sampling approach in their research works (Erkan & Evans, 2016; Ghaffar et al., 2016; Ellison, et al., 2007; Truong et al., 2008). Non-probability convenience sampling method was also chosen due to its relevance of to the current study. The quantitative research methodology will be used for analysis of the results using statistics via SPSS software, which will be discussed further in this research. In addition to all of these, the respondents will be informed in the introduction part of the online questionnaire about the anonymity and confidentiality of the research, since this ensures a higher reliability and avoids any ethical concerns of the respondents if they might have. For all the questions, a 7-point Likert scale will be used for all items in the questionnaire to measure the likelihood from I disagree to I agree.

To have the highest construct validity and relevant Cronbach's alpha across previous research, the scientific sources, their classes, and constructs were analyzed. Starting with the first variable that is in the Table 1 below, the perceived reputation of the endorser, the scale created by Ohanian (1990) was used to measure the variable of "perceived reputation of endorser". This study developed a 15-

item semantic differential scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. Following psychometric scale-development procedures, the scale was validated using self-reported measures of intention to purchase and perception of quality for tested products. The resulting scale demonstrated high reliability and validity. The study created a 15-item semantic differential scale to assess celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. Thus, the scale was validated with self-reported measures of intention to purchase and perception of quality for tested goods. Whereas, in the situation of this research, only one dimension of this scale was used, which is trustworthiness. An effort was made to carefully keep the construction items as much as possible, adding context to them. The study's reliability was very high, with a Cronbach's α of 0.89, which is more than 0.7 and is considered reliable; therefore, it is valid and reliable to proceed. The other dimensions of attractiveness and expertise did not really match with the goal of the researcher, particularly in this study, as much as the trustworthiness, which was an exact fit.

The second variable from a conceptual model is brand trust, which is a very popular phenomenon in scientific studies, particularly in the marketing field. The scales by Sahin & Zehir, Kitapci (2011) were decided to be used in this research. This specific study analyzed consumer preferences for experiential appeals and their relationship with brand experiences, satisfaction, trust, and loyalty. The original scales that are used in this study were 39 items, which refer to brand experience, satisfaction, brand trust, and brand loyalty. The only 1 dimension of the scales and 9 items were selected to base the brand trust variable scale of this research, which in the original scale also matches with the brand trust dimension. The brand trust's Cronbach's α was determined as 0.95, which is acceptable to proceed. The brand-trust scale adopted from Sahin et al. (2011) produced a Cronbach's α of 0.95, indicating excellent internal consistency. Although many authors do not support alphas above 0.90 as a possible sign of, whereas some think it's excellent reliability. Although many methodologists consider 0.90 - 0.95 a desirable corridor for Cronbach's alpha. The chosen scale has been validated in branding research, and an alpha of .95 can be seen as desirable evidence of scale precision rather than an indication of redundancy.

Perceived symbolic capital of the brand scales was used from the O'Cass & McEwen (2004) a study, which analyzed the relationship between status consumption and conspicuous consumption. There were 2 dimensions of the construct with 13 items - 6 items for conspicuous consumption and 7 items for status consumption. The status consumption dimension was chosen in this case. The scale was validated and the Cronbach's α is 0.85, which is in the middle of the accepted range and is pretty high. The scale used to measure status consumption in this study was taken from O'Cass & McEwen

(2004), who created a composite measure by combining key items from several established sources, including Eastman et al. (1999) for status consumption, Marcoux et al. (1997), and O’Cass (2000) for self-monitoring. In this study, only the status consumption dimension based on Eastman et al. (1999) was used. This combination was chosen by the researcher since it includes the key aspects with fewer but higher-performing elements. As O’Cass & McEwen (2004) suggest, this fundamental research influenced the development of the composite scale, which had previously been evaluated for content and face validity via expert review (as suggested by Converse & Presser, 1986) and pre-tested focus groups. As O’Cass & McEwen (2004) suggest that these items were tested against particular brand stimuli to determine brand-related symbolic consumption tendencies.

Seeking social recognition scales was adopted from Sahin and Nasir’s (2021) research about This study tested a structural model linking status consumption, conspicuous consumption, and perceived symbolic status using data from an online survey of 990 respondents and SEM via AMOS. The original scales have 5 dimensions and 48 items. The results show that: scale was verified using EFA and CFA. The analysis revealed substantial factor loadings, a KMO of 0.961, and a significant Bartlett’s test ($p < .001$). Reliability was proven ($CR = 0.85$, $AVE > 0.50$), and model fit indices ($CFI = 0.960$, $RMSEA = 0.054$) demonstrated its validity. Specifically for this research, only 1 dimension, “product symbolic status of others” subscale ($\alpha = .870$), as it best fits the definition and analysis of the social recognition aspect relevant to our case scenario in the questionnaire and the aim of the study. Cronbach’s $\alpha = .870$ is very high; therefore, it is reliable to trust and proceed with these scales.

In this study, the “social comparison” variable was used based on a scale developed by Gibbons and Buun’s (1999) Iowa-Netherlands Comparison Orientation Measure (INCOM). It was decided to use a more general scale of social comparison rather than in the context of status consumption one to avoid and replicability between items of other variables. This scale is commonly used to test people’s natural desire to compare themselves to others, a notion based on Social Comparison Theory. The INCOM comprises 11 items, including 6 items focused on ability comparison (“I frequently compare how I am doing socially with other people”) and 5 items focused on opinion comparison (“I often like to find out what others think about a situation I’m in”). Respondents assess each item on a 5-point Likert scale, with higher overall scores suggesting a greater desire to compare oneself to others. The INCOM has strong reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.83$) and a consistent factor structure and validity across various groups, including university students. These characteristics make the INCOM an appropriate and psychometrically sound tool for measuring social comparison in the context of this study.

To measure “peer approval”, the author used 10 items adapted from the study by Auty and Elliott (2001), which is based on Bearden’s (1989) original Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence scale. The original scale included three types of influence: identity, compliance (approval), and informational. In this particular study, the focus is on the peer approval aspect, which is a softer version of compliance and more relevant to social media and brand image behavior. The informational items (like asking for product advice) had low reliability (0.5 and 0.3) in the Auty and Elliott (2001) study. The final 10 are focused on buying items to be liked or approved by others. These items had high internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.84, which showed that the scale is reliable. Thus, this scale is valid because it was derived and motivated based on well-known research of Bearden’s (1989) and has been tested with consumers in a similar symbolic product context.”

To measure self-disclosure on social media, this study adopted a validated scale developed by Gruzd and Hernandez-Garcia (2018), which builds on the multidimensional model of self-disclosure originally proposed by Wheelless (1976). The chosen scale focuses on how individuals express themselves online and includes two key dimensions used in this study: self-disclosure amount and self-disclosure depth. The self-disclosure amount dimension consists of 4 items that assess how frequently a person shares personal information on social media. The self-disclosure depth dimension also includes 4 items, focusing on how intimate or detailed the shared content is – in total, 8 items. The scale was originally tested on a large sample of over 500 active social media users and showed strong psychometric properties. It demonstrated high internal consistency (composite reliability values above 0.80) and good convergent validity ($AVE > 0.50$), confirmed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling with Cronbach’s $\alpha \approx$ of 0.83. Because of the reliability and its specific adaptation for social media contexts, this scale was selected as very suitable for the current research.

The scales for purchase intention in the context of brand signalling about status were measured using a scale originally developed by Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991), which focuses on consumer willingness to buy based on product-related cues such as price and brand. This scale demonstrated excellent internal reliability, with Cronbach’s alpha values of .97 for calculators and .96 for stereo headset players in the original study. Bian and Forsythe (2012) adapted this original scale to the luxury fashion context in their cross-cultural study on purchase intentions toward luxury brands among U.S. and Chinese consumers. They retained the five-item structure and modified item wording to fit luxury goods. Their composite Cronbach’s α is 0.90, which is very high and reliable, supporting that this

research also explores brand purchase intention concerning status signalling on social media; this adapted scale is valid. Despite the too high Cronbach's alpha in the original study, it was chosen to adopt the version from Bian and Forsythe (2012) - 0.90, because it is contextually closer to our setting, which is already validated in consumer status-related purchase decisions.

Table 1

Questionnaire constructs

Variable	Description	Measurement	Reference	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived reputation of endorser	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. My preferred celebrity/influencer appears dependable when giving recommendations. 2. My preferred celebrity/influencer appears honest on social media. 3. My preferred celebrity/influencer seems reliable in their brand promotions. 4. My preferred celebrity/influencer is sincere in their brand promotions. 5. My preferred celebrity/influencer seems trustworthy based on their posts. 	7-point Likert scale	Ohanian, 1990	0.89
Brand Trust	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. My preferred brand takes a good care of me 2. My preferred brand meets my expectations. 3. I feel confident in my preferred brand 4. My preferred brand never disappoints me 5. My preferred brand guarantees satisfaction 6. My preferred brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns 7. I could rely on my preferred brand to solve the problem 8. My preferred brand would make any effort to satisfy me , 9. My preferred brand would compensate me in some way for the problem with the product 	7-point Likert scale	Sahin et al. 2011	0.95
Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is a symbol of success. 2. Is a symbol of prestige. 3. Indicates wealth. 4. Indicates achievement. 5. Attracts people who are interested in status. 6. Reflects that status is important to me. 7. Enhances my image. 	7-point Likert scale	Eastman et al. 1999 (adopted by O'Cass & McEwen, 2004)	0.85

Table 1 continuation

<p>Seeking for social recognition</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Using these products and brands makes me feel good about myself. 2. When others see me using these products and brands in social environments, it reveals information about my lifestyle. 3. Using these products and brands creates a good impression on others about me. 4. When I use these products and brands, I become visible to others' eyes in social environments. 5. These products and brands reflect the kind of person I see myself to be. 6. These products and brands would help me to feel accepted in social environments. 7. Using these products or brands helps me to express my style. 8. I feel proud to use these products and brands. 9. When I use these products and brands, others think I am a successful person. 10. Owning these products and brands improves my self-image. 11. These products and brands enhance my social status in the eyes of others. 	<p>7-point Likert scale</p>	<p>Sahin & Nasir, 2021</p>	<p>0.87</p>
<p>Comparison with others</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I often compare how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members, etc.) are doing with how others are doing 2. I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things 3. If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done with how others have done 4. I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, popularity) with other people 5. I am not the type of person who compares often with others (reversed) 6. I often compare myself with others with respect to what I have accomplished in life 7. I often like to talk with others about mutual opinions and experiences 8. I often try to find out what others think who face similar problems as I face 9. I always like to know what others in a similar situation would do 10. If I want to learn more about something, I try to find out what others think about it 11. I never consider my situation in life relative to that of other people (reversed) 	<p>7-point Likert scale</p>	<p>Gibbons & Buunk, 1999</p>	<p>0.83</p>

Table 1 continuation

<p>Peer approval</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I get a sense of belonging by buying the same products and brands that others do 2. If other people can see me using the product, I often buy the brand they expect me to buy 3. When buying things, I generally buy brands that I think others will approve of 4. It is important that others like the products and brands that I buy 5. I often identify with other people by buying the same products and brands they do 6. I rarely buy the latest fashion styles until I am sure my friends approve of them 7. If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy 8. To make sure I buy the right product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using 9. If I don't have much experience with a product, I often ask my friends about it 10. I frequently get information from friends or family about a product before I buy 	<p>7-point Likert scale</p>	<p>Auty & Elliott, 2001; Bearde, 1989</p>	<p>0.84</p>
<p>Level of self-disclosure on social media</p>	<p>Self-disclosure amount</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I do not often talk about myself on social media 2. I usually talk about myself on social media for fairly long periods 3. I often discuss my feelings about myself on social media 4. I often express my personal beliefs and opinions on social media <p>Self-disclosure depth</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. I would intimately, openly, and fully disclose who I really am in my post on social media 6. I typically reveal information about myself on social media without intending to 7. I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on social media without hesitation 8. When I post about myself on social media, the posts are fairly detailed 	<p>7-point Likert scale</p>	<p>Gruzd & Hernandez-García, 2018</p>	<p>0.83</p>
<p>Intention to purchase brand signalling about status</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If I were going to purchase a luxury product, I would consider buying this brand 2. If I were shopping for a luxury brand, the likelihood I would purchase this luxury brand is high. 3. My willingness to buy this luxury brand would be high if I were shopping for a luxury brand. 4. The probability I would consider buying this luxury brand is high. 	<p>7-point Likert scale</p>	<p>Bian & Forsythe, 2012 adopted originally from Dodds et al., 1991</p>	<p>0.90</p>

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

6.3. Selection of respondents

For this specific study target sample size was set at **n=220**. This decision is based on comparable research examples, which have already been shown to be valid, and on an adequate number of respondents to analyze this topic. Below is a (Table 2) of 17 studies that focus on related topics, such as status consumption, luxury branding, peer influence, self-disclosure on social media, and celebrity endorsement, already shown that their sample sizes range from 72 to 439 participants, with an average of 227 respondents. For instance, Jin et al. (2019) used a sample of 104 in an Instagram-based experimental study, while Kim and Jang (2014) collected data from 330 luxury cafe consumers to understand Generation Y's status consumption behaviors. Other studies, like Christodoulides et al. (2009) and Sahin et al. (2011), used samples of 260 and 258, respectively. Thus, in more time, these numbers support the idea that aiming for around 220 responses is reasonable and has been tested in academic research on similar topics and scope. A target respondent will be 18 years old and above because there could be ethical and parental confirmation issues if involving a teenager. To avoid this scenario, the age range was chosen as 18-55+. This means there is no criterion for a segmented sample, no manipulation will be applied, and no control or segmentations will be applied for the data collection method. Also, one of the criteria for sending the survey will be English speakers, since the survey will be in English. The research will be conducted as part of a master's thesis, with data collection online (in Facebook communities, Instagram, WhatsApp chat groups, individual chats, and student communities of undergraduate and graduate students, employees, etc.). The **non-probability convenience sampling** method will be implemented for this research. Similarly, the same approach was implemented in most of the reviewed studies in the table below. However, this sampling technique does not guarantee full representativeness as a probability technique; it is used by many researchers, especially in online surveys, as is also shown in Table 2. Additionally, the author ensures diversity in the sample by distributing the survey across various online communities to avoid over-representation of certain demographic groups, such as one gender or age group. Therefore, setting a goal of approximately 220 responses is both methodologically justified and practically achievable. The number of samples could be larger, too, but given the time constraints of implementing this research, the most feasible number of respondents was determined.

Table 2.

Comparable Research sampling method

No.	Author	Type of questionnaire	Sampling approach	Sample size
1	Bradley et al., 2019	Online conjoint experiment	Non-probability	72
2	Chen & Sharma, 2011	Online survey	Non-probability	222
3	Christodoulides et al., 2009	Online survey	Non-probability (snowball)	260
4	Husain et al., 2022	Online survey	Non-probability (snowball)	453
5	Jin, et al., 2019	MTurk-based experiment	Non-probability (volunteer)	104
6	Nadeem et al., 2020	Online questionnaire	Non-probability (purposive)	189
7	Truong et al., 2008	Field survey (mall intercept)	Non-probability (convenience)	204
8	Bazi et al., 2020	Semi-structured interviews	Purposive (qualitative)	25
9	Chua & Chang., 2016	In-depth interviews	Purposive (qualitative)	24
10	Degutis et al., 2023	Online CAWI survey	Non-probability	439
11	Djafarova & Rushworth (2017)	In-depth interviews	Purposive (qualitative)	18
12	Ellison et al., (2007)	Online student survey	Non-probability (convenience)	286
13	Ghaisani et al., (2017)	Online survey	Non-probability (purposive)	255
14	Ghaffar et al. (2016)	Paper / online questionnaire	Non-probability (convenience)	340
15	Kim & Jang (2014)	In-cafe self-administered survey	Non-probability (systematic convenience)	330
16	Sahin et al., (2011)	Field survey (random street intercept)	Probability (simple random)	258
17	Erkan & Evans (2016)	Online survey (university students)	Non-probability (convenience)	384
Average of sample size:				227

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Sample size justification

The required sample size was estimated using the following formula (Equation 1):

$$\text{(Equation 1) } n = (z^2 * p * (1 - p)) / e^2$$

In the formula, n represents sample size;

- z is the standard error associated with the selected confidence level;
- p is the estimated proportion in the population;
- e is the acceptable sampling error (margin of error).

In this study, the achieved sample size was $n = 236$. Because the true population proportion for the global 18+ population is unknown, a conservative estimate $p = 0.5$ was used. With a 95% confidence level ($z = 1.96$), the margin of error for the achieved sample size was calculated as:

$$e = z * \sqrt{p * (1 - p) / n}$$

$$e = 1.96 * \sqrt{0.5 * (1 - 0.5) / 236}$$

$$e = 1.96 * \sqrt{0.25 / 236}$$

$$e \approx 0.064$$

Thus, the achieved margin of error is approximately 6.4% at the 95% confidence level, indicating that the sample size is adequate for the planned statistical analyses.

6.4. The scope of research

This study aims to analyze the social symbolic values perceived through social media to purchase a variety of product categories, including perceived status and self-expression. In addition, it focuses on the brand in the specific case of this research; a fashion brand was chosen. Although the fashion brand Tommy Hilfiger and celebrity Rihanna were used as imaginary examples in the questionnaires to ensure familiarity and clarity for respondents, the research is not limited to the fashion industry. Rather, the results can be generalized to symbolic products such as cosmetics, hospitality services, accessories, and other items worn or purchased to showcase status. The focus is not on product categories or platforms, but rather on understanding how status-related signals in a social media environment construct consumer attitudes and behavior. The results can therefore be generalized beyond the fashion industry to broader contexts of symbolic consumption.

When it comes to theoretical grounding, this study is grounded in 3 known theories of marketers and sociologists: the TRA, TPB, and Social Capital Theory. By using a mix of these, the research aims to analyze how symbolic signals might impact users' psychological thinking and behavioral intentions related to the intention to purchase and consume a brand in the context of social media. The previous research in this sector has not really analyzed this topic specifically in the aspects of social media. The data is planned to be collected in the 3rd quarter of 2025 through an online questionnaire. A non-probability convenience sampling will be used. There are no limitations when it comes to the country of the respondents or their culture. The data is aimed to be collected around the world across

social media users aged 18 and more. To ensure the accuracy of the respondents, the study included screening questions about age, and a second question was added to determine whether the respondent uses at least 1 social media channel, since this study focuses on the SNS context. Using social media, although here does not only mean being active there, scrolling, going to social media to see trends, see what others post as family, friends and following some celebrities is also considered a social media user.

In terms of the applicability of this study in real-world settings, such as business management and marketing fields, the study gives valuable insights into how the perceived symbolic value of a brand, social comparison, peer approval of a social circle, and brand trust can be used to increase purchase intention. Thus, the final findings can help marketers, brand managers, communication specialists, and creative teams to make more effective influencer marketing strategies, marketing campaigns, commercial collaborations with celebrities, and content formats that meet audience experience for social recognition in society. In addition to understanding consumer psychology, attitudes, preferences, and behavior before purchasing a brand signalling about status. All in all, the research aims to bridge the gap between theory and real marketing challenges in the 21st-century digital age.

7. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH

7.1. Demographic characteristics of the survey respondents

The online survey was conducted via Google Forms, and 307 people completed it. Out of 307 people, 235 were left after filtering and cleaning the data to retain only the answers a researcher needs. Thus, the initial sample size of $n=220$ was based on similar studies in the field, and according to the equational formula, everything fits the criteria for conducting an online survey. The reason why 72 people's survey results were not included in the analysis of this research is either an age limitation in the filter question, they did not pass, or they did not know the brand, which is the focus of this research.

Gender:

Out of 236 people, 67.70% were women, 29.40% were men, and 3% were in another category. Table 3 shows the percentages for each gender, and Annex 1 includes a pie chart to support the visual representation of respondents' gender.

Table 3

Respondents' distribution of gender

Gender	Women	Men	Other
Percentage	67.70%	29.40%	3.00%

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Age:

This research had only one restriction regarding respondent age: a filter question was included as the first question in the online survey. Due to ethical considerations, the minimum age to allow respondents to complete the survey was set to 18+. Consequently, respondents who did not match this criterion were unable to pass and move to another section of the survey.

Table 4

Respondents' distribution by age categories

Age Category	18–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55+
Percentage	60.68%	30.77%	6.41%	0.85%	1.28%

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

According to (Table 4), the majority of respondents who passed the survey were young adults who either finished college, high school, or some degree of university (higher education). Meanwhile, 30.77% of respondents were in the category of (25-34). And others (35-44) at 6.41% and only 1.28% of respondents were 55+.

Level of education:

For descriptive statistics, residents’ level of education was also analyzed in Table 5.

Table 5

Respondents’ level of education

Level of education of respondent	Percentage
Less than high school	3.80%
High school diploma or equivalent	16.20%
Some college (no degree)	9.40%
Bachelor’s degree	34.00%
Master’s degree	31.50%
Doctoral degree (PhD, EdD, etc.)	4.70%

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Most respondents had higher education. The largest group held a Bachelor’s degree (34.0%), followed closely by those with a Master’s degree (31.5%). Smaller shares reported a high school diploma or equivalent (16.2%) or some college without a degree (9.4%). Significantly fewer respondents reported less than a high school degree (3.8%) or a doctoral degree (4.7%), indicating the sample was primarily composed of university-educated participants.

Country of residence:

Respondents represented a range of countries, with Azerbaijan and Lithuania forming the two largest single-country groups (as shown in the country-of-residence Table 6).

Table 6

Country of residence of respondents

Country group	Percentage
Azerbaijan	37.45%
Lithuania	20.51%
Other EU	11.16%
Non-EU	31.47%

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The country-of-residence (Table 6) shows that the sample was dominated by two countries: Azerbaijan (51.9%) and Lithuania (28.1%). The remaining respondents were spread across many countries, each representing only a small share of the sample. Among the largest of these smaller groups were the USA (3.4%), Germany (2.1%), and Italy (2.1%), while Poland (1.3%), France (1.3%), and Russia (1.3%) each accounted for around one to two percent. Several additional countries appeared with very small counts (for example, Hungary: 2 respondents, 0.9%). Because very small numbers represented most countries outside Azerbaijan and Lithuania, they were aggregated into broader categories to make the descriptive results more straightforward: Azerbaijan (37.45%), Lithuania (20.51%), Other EU (11.16%), and Non-EU (31.47%). A complete list of the countries included in the “Other EU” and “Non-EU” groups is provided in the Annex for transparency and more straightforward interpretation.

Social media platforms:

To understand respondents’ popularity of social media platforms, the question “Select all that apply to you” (multiple response) was asked. Table 7 shows the results.

Table 7

Social media platforms used by respondents

Platform	% of respondents (selected platform)
Instagram	83.83%
TikTok	46.38%
Facebook	35.32%
YouTube	66.81%
Twitter/X	23.83%
LinkedIn	5.11%
Pinterest	0.85%
Reddit	0.85%
Telegram	1.28%
Snapchat	0.43%
WhatsApp	0.43%
Other	2.13%

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Respondents reported using a wide range of social media platforms, with usage strongly concentrated in a few dominant services. Instagram was the most frequently used platform (83.83% of respondents), followed by YouTube (66.81%) and TikTok (46.38%). Facebook remained relatively common (35.32%), while Twitter/X was used by about one quarter of the sample (23.83%). All other platforms were mentioned only rarely; LinkedIn was selected by 5.11% of respondents, and the remaining options each accounted for very small shares (Pinterest and Reddit 0.85% each; Telegram 1.28%; Snapchat and WhatsApp 0.4% each). A small proportion of respondents reported using other platforms not listed in the main options (2.13%).

7.2. Reliability of scales and tests for normality

Internal consistency of the multi-item constructs was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (N = 236). Overall, the scales demonstrated good to excellent reliability (Table 8). Perceived reputation of the endorser ($\alpha = 0.913$; 5 items), perceived symbolic capital ($\alpha = 0.917$; 7 items), seeking social recognition ($\alpha = 0.961$; 11 items), trust in the brand ($\alpha = 0.950$; 9 items), and intention to purchase a status-signalling brand ($\alpha = 0.929$; 4 items) all showed excellent internal consistency. Level of disclosure on social media also showed good reliability ($\alpha = 0.838$; 8 items). Peer approval had acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.780$; 10 items), and comparison with others showed good reliability ($\alpha = 0.842$; 11 items). Given these results, all constructs were used for further analysis.

Table 8

Reliability analysis

Scale	Sample size	Number of items per scale	Cronbach alpha
Perceived reputation of endorser	236	5	0,913
Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	236	7	0,917
Seeking for social recognition	236	11	0,961
Trust in brand	236	9	0,950
Level of disclosure on social media	236	8	0,838
Peer approval	236	10	0,780
Comparison with others	236	11	0,842
Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	236	4	0,929

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics for the composite variables (N = 236) indicate moderate average levels across constructs.

Table 9

Descriptive statistics of constructs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Peer approval	236	3,8754	1,09089	,254	,158	-,332	,316
Comparison with others	236	4,3270	1,09821	-,355	,158	-,058	,316
Level of disclosure on social media	236	3,1435	1,32834	,956	,158	,473	,316
Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	236	4,2651	1,46320	-,072	,158	-,496	,316
Trust in brand	236	4,0244	1,51973	,042	,158	-,322	,316
Perceived reputation of endorser	236	4,4212	1,37419	-,149	,158	,074	,316
Seeking for social recognition	236	3,9707	1,53864	-,067	,158	-,726	,316
Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	236	4,1653	1,68290	-,138	,158	-,826	,316
Valid N (listwise)	236						

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Peer approval (M = 3.88, SD = 1.09) and level of disclosure on social media (M = 3.14, SD = 1.33) were below the midpoint of the 7-point scale. Comparison with others (M = 4.33, SD = 1.10), perceived symbolic capital (M = 4.27, SD = 1.46), trust in brand (M = 4.02, SD = 1.52), perceived reputation of endorser (M = 4.42, SD = 1.37), seeking social recognition (M = 3.97, SD = 1.54), and intention to purchase (M = 4.17, SD = 1.68) were around the mid-point, suggesting neither very low nor very high endorsement overall. Standard deviations across constructs (approximately 1.09 to 1.68) indicate meaningful variability in respondents' evaluations.

Normality was assessed using skewness and kurtosis for each construct. Where most constructs showed skewness and kurtosis values close to zero, indicating approximately symmetric distributions. Level of disclosure on social media showed the most significant positive skewness (skewness = 0.956), suggesting that many respondents reported relatively low disclosure, while fewer

reported very high disclosure. The remaining constructs showed only small departures from normality (skewness values roughly between -0.36 and 0.25 , and kurtosis values generally between -0.83 and 0.47), which are considered acceptable for parametric analyses in social science research.

Furthermore, with a sample size of 236, minor deviations from normality are not problematic for analysis. According to the central limit theorem, increasing the sample size makes the sampling distribution of the mean more closely resemble a normal distribution, regardless of whether the raw data are skewed or irregular (Sheposh, 2024). In regression-based hypothesis testing, the key assumption concerns the approximate normality of residuals rather than the perfect normality of the observed variables. Therefore, given the sample size and the observed skewness and kurtosis, the data were considered suitable for parametric analyses regression, and moderation/mediation testing). SPSS – a statistical software tool by IBM (International Business Machines Corporation) was used to analyze the data for normality, reliability, and regression, moderation, and mediation analyses.

7.3. Testing of research hypotheses

7.3.1 Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on intention to purchase (H1)

To test H1, a simple linear regression analysis was conducted in which intention to purchase brand signaling about status was used as the dependent variable and the endorser's perceived reputation as the predictor. Thus, the regression model was statistically significant, indicating that perceived reputation is significantly related to purchase intention.

Table 10

Coefficients (H1)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,757	,332		5,294	<,001
	Percieved reputation of endorser	,545	,072	,445	7,597	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: intention to purchase brand signalling about status

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results indicated a positive, statistically significant effect of perceived reputation on the intention to purchase ($B = 0.545$, $SE = 0.072$, $\beta = 0.445$, $t = 7.597$, $p < .001$). This means that a higher perceived reputation of the endorser is associated with a higher intention to purchase the brand. The model explained 19.8% of the variance in intention to purchase ($R^2 = 0.198$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.194$), suggesting moderate explanatory power for a single-predictor model (More data is provided in Appendix 11).

Therefore, **H1 is confirmed.**

7.3.2. Brand trust as a mediator between symbolic capital and intention to purchase (H2)

To analyze whether brand trust mediates the relationship between perceived symbolic capital and intention to purchase, a mediation analysis was conducted using PROCESS (Model 4) on SPSS with 5000 bootstrap samples and a 95% confidence interval. This approach was used because mediation requires testing both the direct and indirect pathways between variables.

Table 11*Mediation results (H2)*

Effect / Path	Outcome	Predictor	b	SE	t	p	95% CI (LLCI, ULCI)
a path (X → M)	Trust in brand	Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	0.7798	0.0448	17.3894	< .001	[0.6915, 0.8682]
b path (M → Y, controlling X)	Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	Trust in brand	0.4811	0.0812	5.9281	< .001	[0.3212, 0.6410]
c' direct (X → Y, controlling M)	Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	0.3259	0.0843	3.8666	.0001	[0.1599, 0.4920]
c total (X → Y)	Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	0.7012	0.0596	11.7641	< .001	[0.5837, 0.8186]
Indirect (a × b)	Intention to purchase brand signalling about status	via Trust in brand	0.3752	0.0797 (BootSE)	[0.2172, 0.5339]		

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Firstly, perceived symbolic capital of the brand significantly predicted trust in brand ($b = 0.7798$, $SE = 0.0448$, $t = 17.3894$, $p < .001$), indicating that higher perceived symbolic capital is associated with greater trust in brand. Secondly, when both perceived symbolic capital of the brand and trust in brand were entered into the model predicting intention to purchase brand signalling about status, trust in brand remained a significant predictor ($b = 0.4811$, $SE = 0.0812$, $t = 5.9281$, $p < .001$). Also, perceived symbolic capital of the brand remained significant in this model (direct effect: $b = 0.3259$, $SE = 0.0843$, $t = 3.8666$, $p = .0001$), but its coefficient decreased relative to the total effect model, consistent with mediation.

Most importantly, the indirect effect of symbolic capital on intention to purchase through brand trust was statistically significant (indirect effect = 0.3752; 95% bootstrap CI [0.2172, 0.5339]). Since the confidence interval does not include zero, mediation is supported. Because the direct effect remained significant, the mediation can be interpreted as **partial**. (More data is provided in Appendix 12).

Therefore, **H2 is confirmed**.

7.3.3. Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on perceived symbolic capital (H3)

To test H3, a simple linear regression was conducted with perceived symbolic capital as the dependent variable and the endorser's perceived reputation as the independent variable. As a result, the regression model was statistically significant and showed a clear positive relationship between the variables.

Table 12

Coefficients (H3)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,672	,269		6,218	<,001
	Percieved reputation of endorser	,587	,058	,551	10,096	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: percieved symbolic capital of the brand

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results demonstrated that perceived reputation significantly and positively predicted the brand's perceived symbolic capital ($B = 0.587$, $SE = 0.058$, $\beta = 0.551$, $t = 10.096$, $p < .001$). In reality, participants who evaluated the endorser as more reputable also tended to perceive the brand as having higher perceived symbolic value. The explanatory power of the model was relatively strong for a single predictor, with $R^2 = 0.303$ (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.300$), meaning that about 30.3% of the variance in symbolic capital was explained by endorser reputation (More data is provided in Appendix 13).

Therefore, **H3 was confirmed.**

7.3.4 Impact of perceived symbolic capital on seeking social recognition (H4)

To examine H4, a simple linear regression was conducted where seeking social recognition was treated as the dependent variable and perceived symbolic capital as the independent predator). This analysis aimed to understand whether perceived symbolic meaning or status perceptions of the brand lead to a stronger desire for recognition from others.

Table 13*Coefficients (H4)*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,813	,220		3,695	<,001
	Perceived symbolic capital of the brand	,740	,049	,704	15,163	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: seeking for social recognition

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The findings showed that symbolic capital significantly predicted seeking social recognition in a positive direction ($B = 0.740$, $SE = 0.049$, $\beta = 0.704$, $t = 15.163$, $p < .001$). As seen from Table 13, the standardized coefficient shows a strong relationship, suggesting that the perceived symbolic capital of the brand is an important driver of social recognition motives in this sample. The model explained a large proportion of variance ($R^2 = 0.496$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.493$), meaning that nearly half of the differences in social recognition seeking could be accounted for by perceived symbolic capital of the brand alone (More data is provided in Appendix 14).

Therefore, **H4 was confirmed.**

7.3.5 Impact of seeking social recognition on intention to purchase (H5)

For H5, a simple linear regression was conducted intention to purchase brand signalling about status as the dependent variable and seeking social recognition as the independent variable. The goal was to analyze whether the motivation to gain recognition from other people is directly related to stronger purchase intentions of the brand which signals status.

Table 14*Coefficients (H5)*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,178	,221		5,332	<,001
	Seeking social recognition	,752	,052	,688	14,494	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: intention to purchase brand signalling about status

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results showed that seeking social recognition had a positive and statistically significant effect on intention to purchase brand signalling about status ($B = 0.752$, $SE = 0.052$, $\beta = 0.688$, $t = 14.494$, $p < .001$). Consequently, this concludes that participants who reported a stronger desire for social recognition also reported higher intention to purchase the status-signaling brand. The model explained 47.3% of the variance in purchase intention ($R^2 = 0.473$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.471$), indicating significant explanatory power for a single predictor model (More data are provided in Appendix 15).

Therefore, **H5 was confirmed.**

7.3.6 Impact of self-disclosure on seeking social recognition (H6)

To test H6, a simple linear regression was conducted with seeking social recognition as the dependent variable and level of self-disclosure on social media as the independent variable ($N = 236$). Thus, the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 234) = 78.474$, $p < .001$, indicating that the level of self-disclosure on social media explains a substantial share of the variation in seeking social recognition. The model showed a moderate relationship ($R = .501$) and explained 25.1% of the variance in seeking social recognition ($R^2 = .251$; Adjusted $R^2 = .248$) (see Appendix 16 for more data).

Table 15

Coefficients (H6)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,146	,224		9,599	<,001
	Level of self disclosure on social media	,580	,066	,501	8,859	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: Seeking social recognition

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The coefficient results showed a positive and significant effect of level of self-disclosure on social media on seeking social recognition ($B = 0.580$, $SE = 0.066$, $\beta = .501$, $t = 8.859$, $p < .001$). This means that, on average, a one-unit increase in self-disclosure is associated with a 0.58 increase in the desire for social recognition.

Therefore, **H6 is supported (confirmed).**

7.3.7 Impact of self-disclosure on intention to purchase (H7)

In order to test H7, a simple linear regression was conducted. The dependent variable in the analysis was participants' intention to purchase a brand signalling about the status, while the independent variable was the extent of self-disclosure on social media. This analysis aimed to understand whether individuals who disclose more on social media also report stronger purchase intention toward the brand.

Table 16

Coefficients (H7)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,716	,263		10,321	<,001
	Level of self disclosure on social media	,461	,077	,364	5,975	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase brand signalling about status

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results revealed a positive, statistically significant relationship ($B = 0.461$, $SE = 0.077$, $\beta = 0.364$, $t = 5.975$, $p < .001$), indicating that higher levels of self-disclosure on social media are associated with greater purchase intention. The explained variance was lower than in other models ($R^2 = 0.132$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.129$), indicating that self-disclosure accounts for approximately 13.2% of the variation in purchase intention (see Appendix 17 for more data). Despite the lower explained variance, the effect remains statistically significant and is consistent with the hypothesized direction.

Therefore, **H7 was confirmed.**

7.3.8 Moderating role of self-disclosure (H8)

A moderation analysis was conducted using PROCESS (Model 1) to examine whether self-disclosure moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and purchase intention. The regression model was statistically significant overall ($R = 0.6936$, $R^2 = 0.4811$, $F(3,232) = 71.7095$, $p < .001$), indicating that the predictors accounted for a substantial proportion of variance in purchase intention.

According to the model results (Table 17), seeking social recognition exerted a positive and significant effect on purchase intention ($b = 0.5339$, $SE = 0.1261$, $t = 4.2331$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.2854, 0.7823]). In contrast, the level of self-disclosure was not a significant predictor ($b = -0.2815$,

SE = 0.1840, $t = -1.5297$, $p = .1275$, 95% CI [-0.6441, 0.0811]). The interaction term (seeking social recognition \times self-disclosure) was not statistically significant ($b = 0.0655$, SE = 0.0356, $t = 1.8407$, $p = .0669$, 95% CI [-0.0046, 0.1357]), indicating that the strength of the relationship between social recognition and purchase intention did not significantly differ across levels of self-disclosure. In addition to that, the interaction contributed only a small and non-significant increase in explained variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.0076$, $F = 3.3883$, $p = .0669$, Table 17).

Table 17

Moderation analysis (H8)

Block	Predictor / Test	B	SE	t	p	95% CI (LLCI, ULCI)	ΔR^2	F (ΔR^2)	df 1	df2
Main effects	Constant	2.0454	0.5518	3.7069	0.0003	[0.9583, 3.1325]				
Main effects	Seeking social recognition (soc_rec)	0.5339	0.1261	4.2331	< 0.001	[0.2854, 0.7823]				
Main effects	Self-disclosure (discl)	-0.2815	0.1840	-1.5297	0.1275	[-0.6441, 0.0811]				
Interaction	soc_rec \times discl	0.0655	0.0356	1.8407	0.0669	[-0.0046, 0.1357]	0.0076	3.3883	1	232
Model fit: $R = 0.6936$, $R^2 = 0.4811$, $F(3,232) = 71.7095$, $p < 0.001$, $MSE = 1.4885$.										

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

Although conditional effects demonstrated that seeking social recognition remained positively associated with purchase intention at low, medium, and high levels of self-disclosure (Table 17), the non-significant interaction suggests that these differences were insufficient to support moderation (see Appendix 18 for more data).

Therefore, **H8 was rejected**.

7.3.9 Moderating role of social comparison (H9)

To test H9, which looks at whether social comparison moderates the relationship, a moderation analysis was run using PROCESS Macro (Model 1). Purchase intention was the dependent variable, seeking social recognition was the independent variable, and social comparison was the moderator ($N = 236$). In this type of analysis, the main focus is on the interaction term (seeking social recognition \times social comparison), as it shows whether the effect of seeking social recognition on purchase intention varies with a person's level of social comparison

Table 18*Moderation analysis (H9)*

Block	Predictor / Test	B	SE	t	p	95% CI (LLCI, ULCI)	ΔR^2	F (ΔR^2)	df 1	df2
Main effects	Constant	1.7289	0.8084	2.1386	0.0335	[0.1361, 3.3217]				
Main effects	Seeking social recognition (soc_rec)	0.6788	0.2102	3.2291	0.0014	[0.2646, 1.0930]				
Main effects	Social comparison (comp)	-0.1508	0.1930	-0.7813	0.4354	[-0.5311, 0.2295]				
Interaction	soc_rec \times comp	0.0218	0.0451	0.4842	0.6287	[-0.0670, 0.1106]	0.0005	0.2345	1	232
Model fit: $R = 0.6892$, $R^2 = 0.4750$, $F(3,232) = 69.9715$, $p < 0.001$, $MSE = 1.5061$.										

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results show (Table 18) that seeking social recognition had a positive and significant effect on purchase intention ($B = 0.6788$, $SE = 0.2102$, $t = 3.2291$, $p = 0.0014$, 95% CI [0.2646, 1.0930]). Social comparison, on its own, was not a significant predictor of purchase intention ($B = -0.1508$, $SE = 0.1930$, $t = -0.7813$, $p = 0.4354$, 95% CI [-0.5311, 0.2295]). The interaction between seeking social recognition and social comparison was also not significant ($B = 0.0218$, $SE = 0.0451$, $t = 0.4842$, $p = 0.6287$, 95% CI [-0.0670, 0.1106]). The change in explained variance from the interaction term was very small and not significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.0005$, $F = 0.2345$, $p = 0.6287$). In total, the model explained 47.5% of the variance in purchase intention ($R = 0.6892$, $R^2 = 0.4750$, $F(3,232) = 69.9715$, $p < 0.001$) (see Appendix 19 for more data).

These results suggest that while seeking social recognition predicts purchase intention, this effect does not change much at different levels of social comparison.

As a result, **H9 was rejected.**

7.3.10 Moderating role of peer approval (H10)

To test H10, a moderation analysis was run using PROCESS (Model 1). This analysis examined whether peer approval affects the strength of the association between seeking social recognition and the intention to buy a status-signalling brand. In these models, the main focus is on the interaction term (seeking social recognition \times peer approval), which shows if the effect of the predictor changes at different levels of the moderator.

Table 19*Moderation analysis (H10)*

Block	Predictor / test	B	SE	t	p	95% CI (LLCI, ULCI)	ΔR^2	F (ΔR^2)	df 1	df2
Main effects	Constant	2.2961	0.8074	2.8438	0.0049	[0.7053, 3.8869]				
Main effects	Seeking social recognition (soc_rec)	0.5012	0.1841	2.7223	0.0070	[0.1385, 0.8640]				
Main effects	Peer approval (peerap)	-0.3159	0.2279	-1.3860	0.1671	[-0.7650, 0.1332]				
Interaction	soc_rec × peerap	0.0676	0.0460	1.4681	0.1434	[-0.0231, 0.1582]	0.0048	2.1552	1	232
Model fit: R = 0.6913, R ² = 0.4779, F(3,232) = 70.7959, p < 0.001, MSE = 1.4977.										

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

The results show that seeking social recognition is positively and significantly linked to purchase intention ($b = 0.5012$, $SE = 0.1841$, $t = 2.7223$, $p = 0.0070$, 95% CI [0.1385, 0.8640]). This means that people who want social recognition are more likely to say they intend to buy the brand. On the other hand, peer approval was not a significant independent predictor of purchase intention ($b = -0.3159$, $SE = 0.2279$, $t = -1.3860$, $p = 0.1671$, 95% CI [-0.7650, 0.1332]). This means peer approval does not directly explain differences in purchase intention in this model.

Most importantly, the moderation effect was not found. Thus, the interaction between seeking social recognition and peer approval was not significant ($b = 0.0676$, $SE = 0.0460$, $t = 1.4681$, $p = 0.1434$, 95% CI [-0.0231, 0.1582]). Also, the increase in explained variance from the interaction was small and not significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.0048$, $F = 2.1552$, $p = 0.1434$). This means that the effect of seeking social recognition on purchase intention does not change much at different levels of peer approval.

The overall model was statistically significant ($R = 0.6913$, $R^2 = 0.4779$, $F(3,232) = 70.7959$, $p < 0.001$, $MSE = 1.4977$), indicating that it explains a large portion of the variance in purchase intention (see Appendix 20 for more data).

However, since the interaction effect was not significant, **H10 was rejected**.

7.3.11 Impact of comparison with others on seeking social recognition (H11)

A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to test H11, with seeking social recognition as the dependent variable and comparison with others as the independent variable.

Table 20*Coefficients (H11)*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,912	,353		2,583	,010
	Comparison with others	,707	,079	,505	8,940	<,001

a. Dependent Variable: Seeking for social recognition

Source: made by the author according to statistical analysis

According to the obtained results, comparison with others is a positive and statistically significant predictor of seeking social recognition. Specifically, the regression coefficient indicates that higher levels of comparison with others are associated with greater seeking of social recognition ($b = 0.707$, $SE = 0.079$, $t = 8.940$, $p < 0.001$). The standardized coefficient also supports a relatively strong relationship ($\beta = 0.505$), indicating that an increase in social comparison is associated with a meaningful increase in the tendency to seek social recognition.

The constant was also statistically significant ($b = 0.912$, $SE = 0.353$, $t = 2.583$, $p = 0.010$), which represents the expected level of seeking social recognition when comparison with others is at zero (mainly a statistical baseline, not usually interpreted in depth unless “zero” is meaningful in the scale). All in all, these findings support the hypothesis 11 that individuals who compare themselves more strongly are more likely to seek social recognition (see Appendix 21 for more data).

Therefore, **H11 was confirmed**

7.4. Discussion

After the presentation of the statistical analysis results, it can be concluded that of the 11 hypotheses (8 linear regressions, 1 mediation), nine were accepted, whereas 3 moderation hypotheses were rejected.

Table 21

Summary of statistical findings

Hypothesis	Analysis type	Result
H1. The perceived reputation of the brand endorser/person positively influences a person's intention to purchase the brand.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H2. Trust in the brand mediates the relationship between perceived symbolic capital and consumers' intention to purchase a status-signaling brand.	Mediation	Confirmed
H3. The perceived reputation of the endorser/person positively influences consumers' perceived symbolic capital of the brand.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H4. Perceived symbolic capital of the brand positively influences consumers' desire to seek social recognition.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H5. Seeking social recognition positively influences consumers' intention to consume a status-signalling brand.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H6. A higher level of self-disclosure on social media positively influences consumers' desire to seek social recognition.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H7. A higher level of self-disclosure on social media positively influences consumers' intention to purchase a status-signalling brand.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed
H8. The level of disclosure on social media positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.	Moderation	Rejected
H9. Comparison with others positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.	Moderation	Rejected
H10. Peer approval positively moderates the relationship between seeking social recognition and intention to purchase.	Moderation	Rejected
H11. Comparison with others positively influences consumers' desire to seek social recognition.	Simple linear regression	Confirmed

But it is not enough to conclude the results without linking them to the earlier-mentioned studies and the grounded theory used to conduct this scientific research.

This study looked at how customers' intentions to buy a status-signalling brand - in this case, Tommy Hilfiger - are influenced by social media-related status-signalling processes. The suggested model integrated ideas from symbolic capital and social capital theory (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) with the logic of consumer behavior that is usually covered by intention-based frameworks like the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991). Overall, the findings demonstrate that the intention to consume status is not influenced by a single factor but rather by a networked process in which purchase intention is influenced by social recognition and brand trust motives, which are strengthened by endorsement cues. However, the findings did not support the hypothesis that peer acceptance, social comparison, or self-disclosure moderates the relationship between social recognition and purchase intention.

The findings supported H1 and aligned well with influencer and celebrity endorsement literature, suggesting that the perceived reputation and credibility of the source increase consumer willingness to buy. For example, Chung and Cho (2017) showed that perceiving a K-pop celebrity as trustworthy increases brand credibility and leads to higher purchase intention. Similarly, Jin, Muqaddam and Ryu (2019) highlighted that stronger trust in Instagram celebrities can improve brand attitudes and endorsement effectiveness. Schouten, Janssen, and Verspaget (2020) also found that influencer trustworthiness increases purchase intention across product categories. Consequently, this study also supports the same idea and makes it significant for academia.

This outcome is theoretically significant in the context of status-signalling brands since the endorser's reputation serves as a signal that assists customers in assessing not only the quality of the product but also its legitimacy and social significance. From the standpoint of social capital, the brand can benefit from the endorser's symbolic resources, which include status and recognition. According to the results of this research, consumers' purchase intentions are influenced by societal perceptions of the "status credibility" of the brand's communicator, as well as their own internal preferences.

One of the study's most significant theoretical contributions is the mediation result, which supported H2. Previous studies often treat trust as a key prerequisite for converting brand cues into behavioral outcomes, particularly in situations of uncertainty or symbolic motivations. Online service attributes and reputation frequently affect purchase intention through trust rather than directly, according to Qalati et al. (2021). Hanaysha (2022) similarly demonstrates how active participation

and informativeness can indirectly affect purchasing decisions through trust. Husain et al. (2022) found that while brand trust remains a powerful direct motivator, status motives influence purchase intention in luxury environments. Additionally, trust is positioned as a fundamental mechanism in longer behavioral chains by Sobaih et al. (2025) and Shin et al. (2023).

The current finding supports such reasoning by demonstrating that symbolic capital functions, in part, by fostering trust, in addition to acting as a “status motive”. To put it another way, symbolic meaning gains persuasiveness when it boosts trust in the brand’s dependability and credibility. According to Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) relational dimension of social capital theory, trust is a crucial relational resource that facilitates collaboration and communication. In the consumer setting, trust serves as a prerequisite, lowering perceived risk and encouraging action, whereas purchase intention reflects the willingness to make a purchase. As a result, the mediation finding backs the notion that status consumption is not always explained by symbolic value solely. In contrast, symbolic value becomes more powerful when it is viewed as trustworthy and legitimate.

The results validated H3 and are consistent with the notion that consumers use endorsement signals, especially prestige and symbolic status, as a quick way to understand a brand’s meaning. Many lines of earlier research support this reasoning. Influencer trust and connection can enhance product perceptions, as demonstrated by Schouten, Janssen, and Verspaget (2019). According to Sokolova and Kefi (2020), higher purchase-related responses can result from influencer trustworthiness and parasocial interactions. According to Munnukka, Uusitalo, and Toivonen (2016), assessments of advertisements and brands are influenced by aspects of credibility. Additionally, studies indicate that brand attitude and willingness to spend are influenced by alignment and credibility (Carrillat et al., 2019; Calvo-Porrall et al., 2021) and that perceptions of prestige may be influenced by reputational “baggage” (Radon, 2012).

This conclusion matters for the current model because it shows that social cues, not just product heritage or high prices, can help build symbolic wealth. A brand’s ability to signal status also depends on the reputation of its endorsers. This supports Bourdieu’s (1986) symbolic capital theory, which says that value from recognition by the right audience is not only economic. In today’s marketing, endorsers act as “recognition carriers,” and brands use their reputational capital in symbolic brand evaluation.

The results confirmed that brands act as social signals and supported H4. Earlier research also supported and showed that people who care about their social status and self-image are drawn to brands that match how they want to be seen, using them for impression management (O’Cass & Frost, 2002). In addition, symbolic value can lead to public support for brands, peer admiration, and

brand love in online luxury communities (Burnasheva et al., 2019). Godey et al. (2016) also found that social media marketing that highlights exclusivity can also encourage sharing and strengthen symbolic perceptions. In service settings, symbolic meanings can boost identification and apparent loyalty (Han, Nguyen, and Simkin, 2016). Sahin and Nasir's research (2021) also supports that stronger symbolic perceptions are linked to showy consumption and status-driven behavior.

This result validates the fundamental principle of symbolic capital: a brand becomes valuable for its recognition when it is seen as respectable and socially significant. Seeking social recognition can be understood in terms of social capital, as seeking returns from symbolic resources, meaning that customers choose brands that convey desired status to gain social benefits such as attention, appreciation, and acceptance.

The confirmation of H5 aligns with previous research on status consumption, which demonstrates that individuals purchase prestigious and high-end luxury items to gain acceptance or attention. For instance, Husain et al. (2022) found that status motives significantly influence the intention to purchase luxury goods. Meanwhile, Han et al. (2010) also reported that status-driven consumers frequently select brands with more conspicuous signals. Additionally, peer comparison situations are associated with a greater likelihood of purchasing luxury goods (Zhang and Kim, 2012). Jin, Xu, and Wang (2018) connect status signaling to power motives, while Khan and Fazili (2019) said that the need for recognition may make individuals purchase imitations as symbolic substitutes. All in all, all of the above-mentioned scientists discussed and supported this assumption in their research which makes the result of this research valuable for the academia.

The result of this hypothesis is supported by intention-based theories such as TRA and TPB. Because it demonstrates how much people care about the opinions and acceptance of others, the concept of "seeking social recognition" is comparable to the subjective norm component. Hence, the verified connection supports the notion that societal variables, not just personal ones, affect status-signaling consumption by showing that recognition incentives impact not just social media activity but also marketplace intentions.

The findings supported H6 and align with the idea that social validation and feedback often drive self-disclosure. Other scientists, such as Bazarova and Choi (2014), found that users adjust how much and what kind of information they share to achieve goals like being liked and accepted. Ao et al. (2023) showed that more genuine or personal content typically leads to higher engagement, suggesting a connection between social feedback and openness. Sahin and Nasir (2021) also found that people who are more sensitive to social influence tend to have higher status and are more willing to share.

According to the results of this research, levels of self-disclosure on social media is associated with recognition-oriented motivation in addition to being a communicative behavior. Self-disclosure may be seen from the standpoint of symbolic capital as one of the ways people try to create or exhibit symbolic resources in the context of social media. To put it another way, transparency makes oneself more visible, which makes recognition goals more relevant.

H7 has been confirmed, supporting research that shows social media participation and transparency may lead to stronger consumer reactions to status-signaling content. Lou and Yuan (2019) found that perceived informativeness and trust in sponsored content can increase purchase intention. Meanwhile, other scientists, such as Husain et al. (2022), reported that social media engagement and status motives are connected to plans to buy luxury goods. Erkan and Evans (2016) showed that information-rich content can influence the likelihood of making a purchase.

A theory suggests that when people share more about themselves online, they may become more involved in identity-driven consumption because they notice more opportunities for symbolic consumption. However, the model also shows that recognition and trust still matter, so self-disclosure may partly operate through broader status processes rather than being the main direct cause.

H8 was rejected according to the statistical output. While levels of self-disclosure on social media are related to both recognition and purchase intention of brand signalling status, the link between social recognition and purchase intention did not change with different levels of disclosure. A possible explanation is that the desire for social recognition alone may be strong enough to increase purchase intention, no matter how much information is shared. In status-signaling settings, recognition needs can drive consumption even without public sharing.

Another idea is that self-disclosure may matter more for what happens after a purchase, such as displaying or sharing, rather than changing the link between recognition and buying intention. This suggests that future research could test whether disclosure is a result of status consumption instead of acting as a moderator.

Although many studies connect status incentives with comparison processes, H9 was not supported. For instance, Zhang and Kim (2012) found that peer comparison can increase the desire to buy luxury goods, and Sahin and Nasir (2021) linked comparison tendencies to luxury consumerism. However, the current results suggest that social comparison does not strengthen the link between recognition and intention.

Instead of changing how recognition leads to purchase intention, social comparison might play a role earlier by increasing the desire for recognition. The confirmation of H11 in this study supports

this idea. So, comparison may affect intention indirectly by shaping the reasons for seeking recognition, rather than by strengthening the final step from recognition to intention.

H10 was rejected. In theory, recognition incentives should have a stronger effect on purchase intention when peer acceptance is more salient. However, the results suggest that social recognition affects purchase intention to a similar extent, regardless of how important peer acceptance is.

Peer acceptance and the desire for social recognition are closely related concepts. Peer approval may not add an extra effect if social recognition already explains the influence of others' opinions, since its impact is already included. Another fresh perspective is that while peer approval might not change how strongly recognition affects purchase intentions, it could influence the type of recognition people seek, such as from close friends or a broader audience. This points to future research opportunities, like studying differences across platforms and separating peer approval from general social validation, such as followers or audience size.

H11 was supported and also supports earlier research connecting comparison with status needs. Sahin and Nasir (2021) found that status and conspicuous consumption are associated with sensitivity to others' opinions. Zhang and Kim (2012) showed that situations involving comparison are linked to luxury intentions. Jin et al. (2018) also found that when people notice status gaps, they are more likely to want to signal their status.

This result supports a well-known psychological idea: comparing ourselves to others can make us more aware of our social status and increase our desire for recognition and respect. The finding also fits with social capital theory, which suggests that people seek acknowledgment as a symbolic reward. Comparison draws attention to what is valued in a group, making the need for recognition stronger.

Collectively, the verified theories reinforce the relevance of social capital and symbolic capital in understanding the consumption of social media status. Endorser reputation, functioning as a symbolic cue, enhances both purchase intention and symbolic capital impressions. Beyond its role as a status symbol, symbolic capital facilitates the relational dimension of social capital by fostering relational trust (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Social recognition incentives represent a key motivational pathway that translates symbolic meanings into consumption intention.

The findings largely support the importance of attitude-like beliefs and norm-related motives from a Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) perspective. Gaining social recognition highlights the influence of others' opinions, while trust and symbolic capital reflect belief-based brand appraisal. The absence of moderation effects for individual variation in comparison, peer approval, or disclosure suggests that these incentives operate in an interconnected

manner. However, comparison clearly affects recognition motives (H11), indicating that social media environments shape intentions by generating normative desires rather than merely modifying how those desires are translated into intention.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Scientific literature indicates that consumers frequently use brands to signal identity, prestige, and differentiation, as status consumption is primarily driven by symbolic motivations and anticipated social outcomes. Consistent with the thesis objective of examining status consumption and its underlying causes, this perspective supports analyzing purchase intention as a socially constructed phenomenon linked to recognition motives, rather than as a purely rational decision.
2. Social Capital Theory and Bourdieu's forms of capital offer a solid theoretical framework for analysing status-signalling brands, as symbolic capital relies on recognition by others. According to the research, symbolic worth becomes "real" only when it is socially validated, and social media increases the visibility and quantifiability of that validation. This explains why expectations of symbolic capital change are essential for understanding purchasing intention and supports the goal of symbolic capital analysis.
3. The literature review shows that because platform engagement includes self-presentation and visibility, social media enhances symbolic processes. Here, self-disclosure can increase chances for social feedback and symbolic validation as well as serve as a communicative behavior. The following advances the goal of investigating how sharing personal information on social media relates to the accumulation of symbolic capital.
4. The Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior are appropriate for this topic because they explain how attitudes and subjective norms influence intention. The Theory of Planned Behavior further emphasizes the importance of perceived control in shaping intentions. Social assessment and perceived norms significantly influence status-related consumption, and the intention-based strategy employed links behavioral intention with anticipated symbolic benefits. This framework clarifies the interactions among symbolic expectations, information-sharing behaviors, and intention.
5. The research model presented in the thesis demonstrates a coherent progression that connects symbolic assessment and purpose to social signals. By integrating endorser-related cues, perceived symbolic capital, recognition motives, and trust-related beliefs into a unified framework, the model achieves the objective of constructing a study model and formulating theoretically supported hypotheses. Furthermore, the model's structure effectively links expected symbolic capital with purchasing intention in a social media context, thereby aligning with the thesis's aim.

6. The selected survey-based quantitative method enabled a systematic and consistent analysis of the specified relationships. This methodology facilitated the examination of direct effects, mediation, and moderation within the proposed model, thereby providing a robust empirical foundation for addressing the research problem.
7. The empirical results confirm a positive relationship between the intention to purchase a status-signaling brand and perceived endorser reputation. This finding aligns with the objective of examining how expectations related to symbolic capital influence intention and supports the argument that credibility-related social cues are significant in symbolic consumption. Furthermore, it advances the broader aim of empirically investigating the influence of social signals on the formation of intentions.
8. According to the results, the perceived endorser's reputation enhances the brand's perceived symbolic capital. This demonstrates that endorsement affects customers' perceptions of a brand's capacity to indicate status in addition to directly influencing intention. This finding reinforces the goal of examining the formation of symbolic meanings and their relationship to intention in a social media setting.
9. The findings suggest that perceived symbolic capital increases the desire for social recognition, which subsequently elevates purchase intention. These results support the proposition that symbolic capital operates through social motives and anticipated social outcomes, consistent with the thesis objectives regarding status consumption and symbolic meaning. Overall, the results demonstrate a consistent relationship in which symbolic evaluation strengthens recognition motives and, in turn, influences behavioural intention.
10. The mediation results indicate that the influence of symbolic capital on purchase intention is mediated by brand trust. These findings demonstrate that trust-related attitudes remain essential for intention formation, even within status-oriented consumption, as symbolic meaning is amplified when a brand is perceived as trustworthy. By illustrating the interaction between symbolic motives and trust in shaping purchase intention, this analysis provides a more comprehensive explanation of the underlying mechanisms.
11. The results did not support the moderation hypotheses, meaning that the link between recognition and intention stayed about the same regardless of self-disclosure, social comparison, or peer approval. Still, social comparison was found to predict the desire for social recognition, supporting the idea that social comparison can trigger recognition motives. These results help identify which social factors drive the model and which do not act as conditional boosters, thereby meeting the study's goals.

12. Overall, this study shows that expectations tied to symbolic capital influence purchase intentions on social media through social and trust mechanisms. The results provide a clear, evidence-based explanation connecting intention development with symbolic meaning, recognition motives, and trust beliefs. At the same time, the lack of support for some moderating effects helps refine the model and highlights areas where further research could improve understanding.

Limitations

1. This scientific research used convenience sampling, meaning respondents were recruited through readily accessible channels rather than a random selection process. This means the sample might not represent all social media users, and some groups, such as more active users or certain age groups, could be overrepresented. Therefore, the results should be seen as suggestive rather than fully generalizable to all consumers.
2. The data for this study were collected at a single point in time, so the relationships identified reflect associations, not definite cause and effect. While the model is based on theory, it does not show how changes in symbolic capital expectations or social media behavior happen over time. Future research following participants for several months or years could test whether these relationships remain the same.
3. All key constructs were assessed through self-reported survey responses, which are prone to social desirability and self-presentation biases. This concern is particularly persistent for topics involving status, recognition, and disclosure, as respondents may underreport or overreport behaviors to align with perceived social norms. Consequently, the possibility of measurement error remains.
4. The study looks at social media use in general, but each platform, like Instagram, TikTok, or Facebook, encourages its own ways of sharing and showing status. If most respondents used one platform more than others, the findings might reflect that specific platform instead of social media as a whole. Future research could compare different platforms directly and see if the model changes between them.
5. This study examined only a few moderators. Other factors, such as income, materialism, self-esteem, cultural orientation (e.g., individualism or collectivism), and product category

engagement, might also affect the link between the desire for social recognition and purchase intention. Leaving out these variables could make the model less able to explain some moderation hypotheses and may be part of the reason they were rejected. Future research could improve the model by including more environmental and personal factors.

Recommendations for future research

1. Use probability-based sampling when possible, or apply quotas (e.g., age, gender, platform use) instead of convenience sampling, because convenience samples can overrepresent one types of social media users and limit generalizability.
2. Add stronger controls in future models (for example, income, materialism, intensity of social media use, platform type), because status consumption and self-disclosure can vary a lot across these groups.
3. Consider an experimental or longitudinal design to better support causal interpretation (for example, manipulating endorser reputation cues or symbolic-capital messaging and observing changes in trust and purchase intention over time).
4. Extend the model by testing alternative moderators or boundary conditions (for example: public vs private self-disclosure, type of product category, or cultural orientation), since the tested moderators were not supported in this sample.
5. Replicate the study across countries and platforms (Instagram, TikTok, Facebook) to check whether the same relationships hold in different social and media environments.
6. Replicate the study across age and gender categories to assess whether the same relationships hold across different social and media environments.
7. To assess whether these associations hold across different social and media settings, the study should be repeated with participants from a broader range of ages and genders. The current sample mainly included younger people (18–24: 60.68%, 25–34: 30.77%, 35–44: 6.41%, 45–54: 0.85%, and 55+: 1.28%) and was not balanced by gender (women: 67.70%, men: 29.40%, other: 3.00%). Using a more balanced sample would show whether the same patterns appear across different demographic groups, rather than being influenced mainly by the youngest participants. This is an essential part, because social media use, disclosure habits, and status signaling often change with age and can also differ by gender.

Managerial implications

1. The findings indicate that endorser reputation enhances perceived symbolic capital and purchasing intention. Consequently, marketers are advised to select endorsers/influencers, UGC creators based on credibility signals, such as expertise, category continuity, and audience trust, rather than primarily considering follower counts. This objective can be achieved by prioritizing a smaller number of reliable endorsers in status-related categories and applying clear credibility criteria.
2. Campaigns should convey prestige while simultaneously fostering trust, as symbolic meanings influence purchasing intention partly through brand trust. In practice, trust-building elements such as transparent product information, assurances of authenticity, evidence of quality (including guarantees, certifications, and transparent sourcing), and consistent service messaging should be integrated with status indicators. These trust components should be incorporated into influencer briefs and landing pages alongside lifestyle imagery.
3. Instead of simply labeling a brand as “premium” or “exclusive,” communication should highlight the brand’s social meaning. Since symbolic capital is tied to social recognition, and recognition can influence purchase decisions, brands should connect their products to specific social outcomes like taste, achievement, and belonging. Showing situations where these qualities matter can make the message more effective.
4. Peer approval, comparison, and self-disclosure do not automatically strengthen the link between recognition and purchase, since these effects were not confirmed. While real customer stories and peer cues can still help, they should not be the main way to persuade. It is better to test peer-based messages instead of assuming they will always be more effective.
5. The study did not find support for moderation effects, so peer approval, comparison, and self-disclosure should not be seen as guaranteed ways to boost the link between recognition and purchase. Peer cues, like real customer stories, can still be used, but they should not be the main focus. In practice, it is better to test peer-based messages rather than assume they will make the effect stronger.
6. The model points to different psychological paths that lead to purchase intention, so it is better to segment audiences by motivation, not just by demographics. Brands can create different ads for recognition-driven audiences who care about visibility and social meaning, trust-driven

audiences who value authenticity and reassurance, and endorser-driven audiences who look for expertise. Brands can use A/B testing and shift budgets to what works best.

7. Use influencer/endorser's content that shows real-life use to build credibility. Brands should ask endorsers to show the product in everyday situations, such as short day-in-the-life videos, repeated use across different posts, simple comparisons, and honest pros and cons, rather than just one scripted ad. Make demonstration and personal experience a must for each campaign, with at least two or three pieces of content. Track trust signals by sentiment analysis, saves, thoughtful comments, and low negative feedback, not just overall reach.
8. The findings indicate that businesses can motivate consumers to share content by appealing to their desire for attention, recognition, and symbolic value. Companies should facilitate sharing and refrain from pressuring individuals to disclose personal information. Providing simple, ready-to-share content, such as Story templates, visually engaging images for reposting, and a clear campaign hashtag, can enhance participation. Regularly acknowledging customers by reposting their content or featuring them within the brand community is also effective. As the data did not demonstrate that requesting additional personal information strengthens the relationship, marketers are advised against pursuing this strategy. Instead, efforts should focus on encouraging voluntary, low-effort sharing by offering compelling reasons to participate and ensuring that customer contributions are acknowledged and valued.

LIST OF REFERENCES AND SOURCES

- Amatulli, C., & Guido, G. (2012b). Externalised vs. internalised consumption of luxury goods: Propositions and implications for luxury retail marketing. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 22(2), 189–207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593969.2011.652647>
- Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, 55(5), 469–480. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.55.5.469>
- Alfredo Guzmán Rincón, Lorena, R., Marelby Amado Mateus, & Néstor Ordoñez Saavedra. (2023). Symbolic Consumption as a non-traditional Predictor of Brand Loyalty in the Sports industry, Football Club Segment. *Heliyon*, 9(4), <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15474>
- Ao, L., Bansal, R., Pruthi, N., & Khaskheli, M. B. (2023). Impact of Social Media Influencers on Customer Engagement and Purchase Intention: a Meta-Analysis. *Sustainability*, 15(3). MDPI. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15032744>
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179–211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Auty, S., & Elliott, R. (2001). Being Like or Being Liked: Identity vs. Approval in a Social Context. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 28(1), 235–241.
- Bazarova, N. N., & Choi, Y. H. (2014). Self-disclosure in social media: Extending the functional approach to disclosure motivations and characteristics on social network sites. *Journal of Communication*, 64(4), 635–657. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcom.12106>
- Bazi, S., Filieri, R. and Gorton, M. (2020), “Customers’ motivation to engage with luxury brands on social media”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 112, pp. 223-235, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.02.032>

- Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(4), 473–481. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209186>
- Belanche, D., Casaló, L. V., Flavián, M., & Sánchez, S. I. (2021). Understanding Influencer marketing: the Role of Congruence between influencers, Products and Consumers. *Journal of Business Research*, 132(1), 186–195. Scienedirect. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0148296321002307>
- Belk, R. W. (2013). Extended self in a digital world. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 40(3), 477–500. <https://doi.org/10.1086/671052>
- Bhandari, H., & Yasunobu, K. (2009). What is social capital? A comprehensive review of the concept. *Asian Journal of Social Science*, 37(3), 480–510. <https://doi.org/10.1163/156853109x436847>
- Bian, Q., & Forsythe, S. (2012). Purchase intention for luxury brands: A cross cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(10), 1443–1451. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.010>
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood Press.
- Bradley, S. W., Roberts, J. A., & Bradley, P. W. (2019). Experimental evidence of observed social media status cues on perceived likability. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, 8(1), 41–51. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ppm0000164>
- Burnasheva, R., Suh, Y. G., & Villalobos-Moron, K. (2019). Sense of Community and Social Identity Effect on Brand Love: Based on the Online Communities of a Luxury Fashion Brands. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 10, 50-65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20932685.2018.1558087>

- Cain, J. A. (2021). How Much for My Name? Privacy Perceptions and Motivations for Sharing Personal Information on Social Networking Sites. *The Journal of Social Media in Society*, 10(1), 140–161. <https://thejsms.org/index.php/JSMS/article/view/585>
- Calvo-Porrál, C., Rivaroli, S., & Orosa-González, J. (2021). The Influence of Celebrity Endorsement on Food Consumption Behavior. *Foods*, 10(9).
<https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10092224>
- Carrillat, F. A., O'Rourke, A. M., & Plourde, C. (2019). Celebrity endorsement in the world of luxury fashion – when controversy can be beneficial. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 35(13–14), 1193–1213. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2019.1634632>
- Chen, R., & Sharma, S. K. (2011). Self-disclosure at social networking sites: An exploration through relational capitals. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 15(2), 269–278. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10796-011-9335-8>
- Cheung, C.T.Y., Ng, P.M.L., Lo, O.-T. and Keung, S. (2025). Social media engagement and luxury fashion purchase intention in Hong Kong: the role of motivation regulation and consumers' materialistic values, *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 29 No. 3, pp. 353-370. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-09-2023-0242>
- Chia, K. C., Hsu, C. C., Lin, L. T., & Tseng, H. H. (2021). The identification of ideal social media influencers: Integrating the social capital, social exchange, and social learning theories. *Journal of Electronic commerce research*, 22(1), 4-21. <http://www.jecr.org/node/620>
- Chu, S. and Kim, Y. (2011) Determinants of Consumer Engagement in Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) in Social Networking Sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30, 47-75. <https://search.proquest.com/docview/305004132>
- Chiu, C.-M., Hsu, M.-H., & Wang, E. T. G. (2006). Understanding knowledge sharing in virtual communities: An integration of social capital and social cognitive theories. *Decision Support Systems*, 42(3), 1872–1888. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2006.04.001>
- Christodoulides, G., Michaelidou, N., & Li, C. H. (2009). Measuring perceived brand luxury: An evaluation of the BLI scale. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(5–6), 395–405.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247478622_Measuring_perceived_brand_luxury_An_evaluation_of_the_BLI_scale

Chua, T. H., & Chang, L. (2016). Follow me and like my beautiful selfies: Singapore teenage girls' engagement in self-presentation and peer comparison on social media. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 55, 190–197. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.09.011>

Chung, S., & Cho, H. (2017). Fostering Parasocial Relationships with Celebrities on Social Media: Implications for Celebrity Endorsement. *Psychology & Marketing*, 34(4), 481–495.

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/mar.21001>

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94(Suppl.), S95–S120.

Copeland, L. R., & Zhao, L. (2020). Instagram and theory of reasoned action: US consumers influence of peers online and purchase intention. *International Journal of Fashion Design, Technology and Education*, 13(3), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17543266.2020.1783374>

Robinson, C. (2017). Disclosure of personal data in e-commerce: A cross-national comparison of Estonia and the United States. *Telematics and Informatics*, 34(2), 569–582. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2016.09.006>

Danziger, P. (2024, July 18). *Status drives millennials to spend more on luxury goods: Is conspicuous consumption coming back?* Forbes. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/pamdanziger/2024/07/18/status-drives-millennials-to-spend-more-on-luxury-goods-is-conspicuous-consumption-coming-back/>

Degutis, M., Urbonavicius, S., Zimaitis, I., Skare, V., & Laurutyte, D. (2023). Willingness to disclose personal information: How to measure it? *Information & Management*, 60(1), 102456. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5755/j01.ee.31.4.25168>

- Dika, S. L., & Singh, K. (2002). Applications of social capital in educational literature: A critical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 72(1), 31–60. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543072001031>
- Djafarova, E., & Rushworth, C. (2017). Exploring the credibility of online celebrities' Instagram profiles. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 68, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.11.009>
- Dodds, W. B., Monroe, K. B., & Grewal, D. (1991). Effects of price, brand, and store information on buyers' product evaluations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(3), 307–319. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3172866>
- Dubois, B., & Laurent, G. (1994). Attitudes towards the concept of luxury: An exploratory analysis. In J. A. Cote & S. M. Leong (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (Vol. 1, pp. 273–278). Association for Consumer Research. <https://www.scribd.com/document/631487397/Attitudes-Towards-the-Concept-of-Luxury-an-Exploratory-Analysis-by-Bernard-Dubois-and-Gilles-Laurent>
- Dubois, B., Czellar, S., & Laurent, G. (2005). Consumer segments based on attitudes toward luxury: Empirical evidence from twenty countries. *Marketing Letters*, 16(2), 115–128. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11002-005-2172-0>
- Eastman, J. K., Goldsmith, R. E., & Flynn, L. R. (1999). Status consumption in consumer behaviour: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 7(3), 41–52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.1999.11501839>
- Eastman, J. K., Goldsmith, R. E., & Flynn, L. R. (2013). The impact of status consumption on shopping styles: An exploratory look at the millennial generation. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 47(2), 314–338. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283364117_The_impact_of_status_consumption_on_shopping_styles_An_exploratory_look_at_the_millennial_generation
- 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. *The Marketing Management Journal*, 25(1), 1–15. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287992554_Conceptualizing_a_Model_of_Status

Consumption Theory An Exploration of the Antecedents and Consequences of the Motivation to Consume for Status

- Ellison, N. B., Steinfield, C., & Lampe, C. (2007). The benefits of Facebook “Friends:” Social capital and college students’ use of online social network sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 12(4), 1143–1168. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00367.x>
- Erkan, I., & Evans, C. (2016). The influence of eWOM in social media on consumers’ purchase intentions: An extended approach to information adoption. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 61, 47–55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.03.003>
- Ferlander, S. (2007). The importance of different forms of social capital for health. *Acta Sociologica*, 50(2), 115–128. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001699307077654>
- Fuller, T., & Tian, Y. (2006). Social and Symbolic Capital and Responsible Entrepreneurship: An Empirical Investigation of SME Narratives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 67(3), 287–304. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9185-3>
- Gan, C., & Li, H. (2018). Understanding the effects of gratifications on the continuance intention to use WeChat in China: A perspective on uses and gratifications. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 78, 306–315. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.10.003>
- Ghaisani, A. P., Handayani, P. W., & Munajat, Q. (2017). Users’ motivation in sharing information on social media. *Procedia Computer Science*, 124, 530–535. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2017.12.186>
- Ghaffar, S., Rashid, A., Nisar, Q. A., & Rehman, S. U. (2016). Does celebrity endorsement influence consumer purchase intentions & corporate image? Mediating role of advertising appeal. In Conference of Business Management, SBM (pp. 1–13). Superior University. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320420689_Does_Celebrity_Endorsement_Influence_the_Consumer_Purchase_Intentions_Corporate_Image_Mediating_Role_of_Advertising_Appeal
- Global Social Media Statistics - DataReportal – global digital insights*. DataReportal. (2024) <https://datareportal.com/social-media-users>

- Godey, B., Manthiou, A., Pederzoli, D., Rokka, J., Aiello, G., Donvito, R., & Singh, R. (2016). Social Media Marketing Efforts of Luxury brands: Influence on Brand Equity and Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(12), 5833–5841. Scencedirect.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.04.181>
- Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The Strength of Weak Ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(6), 1360–1380. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2776392>
- Gruzd, A., & Hernández-García, Á. (2018). Privacy Concerns and Self-Disclosure in Private and Public Uses of Social Media. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 21(7), 418–428. <https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2017.0709>
- Gvili, Y., & Levy, S. (2018b). Consumer engagement with EWOM on social media: The role of Social Capital. *Online Information Review*, 42(4), 482–505. <https://doi.org/10.1108/oir-05-2017-0158>
- Greene, K., Derlega, V. J., & Mathews, A. (2006). Self-disclosure in personal relationships. In A. Vangelisti & D. Perlman (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of personal relationships* (pp. 409–427). Cambridge University Press.
- 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.74.4.15>
- Hanaysha, J. R. (2022). Impact of Social Media Marketing Features on Consumer’s Purchase Decision in the Fast-Food Industry: Brand Trust as a Mediator. *International Journal of Information Management Data Insights* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijime.2022.100102>
- Han, S. H., Nguyen, B., & Simkin, L. (2016). The dynamic models of consumers’ symbolic needs: in the context of restaurant brands. *European Journal of Marketing*, 50(7/8), 1348–1376.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/ejm-03-2015-0144>
- Heine, K. (2010). Identification and motivation of participants for luxury consumer surveys through viral participant acquisition. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 8(2). <https://academic-publishing.org/index.php/ejbrm/article/view/1260>

- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(3), 92. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1251707>
- Holthoff, L.C. and Scheiben, C. (2019), “Conspicuous consumption of time: a replication”, *Journal of Marketing Behavior*, Vol. 3 No. 4, pp. 355-362, available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1561/107.00000055>
- Hudders, L., & Pandelaere, M. (2012). The silver lining of materialism: The impact of luxury consumption on subjective well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, 13(3), 411–437. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-011-9271-9>
- Hung, K., Huiling Chen, A., Peng, N., Hackley, C., Amy Tiwsakul, R., & Chou, C. (2011). Antecedents of luxury brand purchase intention. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 20(6), 457–467. <https://doi.org/10.1108/10610421111166603>
- Husain, R., Ahmad, A., & Khan, B. M. (2022). The impact of Brand Equity, status consumption, and Brand Trust on purchase intention of luxury brands. *Cogent Business & Management*, 9(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2022.2034234>
- Husic, M., & Cicic, M. (2009). Luxury consumption factors. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 13(2), 231–245. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13612020910957734>
- Hwang, J., & Hyun, S. S. (2013). The impact of nostalgia triggers on emotional responses and revisit intentions in luxury restaurants: The moderating role of hiatus. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(1), 250–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.09.001>
- Jaakonmäki, R., Müller, O., & vom Brocke, J. (2017). The impact of content, context, and creator on user engagement in social media marketing. *Proceedings of the Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*. <https://doi.org/10.24251/hicss.2017.136>

- Jacovi, M., Guy, I., Kremer-Davidson, S., Porat, S., & Aizenbud-Reshef, N. (2014). The perception of others: Inferring reputation from social media in the enterprise. *Computers in Human Behavior, 106*, 106261. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2531602.2531667>
- Jain, S., Khan, M. N., & Mishra, S. (2017). Understanding consumer behavior regarding luxury fashion goods in India based on the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Asia Business Studies, 11*(1), 4–21. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jabs-08-2015-0118>
- Jin, S. V., Muqaddam, A., & Ryu, E. (2019). Instafamous and Social Media Influencer Marketing. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 37*(5), 567–579. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MIP-09-2018-0375>
- Jin, X., Xu, W., & Wang, Y. (2018). How power states and others' statuses influence status consumption: The role of signaling effectiveness. *International Journal of Market Research, 60*(5), 531–546. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1470785317751998>
- Kapferer, J.-N., & Bastien, V. (2009). The specificity of luxury management: Turning MarketingUpside Down. *Journal of Brand Management, 16*(5–6), 311–322. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247478602_The_specificity_of_luxury_management_Turning_marketing_upside_down
- Kapferer, J.-N., & Laurent, G. (2016). Where do consumers think luxury begins? A study of perceived minimum price for 21 luxury goods in 7 countries. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(1), 332–340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.08.005>
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons, 53*(1), 59–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003>
- Kastanakis, M. N., & Balabanis, G. (2012). Between the mass and the class: Antecedents of the “bandwagon” luxury consumption behavior. *Journal of Business Research, 65*(10), 1399–1407. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.005>

- Khan, S., & Fazili, A. I. (2019). Does the need for social status among price conscious consumers induces consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. *J. Of Business and Management*, 25(2), 43–70. <https://doi.org/10.1504/jbm.2019.141271>
- Kim, D. and Jang, S.S. (2014), “Motivational drivers for status consumption: a study of generation Y consumers”, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 38, pp. 39-47, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.12.003>
- Kim, Y., & Kim, S. (2023). Motives for following social influencers and electronic word-of-mouth: The role of social capital. *International Journal of Communication*, 17, 7093–7114. <https://ijoc.org/index.php/ijoc/article/view/19705/4403>
- Kim, J., & Bae, J. (2023). Influences of symbolic capital on Destination Brand Equity. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, 33(4), 561–576. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21639159.2023.2233087>
- Kim, H. H., & Law, R. (2015). Smartphones in Tourism and Hospitality Marketing: A Literature Review. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32(6), 692–711. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2014.943458>
- Kilsheimer, J. (1993). *Status consumption: The development and implications of a scale measuring the motivation to consume for status*. (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University). <https://www.proquest.com/docview/304073895?pqorigsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true>
- Kramer, R., & Tyler, T. (1996). *Trust in Organizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research*. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452243610>
- Kwan Soo Shin, S., Amenuvor, F. E., Basilisco, R., & Owusu-Antwi, K. (2019). Brand Trust and Brand Loyalty: A Moderation and Mediation Perspective. *Current Journal of Applied Science and Technology*, 38(4), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.9734/cjast/2019/v38i430376>

- Larson, A. (1992). Network Dyads in Entrepreneurial Settings: A Study of the Governance of Exchange Relationships. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37, 76-104. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2393534>
- Lee, J. E., & Watkins, B. (2016). YouTube vloggers' influence on consumer luxury brand perceptions and intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(12), 5753–5760. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.04.171>
- Leibenstein, H. (1950). Bandwagon, snob, and Veblen effects in the theory of consumers' demand. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 64(2), 183. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1882692>
- Li, Y. (2014). The impact of disposition to privacy, website reputation and website familiarity on information privacy concerns. *Decision Support Systems*, 57, 343–354. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2013.09.018>
- Luo, M., & Hancock, J. T. (2020). Self-disclosure and social media: Motivations, mechanisms and psychological well-being. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 31, 110–115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2019.08.019>
- Lou, C., & Yuan, S. (2019). Influencer marketing: How message value and credibility affect consumer trust of branded content on social media. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 19(1), 58–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15252019.2018.1533501>
- Lyu, S.O. (2016), "Travel selfies on social media as objectified self-presentation", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 54, pp. 185-195, : <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.11.001>
- Mangold, W. G., & Faulds, D. J. (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business Horizons*, 52(4), 357–365. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.03.002>
- Marcoux, J.-S., Filiatrault, P., & Chéron, E. (1997). The Attitudes Underlying Preferences of Young Urban Educated Polish Consumers Towards Products Made in Western Countries. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4), 5–29. https://doi.org/10.1300/j046v09n04_02

- Mason, R. (1984b). Conspicuous consumption: A literature review. *European Journal of Marketing*, 18(3), 26–39. <https://doi.org/10.1108/eum0000000004779>
- Masur, P. K., Bazarova, N. N., & DiFranzo, D. (2023). The impact of what others do, approve of, and expect you to do: An in-depth analysis of social norms and self-disclosure on social media. *Social Media + Society*, 9(1). <https://doi.org/10.1177/20563051231156401>
- Midgley, C., Thai, S., Lockwood, P., Kovacheff, C., & Page-Gould, E. (2021). When every day is a high school reunion: Social media comparisons and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 121(2), 285–307. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000336>
- Munnukka, J., Uusitalo, O., & Toivonen, H. (2016). Credibility of a peer endorser and advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 33(3), 182–192. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jcm-11-2014-1221>
- Nabi, N., O’Cass, A., & Siahtiri, V. (2019). Status consumption in newly emerging countries: The influence of personality traits and the mediating role of motivation to consume conspicuously. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 50, 188–194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.05.007>
- Nadeem, W., Khani, A. H., Schultz, C. D., Adam, N. A., Attar, R. W., & Hajli, N. (2020). How social presence drives commitment and loyalty with online brand communities? the role of Social Commerce Trust. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 55, 102136. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2020.102136>
- Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social Capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *The Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 242. <https://doi.org/10.2307/259373>
- Nesi, J., & Prinstein, M. J. (2015). Using social media for social comparison and feedback-seeking: Gender and popularity moderate associations with depressive symptoms. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 43(8), 1427–1438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-015-0020-0>

- Noh, S. (2021). Why do we share information? explaining information sharing behavior through a new conceptual model between Sharer to receiver within SNS. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, 31(3), 392–414. <https://doi.org/10.14329/apjis.2021.31.3.392>
- O’Cass, A. (2000) ‘A psychometric evaluation of a revised version of the Lennox and Wolfe revised self-monitoring scale’, *Psychology and Marketing*, 17 (5), 397– 419. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1520-6793\(200005\)17:5<397::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-D](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(200005)17:5<397::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-D)
- O’Cass, A., & McEwen, H. (2004). Exploring consumer status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4(1), 25–39. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233655839_Exploring_Consumer_Status_and_Conspicuous_Consumption
- 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://www.researchgate.net/publication/29458375_Status_brands_Examining_the_effects_of_non-product-related_brand_associations_on_status_and_conspicuous_consumption
- Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and Validation of a Scale to Measure Celebrity Endorsers’ Perceived Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness. *Journal of Advertising*, 19(3), 39–52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.1990.10673191>
- Park, K., Reisinger, Y., & Noh, E. (2009). Luxury shopping in tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(2), 164–178. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.744>
- Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand Attachment and Brand Attitude Strength: Conceptual and Empirical Differentiation of Two Critical Brand Equity Drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.74.6.1>
- Pedalino, F., & Camerini, A.-L. (2022). Instagram use and body dissatisfaction: The mediating role of upward social comparison with peers and influencers among young females. *International*

- Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(3), 1543.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031543>
- 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>
- Poder, T. G. (2011). What is really social capital? A critical review. *The American Sociologist*, 42(4), 341–367. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12108-011-9136-z>
- Pret, T., Shaw, E., & Drakopoulou Dodd, S. (2016). Painting the full picture: The conversion of economic, cultural, social and symbolic capital. *International Small Business Journal: Researching Entrepreneurship*, 34(8), 1004–1027.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242615595450>
- Putnam, R. D. (1993). *Making democracy work: Civic traditions in modern Italy*. Princeton University Press.
- Putnam, R. D. (1995). Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy*, 6(1), 65–78. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jod.1995.0002>
- Qalati, S. A., Vela, E. G., Li, W., Dakhan, S. A., Hong Thuy, T. T., & Merani, S. H. (2021). Effects of perceived service quality, website quality, and reputation on purchase intention: The mediating and moderating roles of trust and perceived risk in online shopping. *Cogent Business & Management*, 8(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1869363>
- Radon, Anita. (2012). Unintended Brand Endorsers' Impact on Luxury Brand Image. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*. 4. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v4n1p108>
- Reuber, A. R., & Fischer, E. (2005). The company you keep: How young firms in different competitive contexts signal reputation through their customers. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(1), 57–78. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00069.x>
- Ring, P. S., & Van De Ven, A. H. (1994). Developmental processes of cooperative interorganizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 90–118.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1994.9410122009>

- Robinson, S. C. (2017). Self-Disclosure and Managing Privacy: Implications for Interpersonal and Online Communication for Consumers and Marketers. *Journal of Internet Commerce*, 16(4), 385–404. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332861.2017.1402637>
- Sabanoglu, T. (2024). Topic: Luxury goods, gen Z, and millennials. Statista. <https://www.statista.com/topics/12825/luxury-goods-gen-z-and-millennials/#topicOverview>
- Sahin, A., Zehir, C., & Kitapçı, H. (2011). The Effects of Brand Experiences, Trust and Satisfaction on Building Brand Loyalty; an Empirical Research on Global Brands. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 24(1), 1288–1301. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.09.143>
- Sahin, O., & Nasir, S. (2021). The effects of status consumption and conspicuous consumption on perceived symbolic status. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 30(1), 68–85. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2021.1888649>
- Schivinski, B., & Dabrowski, D. (2016). The effect of social media communication on consumer perceptions of brands. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 22(2), 189–214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2013.871323>
- Schouten, A. P., Janssen, L., & Verspaget, M. (2020). Celebrity vs. influencer endorsements in advertising: The role of identification, credibility, and product-endorser fit. *International Journal of Advertising: The Review of Marketing Communications*, 39(2), 258–281. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2019.1634898>
- Sedera, D., Lokuge, S., Atapattu, M., & Gretzel, U. (2017). Likes—the key to my happiness: The moderating effect of social influence on travel experience sharing on Facebook. *Information & Management*, 54(6), 767–778. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2016.12.008>
- Sherman, L. E., Payton, A. A., Hernandez, L. M., Greenfield, P. M., & Dapretto, M. (2016). The power of the *Like* in adolescence: Effects of peer influence on neural and behavioral responses to social media. *Psychological Science*, 27(7), 1027–1035. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797616645673>
- Sheposh, R. (2024). *Central limit theorem*. In *Research Starters*. EBSCO Information Services.

<https://www.ebsco.com/research-starters/science/central-limit-theorem>

- Shukla, P. (2010). Status consumption in cross-national context. *International Marketing Review*, 27(1), 108–129. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651331011020429>
- Siepmann, C., Holthoff, L. C., & Kowalczyk, P. (2022). Conspicuous consumption of luxury experiences: An experimental investigation of status perceptions on social media. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 31(3), 454–468. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-08-2020-3047>
- Sihombing, S., & Pramono, R. (2021). The Integration of Social Media to the Theory of Planned Behavior: A Case Study in Indonesia. *Journal of Asian Finance*, 8(5), 445-0454. <https://doi.org/10.13106/jafeb.2021.vol8.no5.0445>
- Silverstein, M. J., & Fiske, N. (2003). Luxury for the masses. *Harvard business review*, 81(4), 48-59.
- Sobaih, Abu Elnasr & Gharbi, Hassane & Brini, Riadh & Aliane, Nadir. (2025). Exploring the Mediation Effect of Brand Trust on the Link Between Tourism Destination Image, Social Influence and Brand Loyalty. *Societies*. 15. 9. 10.3390/soc15010009.
- Sokolova, K., & Kefi, H. (2020). Instagram and YouTube bloggers promote it, why should I buy? How credibility and parasocial interaction influence purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 53(1). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.01.011>
- Stockdale, L. A., & Coyne, S. M. (2020). Bored and online: Reasons for using social media, problematic social networking site use, and behavioral outcomes across the transition from adolescence to emerging adulthood. *Journal of Adolescence*, 79(1), 173–183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2020.01.010>
- Sivanathan, N., & Pettit, N. C. (2010). Protecting the self through consumption: Status goods as affirmational commodities. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46(3), 564–570. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2010.01.006>

- Szreter, N., Woolcock M. (2004). Health by Association? Social Capital, social theory, and the political economy of Public Health. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 33(4), 650–667. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyh013>
- Sudha, M., & Sheena, K. (2017). Impact of influencers in consumer decision process: The fashion industry. *SCMS Journal of Indian Management*, 14, 14–30. https://www.scms.edu.in/uploads/journal/articles/article_12.pdf
- Statista. (n.d.). *Luxury goods: Gen Z and Millennials*. Statista. Retrieved November 25, 2024, from <https://www.statista.com/topics/12825/luxury-goods-gen-z-and-millennials/#topicOverview>
- Tan, M.Z., Teoh, S.Y., Tan, C.E., Teo, P.N. and Tan, M.K. (2013), “*Perceived purchase intention of undergraduates towards luxury brands: case study*”, Proceeding of the International Conference on Social Science Research, pp. 735-746. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/325643687_PERCEIVED_PURCHASE_INTENTION_OF_UNDERGRADUATES_TOWARDS_LUXURY_BRANDS_CASE_STUDY
- Terjesen, S., & Elam, A. (2009). Transnational entrepreneurs’ venture internationalization strategies: A practice theory approach. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(5), 1093–1120. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00336.x>
- Truong, Y., Simmons, G., McColl, R., & Kitchen, P. J. (2008). Status and conspicuousness – are they related? strategic marketing implications for luxury brands. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 16(3), 189–203. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09652540802117124>
- Tsai, S. (2005). Impact of personal orientation on luxury-brand purchase value: An international investigation. *International Journal of Market Research*, 47(4), 427–452. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284218609_A_Review_and_a_Conceptual_Framework_of_Prestige-Seeking_Consumer_Behavior
- Tynan, C., McKechnie, S., & Chhuon, C. (2010). Co-creating value for luxury brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(11), 1156–1163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.10.012>
- Varnali, K., & Toker, A. (2015). Self-disclosure on social networking sites. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 43(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2015.43.1.1>

- Veblen, T. (1899), *The Theory of the Leisure Class*, Penguin, New York.
https://web.english.upenn.edu/~cavitch/pdf-library/Veblen_Theory_of_Leisure_Class.pdf
- Vigneron, F., & Johnson, L. W. (1999). A review and a conceptual framework of prestige-seeking consumer behavior. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 2(1), 1–15.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284218609_A_Review_and_a_Conceptual_Framework_of_Prestige-Seeking_Consumer_Behavior
- Vigneron, F., & Johnson, L. W. (2004). Measuring perceptions of Brand Luxury. *Journal of Brand Management*, 11(6), 484–506. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Franck-Vigneron/publication/31968013_Measuring_perceptions_of_brand_luxury/links/5654c25608ae1ef92976dfe0/Measuring-perceptions-of-brand-luxury.pdf
- Verduyn, P., Gugushvili, N., Massar, K., Täht, K., & Kross, E. (2020). Social comparison on social networking sites. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 36, 32–37.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2020.04.002>
- Vogel, E. A., Rose, J. P., Roberts, L. R., & Eckles, K. (2014). Social comparison, social media, and self-esteem. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, 3(4), 206–222.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/ppm0000047>
- Voorveld, H. A. M. (2019). Brand Communication in social media: A research agenda. *Journal of Advertising*, 48(1), 14–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2019.1588808>
- Walrave, M., & Heirman, W. (2012). Adolescents, online marketing and privacy: Predicting adolescents' willingness to disclose personal information for marketing purposes. *Children & Society*, 27(6), 434–447. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1099-0860.2011.00423.x>
- Wang, Y., & Qiao, F. (2020). The symbolic meaning of luxury-lite fashion brands among younger Chinese consumers. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 24(1), 83–98. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jfmm-09-2019-0204>

- Wheless, L. R., & Grotz, J. (1976). Conceptualization and measurement of reported self-disclosure. *Human Communication Research*, 2(4), 338–346. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1976.tb00494.x>
- Wiedmann, K., Hennigs, N., & Siebels, A. (2009). Value-based segmentation of luxury consumption behavior. *Psychology & Marketing*, 26(7), 625–651. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20292>
- Wilson, R. E., Gosling, S. D., & Graham, L. T. (2012). A review of Facebook research in the social sciences. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(3), 203–220. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691612442904>
- Wong, S. L., & McLellan, R. (2023). Adolescents' motivation to use social network sites from a psychological needs perspective. *Journal of Adolescence*, 96(2), 305–321. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jad.12276>
- Xu, H., Dinev, T., Smith, H. J., & Hart, P. (2008). Examining the formation of individuals' privacy concerns: Toward an integrative view. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Information Systems (ICIS)*, 6, 1–15. Association for Information Systems. <https://aisel.aisnet.org/icis2008/6>
- Yang, W., & Mattila, A. S. (2013). The Impact of Status Seeking on Consumers' Word of Mouth and Product Preference—A Comparison Between Luxury Hospitality Services and Luxury Goods. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 41(1), 3–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348013515920>
- Yazdanpanah, M., & Forouzani, M. (2015). Application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour to predict Iranian students' intention to purchase organic food. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 107(0959-6526), 342–352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.02.071>
- Zhang, B., & Kim, J.-H. (2013). Luxury fashion consumption in China: Factors affecting attitude and purchase intent. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20(1), 68–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2012.10.007>

Zhang, R., & Fu, J. S. (2018). Privacy management and self-disclosure on social network sites: The moderating effects of stress and gender. *Information Systems Journal*, 28(4), 796–817. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcmc/zmaa004>

Zhou, S., Barnes, L., McCormick, H., & Blazquez Cano, M. (2021). Social Media influencers' narrative strategies to create EWOM: A theoretical contribution. *International Journal of Information Management*, 59, 102293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102293>

STATUS CONSUMPTION, DESIRE FOR SOCIAL RECOGNITION, AND DISPOSITION TO SHARE PERSONAL INFORMATION ON SOCIAL MEDIA

NARMIN MAMMADOVA

Master thesis

Marketing and Integrated Communications

Vilnius University, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration

Supervisor: *Doc., Dr. Mindaugas Degutis*

Vilnius, 2026

SUMMARY

132 pages, 21 tables, 3 figures (charts and pictures), 160 references.

SUMMARY

This Master's thesis examines how expecting a change in symbolic capital affects consumers' intentions to buy high-status products when they share about themselves on social media. The research assumes that status-signalling consumption depends not just on product usefulness, but also on social meanings, recognition motives, and trust, which are especially noticeable online.

This thesis investigates how anticipated changes in symbolic capital affect individuals' purchase intentions, particularly in social media environments where self-presentation and peer feedback are prominent. To address this objective, the study: (1) examines status consumption and the primary factors influencing status-oriented intentions, (2) analyzes symbolic capital and its significance within social media contexts, (3) investigates self-disclosure as a form of online visibility linked to symbolic value, (4) theoretically substantiates the relationships among symbolic expectations, disclosure practices, and intention formation, (5) develops a research model and hypotheses, (6) selects an appropriate quantitative methodology, (7) collects and analyzes empirical data, and (8) presents conclusions, practical implications, and study limitations.

The thesis is structured in three parts. The first section reviews literature on status consumption, symbolic capital - emphasizing recognition and social validation - and the role of social media in amplifying visibility and evaluation. The theoretical discussion argues that symbolic capital gains significance only when recognized by others and posits that self-disclosure enhances opportunities for feedback, comparison, and impression management, thereby potentially reinforcing status-oriented consumption motives.

The empirical part uses survey data (N = 236) to assess the suggested research model. Regression-based techniques, such as mediation and moderation analyses using the PROCESS macro, were applied in SPSS to evaluate conditional associations, indirect mechanisms, and direct effects among the main constructs. Endorser-related signals, perceived symbolic capital, brand trust, a desire for social recognition, self-disclosure, and purchase intention are all included in the model.

The empirical findings show a strong correlation between symbolic and social processes and purchasing intention in status-signaling situations. While brand trust is a crucial explanatory mechanism through which symbolic meanings impact purchase intentions, endorser-related signals and perceived symbolic capital enhance the formation of intentions. However, this sample did not demonstrate moderating effects linked to social media characteristics, suggesting that the association between purchase intention and recognition motives remained constant under

The main theoretical and empirical findings are summarized in the conclusion and practical implications section, which also shows how these findings help to understand status-oriented consumer behavior in digital contexts. Scientific research also identifies sample and methodological constraints and offers recommendations for further research.

STATUSO VARTOJIMAS, SIEKIS SOCIALINIO PRIPAŽINIMO IR POLINKIS DALYTIS ASMENINE INFORMACIJA SOCIALINĖJE ŽINIASKLAIDOJE

NARMIN MAMMADOVA

Magistro baigiamasis darbas

Rinkodara ir integruotosios komunikacijos

Vilniaus universitetas, Ekonomikos ir verslo administravimo fakultetas

Vadovas: Doc., Dr. Mindaugas Degutis

Vilnius, 2026

SANTRAUKA

132 puslapiai, 21 lentelė, 3 paveikslai (diagramos ir nuotraukos), 160 literatūros šaltinių.

Šiame magistro baigiamajame darbe nagrinėjama, kaip simbolinio kapitalo pokyčio lūkesčiai veikia vartotojų ketinimą įsigyti aukšto statuso produktus, kai vartotojai socialiniuose tinkluose dalinasi informacija apie save. Tyrimas remiasi prielaida, kad statusą signalizuojantis vartojimas priklauso ne vien nuo produkto naudingumo, bet ir nuo socialinių reikšmių, pripažinimo motyvų bei pasitikėjimo, kurie ypač ryškiai atsiskleidžia internetinėje aplinkoje.

Darbo tikslas – nustatyti, kaip numatomi simbolinio kapitalo pokyčiai veikia asmenų pirkimo ketinimus, ypač socialinių tinklų kontekste, kuriame svarbi savęs reprezentacija ir bendraamžių grįžtamasis ryšys. Šiam tikslui įgyvendinti darbe: (1) analizuojamas statuso vartojimo reiškinys ir pagrindiniai veiksniai, lemiantys su statusu susijusius ketinimus, (2) nagrinėjamas simbolinio kapitalo konceptas ir jo reikšmė socialinių tinklų aplinkoje, (3) tiriamas savęs atskleidimas kaip internetinio matomumo forma, susijusi su simboliu verte, (4) teoriškai pagrindžiami ryšiai tarp simbolių lūkesčių, savęs atskleidimo praktikų ir ketinimų formavimosi, (5) sudaromas tyrimo modelis ir formuluojamos hipotezės, (6) parenkama tinkama kiekybinė tyrimo metodologija, (7) surenkami ir analizuojami empiriniai duomenys, (8) pateikiamos išvados, praktinės implikacijos ir tyrimo apribojimai.

Darbas suskirstytas į tris dalis. Pirmojoje dalyje apžvelgiama mokslinė literatūra apie statuso vartojimą, simbolinį kapitalą (akcentuojant pripažinimą ir socialinį patvirtinimą) bei socialinių tinklų vaidmenį didinant matomumą ir vertinimą. Teorinėje dalyje argumentuojama, kad simbolinis kapitalas įgyja prasmę tik tada, kai yra pripažįstamas kitų, o savęs atskleidimas socialiniuose tinkluose didina grįžtamojo ryšio, palyginimo ir įspūdžio valdymo galimybes, todėl gali stiprinti statusu paremtus vartojimo motyvus.

Empirinėje dalyje, remiantis apklausos duomenimis (N = 236), vertinamas siūlomas tyrimo modelis. SPSS programoje taikyti regresija grįsti metodai, įskaitant mediacijos ir moderacijos analizes naudojant PROCESS makrokomandą, siekiant įvertinti tiesioginius efektus, netiesioginius mechanizmus ir sąlyginius ryšius tarp pagrindinių konstrukto. Modelyje nagrinėjami su rėmėju / nuomonės formuotoju susiję signalai, suvokiamas simbolinis kapitalas, pasitikėjimas prekės ženklu, socialinio pripažinimo siekis, savęs atskleidimas ir pirkimo ketinimas.

Empiriniai rezultatai rodo, kad statusą signalizuojančio vartojimo kontekste pirkimo ketinimas yra glaudžiai susijęs su simboliniais ir socialiniais procesais. Su rėmėju susiję signalai ir suvokiamas simbolinis kapitalas stiprina ketinimų formavimąsi, o pasitikėjimas prekės ženklu veikia kaip svarbus aiškinamasis mechanizmas, per kurį simbolinės reikšmės persiduoda į pirkimo ketinimus. Tačiau šiame tyrime nebuvo nustatyti moderuojantys efektai, susiję su socialinių tinklų ypatybėmis, todėl ryšys tarp socialinio pripažinimo motyvų ir pirkimo ketinimo išliko santykinai stabilus.

Išvadų ir praktinių implikacijų dalyje apibendrinami pagrindiniai teoriniai ir empiriniai rezultatai bei parodoma, kaip jie padeda geriau suprasti statuso orientuotą vartotojų elgesį skaitmeninėje aplinkoje. Taip pat įvardijami imties ir metodologiniai tyrimo apribojimai bei pateikiamos rekomendacijos tolesniems tyrimams.

ANNEXES

Annex 1. Questionnaire

Introduction:

Hello,

I am Narmin Mammadova, a Master's student in Marketing and Integrated Communication at Vilnius University. This survey is part of a scientific study about consumer habits and attitudes towards brands.

Your participation in the survey is a contribution to Vilnius University's scientific activities. The survey is voluntary and completely anonymous, so responses will not be linked to specific individuals but will be analyzed in general.

Your responses will be used for research purposes only. The questionnaire will take approximately 5-7 minutes.

If you have any questions about this survey or the study, you can contact me at:
narmin.mammadova@evaf.stud.vu.lt

Thank you for your valuable contribution!

Do you use at least one social media platform (e.g., Instagram, Facebook, TikTok, LinkedIn, Twitter, Reddit, etc.)?

- Yes
- No

Are you 18 or older?

- Yes
- No

**Firstly, think about how friends, family or followers might influence what you buy:
Please rate the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):**

1. I get a sense of belonging by buying the same products and brands that others do.
2. If other people can see me using the product, I often buy the brand they expect me to buy.
3. When buying things, I generally buy brands that I think others will approve of.
4. It is important that others like the products and brands that I buy.
5. I often identify with other people by buying the same products and brands they do.
6. I rarely buy the latest fashion styles until I am sure my friends approve of them.
7. If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy.
8. I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.
9. To make sure I buy the right product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using.
10. If I don't have much experience with a product, I often ask my friends about it.
11. I frequently get information from friends or family about a product before I buy.
12. I often consult other people to help me choose the best brand of a particular product.

People sometimes compare themselves to others. How about you?

Please rate the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. I often compare how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members, etc.) are doing with how others are doing.
2. I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things.
3. If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done with how others have done.
4. I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, popularity) with other people.
5. I am not the type of person who compares often with others.
6. I often compare myself with others with respect to what I have accomplished in life.
7. I often like to talk with others about mutual opinions and experiences.
8. I often try to find out what others think who face similar problems as I face.
9. I always like to know what others in a similar situation would do.
10. If I want to learn more about something, I try to find out what others think about it.
11. I never consider my situation in life relative to that of other people (reversed)

Next, consider how much and how personally you talk about yourself on social media.

(1 = Strongly disagree 7 = Strongly agree)

1. I do not often talk about myself on social media.
2. I usually talk about myself on social media for fairly long periods.
3. I often discuss my feelings about myself on social media.
4. I often express my personal beliefs and opinions on social media.
5. I would intimately, openly, and fully disclose who I really am in my post on social media.
6. I typically reveal information about myself on social media without intending to.
7. I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on social media without hesitation.
8. When I post about myself on social media, the posts are fairly detailed.

Please think of a fashion brand you know or like (e.g., Tommy Hilfiger).

To what extent do you agree with the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. Is a symbol of success.
2. Is a symbol of prestige.
3. Indicates wealth.
4. Indicates achievement.
5. Attracts people who are interested in status.
6. Reflects that status is important to me.
7. Enhances my image.

Still thinking about the same brand, indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

(1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. My preferred brand takes a good care of me.
2. My preferred brand meets my expectations.
3. I feel confident in my preferred brand.
4. My preferred brand never disappoints me.
5. My preferred brand guarantees satisfaction.
6. My preferred brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.
7. I could rely on my preferred brand to solve the problem.
8. My preferred brand would make any effort to satisfy me.

9. My preferred brand would compensate me in some way for the problem with the product.

Now think of a celebrity/influencer/public figure you follow who has worn this brand.

Considering this, please rate the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. My preferred celebrity/influencer appears dependable when giving recommendations.
2. My preferred celebrity/influencer appears honest on social media.
3. My preferred celebrity/influencer seems reliable in their brand promotions.
4. My preferred celebrity/influencer is sincere in their brand promotions.
5. My preferred celebrity/influencer seems trustworthy based on their posts.

Imagine you are looking for an outfit for an upcoming social occasion. The fashion brand Tommy Hilfiger is among the available choices. This brand is endorsed by Rihanna. You can afford it, although it's not a purchase you would make without thinking about it.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. Using these products and brands makes me feel good about myself.
2. When others see me using these products and brands in social environments, it reveals information about my lifestyle.
3. Using these products and brands creates a good impression on others about me.
4. When I use these products and brands, I become visible to others' eyes in social environments.
5. These products and brands reflect the kind of person I see myself to be.
6. These products and brands would help me to feel accepted in social environments.
7. Using these products or brands helps me to express my style.
8. I feel proud to use these products and brands.
9. When I use these products and brands, others think I am a successful person.
10. Owning these products and brands improves my self-image.
11. These products and brands enhance my social status in the eyes of others.

Finally, imagine you are about to decide whether to purchase from Tommy Hilfiger. How likely are you to do so?

Please rate the following statements (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – strongly agree):

1. If I were going to purchase a luxury product, I would consider buying this brand.
2. If I were shopping for a luxury brand, the likelihood I would purchase this luxury brand is high.
3. My willingness to buy this luxury brand would be high if I were shopping for a luxury brand.
4. The probability I would consider buying this luxury brand is high.

Please choose your gender

- Female
- Male
- Other
- Prefer not to say

Age:

- 18–24
- 25–34
- 35–44
- 45–54
- 55+

Which social media platforms do you actively use? (Select all that apply)

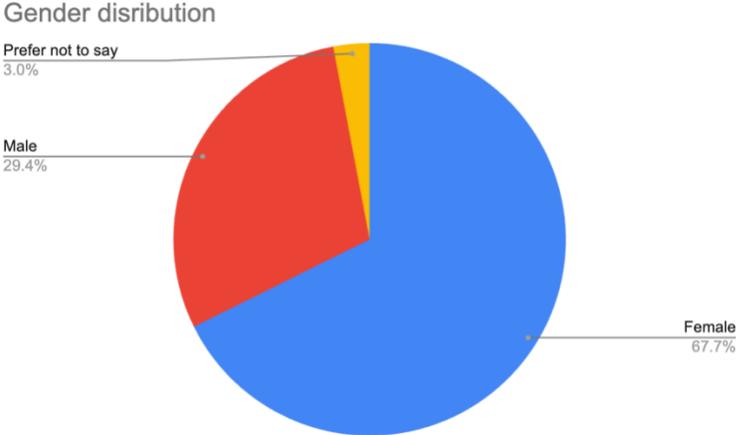
- Instagram
- TikTok
- Facebook
- Twitter/X
- YouTube
- Other (please specify): _____

Thanks a lot for contributing to academic research!

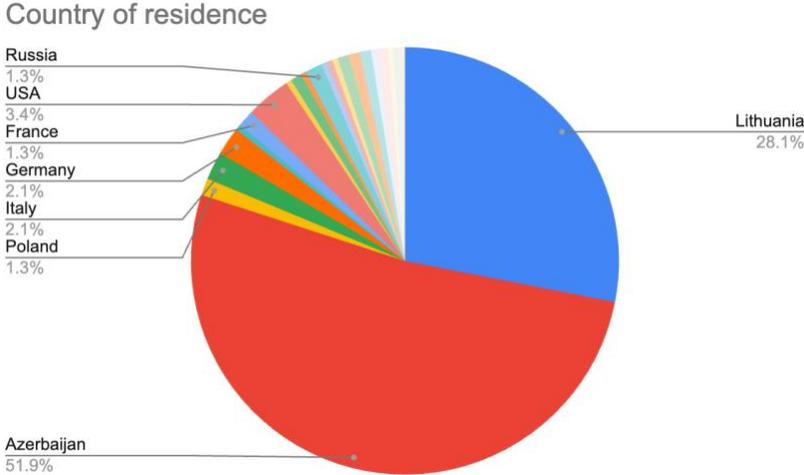
Your participation supports my Master's thesis and adds real value to understanding consumer behavior in today's digital world.

Wishing you all the best,
Narmin Mammadova

Annex 2. Gender distribution pie chart



Annex 3. Country of residence (detailed)



Annex 4. Reliability analysis of Comparison with others

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,842	11

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
comp1	44,14	120,095	,567	,824
comp2	43,40	116,530	,690	,814
comp3	43,22	115,881	,723	,811
comp4	43,54	114,845	,653	,816
comp5	44,15	140,442	,042	,868
comp6	43,20	118,061	,613	,820
comp7	42,32	123,128	,556	,826
comp8	42,66	120,260	,593	,822
comp9	42,61	120,690	,630	,820
comp10	43,16	118,093	,678	,815
comp11	43,58	139,683	,086	,861

Annex 5. Reliability analysis of Peer approval

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,780	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
peerap1	34,75	93,773	,598	,742
peerap2	35,51	94,208	,607	,741
peerap3	35,46	89,518	,695	,727
peerap4	35,35	90,270	,647	,733
peerap5	35,48	90,557	,679	,730
peerap6	33,68	145,682	-,656	,879
peerap7	35,89	92,521	,619	,738
peerap8	34,55	93,780	,603	,741
peerap9	33,75	99,258	,465	,759
peerap10	34,36	97,925	,515	,753

Annex 6. Reliability analysis of Level of disclosure on social media

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,838	8

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
discl1	20,12	119,620	-,244	,912
discl2	22,25	86,452	,634	,810
discl3	22,56	81,729	,806	,787
discl4	21,96	84,105	,681	,803
discl5	22,22	82,664	,728	,797

discl6	22,31	83,796	,776	,793
discl7	22,52	84,047	,680	,803
discl8	22,11	85,319	,684	,803

Annex 7. Reliability analysis of Brand Trust

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,950	9

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
brtrust1	32,46	147,318	,798	,944
brtrust2	31,95	149,814	,821	,943
brtrust3	31,78	150,051	,758	,946
brtrust4	31,93	149,050	,799	,944
brtrust5	32,02	149,248	,796	,944
brtrust6	32,09	147,589	,847	,941
brtrust7	32,57	146,076	,796	,944
brtrust8	32,30	145,099	,836	,942
brtrust9	32,13	152,744	,751	,946

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,913	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
perrep_end1	17,94	32,359	,637	,924
perrep_end2	17,69	31,323	,769	,896
perrep_end3	17,52	30,114	,828	,884
perrep_end4	17,61	30,206	,835	,882
perrep_end5	17,67	30,343	,838	,882

Annex 9. Reliability analysis of Social recognition

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,961	11

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
soc_rec1	39,54	241,739	,753	,959
soc_rec2	39,51	241,272	,765	,959
soc_rec3	39,54	237,160	,866	,956
soc_rec4	39,61	238,409	,800	,958
soc_rec5	40,10	237,152	,835	,956
soc_rec6	40,05	235,878	,839	,956
soc_rec7	39,58	238,747	,774	,958
soc_rec8	39,69	233,883	,846	,956
soc_rec9	39,76	236,931	,832	,957
soc_rec10	39,75	234,197	,853	,956
soc_rec11	39,65	238,969	,785	,958

Annex 10. Reliability analysis of Intention to purchase

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,929	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
int_purc1	12,45	26,461	,820	,911
int_purch2	12,57	25,566	,847	,902
int_purch3	12,45	26,206	,866	,897
int_purch4	12,51	26,149	,801	,918

Annex 11. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on intention to purchase

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,445 ^a	,198	,194	1,51049	1,895
a. Predictors: (Constant), perrep_end					
b. Dependent Variable: int_purch					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	131,667	1	131,667	57,709	<,001 ^b
	Residual	533,888	234	2,282		
	Total	665,555	235			
a. Dependent Variable: int_purch						
b. Predictors: (Constant), perrep_end						

Annex 12. Mediation analysis: Mediating role of brand trust

Model: 4

Y: int_pur

X: symbc

M: brtrust

Sample
Size: 236

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
brtrust

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7508	,5638	1,0119	302,3897	1,0000	234,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,6982	,2022	3,4537	,0007	,2999	1,0966
symbc	,7798	,0448	17,3894	,0000	,6915	,8682

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
int_pur

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,6738	,4540	1,5597	96,8655	2,0000	233,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,8388	,2573	3,2598	,0013	,3318	1,3458
symbc	,3259	,0843	3,8666	,0001	,1599	,4920
brtrust	,4811	,0812	5,9281	,0000	,3212	,6410

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
int_pur

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,6096	,3716	1,7872	138,3949	1,0000	234,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,1747	,2687	4,3721	,0000	,6454	1,7041
symbc	,7012	,0596	11,7641	,0000	,5837	,8186

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Total effect of X on Y

Effect se t p LLCI ULCI
,7012 ,0596 11,7641 ,0000 ,5837 ,8186

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect se t p LLCI ULCI
,3259 ,0843 3,8666 ,0001 ,1599 ,4920

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

Effect BootSE BootLLCI BootULCI
brtrust ,3752 ,0797 ,2172 ,5339

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

----- END MATRIX -----

Annex 13. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived reputation of the endorser on perceived symbolic capital

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,551 ^a	,303	,300	1,22383	1,875
a. Predictors: (Constant), rep_end					
b. Dependent Variable: symbc					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	152,651	1	152,651	101,921	<,001 ^b
	Residual	350,473	234	1,498		
	Total	503,125	235			
a. Dependent Variable: symbc						
b. Predictors: (Constant), rep_end						

Annex 14. Regression Analysis: Impact of perceived symbolic capital on seeking social recognition

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
-------	---	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	---------------

1	,704 ^a	,496	,493	1,09509	1,906
a. Predictors: (Constant), symbc					
b. Dependent Variable: soc_rec					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	275,723	1	275,723	229,916	<,001 ^b
	Residual	280,620	234	1,199		
	Total	556,343	235			
a. Dependent Variable: soc_rec						
b. Predictors: (Constant), symbc						

Annex 15. Regression Analysis: Impact of seeking social recognition on intention to purchase

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,688 ^a	,473	,471	1,22423	1,908
a. Predictors: (Constant), soc_rec					
b. Dependent Variable: int_pur					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	314,852	1	314,852	210,079	<,001 ^b
	Residual	350,703	234	1,499		
	Total	665,555	235			
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur						
b. Predictors: (Constant), soc_rec						

Annex 16. Regression Analysis: Impact of self-disclosure on seeking social recognition

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,501 ^a	,251	,248	1,33433
a. Predictors: (Constant), discl				

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	139,718	1	139,718	78,474	<,001 ^b
	Residual	416,625	234	1,780		
	Total	556,343	235			

a. Dependent Variable: soc_rec
b. Predictors: (Constant), discl

Annex 17. Regression Analysis: Impact of self-disclosure on intention to purchase

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,364 ^a	,132	,129	1,57092	1,927
a. Predictors: (Constant), discl					
b. Dependent Variable: int_pur					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	88,091	1	88,091	35,696	<,001 ^b
	Residual	577,464	234	2,468		
	Total	665,555	235			
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur						
b. Predictors: (Constant), discl						

Annex 18. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of self-disclosure

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 5.0 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model: 1
 Y: int_pur
 X: soc_rec
 W: discl

Sample
 Size: 236

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 int_pur

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,6936	,4811	1,4885	71,7095	3,0000	232,0000	,0000

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,0454	,5518	3,7069	,0003	,9583	3,1325
soc_rec	,5339	,1261	4,2331	,0000	,2854	,7823
discl	-,2815	,1840	-1,5297	,1275	-,6441	,0811
Int_1	,0655	,0356	1,8407	,0669	-,0046	,1357

Product terms key:

Int_1 : soc_rec x discl

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	,0076	3,3883	1,0000	232,0000	,0669

Focal predict: soc_rec (X)

Mod var: discl (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

discl	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
1,7500	,6486	,0771	8,4092	,0000	,4966	,8005
2,8750	,7223	,0604	11,9587	,0000	,6033	,8413
4,5000	,8288	,0774	10,7076	,0000	,6763	,9813

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

soc_rec discl int_pur .

BEGIN DATA.

```

2,1818 1,7500 2,9678
4,0000 1,7500 4,1470
5,6364 1,7500 5,2083
2,1818 2,8750 2,8120
4,0000 2,8750 4,1253
5,6364 2,8750 5,3072
2,1818 4,5000 2,5869
4,0000 4,5000 4,0938
5,6364 4,5000 5,4501

```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

soc_rec WITH int_pur BY discl .

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95,0000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

----- END MATRIX -----

Annex 19. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of social comparison

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 5.0 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model: 1
Y: int_pur
X: soc_rec
W: comp

Sample
Size: 236

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
int_pur

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,6892	,4750	1,5061	69,9715	3,0000	232,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,7289	,8084	2,1386	,0335	,1361	3,3217
soc_rec	,6788	,2102	3,2291	,0014	,2646	1,0930
comp	-,1508	,1930	-,7813	,4354	-,5311	,2295
Int_1	,0218	,0451	,4842	,6287	-,0670	,1106

Product terms key:

Int_1 : soc_rec x comp

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p	
X*W	,0005	,2345	1,0000	232,0000	,6287

Focal predict: soc_rec (X)
Mod var: comp (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

 soc_rec comp int_pur .

BEGIN DATA.

 2,1818 3,2727 2,8722

 4,0000 3,2727 4,2363

 5,6364 3,2727 5,4640

 2,1818 4,4545 2,7503

 4,0000 4,4545 4,1613

 5,6364 4,4545 5,4311

 2,1818 5,4545 2,6471

 4,0000 5,4545 4,0978

 5,6364 5,4545 5,4034

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

 soc_rec WITH int_pur BY comp .

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

 95,0000

----- END MATRIX -----

Annex 20. Moderation Analysis: Moderating role of peer approval

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 5.0 *****

 Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com

 Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model: 1

 Y: int_pur

 X: soc_rec

 W: peerap

Sample

Size: 236

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

 int_pur

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
---	------	-----	---	-----	-----	---

,6913 ,4779 1,4977 70,7959 3,0000 232,0000 ,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	2,2961	,8074	2,8438	,0049	,7053	3,8869	
soc_rec	,5012	,1841	2,7223	,0070	,1385	,8640	
peerap	-,3159	,2279	-1,3860	,1671	-,7650	,1332	
Int_1	,0676	,0460	1,4681	,1434	-,0231	,1582	

Product terms key:

Int_1 : soc_rec x peerap

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	,0048	2,1552	1,0000	232,0000	,1434

Focal predict: soc_rec (X)

Mod var: peerap (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

soc_rec peerap int_pur .

BEGIN DATA.

2,1818 2,8000 2,9179
4,0000 2,8000 4,1731
5,6364 2,8000 5,3028
2,1818 3,8000 2,7493
4,0000 3,8000 4,1274
5,6364 3,8000 5,3677
2,1818 5,0000 2,5471
4,0000 5,0000 4,0726
5,6364 5,0000 5,4455

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

soc_rec WITH int_pur BY peerap .

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95,0000

----- END MATRIX -----

Annex 21. Regression Analysis: Impact of comparison with others on seeking social recognition

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,505 ^a	,255	,251	1,33124	1,793
a. Predictors: (Constant), comp					
b. Dependent Variable: soc_rec					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	141,648	1	141,648	79,928	<,001 ^b
	Residual	414,695	234	1,772		
	Total	556,343	235			
a. Dependent Variable: soc_rec						
b. Predictors: (Constant), comp						

Annex 22. Multiple regression

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,728 ^a	,530	,522	1,16341	1,985
a. Predictors: (Constant), discl, brtrust, peerap, soc_rec					
b. Dependent Variable: int_pur					

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	352,891	4	88,223	65,180	<,001 ^b
	Residual	312,664	231	1,354		
	Total	665,555	235			
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur						
b. Predictors: (Constant), discl, brtrust, peerap, soc_rec						

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,807	,296		2,730	,007		
	peerap	-,054	,089	-,035	-,609	,543	,610	1,640

	brtrust	,367	,070	,332	5,272	<,001	,514	1,947
	soc rec	,519	,076	,474	6,836	<,001	,422	2,367
	discl	,010	,070	,008	,138	,891	,668	1,496
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur								

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	peerap	brtrust	soc rec	discl
1	1	4,760	1,000	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00
	2	,089	7,305	,00	,00	,20	,07	,68
	3	,079	7,739	,44	,06	,06	,09	,20
	4	,042	10,687	,10	,23	,54	,44	,10
	5	,030	12,613	,47	,71	,19	,39	,02
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur								

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1,5019	6,9327	4,1653	1,22542	236
Residual	-4,56146	3,29443	,00000	1,15347	236
Std. Predicted Value	-2,173	2,258	,000	1,000	236
Std. Residual	-3,921	2,832	,000	,991	236
a. Dependent Variable: int_pur					